Developments in Educational Sciences

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Preface

This book includes 26 scientific articles, which are presented in English in a volume of 447 pages. The articles examine a wide range of current issues of educational sciences. It is presented in 26 separate chapters, which covers following main areas:

Working memory and academic learning, geography teaching undergraduate program and ideas, views of prospective science teacher on laboratory usage techniques, quality in preschool education, investigation of preschool children according to fundamental movement skill proficiency and gender, the analysis of the studies on environmental sensitivity, distance teaching of informatics courses, the role of cultural intelligence in multicultural education and teacher competencies, assessment and evaluation practices of social studies teachers, media literacy education in early childhood, art education and its importance in early childhood, father involvement in preschool children’s play, language teachers’ perspectives of learner centredness of their coursebook, pre-school education in turkey: establishment of kindergartens, discursive reconstruction of women’s identity and body through the concept of otherness, a proposal of education - training program based on climate change education in social studies course in turkey, some advantages and disadvantages of learning and teaching English language online for adults of non-native English speakers, a cross-cultural case for topic-constrained discourse analysis: news and narrations, teaching general English language and teaching medical English language to non-native English speakers medical university students: similarities and differences, family in homeland studies textbooks at the early republic period, Mizan newspaper: letters from paris and Geneva publications (1896-1897), an assessment on historical background and education of the course on republic of turkey history of revolution and principles of Ataturk, place-based education and its role in the early childhood education, orienteering as a means to improve spatial perception skills in social studies course.

This book contains current and important studies in education sciences. Each chapter is written by academicians who are experts in the subject. Therefore, we hope that it will be useful to health sciences professionals, students and other experts.

We would like to thank the authors who made important contributions to the publication process of the book and made a good cooperation with us. Especially we owe a debt of gratitude to the St. Kliment Ohridski University Publishing House for this opportunity they gave us and the preparation of the book for publication.

---------The Editors

May 07, 2021
INTRODUCTION

Memory including the functions of performing learning and forming the individual memories is a very important cognitive structure. This cognitive structure includes different components such as sensory memory, short-term memory, working memory and long term memory and each component contributes to a different neurological structure and function (Thorn and Page, 2009). Sensory memory is the structure that keeps the environmental stimuli received by senses momentarily and transmits some part of stimuli to the short-term memory as input (Dehn, 2010). Short-term memory keeps information passively (Archibald and Gathercole, 2006). Working memory has a limited capacity in which information is kept temporarily, coded simultaneously and processed (Alloway et al., 2008; Baddeley and Hitch, 1964; Baddeley, 2007; Chiapper et al., 2000; Deamen and Carpenter, 1992.) Long-term memory is a passive system in which information is stored permanently (Dehn, 2010).

Working memory is necessary in learning and learning requires information to be changed, to interact with long-term memory and also to be stored and processed (Gathercole et al., 2006; Swanson et al., 1990). Working memory is the place where information is formed, changed and processed for semantic coding and it has a critical role in learning; therefore, the capacity and effective operation of working memory determine the rate and scope of learning (Dehn, 2008). In addition to learning, working memory capacity predicts the performance on many cognitive tasks including the academic skills such as class performance, reading, decoding, reading comprehension, math, verbal and written ability of expressing (Engle, 2002).

Children use both the received and the stored information while performing an activity and if the working memory capacity is weak, they have difficulty in using both together. Due to the strong relationships between the working memory deficiencies and many learning disabilities, in case a child has a possible learning disability, the assessment of working memory is quite important (Alloway and Alloway, 2010). Within this context, preparing the intervention programs supporting working memory seems also necessary and important.

Many research studies have confirmed that working memory capacity may be
increased by strategy training (McNamara and Scott, 2001; Minear and Shah, 2006; Klingberg et al., 2002). Compared to the children with a good working memory capacity in early childhood, the children with a weak working memory capacity are observed to have significant difficulties in the situations and tasks including following instructions, completing complex tasks and processing and storing information simultaneously (Kyttala et al., 2019).

Improving the long-term results for all children is related to determining their advantages and disadvantages in early childhood related to academic learning. Within this context, the importance of the role of working memory increases day by day. Determining the working memory capacity of children in early childhood and preparing intervention programs, suitable to their developmental characteristics, increasing their academic success by supporting them to use it more effectively have become important and necessary. In this sense, educators have important duties. In consideration of all this information, it is required to increase the importance given to developing working memory performance by determining the working memory capacity in early childhood and preparing suitable intervention programs to improve the long-term learning outcomes.

From this view, in the study, firstly the definition of working memory and its relationship with academic learning are explained and then the relationship between learning disability and working memory performance and the intervention programs to develop working memory performance are discussed and explained.

WORKING MEMORY

Two English psychologists, Baddeley and Hitch, have developed a multicomponent memory model in which they have developed the idea of working memory within the short-term memory. This concept, also defined as "Working memory", expresses a system related to keeping and processing information during the performance of a series of cognitive tasks such as learning and reasoning (Baddeley, 1986). When this multicomponent memory model of Baddeley and Hitch (1994) was firstly suggested, working memory was composed of three components including phonological cycle, visual-spatial copying subsystems and central management system controlling these two subsystems also called as dependent systems. Central management system has been defined on the top of the hierarchy controlling all the subcomponents and it is considered as the main quality of working memory, and the other components have been defined as the short-term memory components (Baddeley et al., 1999). Then, Baddeley has added another sub component to the system called episodic buffer (Dehn, 2008).

Phonological Cycle:

Phonological cycle which is called an articulatory loop or short-term memory is a storage of verbal information with limited capacity based on speaking (Baddeley, 1986, 2003, 2007). Baddeley has separated the cycle into two subsystems; these are temporary, passive phonological input storage and articulation cycle or an infra-acoustic repeating process related to articulation (repetition by inner voice). Phonological cycle is similar to a voice recorder cycle.
in a certain length. Words or, in other words, the relevant units are stored in the order they are perceived and they disappear quickly unless they are recorded to tape by repetitions or new articulation units are recorded on them. Phonological cycle transforms perceptual stimuli into phonological codes including the acoustic, time-related and sequential characteristics of verbal stimuli (Gilliam & Van Kleeck, 1996). Then these phonological codes are matched with the current codes stored in the long-term memory and they are connected to each other through semantic representations. Keeping verbal information more than two seconds in the verbal short-term memory depends on repetition and the amount of information to be repeated seems to be limited with a two-second loop (Hulme and Mackenzie, 1992). The interval is typically measured with the tasks such number or word and it is generally named as verbal short-term memory interval or verbal working memory interval (Baddeley, 1994). Many researchers have conducted research studies on the verbal short-term memory interval and have found that it is a very strong phenomenon having high prediction relations with cognitive functions, academic learning and daily tasks and daily tasks. Accordingly, it may be said that the individuals with longer phonological interval are better in vocabulary and language learning compared to the ones with shorter phonological interval (Baddeley, 2003).

**Visual Spatial Copying:**

Visual spatial copying is responsible for short-term storage of the visual and spatial information such as recalling objects and their locations. It also plays a key role in the production and change of mental images (Baddeley, 2007). Visual spatial copying, like phonological cycle, includes a passive temporary store and an active repetition process. Extinction in the temporary visual spatial store occurs as fast as the phonological disappear. The rate of forgetting may be defined as a function related to stimulus complexity and the duration of monitoring a stimulus. Renewal of the visual traces seems to be due to eye movement, manipulation of images or a kind of visual reminder (Baddeley, 1986). Copying is a structure mainly designed to protect spatial stimuli. As visual spatial copying codes printed letters and words visually, it has an important function while reading (Baddeley, 1986; Gathercole and Pickering, 2000). Visual spatial storing is separated into two storing subcomponents (Baddeley, 2006; Van Der Sluis et al., 2005). Visual subcomponent is responsible for storing passive visual information (for example shapes and colors of objects), spatial subcomponent is responsible for storing dynamic/active spatial information (for example, information related to movement and direction). Visual subcomponent, also called as visual vocabulary, is a passive system storing visual information as passive visual representations. Contrary to this, a spatial subcomponent also called an internal printer is a dynamic/active spatial repetition system keeping the sequential location and movements. Visual spatial information cannot enter into a phonological store automatically. For this, visual spatial information should be re-coded and they should be transformed into verbal information. This transaction happens when a person expresses the names of the objects and their locations to be recalled verbally (Richardson, 1996). The
designs which are represented visually and difficult to remember can be coded visually. Not being able to form a verbal representation of these kinds of visual materials may make repetition harder and affect its storage/recording (Dehn, 2007). Forgetting rate changes due to the complexity of stimuli and their visibility duration (Baddeley, 2007).

**Central Management System:**

Central manager, which is accepted by many researchers as the center of working memory, is responsible for regulating and coordinating all the cognitive processes related to working memory such as controlling the other two subsystems and forming a limited attention capacity (Baddeley, 2003; Torgesen, 1996). Central manager is like an executive committee controlling attention selecting strategies and integrating the information coming from several resources. As defined by Baddeley (1986, 1994), the central manager which doesn't have its own storage capacity uses all the limited capacity of working memory. Despite its important role, the operation of the central manager is the least understood component of working memory (Richardson, 1996). Many researchers accept that the individual differences in working memory are primarily determined by the central manager processes. In general, the central management system gets involved when information should be stored and processed simultaneously. In general, the main role of the central management system is to coordinate the information coming from a series of different resources and manage the performance in separate and simultaneous tasks (Baddeley, 1996). According to Baddeley (1986), the central management system is not a system only controlling working memory but it is also a system related to the auditing attention, responsible for controlling arranging and monitoring many complex cognitive processes connected with working memory. There are lots of functions of working memory. Baddeley (1986, 1996, 2003, 2006) has specified the functions of the central management system as follows:

- **Selective attention:** is the skill to focus attention on the relevant information while preventing the destructive effects of irrelevant information.
- **Transition:** is the capacity to coordinate multi simultaneous cognitive activity such as time sharing during binary tasks;
- **Selecting and applying plans and flexible strategies**
- **The capacity of allocating data to the other divisions of working memory system**
- **Restoring, keeping and manipulating of the information temporarily activated from long-term memory.**

Automatization has an important place in the central management system. Performing a task without a conscious mental effort is defined as automatization. The automatization of the skills such as speaking or reading fluency is important for the central management system. Automatized/expected skills reduce the load of the central management system and the central management system has the
opportunity to deal with the transactions in the higher level such as reasoning. Until recent periods, performing search in long-term memory and re-putting the episodic events together have been among the main functions referred to by the central management system. But it draws attention that these types of functions don't comply with the central manager which doesn't have a specific storage area. For this reason, to explain the effect of long-term memory on the content of working memory, Baddeley (2000, 2006) has added a fourth subcomponent to his model named as interval buffer or episodic buffer.

**Episodic buffer:**

It is a subcomponent with limited capacity, it is accessible consciously, it can interact with long term memory to form integrated representations based on new information (Pickering and Gathercole, 2004). Despite all these, the three-component model, including phonological loop, visual-spatial copying and central executive, continues to be the basis (Alloway and Alloway, 2010; Jerman et al., 2012; Peng and Douglas, 2015).

**WORKING MEMORY AND ACADEMIC SKILLS**

Working memory is necessary in learning and learning requires information to be changed, to interact with long-term memory and also to be stored and processed (Gathercole et al., 2006; Swanson et al., 1990). Working memory is the place where information is formed, changed and processed for semantic coding and it has a critical role in learning; therefore, the capacity and effective operation of working memory determine the rate and scope of learning (Dehn, 2008). In addition to learning, working memory capacity predicts the performance on many cognitive tasks including the academic skills such as class performance, reading, decoding, reading comprehension, math, verbal and written ability of expressing (Engle, 2002). The current working memory capacity slows down when working memory is overloaded or attention is interrupted and, therefore, learning decreases. For the ones with weak working memory functions or capacity, the complex or intense working memory requirements caused by class teaching and learning activities may make learning very difficult (Alloway et al., 2005).

Little children mostly. Children, generally at the age of 7-11, give priority to verbal working memory data when they first learn reading and then start to use language effectively. Before that they use visual-spatial data as they don't use verbal repetition strategies. Although working memory components develop rapidly in childhood, the individual differences existing from early childhood are important and they should be monitored (Alloway, 2007). At the beginning of kindergarten, when children are compared with the ones with better working memory skills, it has been observed that the children with weak working memory skills have significant difficulties in the situations and tasks including following instructions, completing complex tasks and processing and storing information simultaneously (Kyttala et al., 2019).

Based on the current information, it has been observed that working memory skills form an important basis in math learning and reading. For this reason, it has
been emphasized that the children with better working memory capacity at the beginning of education tend to have better academic success in the following year. Many research studies using urban data have demonstrated that working memory capacity increases rapidly in childhood and both qualitative and quantitative changes are observed in the capacity. Working memory skills develop at a higher level in the children who start school earlier and increasing information related to working memory is considered to be important for education practices (Kyttala et al., 2019). The children with a weak working memory capacity may have difficulty to keep in mind what will be the next after what they are doing now (Baddeley, 2010). Working memory has an important role in the development of language skills, reading, reading comprehension, mother tongue and second language learning and especially the role of phonological loop is much more significant in that period (Akoğlu, 2012; Baddaleyn, 1996). Similarly, it has been stated that the basic math skills such as acquisition of number concept, being able to perform arithmetic operations, problem solving and geometry are related to working memory at a high level and math deficiencies are mostly caused by insufficient working memory performance (De Weerdt et al., 2012; Holmes and Adams, 2006; Kroesbergen et al., 2012).

**Working Memory and Verbal Language**

In understanding verbal language, working memory has a critical role in the flow of subsequent words, building and integrating ideas (Moser et al., 2007). Verbal language development in little children seems to be directly associated with the impaired functioning of phonological short-term memory (Baddeley, 1996). Especially learning words is directly related to phonological short-term memory capacity (Leonard et al., 2007). While understanding and speaking language, many simultaneous memory processes should be performed such as storing, coding and retrieving of words and sentences (Dehn, 2008; Gathercole et al., 2004). Verbal language production, which is considered to be a completely automatic process, needs working memory in especially conceptualization and sentence formation stages (Hartsuiker and Barkuysen, 2006). It is considered that the difficulties experienced in understanding spoken language are caused by the insufficiency in working memory rather than the failure in acquiring critical language structures (Moser et al., 2007). Developmental delays and impairments in language are generally considered to be due to a limited capacity or functional disorder in verbal working memory (Dehn, 2010).

**Working Memory and Reading**

The studies conducted to determine the relationship between working memory performance and reading skills have stated that there are strong relationships between working memory and reading skills (Smith-Spark and Fisk, 2007; Swanson and Jerman, 2007). Reading skills are typically separated into two main categories: Reading decoding and reading comprehension, which is also known as basic reading skills.

**Reading decoding** is mainly related to phonological short-term memory and verbal working memory (Swanson et al., 2006; Swanson and Jerman, 2007).
Phonological processing including phonemic awareness is considered to be the basis of reading decoding (Kamhi and Pollock, 2005). Phonological process also needs visual processing to transform written words to phonemes. As effective use of phonological short-term memory depends on the articulation rate, the children with articulation difficulties are expected to have reading difficulties (Baddeley, 1986). As the individual starts reading the basic reading decoding becomes automatic and, therefore, short-term memory and working memory play a less critical role in that process and this brings long-term memory to the forefront.

**Reading comprehension** is mainly related to verbal working memory, executive working memory and long-term memory (Swanson et al., 2006; Swanson and Jerman, 2007). A reader should form meaning using complex processes and store the text at the same time to understand the text he/she reads (De Beni et al., 2007). As the reader continues to read the text, working memory stores the core of the information obtained from one or more sentences until a semantic-based representation of the text content is formed, which is called a mental model. Understanding the text includes several skills including working memory. These are decoding words separately and reach their meanings; transforming word meaning into bigger semantic units; building sentence representations; associating information between sentences; determining the inconsistencies among the parts of a text; focusing on main themes; forming visual images; forming new information representations; making reasonable inferences based on the previous information; monitoring the comprehension of a text as reading continues; integrating information from different parts of a text and providing the integration of information with the relevant long-term memory representations. These processes form a heavy load for both storing and processing functions of working memory. (Dehn,2007).

Reading comprehension is based on working memory in many terms. While continuing to make sense out of the following text, it is required to keep the currently read information in working memory. Also, readers should read words correctly (Kyattala et al., 2019). That the information made out of a text is integrated in harmony is the core of comprehension. This integration cannot be performed without a sufficiently operating working memory (Cain, 2006). According to Macizo and Bajo (2009), reading comprehension is a difficult activity requiring the use of working memory and happening at the cognitive level. To perform this process and keep important information during this process, working memory is always needed either at word or sentence or text level (Dehn,2008). The strength of the relationship between working memory capacity and reading comprehension increases from preschool period to formal education period (Seigneuric & Ehrlich, 2005). The difference in working memory capacity may affect the reading comprehension success significantly, especially when the text is difficult or complex (Linderholm and Van Den Broek, 2002; Swanson, 1999).

**Working Memory and Written Language**

Written language which is a complex cognitive activity uses, among the working memory components, executive working memory and also visual-spatial component and especially verbal component (Kellogg, 1996; Olive, 2004). Written
language needs working memory capacity intensely in basic writing processes such as spelling and transcription. (Swanson and Berninger, 1996). Moreover, even if an individual has advanced written language skills, written expression will always put comprehensive requests on working memory. Even the punctuation, spelling and transcription processes are automatized, the processes such as forming ideas are never automatized completely. Compared to the studies researching the relationship between working memory and reading and math, the studies researching the relationship between working memory and written language are less in number (Swanson and Siegel, 2001). Despite limited research, there is a general approach that written language production is almost completely dependent on working memory, mainly on verbal and executive working memory (Dehn, 2011).

**Working Memory and Math**

Educational and psychological research has demonstrated the strong relationships between math performance and working memory (Hutton and Towse, 2001; Swanson and Beebe-Frankenberger, 2004; LeBlanc and Weber-Russell, 1996). Math skills are generally separated into two groups: Basic arithmetic calculation and math problem solving. At varying degrees, both math skills require three working memory components (Brainerd, 1983). Working memory components are needed mostly in the first stage of math skills acquisition and as skills and knowledge increase, in other words, one becomes skilled, the load on working memory decreases (Imbo and Vandierendonck, 2007). Except basic arithmetic (single digit addition and subtraction), most of the math calculation includes a series of stages in which each part is operated and stored until the next step in a calculation is completed (Tronsky, 2005). According to Swanson (2006), the working memory component which predicts math calculations best is the visual-spatial recording area (Gathercole and Pickering, 2000). Compared to the basic math calculations, strategy-based problem solving puts more load on working memory. The first stage of solving math story problems requires verbal comprehension, vocabulary, sentences and storing sentences temporarily. To define or solve mathematical word or story:

- It is required that the coming information are recorded,
- Information is integrated,
- Mathematical skills or procedure are taken from long term stores,
- Matching the correct algorithm with the available problem
- Updating working memory content
- Performing online mathematical calculations
- Monitoring the calculation process and assessing the solution (Swanson and Beebe-Frankenberger, 2004).

According to Swanson (2006) central executive is the working memory component which predicts mathematical problem solving best. In the preschool period, visual-spatial models have a greater role in arithmetical mental models rather than verbal and abstract models. As mathematical operations become more verbal and abstract, children become more dependent on verbal and executive working memory. When children are eight, they seem to trust both visual-spatial and verbal
working memory during mathematical calculation (Holmes and Adams, 2006; Rasmussen and Bisanz, 2005). When numbers are required to be stored temporarily during a multi-step procedure, verbal working memory storage is the part which operates most. Wilson and Swanson (2001) have concluded that verbal working memory is a better predictor of mathematical calculation compared to visual-spatial working memory. Considering that math requires to process and store numeric and visual information simultaneously, executive working memory has an essential role in all kinds of mathematical calculation and reasoning tasks (Andersson and Lyxell, 2007; Imbo and Vandierendonck, 2007). It is responsible for coordinating, monitoring and sorting all the processing steps included in mathematical procedures. Especially, it is required to predict, count, continue the order of information, follow up the information in multi-step procedures and select and apply problem solving strategies (Imbo et al., 2007). All sides of executive working memory (Swanson and Siegel, 2001) seems to have significant contributions to mathematical problem solving performance. Good problem solvers can prevent irrelevant information in a problem better (Bull and Espy, 2006).

The findings obtained in a study in which the relationship between the first reading and writing and mathematical skills of the children at the age five-six attending preschool education and working memory has been examined have revealed that there is a moderate and high correlation between working memory and the first reading, writing and mathematical skills of the children (Berg, 2008). Also, it has been revealed in another study that working memory has predicted learning at a higher level compared to intelligence sections (Alloway and Alloway, 2010).

WORKING MEMORY AND LEARNING DIFFICULTIES

It has been emphasized that it is more possible for the children with learning disability to have deficiencies in many cognitive process skills (Masoura, 2006). The studies conducted have emphasized that the children with low verbal and central working memory performance come to the forefront among all these learning disabilities (Swanson and Berninger, 1996). In another result in the literature, it has been revealed that the children with learning disabilities in literacy and mathematics fields have bad performance in all components of working memory (Pickering and Gathercole, 2004; Swanson et al., 1990; Henry, 2001). It is considered that the working memory deficiencies of the children with learning disabilities are caused by the neurobiological limitations in working memory and ineffective use of working memory resources (Swanson, 2000). Due to the strong relationships between the working memory deficiencies and many learning disabilities, in case a child has a possible learning disability, the assessment of working memory is quite important. Certainly, working memory scores are not enough for a diagnosis on their own. There is also another cognitive difficulty observed together with this in the individuals with learning disability. Türkoğlu et al. (2019) have emphasized as a result of the literature review they have performed that working memory deficiency is the main reason in learning disability. Also, it has been emphasized that dyslexia is rather related to phonological loop deficiency and dyscalculia is rather related to
visual-spatial recording deficiency. Within this context, working memory deficiency should be assessed as a result of learning failure rather than the original reason of the problem experienced (Torgesen, 2001).

**Verbal Language Disabilities:** Verbal language disability is the situation in which a child has a delay in language development although he/she has enough development in the other cognitive fields. The previous research has revealed that the individuals with language disorders have a low performance in verbal working memory tasks, especially in the tasks including phonological processing. In general, it has been observed that the children with language disorder have a limited capacity of processing and recalling verbal information (Baddeley, 2003; Gutierrez et al., 2004; Gill et al., 2003).

**Reading Disabilities:** The children with reading disabilities have significant problems in storing and processing information simultaneously, which is the distinctive characteristics of executive working memory (McCallum et al, 2006). Swanson (1987) has stated that the individuals failing at establishing visual-verbal connections, which is a process mediated by working memory, have excessive dependent visual and verbal coding systems and they prefer visual coding of words. But he states that this preference which establishes excessive reliance towards visual coding will limit the progress in the development of reading. Although working memory deficiencies have not yet been determined as a reason for reading disability, it is obvious that working memory has a matchless and significant contribution for reading (McCallum et al, 2006). Based on the previous studies, working memory is related to both word decoding skills and reading comprehension, and weak decoding skills generally cause difficulties in reading comprehension (Kyattala et al., 2019). Ergül and Demirtaş (2019) have found that the children who have difficulty in reading words also have difficulties in the basic skills affecting reading success (phonetic awareness, rapid naming, working memory).

**Mathematical Disabilities:** About 3-6% of the school-age children have mathematical disabilities and more children struggle with mathematics. Empirical research has frequently emphasized working memory about the children with mathematical disability (Passolunghi and Siegel, 2004). Compared to their peers at the same age, it has been observed that the children with a certain mathematical disability has limitations in verbal working memory, visual-spatial working memory, executive working memory and, in general, in all the working memory (Swanson and Sachse-Lee, 2001). Some researches (Siegel and Ryan, 1989) have found that the children with mathematical disabilities have worse performance in visual working memory compared to verbal working memory and the other research have reported that both verbal and visual-spatial working memory have affected mathematical performance. In addition, executive working memory is affected more frequently than verbal working memory or visual-spatial working memory (Andersson and Lyxell, 2007; Holmes and Adams, 2006). Çakır (2019) has also revealed that the children with low success in early mathematical skills have a significantly lower performance in all the working memory subdimensions, except for visual short-term memory, compared to their peers who have high success.
Assessment of Learning Disabilities

The children with learning disabilities tend to have a unique working memory deficiency (Siegel & Ryan, 1989; Swanson et al., 2006). For this reason, a working memory profile may help to make distinctions among certain learning disabilities, at least to some degree. For example, the children with reading disability generally have a performance in verbal short term working memory tasks far below the normal values, the children with mathematical disabilities mainly have difficulties in visual-spatial and application fields but they may also have difficulties in some verbal working memory tasks especially including counting (Van Der Sluis et al., 2005). The children with both reading and mathematical disabilities have low scores in both verbal and visual-spatial tasks and they also have deficiencies in executive working memory (Siegel and Ryan, 1989; De Weerdt et al., 2013). Working memory assessments have the potential to determine the children with low success risk in the future (Gathercole and Pickering, 2001). It should be kept in mind when learning occurs in the children with learning disabilities or when this process is assessed that the deficiency in skill fluency or in automaticity may be caused by working memory deficiency. In the first stages of skill development, the load on the working memory is higher. As children become more skillful, skills and procedures become more automatic and the load on working memory decreases (Richardson, 1996). Whatever the working memory capacity of a child is, teaching basic skills with a high level of expertise is very important, so automatically is provided and working memory may focus on higher level processing.

WORKING MEMORY AND INTERVENTIONS

Almost all the effective interventions are composed of teaching the cognitive strategies and reminders designed to increase working memory performance by using skills more effectively. The interventions for the cognitive functions and working memory functions deficiencies have been mostly researched and developed in neuropsychology, educational psychology and special education (Dehn, 2007). Cognitive psychologists have focused on the research about the countervailing strategies in the early period for working memory deficiencies. This group has been followed by the educational psychologists and special education experts with their research studies on how strategic processing and effective teaching applications can develop coding and retrieving information. Recently, neuroscientists have started to use neuro-imaging technology to find out various brain processes related to learning and neuropsychologists have developed new treatments for the working memory deficiencies related to DEHB (Klingberg et al., 2002; Eslinger, 2002).

The necessity of the early intervention training is also consistent with early development and brain based research. Similar to the academic interventions, some working memory interventions are more effective in earlier ages (National Reading Panel, 2000). Sense of self of the children with reading disabilities due to their academic failure and their interest towards school decrease. For this reason, early diagnosis is important (Tercan et al., 2012). Memory interventions, especially the ones with curative nature, should be performed before the maturing of certain brain regions. Olesen et al. (2004) have found that working memory brain activity has
increased after working memory training. Change is harder after neural structures are established and myelination is completed. For most memory processes, early childhood and elementary school years have critical importance but high level cognitive processes including executive functions continue to develop during adolescence. Many individuals gain some short-term memory and working memory strategies during the development process but some of them do not or cannot use strategies consistently. Many research studies have confirmed that working memory capacity may be increased by strategy training (McNamara and Scott, 2001; Minear and Shah, 2006; Klingberg et al., 2002). Strategies are separated into two main types: rote-based and relational. **Rote-based strategies** include reproducing information in the way it is obtained. **Relational strategies** include transformation of information through recording, arranging or reconstructing (Levin and Levin, 1990).

Working memory interventions will be beneficial for most individuals but it is almost compulsory mainly for little children, children with learning disability, children with cognitive disability, children with working memory loss and the individuals with inefficient working memory performance or weak academic performance. It is known that working memory predicts almost all academic learning (Bull and Espy, 2006). For this reason, working memory interventions are very suitable for education environments. Traditionally, an obvious aim of working memory interventions is to increase the short-term information storage capacity. In addition, it may be said that increasing the amount of information coded in long-term memory is an implicit aim. Accordingly, the success of the working memory interventions may be explained by long-term retention as well as short-term retention (Gathercole et al., 2006). Using complex strategies for the individuals with impaired working memory capacity forms a barrier for the process, for this reason, it is important to use simple strategies. Because the complex or high level strategies require more working memory resources during its practice (Dehn, 2007).

Most of the evidence-based interventions include teaching of strategies. Strategies are not curative or countervailing on their own, it depends on how they are used. For example, if the aim of using a strategy is only to cure an impaired working memory component, this is considered to be a curative strategy. As the aim of the most strategies is to increase efficiency, they are countervailing more than being curative. Strategy education may be added to class education or it may be conducted individually (Kar et al., 1993). In general, the children with low working memory capacity are slower in learning strategies than the children with higher working memory capacity but they are expected to make the highest use of the education in working memory strategies (Turley et al., 2003). Therefore, before the effective intervention, the working memory capacity of children should be assessed and the strategies that will not put excessive load on the working memory of them. Also, considering their multi and mutual relationships with the other memory systems of working memory, cognitive processes and academic skills, it should be kept in mind that the development of the relevant cognitive processes and academic skills should be assessed in the determination of the efficiency of an intervention (Dehn, 2010).
Working memory interventions may be categorized as curative, countervailing or both curative and countervailing. Curative interventions address weak areas directly and they have the aim of correcting a deficiency in working memory. Despite the limited success of the curative interventions, some recent studies have brought promising results. Olesen et al. (2004) have revealed in an intervention study designed to cure working memory that the brain activity in the relevant field has also increased as well as the data on the development of working memory performance. Countervailing approaches require the methods focusing strong sides by skipping deficiency processes (Glisky and Glisky, 2002). The countervailing approaches typically include strategy training and they also include external support, arrangements to achieve the aim or the other similar methods and the applications decreasing the requests from working memory and changing the learning environment. Considering the participation of several cognitive processes, countervailing interventions may be successful because they tend to have a wide base and focus on higher processes (Levine et al., 2000). The aim in the combined interventions defined to be both curative and countervailing is to focus on increasing memory usage rather than increasing memory capacity (Lee and Riccio, 2005). The general aim of the combined approach is to use the current working memory skills more effectively (Work and Choi, 2005). The success of an intervention is related to how it is suitable for the needs, academic expectations of children and environmental requests (Feifer and DeFina, 2000).

Working memory interventions are explained briefly as follows:

**Verbal Working Memory Interventions** are composed of detailed rehearsal including associating new information with the relevant current information (Davies, 1980), meaningful rehearsal including the formation of a story in which words to be recalled are placed in order (Turley-Ames and Whitfield, 2003) and clustering/grouping methods including the processes matching, categorization, grouping or association of different components in units processed and recalled as a whole.

**Visual-Spatial Working Memory Interventions** are mainly composed of the visual reminders tested according to time. As younger children use visual storage more effectively compared to older children and adults, they may be more inclined to education in advanced visual interventions (Hitch, 1990). This kind of education may be beneficial especially for the ones with low visual-spatial and executive working memory. In fact, visual reminders transform verbal information to visual-spatial information. (Gathercole and Baddeley, 1993).

**Executive Working Memory Interventions**; although most of the interventions for the other working memory components become useful also for central executive components, the interventions designed specifically for executive working memory are limited in number (Gathercole and Baddeley, 1993).

**Other Interventions**; a few other interventions have been suggested especially for preschool children. For example, Mann (1984) has suggested to name letters and objects, repeat verbal sentences, listen to stories and nursery rhymes. Nursery rhymes are considered especially useful as they emphasize the phonological
structure of language. Rhyme plays may also develop phonological awareness and skills. (Montgomery, 1996).

**CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

Based on the current information, it has been observed that working memory capacity forms an important basis in math learning and reading-writing. It has been confirmed that the children with better working memory at the beginning of formal education may have better academic success in the following years. The development in all the components of working memory has a critical importance for language learning, literacy development and math success. Working memory which is the strongest predictor of academic learning is an effective tool to adapt education. For this reason, knowing the working memory capacity of each child is necessary and important. Working memory requires that children can perform the tasks related to academic or daily class routines, participate in and concentrate on education, solve problems and prevent distracting behavior. Many recent research studies have demonstrated that working memory capacity increases rapidly in childhood and both qualitative and quantitative changes may occur with effective interventions performed related to capacity.

As working memory is the predictor of math learning types, the planned educational interventions should be performed in early childhood. It is known that the education interventions performed for working memory have curative results for the children with difficulty in academic performance or daily life skills. Within this context, elementary school educators also have important duties. It is very valuable that elementary school teachers are aware of the effective role of working memory in school success and they plan an education program in accordance with this. Although working memory competence is not enough for the definition about learning disability on its one, it is considered as an effective tool. In consideration of all this information, it is important to develop education policies and programs for developing working memory performance by determining the working memory capacity in early childhood and preparing suitable intervention programs to improve the long-term learning outcomes.

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Chapter 2

2018 Geography Teaching Undergraduate Program and Ideas

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INTRODUCTION

Curriculum; is a syllabus that covers the course or subjects that are required to be taught in order to finish a school. Education programs are necessary since primary education and have an important role in the education and training of students. Therefore, undergraduate education programs, which are higher education based on at least eight semesters (4 years) based on secondary education, are extremely important in terms of education as they cover the courses that must be learned in order to specialize in a field.

One of the undergraduate programs that gain expertise is the "Geography Teaching" undergraduate program. It is extremely important that this program covers the requirements of the field of science and responds to its needs, in terms of teaching the field of science effectively and permanently. Because the sustainability of the stability and potential in the social, cultural, economic and political field of countries depend on the good perception and knowledge of geography.

In addition, Geography enables us to realize the resources we have, what these resources do, where they can be used, and what value they are for our future. If we have realized a value of sources, we can produce effective solutions for the future of environment and human. The professional group that will provide this information to individuals is geography teachers. For this reason, the Geography Departments of Education Faculties teach the field knowledge of geography and how to transform this knowledge into a sustainable benefit by establishing a relationship with the real world, on the other hand, it also gives them a well academic stance and correct communication skills.

In this context, taking into account the purpose of the study and the objectives of the branch of science, the "2018 Geography Teaching Undergraduate Program (2018 GTUP)" is evaluated with an approach that Turkey and our universities have weaknesses in the context of internationalization and how they can be strengthened.
2018 GEOGRAPHY TEACHING UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAM

The 2018 Geography Teaching undergraduate program (2018 GTUP), came into effect in the Faculties of Education in 2018. However, in 2020, it was canceled again by Higher Education Institution (HEI) and the task of preparing the Curriculum under certain conditions was given to the Education Faculties. This decision is considered to be extremely accurate and correct. Because when 2018 GTUP is examined; is seen that the field-specific courses in the program are extremely low/few and insufficient in terms of both number and credit. As a matter of fact, there are 28 Field Education Courses (FEC), 22 Vocational Knowledge Courses (VKC) and 12 General Culture Courses (GCC) in the program for 4 years (Table 1).

In addition to the low number of field-specific (FEC-FE/Field Education) courses in the program, there are some mistakes and deficiencies related to these courses. It is possible to explain them as follows:

1. There are some irregularities in the program that do not fit the systematic structure of geography. As is known, the science of geography deals with nature and human activities. In this context, regardless of the level of geography, firstly, nature-related issues, then human and economic geography are covered. In other words, first place / natural environment is examined in geography, and then comments / analysis are made by bringing human and human activities. Although this structure stated in the Geography Programs of Education Faculties before 2018 GTUP is correct, in the 2018 GTUP, contrary to the systematic of the branch of science, "Human Geography 1" is included in the first semester.

Teaching information about people and their activities without learning about nature is erroneous in terms of teaching approach and does not comply with the systematic of geography. For this reason, it is more appropriate to include Introduction to Human Geography courses together with basic Physical Geography courses such as Introduction to Physical Geography, Climatology and Geomorphology in the 1st semester.

In addition, in 2018 GTUP, there are no basic courses such as Geomorphology, Climatology, Plant Geography, Soil Geography, Hydrography, Population Geography, Settlement Geography, Agricultural Geography, Industrial Geography, which are the basic courses of the Geography branch. Instead of these courses, there are courses such as Physical Geography 1-2, Human Geography 1-2 and Economic Geography 1-2, and it is not possible to give sufficient knowledge and gains with these courses.

2. In the 2018 GTUP, the course hours including the field information are inadequate. However, in the curriculum of the Education Faculties before the 2018 GTUP, there are both basic courses and the hours of these courses are more adequate than the 2018 GTUP program. The curriculum of Dokuz Eylul University Buca Faculty of Education for the 2012-2013 academic year is given below to set an example for this situation. The seriousness of the situation will be understood more clearly when the courses taken in the first and second semesters of the first year of both programs are compared (Table 2).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Semester</th>
<th>2. Semester</th>
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<td><strong>T</strong></td>
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<td>VKC</td>
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<td>GCC</td>
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<td>GCC</td>
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<td>GCC</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>GCC</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Geography Introduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Map Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Human Geography 1</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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<th>3. Semester</th>
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<td>VKC</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GCC</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Optional 1/ Elective 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Geography Learning and Teaching Approaches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Geographic Information Systems 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Physical Geography 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Political Geography</td>
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<tr>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Economic Geography 2</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>Content Knowledge/Field</strong></td>
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<td>VKC</td>
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<tr>
<td>VKC</td>
<td>2 0 2 3</td>
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<td>VKC</td>
<td>2 0 2 4</td>
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<tr>
<td>GCC</td>
<td>2 0 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Optional 3/Elective 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Continents and Countries Geography 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Turkey's Human and Economic Geography</td>
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<tr>
<td>VKC</td>
<td>2 6 5 15</td>
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<tr>
<td>VKC</td>
<td>2 0 2 3</td>
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<tr>
<td>VKC</td>
<td>2 0 2 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Optional 5/Elective 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Environmental Problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Content Knowledge: 5 hours</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Dokuz Eylul University Buca Faculty of Education Department of Geography Teaching 2012-2013 1st and 2nd semesters (Senate decision dated 28/08/2012 and numbered 404/07) and the 1st and 2nd semesters of 2018 GTUP Comparison of Lessons.

<table>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K</td>
<td>AKTS</td>
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<tr>
<td>COĞ1001</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Geography Introduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COĞ1009</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Map Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COĞ1011</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Human Geography I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COĞ1013</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>Fundamentals of Geomorphology I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COĞ1015</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Map Information and Cartography I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COĞ1017</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>Climatology I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge/Field Information: 18 Hours</td>
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</table>

2. Semester-2012 Program

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>3</th>
<th>FEC</th>
<th>Economic Geography I</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>3</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>COĞ 1002</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Physical Geography I</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COĞ 1010</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Human Geography 2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COĞ 1012</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>FEC</td>
<td>Map Knowledge and Cartography II</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COĞ 1017</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Climatology II</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Field Information: 18 Hours</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td>Field Information: 8 Hours</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. The presence of Physical Geography 1-2, Human Geography 1-2 and Economic Geography 1-2 courses in the 2018 GTUP means to ignore the specialization of fields. For example, for the Physical Geography 1 course, a lecturer whose field of specialization is Geomorphology must also teach Climatology. Or, this course should be given by two different lecturers during the semester, which is neither practical nor convenient in terms of applicability.

4. In 2018 GTUP, the "Field Studies" course takes place in the 4th semester which is early. This means going to the field without acquiring basic knowledge in the field, which means the equivalent of preventing getting enough efficiency from field studies.

5. The contents of the "Geography Learning and Teaching Approaches", "Geography Teaching 1", "Geography Teaching 2" and "Geography Teaching Programs" are similar to each other, in which case unnecessary repetitions will be made as the lessons are taught. In addition, these courses are included in field knowledge (FEC) courses. This is not a scientifically correct approach. Because the specified courses are vocational knowledge (VKC) courses.

6. In 2018 GTUP, there are duplications in the content of the courses. For example, GIS is both included as a separate course and included in the Map Information course. The Field Study / Spatial Analysis of the Near Environment courses are an example too.

7. Course contents are far from meeting the learning outcome in the Ministry of Education Teaching Curriculum. For example, in the 9th grade of Ministry of Education «9.1.11.» it is necessary to teach climate elements for its learning outcome. However, there is no content called climatic elements in the Climatology section of Physical Geography 1 course.

«9.1.11. Explain the formation and distribution of climatic elements. a) Basic concepts of climatic elements and factors affecting climate elements are included. b) The effects of climate elements on daily life are given through examples. c) Tables and graphs are drawn using the data of the climatic elements in the place of residence and associated with daily life. »

8. Total credit is 240 AKTS to graduate from the undergraduate program. But it is examined the program in terms of credit distribution of the student for FE is quite low for the validity of the current program (Table 3).
Table 3: Total credits, hours and percentages of courses in the 2018

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<th>K</th>
<th>AKTS</th>
<th>Hour</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VKC Professional Information</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GCC General Culture</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEC Field Training/Education</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Geography Teaching Undergraduate Program

9. The implementation of 2018 GTUP in this form results in the requirement of scientific preparation for the education faculty students who want to get postgraduate education and those who want to do graduate education in pure geography. However, today, graduate education can be sustained in departments without the need for scientific preparation. While there is no barrier for the graduates of the Faculty of Literature geography departments to receive postgraduate education in their field education. Education graduates of education faculties are subjected to scientific preparation condition in social sciences institutions. This creates an unfair situation between department and education graduates.

10. With the 2018 GTUP, the TFKT (Teacher Field Knowledge Test) in the KPSS Exam and the graduate exams, the students graduated the Faculty of Education Department of Geography Education have no chance of competing and being successful according to the students who graduated from the Faculty of Science and Literature. As it is known, the source of teacher training is not only Education Faculties. There are also teachers who graduated from their departments had an opportunity for being a teacher by taking formation training. With the implementation of the 2018 GTUP, it is clear that there will be a significant difference between these two sources in terms of field knowledge. As stated before, the program change will negatively affect the teacher training quality of Education Faculties.

11. One of the issues that universities attach great importance to is internationalization. At this point, problems have started to occur in the last two years regarding course equivalence in Erasmus and Mevlana student exchange programs, and this problem may become even more serious. The problem will not only be limited to the equivalence of the course, but the students will be faced with inadequate field knowledge at the universities they attend. On the other hand, the difficulty of our students in terms of field knowledge in the countries they go to will not make a good impression about Turkey's geography education. Therefore, it may cause negativity in bilateral cooperation. In addition, the opportunity to employ qualified graduate students in international projects will decrease, so difficulties will arise in competing with scientifically developed countries.
RESULT

Geography makes it possible for individuals to know the natural and human environment they live in, to use it sustainably and correctly, to see the problems in these environments and to produce the right solutions for them. The person who will give this information to individuals is geography teachers. For this reason, training of qualified teachers in education faculties is necessary for nature and humanity in particular in the country and in the world in general. For this reason, sufficient field courses in Education Faculties are necessary for teachers with sufficient content knowledge and for the new generations to be trained by these teachers.

When considered from this point of view, it is seen that it is not possible to train qualified teachers with sufficient content knowledge due to the reduced field courses in Geography Education Departments of Education Faculties with 2018 GTUP, which is sad when considering future generations and the Geography Education Program needs to be reviewed. Therefore, in 2020, by canceling the decision of the Higher Education General Assembly dated 12/04/2018;

a) Considering the grouping of course categories as Field Education Courses, Teaching Profession Courses and General Culture Courses;

b) Also paying attention to the order in this grouping regarding the number of courses, course hours / credits and density,

The decision to authorize the relevant boards of higher education institutions, namely the Faculties of Education, in determining the courses, curricula and credits in teaching programs is an extremely positive and important development, and it is pleasing for the Education Faculties and therefore Geography.

It is thought that with the new curriculum to be prepared by the Departments of Geography Education of Education Faculties, the negativities in the 2018 Program will be minimized and again, qualified teachers will be trained in their fields. This is extremely important and pleasing in terms of raising qualified individuals of Turkey.

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Chapter 3

Views of Prospective Science Teacher on Laboratory Usage Techniques

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INTRODUCTION

The aim of the science education is to help students understand the natural world; its content, process or activities. These activities are generally carried out in the laboratory. Laboratories have been purported to promote aims related to science education. Laboratories were introduced in the late 1800s and can be defined as environments where scientific activities or experiments are conducted and equipped with equipments and tools. Laboratory activities are used in many natural science disciplines and usage of laboratory in science education is still important and closely related to science teaching learning. (Hofstein & Lunetta, 2004; National Research Council, 2006; Tobin, 1990; Hofstein & Mamlok-Naaman, 2007; Lunetta, 1998; Hofstein & Lunetta, 1982).

Laboratory usage is expressed to facilitate students’ understanding of various aspects related to scientific inquiry (Lawson, 1995; Lazarowitz & Tamir, 1995; Tobin, Tippins & Gallard, 1995). The main objective of laboratory work is to help students to make links “domain of real objects and observable things” and domain of ideas.

Figure 1. Main aim of the laboratory work (Psillos & Niedderer, 2002: 9)

Figure 1 illustrated the relation between two domains (Psillos & Niedderer, 2002). Moreover, laboratory experiences provide motivation, creates opportunities for critical thinking, science’s content and role of scientists and improve skills (Trowbridge & Bybee, 1990). Shulman and Tamir, in the Second Handbook of Research on Teaching (Travers, ed., 1973), listed five groups of objectives that may be achieved through the use of the laboratory in science classes:
1. skills-manipulative, inquiry, investigative, organizational, communicative
2. concepts-for example, hypothesis, theoretical model, taxonomic category
3. cognitive abilities - critical thinking, problem solving, application, analysis, synthesis
4. understanding the nature of science - scientific enterprise, scientists and how
they work, existence of a multiplicity of scientific methods, interrelationships between science and technology and among the various disciplines of science.

5. attitudes—example, curiosity, interest, risk taking, objectivity, precision, confidence, perseverance, satisfaction, responsibility, consensus, collaboration, and liking science (1973, p.1119).

Teacher education programmes are theoretical and needs to link theory and practice (Darling-Hammond & Baratz-Snowden 2005; Darling-Hammond et al. 2005). Many problems were noted in the literature with instruction in science laboratory such as inefficient physical setting, the lack of materials, teachers’ insufficient information about lab materials and the lack of understanding about how to use laboratory and laboratory accidents. These are all related to laboratory usage techniques (Aydoğdu & Yardımcı, 2013; Büyük et. al., 2010). Meanwhile, laboratory accidents occur with dismaying regularity. For example, in 2005 approximately 10000 laboratory accidents were reported. Accident prevention is critical (Coghlan, 2008). In this context, teacher education programmes are important and prospective science teachers need to be prepared for making laboratory activities by using laboratory usage techniques. Aim of the research is to determine prospective science teachers’ views on laboratory usage techniques.

**METHOD**

The qualitative research method was used in the study to determine the view of prospective science teachers on science teaching in laboratory. During the research, prospective science teachers were directed to research related real life situations, given opportunity to make practice on experienced cases, and perform effort on how to more include real life situations into their future laboratory classes. In addition, there was a project which included the investigation of science course books in terms of laboratory usage techniques.

**Working Group**

The working group of the study was comprised with 11 prospective science teachers who were volunteers to participate in the research. All of prospective science teachers were eager to learn and had practice information related to laboratory.

**Data Collection and Analysis**

Semi-structured interview form was prepared by researcher and used to gather opinions of prospective science teachers. The form was revised by three experts and one language expert also. Interviews were conducted individually in a safe and quite physical space. At the beginning of the interview, some explanations related to interview were given to prospective science teachers and then interview begun with warm-up questions. The form included 11 questions totally. Moreover, researcher observed the classroom and took some notes. Aim of these notes is to support data obtained from interview.

The descriptive analysis and content analysis were utilized to evaluate
qualitative data which were obtained through interview. The codes and relations among codes were found out by content analysis. The MAXQDA 11 qualitative data analysis program was used to analyze raw interview data. First, the data was coded with the help of the program. Then, themes were created and organized in terms of research question (Creswell, 2007). The data was coded by two researchers at the same time. The necessary validity precautions were considered by researchers (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

RESULTS

![Figure 2. Opinions About Laboratory Usage Techniques](image)

The themes were illustrated in Figure 2. Each codes and themes were presented in figures exhibiting the hierarchical relations among themes and codes. There were four dominant themes which were labelled as “perceptions on laboratory usage techniques”, “course process”, “contribution of laboratory usage techniques” and “general overview”. In Figure 3, the codes were presented which obtained under “experiences related to laboratory usage techniques” theme.

![Figure 3. Experience Related to Laboratory Usage Techniques](image)

The reason for registering the course, preliminary information, related courses, and qualifications are included within “experience related to laboratory usage techniques” theme.

Some examples related to opinions of prospective teachers concerning reason for registering the course are as follows:

“At the beginning of semester, I thought this course was more attractive due to its name and I want to teach laboratory to my next students”

“We will be science educators and make usually laboratory activities
and I wondered”

“Last year the topics related to laboratory was taught and I wanted to learn more detailed information”

One student stated that “… has no earlier information about the topic. I learnt different information about the laboratory usage techniques, and I will apply this info in my future classrooms”. Moreover, although prospective teachers learnt topics in other courses, they generally thought that they have not enough information on laboratory techniques. Some of the examples from the responses provided by the prospective teachers regarding their confidence related to laboratory usage techniques were as follows:

“I did not learn exactly. I think I had not enough information and skills. I learnt water should not be poured on acid solution which is dangerous but this course has more detailed info”.

“I had not enough info. I continue study on this topic”.

“I see the difference between the final situation and first situation for me”.

In Figure 4, the codes were indicated which are gathered under “Course process” theme.

![Figure 4. Course Process](image)

The prospective teachers’ explanations about the content and topics of the course and their attitudes related to course categorized and classified under this theme. Even though students have suggestions related to course process, their attitudes about the course were generally positive. One of the suggestions from the prospective teachers was to increase the duration of the course. However, the course time was two hours for each week (14 weeks), the prospective teachers considered that the course hours were not enough. So, remembered and learned topics were laboratory usage techniques, precautions against accidents, kinds of experiments, safety symbols, safety rules, aims of experiments, science process skills, and laboratory accidents. Finally, the most favorite topic was laboratory accidents. In
Figure 5, the codes were presented under “contribution of laboratory usage techniques”.

![Diagram of Contribution of Laboratory Usage Techniques]

**Figure 5. Contribution of Laboratory Usage Techniques**

The opinions of prospective science teacher were grouped into two major categories. The most majority of the prospective teachers were underlined the benefits of the course to their future professional life. Some of the prospective teachers were also mentioned to importance of the context of the course through considering the real-life experiences. Some of the opinions of prospective teachers were as below:

“In the course, I realized the importance of covering hairs, wearing gloves, and laboratory glasses. I think they are very important for a safer laboratory working environment”

“When we think housewives, they may mix different cleaning materials which may react. They usually do not know this is dangerous, maybe some of them know but do not care too much for the situation”.

In Figure 6, the codes were indicated under “General overview” theme.

![Diagram of General Overview]

**Figure 6. General overview**

It can be said that the course reached its objectives when the data which was obtained from interview and researcher notes. The prospective teachers stated that “the course and content of it were enjoyable and productive. In addition, it was related in daily life”, “I always want to do something and wonder the topics, this is my character, and I learnt a lot of things. I satisfied my curiosity”, “Project was beneficial. We investigated the science and technology course books in terms
of laboratory usage techniques”.

CONCLUSION and SUGGESTION

In this research, which aimed to analyze the views of the elementary science prospective teachers regarding laboratory usage techniques, various important findings were acquired. During this research in which the opinions of the prospective science teachers were researched on science laboratories, it was inferred that prospective science teachers perceive laboratories as the convenient places to teach science and think that laboratories can bridge science topics with real-life situations. According to National Research Council (2006) an integrated laboratory program in a course will promote scientific reasoning.

Teachers believe that they are insecure in science laboratory but have necessary teaching skills (Akarsu, 2015). To provide the expected learning effect of laboratories which considered as an important learning environment, teacher education needs to be reviewed especially at undergraduate level. Although real-life situations were included into science issues, most of the undergraduate courses are designed as theoretical and compulsory. The effective use of laboratories by the prospective science teachers is going to provide important contributions to fulfill the purposes of science education.

Hofstein and Lunetta (1982) stated that experiments and laboratories are inevitable part of science education. As mentioned in the chapter, laboratory works enhances the motivation of students. Science researchers should continue to study the role of laboratory usage techniques in science education for concretizing the issues and most importantly to avoid laboratory accidents.

REFERENCES


Chapter 4

Quality in Preschool Education

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INTRODUCTION

In the preschool period, when the fastest developments in human life are experienced, children need to be prepared for life in a quality environment through qualified education programs. Every country attaches increasing importance and allocates greater resources to education in order to secure its future and train the manpower it will need. The education process aims to integrate children with the society and raise them as socially-contributing citizens. Achieving this goal is only possible through quality education starting from the preschool period, when basic knowledge, skills and habits are acquired (Katranç et al., 2016).

Any habits that children will acquire in preschool years, a critical period in human life, are highly important in terms of shaping the kind of individual they will become. The process starts when parents, the first educators of children, shape these habits and proceeds with the children starting preschool education. Starting education at an early age is a key criterion taken into account as a development indicator for societies, and its importance is increasingly emphasized every day. A major factor in the success of preschool education is the educational environment and quality. Structuring such environments in accordance with the developmental levels of children will not only support the developmental areas of children, but also make a significant contribution to the acquisition of basic habits and the preparation of children for the future.

Quality education offered to children in this period will prepare them for life and support their perspectives as well as their problem solving and empathy skills. Broekhuizen et al. (2016) found that children from high-quality preschool classes in emotional and organizational terms had good social skills in the first grade. It is observed that these children exhibit behavioral problems less and they can be more solution-oriented in the face of the problems they encounter. In their study, Feagansa et al. (2018) found that despite all the negative developments experienced, children from quality preschool classes had higher literacy scores in the third grade, and children from low-quality preschool classes had issues with reading comprehension. To that end, the quality of preschool institutions is particularly considered key. It is important to offer quality education to support preschool years, when brain
development is rapid and the foundations of personality in social, emotional and cognitive terms are laid. Salminen et al. (2012) found in their Finland study that teachers who had spent more years in the profession and were active in the classroom in terms of supporting children in their development areas made a positive impact on classroom quality. The authors emphasized that self-developing teachers ensured that children received quality education and that was important for children's development. Polat (2017) showed that, in terms of quality, children studying in preschool education institutions with positive attributes enjoyed increased creativity scores, while the scores of children studying in preschool education institutions with negative qualities decreased over time. The authors observed that there was a positive relationship between quality and the creativity scores and that the creativity of children in preschool institutions having positive quality attributes improved.

In order to develop and have positive attitudes towards learning, children need quality cognitive stimuli, effective communication, rich language interactions, positive social and emotional experience, and an environment supporting their autonomy. Quality preschool education makes it possible to present such an environment to children. In preschool education, the environment of children should be arranged in accordance with the aims and philosophy of the education program, taking into account their development and interests (Göle & Temel, 2020). Considering all these, it is possible to conclude that the aim of this study is to emphasize the importance of quality in preschool education and raise awareness about quality.

**PRESCHOOL EDUCATION**

It is important to know that some periods in human life are of critical importance and that it is required to address such periods in accordance with their specific nature. The preschool period coincides with the first years of human life and is one of the most critical life periods due to its impact on future years in terms of the formation and shaping of personality, and the acquisition and development of basic knowledge, skills and habits. This period is when the foundations of personality are laid, and when children need conscious guidance at home as well as in school and social life. Offering suitable educational opportunities in early years can help support the development of children's self-care, mental, linguistic, social and motor abilities. There are various definitions of the critically-important preschool education (Özgül, 2011).

Preschool education is defined as an educational process that covers childhood years from birth to the beginning of primary school, provides environmental opportunities with rich stimuli suitable for the individual characteristics and developmental levels of children of this age, and optimally guides all their development in line with the cultural values and characteristics of the society (Poyraz & Dere, 2003). The 14th National Education Council also defined preschool education as an educational process that is suitable for the developmental levels and individual characteristics of children aged 0-72 months, offers rich stimuli and environmental opportunities, supports their physical, mental, emotional and social development, optimally guides them in line with the cultural values of the society,
prepares them for primary education and takes place as part of basic education (MEB, 1993). Kostelnik et al. (2007) define preschool education as the whole of different types of programs designed to support the intellectual, social, emotional, linguistic and physical development and learning of children from birth to primary education. Another definition expresses preschool education as the education process within families and institutions that covers the years from birth until the start of basic education, plays an important role in children's later lives, and largely accommodates and shapes the physical, motor, social-emotional, mental and linguistic development of children (Aral et al. 2002). A review of such definitions of preschool education shows that each definition addresses different aspects of preschool education but they all have some commonalities. Considering all these, Preschool Education is defined as a systematic and planned educational process which:

- covers the period from birth to six years of age (0-72 months),
- supports all developmental areas (cognitive, linguistic, social, emotional, physical, motor, personal) of children,
- is prepared in accordance with the developmental characteristics, interests and needs of children as well as individual differences,
- enables children to reveal and improve their current potential and express themselves,
- supervises the process in which children recognize and adopt the cultural values of the society in which they exist and oversees their adaptation to the society,
- enables them to attain the mental and social-emotional competencies required by primary education,
- offers a suitable and stimulating environment for all these,
- is delivered at a preschool education institution, in the family or through alternative programs (Aral et al., 2002; Kostelnik et al., 2007; Turaşlı, 2007).

Preschool education provides the most suitable environment for children to explore, gain a sense of self, play with their peers and build self-confidence. The basic knowledge, skills and habits that will be acquired through the experience that will be offered to children at an early age are strong enough to inform the social and emotional life of the child as well as the later learning life (McClure, 2020). Preschool education has not only key functions but also the following purposes.

- To recognize the physical nature of children and meet their physical needs, thereby ensuring their development and enabling them to use their bodies effectively,
- To create an environment where love is exchanged, and to ensure that children develop a positive and honest attitude towards themselves and others,
- To ensure that children participate in group work, build healthy relationships, own cultural values and acquire basic habits in daily life, i.e., socialize,
- To enable children to acquire their sexual identity and develop their self-concept; to create an environment that allows them to reveal themselves, develop self-control and gain an independent personality,
• To provide stimulating environmental conditions to develop their reasoning ability and creativity and to enrich their language,
• To take children to a level of mental maturity required for higher levels of education and enable them to acquire the social skills necessary for school (Oktay, 1999; Ünüvar, 2011).

In line with these purposes, the knowledge, skills and habits gained in the preschool period, when development and learning are the fastest, prepare children for life, teach them basic habits, enable them to develop positive personality traits towards themselves and their environment, and allow them to achieve desired and expected gains that will persist throughout their life. The basic knowledge, skills and habits that children will acquire through experience at an early age can affect their future learning level and life (Aksoy, 2009; Schweinhard & Weikard, 1997). To this end, the quality of preschool education and environment can positively affect the development of children. Ponitz et al. (2009) stated in their study that the quality of preschool education was also vital for the psychological development of children. (Buldu and Yılmaz, 2005) stated that quality preschool education enables children to maximally benefit from activities such as learning and games. Considering all these, the first years of development are highly critical for the social, emotional, cognitive and linguistic development of children.

It is observed that physical health and personality, the foundations of which are laid in preschool years, guide the future lives of children. It has been observed in studies conducted for many years that most of the behaviors acquired in childhood shape the personality, attitude, habits, beliefs and value judgments of individuals in adulthood. Therefore, preschool education is a key period that will affect the future life of children (Oktay & Unutkan, 2003).

WHAT IS QUALITY?

The Turkish Language Institution (TDK) defines quality as "property; the state in which a product has the best known features" (TDK, 2020). Furthermore, the European Quality Organization (EQA) states that quality is the extent to which a good or service satisfies consumer demands. Quality is also traditionally defined as “compliance with requirements”, but since 1980s, it has rather been defined through a customer-focused approach that is based on customer satisfaction (Yaya, 2016).

Quality is the feature that specifies how a situation is and separates it from other situations. Quality means efficiency, flexibility, effectiveness, compliance with the schedule, process, investment, and a systematic approach to the quest for excellence. Quality in education is an approach that gives the student the responsibility for learning in addition to the teacher's responsibility to teach. This approach involves using common concepts with human-centered institutions that place students at the center, anticipate their active participation and use educational technologies which are suitable for their needs as well as features of a series of educational practices delivered in compliance with adult: child ratios, group size and developmental practices (Ünivär, 2011).

The word *qualites* comes from the Latin word *qualis*, which means "how
something is formed”. The concept of quality has emerged as a consequence of the wish of people and systems to avoid mistakes and attain perfection. Throughout history, the concept of quality has been used in association with different fields and meanings. Factors such as needs and expectations, socioeconomic environment, cultural structure, traditions and customs, economic level, technology and education cause quality to be perceived in different ways by users. Due to the multidimensional nature of quality, various definitions of quality have emerged, and it has not been possible to build a full concept (Canbeldek, 2015; Sheridan, 2001).

Today, quality is considered as a created process rather than a controlled process, and it spreads to organizations as a whole. Quality is no longer just a concept attributed to certain parts of production, but a phenomenon sought at every stage of production and service processes. The concept of quality has undergone many changes until today, and it continues to be a concept that develops and evolves in accordance with the conditions of the day as well as potential changes. Institutions that aim to attain quality should establish a quality policy and set quality goals that are measurable, appropriate in terms of total effectiveness, maintainable and economical in line with this policy. The quality goal has been defined as "the quality performance level that is aimed" (Ulubeli, 2019).

The output of educational processes are positive changes in individuals' behavior. It is more difficult to measure quality and efficiency in educational institutions and to evaluate the aforementioned behavioral changes compared to other organizations that produce goods and services. However, in a globalized world which rapidly produces information and constantly updates itself, educational institutions should also keep up with developments and changes. Raising qualified people is only possible through qualified education systems. This actually creates the need for "quality", which stipulates continuous development and improvement. Quality in education depends on the ability of the organization to fulfill its task or work program in line with its objectives. An education system which “within a Total Quality Management understanding, considers educators to be supportive rather than judgmental; directing and guiding rather than just conveying; employees cooperating with families, students, administrators, teachers, workplaces and the whole society rather than employees confined within classroom walls” has become desirable (Yaya, 2016).

Ensuring quality in education, on the other hand, depends on fitness for purpose and often on the ability of an organization to fulfill or the extent to which it fulfills its mission or work program to achieve its own purpose. Quality education requires a continuous improvement process through systematic and collective evaluation and update of the system and encourages children's learning and development (De Jager & Nieuwenhuis, 2005; Sheridan, 2001).

In preschool period, the readiness of the child and their family for school secures the child's school attendance, success and progress and improves their self-confidence. The success of the child at school provides the social and cognitive skills necessary throughout their life, which makes them more successful in their life. However, not only the child must be ready for the school but also the school must be
ready for the child. It is important that there are easily-accessible schools which children can attend, that schools are sensitive to regional conditions and needs and provide a quality education, and that schools are ready for children. Quality education is delivered at optimally-populated classrooms by teachers who are competent and willing to teach, using the necessary physical equipment as well as education programs and methods catering to students’ needs (Ulubeli, 2019).

**FACTORS AFFECTING QUALITY**

There are multiple factors that affect the quality of educational institutions and also indirectly make an impact on the quality of the manpower they train. The equipment, education programs, tools and methods, and physical facilities that the institution offers all affect the education process. In addition, the amount of investment in education also increases the quality of education. To this end, the manner in which states position and view education among their approaches and policies, and the ultimate goal they want to attain through education are also important. Quality in education depends on the physical capacity and equipment of institutions, their education programs, the diversity and complexity of the educational methods and technologies they employ, and the interpersonal relationships in educational environments (Oktay, 1999).

Another factor that improves the quality of education is an increased performance by teachers. School administrators assume the task of using material and human resources at their schools effectively in line with the school's objectives. They are also responsible for teachers' performance levels. Improving the performance of teachers in professional activities is another practice employed in increasing the educational quality of a school. To that end, teacher quality and teacher training programs are among the priority issues at educational institutions and in the studies on the quality of education. In addition, new duties and responsibilities imposed on the teacher, the key element in an education system, by the ongoing change and development process are emphasized. Furthermore, research has demonstrated that personnel wages are influential in increasing the quality of education. Higher wages increase employee motivation and enable them to contribute significantly to education and training, which is their job (Canbeldek, 2015).

**QUALITY IN PRESCHOOL EDUCATION**

Since the early ages of history, numerous philosophers have produced theories on understanding the nature of children and enabling them to learn in the best way possible. Educational research is almost as old as the history of humanity and has long highlighted the importance and value of education in early years of life (Ulubeli, 2019). Preschool education covers the years from the birth of a child until the day they start basic education, and it is also effective in children’s later life. Preschool education is an education process that provides a healthy and highly-stimulating environment suitable for children’s developmental levels and individual characteristics, supports their physical, emotional and social development, guides children in the best way in line with the cultural values and characteristics of the
society, and prepares them for primary education. Qualified preschool education equips children with competencies and gains that benefit them throughout their lives. It thus increases their learning capacities significantly. These factors also play an important role in the quality of preschool education institutions (Barnett, 1995; Solak, 2007). In a study conducted in Russia, Buyanov et al. (2017) studied the impact of a stimuli-supported, quality environment on physical and social exploration in infancy and found that a quality environment positively supports cognitive and social development. They suggested that properly planned learning spaces and physical environment should be created for children in schools.

Quality preschool education has a positive long-term impact on children's development and learning. Educational practices, a safe social-emotional environment and program quality are pointed out as the indicators which ensure that the aforementioned positive impact on children's development and learning is long-term and permanent. For preschool education programs to represent high quality and enjoy an increased quality, they need to be sensitive to different interests and needs, be based on development, be holistic and support holistic development, be associated with theoretical foundations, be integrated with children's life and environment, enable adult-child interaction, allow for effective and interactive learning, and enable family involvement and effective evaluation methods. Quality education is possible when and to the extent an interaction actually takes place among its constituents (Göle & Temel, 2020).

Children in preschool education institutions that provide quality education can find the opportunity to develop their communication and academic skills in a healthy environment, and the quality of education and environment is influential in children's learning and development. In her study on the quality of public day care centers in Greece, Rentzou (2014) emphasized that the experience of children in early years are very important and underlined that what children needed most during those years is love. She stated that an appropriate social and physical environment is effective in mental development and that physical environment should not be ignored. Studies also show that the development of children who attend quality preschool education institutions improves (Burchinal et al., 2002; Duyar, 2010; Eliot et al., 2006; Feyman, 2006; Sheridan, 2007), and that the children who attend high quality preschool education institutions have better school achievements, cognitive/linguistic development and social/emotional development than the children attending low-quality institutions (Barnet, 1995; Clarkw - Steward, 1987). Ponitz et al. (2009) found that the literacy success of preschool children who previously received a rich and high quality education increased. Furthermore, Carr et al. (2019) found that classroom quality contributed positively to children's development areas.

In their longitudinal study with 800 children, Burchinal et al. (2002) found that the quality of the institutions affected the cognitive, social and emotional development of children. They observed that a quality environment contributed significantly to children's linguistic and academic skills as well as the teacher-child relationship. In other words, compared to other skills, children receiving high quality
preschool education have sharper cognitive skills such as in mathematics and languages and better social skills such as peer relations and problem solving. In addition, the authors found that the effect of high performance in cognitive and social areas by children attending high quality preschool education institutions continues until the second grade. According to the results of the studies evaluating the High Scope program, another longitudinal study, it has been shown that high-quality preschool education programs positively affect the school success of children and their scores on cognitive and linguistic tests, and that these children have higher high school graduation rates and lower offending rates compared to other groups (as cited in İşıkoğlu, 2007). In a study conducted by Cadima et al. (2013) in Portugal, the authors found that there is a link between the quality of child care in preschool education institutions and the child development skills, and that children who attend high-quality schools exhibit positive improvements in terms of linguistic, cognitive and social skills. Another study examined the quality of day care centers by considering child and family characteristics and analyzed the effect of quality on children's ability to deal with problems and find solutions to problems as well as ego strength and internalization. As a result, it is observed that even disadvantaged or troubled children who attend high quality institutions acquire many positive traits (Bahlin & Heyakull, 1995).

As research emphasizes, quality plays a critical role in the development of children. Therefore, children should have the right to receive education in a quality education environment through quality education programs in preschool years when their development is the fastest and the foundations of personality are laid. A quality education is effective in preparing children for life, developing their perspectives and raising individuals who question, solve problems, think critically and are self-confident.

Quality Indicators in Preschool Education

In its report, the National Institute for Early Education Research (NIEER) (2002) built on the latest findings of the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) and the philosophy of Developmentally Appropriate Practices (DAP) to determine the characteristics of a quality preschool program in terms of its importance for the child, family, teacher, program and classroom. From this point of view, some determining indicators have been specified to consider an institution as a quality institution. The specified indicators aim to evaluate quality by focusing on structure and process components, which are two generally-acknowledged but different approaches.

Structural quality covers rather concrete and easier quality indicators such as adult:child ratio, indoor space per child, group size and teacher training (Howes et al., 2008). Quality indicators related to structural quality are provided below:

- Adult:child ratios are in line with the standards.
- The number of children in the group is small.
- The competencies of teachers and other staff are at the desired level.
- All staff are monitored and evaluated, and staff have professional
development opportunities.

Process quality includes teacher-child relationship as well as richly-stimulating educational environment and activities. It is also defined as the services that families and children receive directly from preschool education (Howes et al., 2008, Cost Quality and Child Outcomes Study Team, 1995). Quality indicators related to process quality are provided below:

- There are positive relationships between teachers and children.
- The educational environment is equipped with sufficient materials and toys.
- Throughout the day, communication takes place in a way that encourages problem solving skills through mutual listening, speaking/responding and reasoning.
- Opportunities for art, music, movement, science, math, block games and dramatic games are provided on a daily basis.
- There are materials and activities that make it easier to understand and accept cultural differences.
- Families are encouraged to take part in all aspects of the program (Özgül, 2011).

Researchers found that these indicators (structure and process) are interrelated and affect the educational experience of children. For example, as the number of groups decreases, teachers interact with children in a more positive, supportive and stimulating way. Teachers with superior competencies and small groups of children can also be much more effective in providing individualized and responsive learning environments. Last but not the least, there is a consistent correlation between high teacher salaries and high process quality. It is considered that the ratios specifying the structural indicators of quality are also effective in the process (Özgül, 2011).

Quality Aspects in Preschool Education

Quality in preschool education institutions has multiple determining factors, including but not limited to the physical equipment available at the institution, the educational materials it offers, the qualifications of administrators, teachers and auxiliary staff, the structure of the education program it delivers, the teacher-child/family cooperation, the number of children per adult, safety and hygiene (İşikoğlu, 2007; Özgül, 2011; Polat, 2017). Paro et al. (2007) emphasized that the classroom, the teacher and the program are effective in terms of the quality of education.

The National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC), an American organization that determines the quality of preschool education institutions, analyzes the indicators setting the quality of the institution based on suitability with the child's development under 10 categories: adult-child communication, educational program, adult-parent communication, teacher competencies, management, employees, physical environment, health and safety, nutrition and food services. NAEYC also emphasizes that institutional quality must be appropriate for the development of children (NAEYC, 2002).

Katz (1994) brought a pluralistic perspective to the quality of preschool education institutions and examined quality under four basic dimensions. She named
the first dimension as the top-down researcher/professional perspective and included in this dimension some structural elements such as the number of children in the classroom, teacher qualifications, and the number of children per teacher. She named the second dimension as the bottom-up or children’s perspective, and grouped in this dimension certain items such as the school comfort of the child and the level of participation in activities. She called the third dimension as inside-out or the employees' perspective, and included in this dimension some elements such as management and employee collaboration. She named the last dimension as outside-in or the perspective of families and included in this dimension elements such as the flexibility of the educational program and family involvement (as cited in Işıkoğlu, 2007).

Quality indicators are analyzed under two main areas, namely structural and functional. In the structural dimension of quality, there are elements such as the number of children per teacher, the education status of the teacher, the teacher's experience and education, group size, kindergarten fees, and indoor area per child. On the other hand, the functional dimension of quality includes items such as the services that families and children receive directly and the relationship between teachers and children, a rich educational environment and stimulants (Barbarin et al., 2008; Cost, Quality and Child Outcomes Study Team, 1995; Solak, 2007).

In line with the foregoing, the dimensions of quality in preschool education are explained below:

Environment

In order for preschool education programs to be implemented in the best way, a diligently and carefully organized education environment as well as environmental conditions are needed. Specially-arranged indoor and outdoor spaces where children can move freely help children to feel comfortable and safe. In terms of quality, the environment is broken down as the physical and social-emotional environment.

Physical Environment: One of the elements that determine the quality of education provided to a child in a preschool institution is the arrangement and equipping of the physical location of the institution. A preschool education institution that is properly arranged and equipped with sufficient materials must first be healthy and safe and support children in all areas of their development (Ünüvar, 2011). The physical arrangement of the educational environment affects all activities that children will do in the educational institution. In terms of ensuring the development of children at education institutions, it is important to arrange the educational environment in accordance with the developmental characteristics of children as safe places that support different aspects of development (Kök, 2012).

Learning environments in preschool institutions should be organized as centers in order for education to be planned in a healthy manner and to reach its purpose. Learning centers are one of the learning spaces for children. They should be set up in a way to allow children to play freely. Learning centers are playgrounds that contain different materials designed to realize the acquisitions and indicators in the education program and are separated by various tools (panels, colored carpets, cabinets, floor coverings, separators, etc.). In learning centers, teachers should make
arrangements in line with the needs and interests of students, taking into account the number of students and the physical facilities of the classroom (MEB, 2013).

The school building must be in favorable environmental conditions and in a safe environment. Attention should be paid for the preschool education institution to meet the developmental characteristics of children and the needs of all staff in the school. Educational environments should be prepared within the framework of the preschool education program, while the outdoor environment should be prepared in a way that supports the motor development of children and offers different practices for children (Ulubeli, 2011).

Social-Emotional Environment: It is important to ensure the emotional safety of children and to meet their emotional needs in preschool education. In order for children to feel safe in a social and emotional sense, they should not only be able to act freely, receive love and acceptance and be in a social environment while the adults in the environment should accept mistakes and guide children but also be equally able to meet their needs of being on their own (Feyman, 2006). The interaction between the teacher, the child and the environment determines the quality of the preschool education environment. In this interaction process, emotional support, classroom management and teaching support are considered as major factors affecting quality. In high-quality preschool education environments, children have sufficient emotional support, and the classroom teacher accurately defines the needs of children, shows their interest in children on an individual basis, plans activities in accordance with the emotional and academic needs of children, and facilitate positive interactions between children (Brophy, 1999).

Staff

Meeting the personal and professional needs of administrators, teachers, assistant teachers, attendants and other employees in preschool education institutions has an important place in the quality process. Teacher is one of the most important factors determining quality in preschool education. A consistent and reliable relationship between children and teachers is highly important (MEGEP 2013).

Administrator: An administrator is authorized to organize, execute and supervise all the affairs of the school in accordance with laws, regulations, bylaws, directives, programs and orders. They are also responsible for the management, evaluation and development of the institution in accordance with the quality management approach (MEB, 2013). Educational leaders are people who add all the elements in the educational institution to its process, direct the efforts of individuals and render the journey of quality continuous. The attitudes and behaviors of the educational leader determine the quality of the program (Ulubeli, 2019). For the institution to produce a more qualified education service, administrators have first-degree responsibility towards the management, i.e. the upper systems of the institution, and the educational environments, i.e. the lower system, as well as teachers and children in such classes, parents of these children and ultimately the society (Ünüvar, 2011).

Teacher: The number of personnel to be employed in formal education institutions varies according to the physical and economic facilities of a school, its
capacity, and the ease/difficulty of using the space and materials at the school. Administrators, child development and education teachers, teachers, assistant teachers, health personnel, psychologists, clerks, attendants, cooks and technicians who are assigned to preschool education institutions are listed as permanent staff in accordance with the Regulation on Permanent Staff at Schools and Institutions Affiliated to the Ministry of National Education, promulgated in the Official Gazette No. 23782 of 10 August 1999. Meeting the personal and professional needs of the responsible staff has a key place in the quality process (MEGEP, 2013).

The educational levels, field specialties, professional experience, professional attitudes and behaviors of preschool education teachers are considered as teacher qualifications. The qualification of preschool education teachers is one of the most important factors determining quality. The way the teacher communicates and interacts with children affects the classroom atmosphere and the children's behavior. Creating a positive classroom atmosphere is desirable in the classroom environment. This allows children and teachers to be more open to each other, strengthens the interaction between them and enables them to understand each other better. Thus, the educational environment will be free from factors that challenge learning and education and affect the environment negatively, thereby creating a positive impact on the quality of the education environment. Likewise, the positive classroom atmosphere and the positive display of behavior will bring along a positive effect on the quality of education (Canbeldek, 2015).

**Learning Environment**

The main task of a preschool education institution is to educate children in a quality education environment. Children will be able to make choices, gain experience, take responsibility, make their own decisions, interact with their teachers and peers, discover their interests, learn to solve problems and discover themselves, all through varying experience in this environment (Zembat, 2007).

One of the determinants of the quality of preschool education at a preschool education institution is the way the physical location of the institution is arranged and equipped. A preschool education institution, which is properly organized and equipped with sufficient materials, primarily caters to every aspect of child development as a healthy, safe and attractive environment (Demiriz et al., 2011). It is essential to plan a school's learning environment in a way that it can meet the educational needs of children. Well-planned learning centers effectively support students' educational processes and improve their creative thinking. Therefore, learning environments are critical for the success of the educational program and for the effectiveness of education (MEB, 2013).

The preschool education environment should give children time and opportunities for experience and creativity in their own world, and provide them with a social, safe and stimulating environment. The educational environment should support children not only in terms of physical security but also in terms of emotional safety. For the educational environment to cater to this need, it should meet children's need for naturalness as well as safe and secure time to be on their own, in addition to presenting opportunities for enjoyment, rest and relaxation, containing materials
appropriate for their talents and interests, providing social interaction and encompassing cultural differences (Zembat, 2007).

**Program Structure**

The aims of preschool education can be fulfilled through the implementation of well-planned activities in institutions. Educational programs implemented in preschool education institutions cover all the experience within the school-child-family triangle. To that end, the key is to prepare and implement educational programs through which the school can achieve its goals, meet the educational needs of children, and satisfy the expectations of the families. Quality preschool educational programs are thus needed (Canbeldek, 2015). Educational programs at preschool education institutions are organized to improve the social, emotional, mental, motor and linguistic development of children and to ensure they are ready for primary education. In addition, educational programs aim to equip children with self-care skills (MEB, 2013).

The use of educational models that support developmental characteristics and consider individual differences has recently increased. The general philosophy of such educational models is to create the basis that will enable children to maximally use their potential. To support this basic philosophy, institutions offer education through separate educational programs. Head Start, Montessori, Reggio Emilia, High Scope, and Bank Street approaches can be cited as examples of the aforementioned educational models and programs. It is found through various research studies that the developmental outcomes of preschool children studying in institutions that employ the educational programs of these approaches are positively affected (Şahin, 2012).

**Activities**

The purpose of establishing guidelines for appropriate developmental activities is to improve the quality of the experience of children receiving preschool education. These principles include using children's development and learning principles in creating an educational program, relying on the activities initiated and led by children, and recognizing game as a developmental and basic tool that encourages learning (Ulubeli, 2019).

In the learning and teaching environment, learning becomes more effective to the extent that the need for learning and motivation and the intensity of stimuli are increased, and the effects of the factors preventing learning are decreased. Activities that take into account the interests and needs of children can be more attractive. Therefore, it is necessary to ensure that such activities support the development of children. The key point is that children have a different and effective set of experience (Ünüvar, 2011).

**Family Involvement**

Positive relationships in the family not only facilitate children's positive social development, but also help them to communicate more easily with peers in the classroom. When children experience sensible and supportive behavior and receive
attention from family, this lays the groundwork for their future success as well as the formation of feelings of self-worth and self-efficacy necessary for their social adaptation (MEB, 2013).

Family involvement is another dimension that is of great importance for the preschool learning environment. A preschool education institution is not only a place that serves children but also an environment where the school and the family cooperate. Permanent learning can be achieved by reinforcing the learning in the preschool education institution with positive relationships between the school and the family outside the school. It is believed that the longevity of the effect of preschool education programs can be secured through support programs for the family (Canbeldek, 2015).

School-family cooperation means helping the teacher to get to know the family and the child as well as helping the family to know the school, the program and the teacher. Thus, the family can find the opportunity to learn about the educational environment of the child in addition to the conditions of the school and the teacher. For educators to secure the best development in children, they need to be able to obtain the most detailed information about children. This is the only way they can follow and improve the development of children. Therefore, educators and families should always cooperate (Ünüvar, 2011).

**CONCLUSION**

Preschool period covers the process in which the social, emotional, physical and cognitive development of children are the fastest. Therefore, the quality of preschool institutions where children receive education is becoming increasingly important. A child who receives education in a qualified school that provides quality education achieves lifelong gains. It is observed that research on the subject supports this statement, and children who receive education in quality institutions are more successful in many development areas than their peers. Considering all these, it is recommended to determine the quality of institutions serving preschool children against certain standards, to regularly follow and monitor these standards, and to increase the number of quality institutions.

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Chapter 5

Investigation of Preschool Children According to Fundamental Movement Skill (FMS) Proficiency and Gender

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1. INTRODUCTION

Children need to acquire Fundamental Movement Skill (FMS) to be competent in games and sports. Individuals use their movement repertoire to engage in physical activities throughout their lives (Gallahue & Ozmun, 2006). Motor skill competence, which is effective in the formation of movement repertoire, develops as a result of experiences beginning in childhood. Different factors influence learning and changing movement patterns, which begin in childhood and then affect skill performance. Newell (1986) defines these limitations as an individual, environmental, and task-specific (Haywood & Getchell, 2009). Teachers and educators can modify the task and environmental constraints that are effective in the acquisition of FMS and the child's performance. In other words, the nature of the movement activities provided to children, the specific competencies of teachers in this area, the physical conditions provided, and the opportunities for movement activity all influence the direction of children's motor development. Motor skill proficiency is contingent upon FMS proficiency, and it cannot be learned "naturally." Although maturation plays a role in the emergence of movement schemes, the characteristics of the learning environment, the feedback given, and motivation encouragement play an important role in the development of FMS (Gallahue et al., 2014). FMS promotes physical, cognitive, and social development in children and serves as the foundation for an active lifestyle. According to the stage theory of motor development, it is seen that movement repertoire, that is, basic movement skills, increases to the level of expertise between the ages of 2-7 to be used in physical activities, sports, and games (Gallahue et al., 2014; Haywood & Getchell, 2009). This age range encompasses early childhood, and development occurs at a rapid pace during this time.

Motor competence in early childhood is defined as proficiency in FMS display (Brian et al., 2018; Stodden et al., 2008). According to research, this period of time was critical for the development of fundamental movement skills (Gabbard et al., 2008; Robinson & Goodway, 2009). Despite this, research has
revealed that primary school children’s fundamental movement skill proficiency is lower than desired (Bardid et al., 2019; O’Brien Belton & Issartel 2016; Bardid et al., 2016; Khodaverdi & Bahram, 2015; Bellows Davies et al., 2013; Mitchel et al., 2013; Kordi et al., 2012; Spessato et al., 2013). Children can use these skills in games if they are given a learning environment in which they can practice these skills, allowing them to develop skills at a higher level (Walkley et al., 2009). In this context, early childhood is a critical period in which children mastery of FMS through implemented programs, play experiences, and provided learning environments. However, many children are unable to mastery of FMS during this time and thus are unable to provide the prerequisites required in sports or games (Goodway et al., 2010; Clark, 2007; Goodway & Branta, 2003). According to performed research, children have difficulty acquiring advanced sport skills related competencies due to FMS deficiencies (Hardy et al., 2010; Wai-Yin Pang & Tik-Pui Fong, 2009). By providing qualified movement education programs and learning opportunities, children can gain access to mastery of fundamental motor skills. When children's skills reach the mastery level, the infrastructure for sports-related skills will be formed, and they will be able to use the combined forms of movement required for sports, such as basketball, football, or tennis. Earned FMS motivates children, allowing them to develop a positive attitude toward the sport. Maintaining a positive attitude can improve a person's ability to participate in sports or physical activities required for a healthy and active lifestyle. Gaining FMS has been linked to increased participation in physical activity (PA) and sport (Bolger et al., 2019; Stodden et al., 2008).

There are many advantages of engaging in daily physical exercise, including contributing to individuals' health, social, and emotional well-being, assisting in weight management in adulthood, lowering the risk of multiple chronic illnesses including heart disease and certain forms of cancer, strengthening bones and muscles, maintaining mental health, and lowering the risk of premature death (Physical Activity Guidelines Advisory Committee Scientific Report, 2018; Kirby et al., 2011; Paluska & Schwenk, 2000). Simultaneously, when it comes to children, physical exercises help them improve bone strength, weight management, cardiorespiratory and muscle fitness, as well as cognitive skills like executive ability, processing speed, memory, and so on (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2018; Donnelly et al., 2016). Physical inactivity is related to several chronic health conditions in children (Booth et al., 2011), and childhood obesity contributes to poor self-esteem, anxiety disorder, sugar, asthma, and depression. According to a conducted research involving 146 countries and 298 schools, including Turkey, the amount of physical activity among children aged 11-17 (77.6% of boys and 84.7% of girls) in 2016 was found inadequate (Guthold et al., 2020). Motor function competence and physical exercise have a complex and mutual relationship (Stodden & Goodway, 2007). It is recognized that having adequate motor skills is crucial in achieving and sustaining involvement in physical exercise (Stodden et al., 2014; Gallahue et al., 2012; Stodden et al., 2008). Researchers who reviewed research on PA and MC found
that there was a causal association between MC and PA, and that children of all ages with poor motor ability maturity were also less physically involved. (Holfelder & Schott, 2014; Lubans et al., 2010) Lubans et al. (2010) reviewed research on the relationship between FMS competence and health gain in children and adolescents and discovered a positive relationship between FMS competence and PA. In children and adolescents, poor levels of fundamental movement skill proficiency were correlated with low cardiorespiratory exercise and physical activity levels (Hardy et al., 2012).

Many countries have indicated that children's levels of physical activity are insufficient. (Barros et al., 2012; Reilly, 2010). Countries perform research to inform health policy, which results in the publication of a set of guidelines, directives, and reports on community health. It is recommended that children aged 5 to 17 engage in mild to strenuous physical activity for at least 60 minutes a day. (WHO, 2019; Australian Department of Health, 2019; UK Chief Medical Officers, 2019; Department of Health and Human Services Centers (CDC), 2019; NASPE, 2009). There are various interventions to boost children's physical activity standards, such as commuting or walking to and from school (Sirard et al., 2005), out-of-school PA services (Trost et al., 2008), and school-based PA programs (Taylor et al., 2018). It is emphasized that effective strategies should be produced in school environments to increase preschool children's participation in physical activity, considering that this environment is an ideal environment for creating structured and unstructured physical activity time for children (Lu & Montague, 2016). Moreover, considering that school environment is a suitable place for providing structured and unstructured time for physical exercise for children (Lu & Montague, 2016), the importance of preschool children's physical activity to improve inclusion in the school environment is emphasized (Frank, et al., 2018). According to conducted research, physical learning programs should be initiated in early childhood to improve FMS (Bardid et al., 2017).

Children's attendance rates in physical exercise will rise as they improve their fundamental movement skills. Providing FMS learning options to children during the preschool phase encourages children to improve their interest in physical exercise, which coincides with an increase in health-related fitness (Gallehue, Ozmun & Goodway, 2012). Monitoring studies for FMS can lead the creation of interventions in this context. Promotional techniques and programs for mastery of FMS in early childhood will foster lifelong physical fitness and sports involvement. As a result, individuals' health and quality of life in adulthood and old age will be ensured. Thus, first and foremost, knowledge about children's abilities is required. The schooling average for 5-year-old children in Turkey was estimated to be 68% (The Ministry of National Education of Turkey (MEB), 2018). These organizations' applications, programs, qualified movement education, and game experiences will all play a major role in children's access to mastery of fundamental motor skills.

Another aim of the research is to examine the level of FMS proficiency according to the gender variable. Despite the fact that FMS experiments contain
gender factors, the results of research on gender variables in these skills are intriguing. In FMS, it was determined that boys were more adequate in both object control and locomotor skills than girls (Castelli & Valley 2007; Junaid & Fellowes 2006; Okely, et al., 2001) According to the research conducted by Fjortoft (2000) and Sääkslahti (2005), girls are more skilled in balancing skills than boys. There is research in the literature that indicates no variations in FMS between young age groups of girls and boys (Boz, 2011; Fisher, et al., 2005; Cleland & Gallahue 1993; Morris et al.,1982; Payne & Koslow, 1981), but there is also research that shows gender is a factor in these skills (Cohen et al., 2014; Goodway et al., 2013; Cliff et al., 2009; Tepeli, 2007; Valentini & Rudsil, 2000; Sanders & Kidman, 1998; Marshall & Bouffard, 1997). Examining the change in FMS proficiency by gender will assist future research assess the role of gender in physical activity participation.

The aim of this research was to assess the fundamental Movement Skill levels of children aged 5-6 years old in early childhood and to compare these skills to gender.

2. METHODS
2.1. Participants
The research's population consists of independent kindergartens and institutional kindergartens associated with MEB in Çankaya district of Ankara province. The sample of the research was determined by cluster sampling method. The research involved four randomly chosen establishments with physical environments appropriate for TGMD-2 implementation (having a garden, a gym, or an area where movement exercises are carried out), having no special training for fundamental movement skills, providing education for full-time (8:30-17:00), and allowing the research to be conducted. Within a day, kindergartens that are objects of the research provided both structured (mean %78.12 min. Range 40-120 min.) and unstructured play (mean 138.75, range 120-150 min). In these kindergartens, activities are organized according to the motor development gains determined within the scope of the 2013 MEB Preschool Education program. The research's sample group consisted of 344 children aged 5 to 6, 177 girls and 167 boys from these schools. The average age of these children is 5.39 and the standard deviation is .488. All of the children in the sample group have been pursuing preschool education for two years, and none of them have been diagnosed with a disability. Outside of the current curriculum, none of the children partake in courses such as athletics or movement skills classes. When the children's demographic details are analyzed, 45.9% of the fathers are 41 years old, and 73.8% of the mothers are under 41 years old. 86% of fathers and 71.8% of mothers hold a bachelor's degree.
2.2. Instruments

In the research, a "Parent-Child Information Form" was distributed, which included questions about the child's gender, date of birth, mother and father ages, and educational status.

The "Test of Gross Motor Development-Second Edition (TGMD-2)" was used to assess FMS in children within the framework of the research, which was standardized by Ulrich in 2000 according to American norm values (Ulrich, 2000). The aim of using TGMD-2 in this calculation is that it is a tool that both measures FMS developmentally and allows determining skill levels. FMS consists of locomotor or object control and stability skills. The original test is intended to measure the major muscle motor development of children aged 3-10 years. TGMD-2 is divided into two sub-dimensions, each with six sub-skills. These include locomotor skills (run, gallop, hop, leap, horizontal jump, and slide) and object control skills (striking a stationary ball, stationary dribble, catch, kick, overhand throw, and underhand roll). The child is asked to perform each skill twice during the measurement, and all experiments are scored. Each ability has performance criteria, and the child earns points depending on these performance criteria. For the success criterion used in each skill, the child receives 1 point if he or she performs the correct move and 0 points if he or she does not. The cumulative score for each success parameter is achieved as a result of scoring all tries. The performance criteria scores are accumulated, and the scores for each skill are calculated. Each ability has a different number. The highest total score possible for locomotor skills is .48, and the highest total score possible for object control skills is .48. The sum of both sub-tests, namely TGMD-2, will provide a maximum of .96 points.

Tepeli (2007) determined the validity and reliability of the TGMD-2 in a standardization sample of Turkish children between the age of 5 to 6, to be .78-.76 for locomotor skills, .65-.76 for object control skills, and .78-.85 for total testing. Test retest achieved validity as .92; reliability for subtest and test sum as .99. Besides, the alpha coefficients calculated by Boz and Aytar (2011) by subtracting “Striking a stationary ball” in the turkey adaptation study of the test were determined as .88 for locomotor skills; .70 for object control and .94 for the total test.

2.3. Procedures

In the research, a form containing demographic information of children and families was filled out by families. TGMD-2 assessments were fulfilled in areas suitable for measurement (gymnasium, multi-purpose hall, etc.) in pre-school educational institutions. In this research, all sub-test skills included in TGMD-2 were measured. Children were assessed in groups of up to five. The data was gathered by a researcher who collaborated for a year with Dale Ulrich, the creator of the TGMD-2, and a physical education instructor who was trained to use the scale. Both a verbal explanation and demonstration of the movement were performed before the evaluation began, and children were given time to make the movement before scoring before each attempt. When the evaluator hesitated while
scoring, they asked the child to perform the skill again. However, if the child refuses to perform the movement or leaves after a given amount of time, the data is removed from the assessment.

### 2.4. Statistical Analyses

The data were analyzed by SPSS 22. Participants’ TGMD-2 total test, subtest, and subtest ability raw ratings, standard deviation, 95% confidence intervals, prevalence estimates, and descriptive statistics on parents regarding their gender, age, and educational status are all included. The raw scores of fundamental movement skills of children aged 5-6 years were subjected to an independent t test based on their gender, with a .05 error level taken into account in the analyses. In the research, the data were collected on raw scores.

### 3. RESULTS

#### 3.1. Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics on TGMD-2 total score, sub-test total score, and sub-skill scores of children aged 5-6 years are evinced in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUNDAMENTAL MOVEMENT SKILLS</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Locomotor skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Run</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>6.47</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>1.695</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gallop</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>2.469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hop</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>5.55</td>
<td>.158</td>
<td>2.938</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leap</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>.080</td>
<td>1.475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jump</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>.123</td>
<td>2.288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slide</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>.126</td>
<td>2.340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Object control skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strike</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>.153</td>
<td>2.836</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dribble</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>2.095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catch</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>1.771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kick</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>.129</td>
<td>2.393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Throw</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>2.519</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roll</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>.115</td>
<td>2.139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locomotor Sub-Skill Score (Total)</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>26.26</td>
<td>.528</td>
<td>9.799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Object Control Sub-Skill Score (Total)</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>19.53</td>
<td>.592</td>
<td>10.974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TGMD-2 Total Score (Total)</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>45.79</td>
<td>1.065</td>
<td>19.745</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This research included 344 children. Before the analyses, the missing data was reviewed, and no missing data were identified. The mean of the Locomotor skills sub-scale was 26.26 and the standard deviation was 9.799, while the average of the object control skills sub-scale was 19.53 and the standard deviation was 10.974. When the skills of the two sub-tests are tested, the sub-skill with the higher
average is found to be running. The average run skill was 6.47, with a standard deviation of 1.695. The sub-skill with the second-highest average was hop, with a mean of 5.55 and a standard deviation of 2.938. The lowest average sub-skill is found to be leap. The average of this sub-skill was 2.22, with a standard deviation of 1.475 (Table 1).

3.2. Fundamental Movement Skill (FMS) Proficiency and Gender Differences

To be admitted at the mastery level of FMS, the child must obtain maximum scores on all success requirements found in the competence in both attempts, i.e., must be performed the movement correctly (Hardy et al., 2010; Wai-Wool Pang & Tik-Pui Fong, 2009; Okely & Booth, 2004). If the child failed to meet just one of the success requirements in the skillset, the skill was recognized at the near mastery stage (Wai-Wool Pang & Tik-Pui Fong, 2009). In Table 2, FMS averages of boys and girls, mastery and near mastery prevalence and 95% CI are provided. Furthermore, t-test findings can be found among the averages of FMS raw scores for both girls and boys.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean, SE</th>
<th>t (342)</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Mastery (%)</th>
<th>95%CI</th>
<th>Near Mastery (%)</th>
<th>95%CI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>girls</td>
<td>boys</td>
<td>girls</td>
<td>boys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Locomotor skills</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Run</td>
<td>6.46 (.13)</td>
<td>6.49 (.13)</td>
<td>-.119</td>
<td>.906</td>
<td>37% (30.44)</td>
<td>42% (38.46)</td>
<td>20% (16.24)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gallop</td>
<td>3.73 (.19)</td>
<td>3.74 (.19)</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.994</td>
<td>11% (10.12)</td>
<td>10% (9.11)</td>
<td>5% (4.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hop</td>
<td>5.65 (.23)</td>
<td>5.44 (.22)</td>
<td>.670</td>
<td>.503</td>
<td>16% (14.18)</td>
<td>13% (12.14)</td>
<td>7% (5.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leap</td>
<td>2.25 (.11)</td>
<td>2.20 (.11)</td>
<td>.320</td>
<td>.749</td>
<td>0% (0.0)</td>
<td>0% (0.0)</td>
<td>8% (8.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jump</td>
<td>3.61 (.16)</td>
<td>3.98 (.19)</td>
<td>-1.510</td>
<td>.132</td>
<td>4% (3.5)</td>
<td>11% (10.12)</td>
<td>7% (6.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slide</td>
<td>4.40 (.18)</td>
<td>4.54 (.18)</td>
<td>-.591</td>
<td>.555</td>
<td>14% (12.16)</td>
<td>14% (12.16)</td>
<td>7% (5.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subtest score</strong></td>
<td>26.14 (.79)</td>
<td>26.3 (.73)</td>
<td>-.229</td>
<td>.819</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2% (0.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Object control skills</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strike</td>
<td>2.85 (.21)</td>
<td>3.35 (.22)</td>
<td>-1.657</td>
<td>.098</td>
<td>1% (0.1)</td>
<td>0% (0.0)</td>
<td>2% (2.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dribble</td>
<td>2.85 (.15)</td>
<td>2.68 (.17)</td>
<td>.780</td>
<td>.436</td>
<td>2% (2.2)</td>
<td>5% (4.6)</td>
<td>5% (5.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catch</td>
<td>3.30 (.13)</td>
<td>3.15 (.14)</td>
<td>.783</td>
<td>.434</td>
<td>15% (13.17)</td>
<td>14% (12.16)</td>
<td>12% (10.14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kick</td>
<td>3.62 (.18)</td>
<td>4.16 (.19)</td>
<td>-2.125</td>
<td>.034*</td>
<td>5% (4.6)</td>
<td>7% (5.9)</td>
<td>9% (8.10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Throw</td>
<td>2.71 (.18)</td>
<td>3.10 (.20)</td>
<td>-1.437</td>
<td>.152</td>
<td>5% (4.6)</td>
<td>8% (7.9)</td>
<td>5% (4.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roll</td>
<td>3.53 (.15)</td>
<td>3.63 (.17)</td>
<td>-.473</td>
<td>.636</td>
<td>5% (4.6)</td>
<td>8% (7.9)</td>
<td>5% (4.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subtest score</strong></td>
<td>18.91 (.80)</td>
<td>20.19 (.87)</td>
<td>-1.078</td>
<td>.282</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0% (0.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total test score</strong></td>
<td>45.05(1.479)</td>
<td>46.57 (1.536)</td>
<td>-.712</td>
<td>.477</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Except for the leap, the mean scores of the boys were found to be higher than the mean scores of the girls in each locomotor skill. When the cumulative ratings of locomotor skills are tested, it is discovered that boys outperform girls. However, no gender difference in sub-skills or overall locomotor skills was found (.819).

According to Table 2, it is clear that the scores received by boys, excluding object control, stationary dribble, and catch, are higher than the scores obtained by girls. Except for Kick (p = .034), no gender differences were seen in any of the sub-skills. There seems to be no divergence in the overall fundamental movement skills scores (locomotor and object control skills) obtained by girls and boys (p = .477).

While approximately 40% of children by gender are at the mastery of run, in general, there is a low number of children at the level of mastery; however, the percentage of children at the level of near mastery is low, indicating that the majority of children are at the level of poor. Table 2 reveals that mastery level of children have poor percentages of both locomotor (leap %0; horizontal jump %15; gallop %22; slide %28; hop %29), and object control skills (striking a stationary ball %1; stationary dribble %7; kick %12; overhand throw and underhand roll %13; catch %29). At the mastery level, the lowest locomotor ability for both girls and boys is leap, and in object control, it is strike and dribble. According to the skill percentages of children at near mastery level, it can be said that they scored, run 35%, gallop 10%, leap 13%, horizontal jump 13%, hop 13%, slide 18% in locomotor skills, and striking a stationary ball 4%, stationary dribble 9%, overhand throw and underhand roll 11%, kick and catch 23% in object control skills.

4. DISCUSSION

The results of this research reveal that locomotor and object control skills in children aged 5-6 years do not vary by gender. However, it has been found that boys outperform girls in kick skills, which is one of the object control skills. As a result of Bolger et al. (2019) study, it is seen that girls score significantly higher in locomotor skills than boys, while boys score significantly higher in object control skill. As a result of another research conducted by Butterfield and Loovis (1994) it is stated that gender is an important factor for kick in favor of men. While several studies have been conducted to explore the impact of gender on FMS, whether girls and boys exhibit substantial variations in motor skills is still debatable. Raudsepp & Pääsuke (1995) who represent that gender is a variable in FMS, presented results in favor of girls in balance ability and in favor of boys in throwing, while McKenzie et al. (2001) have claimed that girls are more capable of jumping and balancing, and boys are more capable of catching. Toriola & Igbokwe (2008) stated in their study that children between the ages of 3-5 performed better than girls in four out of six motor tests (catching, standing long jump, throwing a tennis ball and running fast) at all age levels. In their study, Kokštejn, et al. (2017) found that the total test or balance scores of children aged 5 and 6 did not differ according to gender, but 6-year-old boys performed better than girls in catching skill. In another study, the results showed improvement for jumping, rolling and running (during and after treatment) for boys and for jumping and running (after treatment) for girls. In addition, the mean of FMS (leaps-rolling-running) of girls was higher than boys after
the treatment (Delaš et al., 2008).

It is worth mentioning that the majority of children have a poor degree of leap 0%, strike 1%, and dribble 7% skills while possessing a mastery level of 40%. It is most likely to indicate that both children underperform in strike ability since they are using the baseball bat for the first time in a cultural sense. It is consistent with the results of several studies and highlights the fact that children of various ages have poor percentages of FMS mastery (Hardy et al., 2010; Beurden, 2004). Okaly & Booth (2004) discovered that both girls and boys had a mastery level of FMS that did not reach 35% according to their research.

According to the findings of this research, children perform poorly in FMS at the level of mastery and near mastery, with just about 30%. And some skills (leap, strike and dribble) were reported to be at 95% level of poor. Children who have not acquired FMS proficiency at an early age experience difficulty in demonstrating various movement combinations in motor development (Gallahue et al., 2012). Being at the mastery level is considered basic in FMS and is required in sports branches and games. Children's inadequacies in FMS have an impact on their participation in PA. Stodden et al., (2008) stress the role of FMS in participating in lifelong sports activities in the model they created. There stands a positive connection between preschool children's motor ability competence and their involvement in physical activity (Cattuzzo, et al., 2016; Lubans, et al., 2010; Williams, et al., 2008; Stodden & Goodway, 2007; Fisher, et al., 2005). It has been discovered in experiments on poor physical activity in adolescents that a low level of FMS affects this condition (McKenzie et. al., 2007). Studies have shown that physical activity levels decrease towards adolescence and boys are more active than girls. (Cooper et al., 2015; Telama et al., 2014). Cohen et al. (2015), on the other hand, stressed in their analysis that FMS has a leading association with PA. Considering the positive effect of physical activity on the health of the individual, it is known that one of the factors affecting the level of physical activity is competence in FMS. Therefore, effective interventions for preschool children are required to reach FMS acquisition and mastery levels.

Motor development practice not only expedites but also avoids potential delays (Ersöz, 2012). Movement training practices for children develop FMS. Yarımkyaya & Ulucan (2015) applied a movement education program to preschool children in their study, and when pre-test and post-test of students in experimental group participated in the research were compared, it was determined that there was a statistically significant difference.

According to research on the development of FMS, as the right instructional curriculum is used, children's abilities increase (Ersöz, 2012; Boz, 2011; Ulutaş, 2011; Karagöz, 2009; Özdenk, 2007; Deli, et al., 2006; Ballı, 2006; Kerkez, 2006; Sen, 2004; Dursun, 2003). However, when these experiments were analyzed in depth, there were no results for the development of gallop, slip, strike, and leap skills; however, it was discovered that they were more concentrated on run, horizontal jump, hop, catch, throw skills, and improvement was found after applying movement training in these skills (Özdenk, 2007; Kerkez, 2006; Ballı, 2006; Şen, 2004; Dursun,
When the research results are analyzed, it is clear that Turkish children have poor levels of proficiency in Fundamental Movement Skills (FMS). These results highlight the significance of a systematic approach and implications for the development of mobility skills in preschool education.

While the research's drawback is that the physical facilities and specific exercise contents of the schools were omitted from the analysis in the acquisition of motor skill benefits, the research's strength is that the sample group is made up of schools where no specific application was rendered for any FMS and that the assessment is carried out by specialists.

The findings of this research highlight the significance of introducing effective programs in which children's FMS is insufficient, including the fact that it provides the potential to incorporate FMS in free play for both locomotor and object control skills. While children have the opportunity to practice FMS during free play, teacher-led activities result in greater growth in children's Fundamental Movement Skill (FMS) proficiency levels (Derri et al., 2001). According to the findings of the conducted research, the learning of each skill independently, as well as the likelihood of repeating this skill more than once, would be achievable only with suitable programs.

5. CONCLUSION

Preschool is a vital time for the development of fundamental movement skills. While the research findings suggest that Fundamental Movement Ability (FMS) proficiency does not vary by gender, they also indicate that children are not at mastery level of FMS and are also deficient in certain sub-skills. According to the research, there is a certain need for multiple implementations for FMS in preschool, as well as a special education period. Given that early childhood, strategies have a positive impact on children's interest in physical activity, it is critical to ensure that rich learning experiences and resources for the advancement of suitable services or fundamental movement skills are expanded.

REFERENCES


Physical Activity Guidelines Advisory Committee. (2018) Physical Activity...


Chapter 6

The Analysis of the Studies conducted in Turkey on Environmental Sensitivity

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INTRODUCTION

It is known that people in the world are faced with many environmental problems. Climate change, epidemics, extinction of many species and the depletion of non-renewable resources can be listed as some of the environmental problems that affect the whole world. Ecological balance is the most vital element that ensures the existence of living things on earth. Human activities cause this balance to deteriorate for various reasons. In order to leave a more livable environment to future generations, environmental awareness, consciousness, awareness, attitude and environmentally sensitive behaviors should be global and should be gained through education. For this reason, environmental education and activities regarding environmental problems create awareness in individuals. This awareness constitutes an important starting point in terms of ensuring environmental awareness and therefore developing environmentally sensitive behaviors.

With the developing technology and industry, the negative impact of humanity on nature has increased gradually. As a result, various environmental problems have emerged and they have reached a level that threatens human life. Environmental problems, which pose a danger to all living things, have become a global problem. The underlying reason is that unlimited environmental problems harm life of living beings and social peace. Environmental problems such as climate change, acid rain, reduction of biodiversity, storms, and changes in natural vegetation experienced globally have enabled all nations to act together (Smart and Genç, 2015; Bozdemir, 2019; Güler, 2010; Kaypak, 2012).

According to the report prepared by the World-Wide Fund for Nature, the world is struggling with a global epidemic (pandemic) that has never been experienced before. This pandemic, which spread rapidly to countries and continents, caused a great social and economic crisis. It is known that these rapidly spreading diseases (Covid-19, Ebola, AIDS, SARS, bird flu and swine flu) are animal-borne. Basically, the increase in human pressure on the creatures living in nature increases the risk of people getting infected with the diseases carried by these creatures. This report
shows that the real cause of this social crisis experienced today is human activities in nature (wwf.org.tr, 2020). According to the Environmental Status Report of Turkey, there has been an increase in production and consumption activities due to increasing population and urbanization, which increases human pressure on the natural environment and nonrenewable resources. Environmental problems such as climate change, environmental pollution, desertification, drought and floods deeply affect human life and the development process of societies. It is seen that climate change causes an increase in natural disasters and poses a global threat. The recent pandemic has shown that the habitats and future of all living things are completely in a nature-environment relationship. Today, the damage to natural environment and unconscious consumption of natural resources, chemicals or biologically-induced environmental degradation and the destruction of forests have negative effects on human health and cause problems such as global warming, climate change, desertification, drought, natural disasters and viruses. In brief, the world cannot be a habitable place unless measures are taken (ced.csb.gov.tr, 2021). Solving environmental problems today depends on international cooperation and solidarity. The most important method to achieve success in solving environmental problems is international and common environmental policies and education strategies for the environment (Atasoy, 2019, p.154).

As stated in the Environmental Status Report of Turkey, the 11th Development Plan which covers the years 2019-2023 includes policies such as environmental protection and the improvement of quality of life within the scope of "Liveable Cities and Sustainable Environment". In addition, the plan includes the protection of the environment and natural resources, ensuring their sustainability, implementing climate and environmentally friendly practices, and increasing the environmental awareness and sensitivity of the whole society (ced.csb.gov.tr, 2021). The most important task of supporting and implementing many environmentalist policies like these is the responsibility of all people who are in contact with the environment and who need the existence of the natural environment. As an individual, having environmental consciousness, awareness, and sensitivity is significant. However, a global struggle is required for global environmental problems. This can be achieved primarily through individual and then social environmental consciousness, awareness and sensitivity, as well as responsible environmental behaviors.

The consequences of environmental problems are a threat to the future of the society. The solution of these problems depends on the development of environmental attitudes and behaviors of individuals, who are the future of the society (Teksöz et al., 2010, p. 307). Unfortunately, individuals' indifference to the environment and continuing their consumption habits unconsciously cause the world to turn into a enlarging dump (Kayan, 2019, p.491). Irresponsible behavior towards the environment becomes the source of every new environmental problem that arises and affects societies further. For this purpose, people should be informed, made conscious and educated about the environment and environmental problems. In order to protect the environment, all people should feel responsible for the environment. It is the duty of educational institutions and educators to raise conscious and qualified
people who can assume and shoulder this responsibility. For this reason, the most important goal of environmental education should be to raise environmentally sensitive individuals who display responsible environmental behaviors (Aydın and Kaya, 2011, p. 231). Environmental problems, which are the products of technology developed for the desire of man to meet his needs, bring with it the necessity of raising individuals with environmental awareness for a more livable and healthier ecosystem.

The existence of societies depends on the existence of ecosystems. Societies that destroy the ecosystem, do not react to the extinction of many living species, and consume their natural resources unconsciously, actually unwittingly consume their own future, destroy their own lives and have to watch their own extinction (Atasoy, 2005, p.120). In order for these societies to save their future, it is necessary to raise individuals who are sensitive to the environment (Şahin et al., 2004, p. 114). From this perspective, it is understood that environmental problems are directly related to environmental awareness and environmental education. The solution to these problems should be questioned by the adequacy of individuals' environmental awareness and environmental education they receive (Çabuk and Karacaoğlu, 2003, p. 191).

Environmental problems that arise in different geographical locations and different societies are also shaped by the social, economic, cultural norms and values of those societies (Atasoy, 2019). Concepts such as "virtue, morality, value, tolerance, balance, togetherness, ethics" have come to the agenda many times from an ecological perspective, and ways to raise eco-individuals were sought to save nature from human pressure (Atasoy and Ertürk, 2008, p. 106). At this point, the concept of value has played an important role in discussing environmental problems. In this respect, the value education and value system that will direct the individual towards positive attitudes and behaviors towards the environment should be established in individuals (Bozdemir, 2019, p.53).

Environmental education is a lifelong process that provides a holistic view of environmental problems and enables actions to be taken to meet the needs (The Tbilisi Declaration, 1977). Environmental education is a long journey that aims to develop environmentally sensitive and positive behaviors in individuals, and also aims to raise environmentally friendly individuals with environmental awareness and responsibility (Atasoy, 2005, p. 120). In this respect, it is understood that environmental education does not only aim to provide information or help gain responsibility, but also it aims to reflect this knowledge and responsibility on environmental behavior. More importantly, with environmental education, it is aimed to raise individuals who do not remain indifferent to environmental problems, who develop suggestions for the solution of these problems, who question, discuss, and fully understand the concept of sustainability, who show sensitivity to environmental problems, and who have environmental knowledge and consciousness (Atasoy and Ertürk, 2008; Kaya et al., 2011). According to the North American Association for Environmental Education, the primary goal of environmental education is to develop a society which is aware of the environment.
and environmental problems and which have the knowledge, skills, attitudes and willingness to work individually or collectively to produce solutions to these problems (naee.org, 2019). Including environmental education and environmental values education will be effective in protecting the environment and preventing environmental problems (Bozdemir, 2019, p.53). As a result, it is clear that environmental education and environmental awareness should systematically be brought in to the whole society, including all formal education institutions, within the scope of lifelong learning. For this reason, it is a necessity to bring this value to individuals with insufficient environmental awareness within the scope of environmental education programs (Öztürk, 2019, p.78).

The aim of the study is to analyze the studies carried out recently in Turkey on environmental sensitivity in terms of methodological elements and to evaluate their findings related to environmental sensitivity. This study was conducted to analyze the theses, articles, and papers on environmental sensitivity in Turkey and to reveal the trend in environmental sensitivity. For this purpose, answers to the following research questions were sought.

1. What are the objectives in terms of environmental sensitivity?
2. What methods have been used to achieve these objectives?
3. What are the preferred sample groups?
4. What are the data collection tools used?
5. What are the results regarding environmental sensitivity?

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

In this research conducted using the qualitative research method, systematic review design was preferred in order to examine the studies on environmental sensitivity.

Systematic review is a method of defining and synthesizing research on the same subject (Victor, 2008). Systematic reviews are a structured, comprehensive synthesis and critical evaluation of studies conducted by experts in the field with similar methods on a particular subject (Borrego et al., 2015; Gopalakrishnan and Ganeshkumar, 2013; Karaçam, 2013). They can analyze quantitative or qualitative research. When two or more types of evidence are examined in a single study, it is called a mixed method systematic review (Hemingway and Brereton, 2009). The implementation of a systematic review depends on the collaboration of at least two researchers who will independently evaluate each selected research methodologically (Sampaio and Mancini, 2007). Such studies are useful in terms of synthesizing the results of more than one research study conducted separately (Akobeng, 2005).

In the study, it was aimed to examine and evaluate the studies systematically based on these definitions. The content analysis method was used in the analysis of the obtained data. Content analysis is an approach that allows verbal or written materials to be classified and inferred by evaluating them in terms of meaning (Tavşancıl and Aslan, 2001, p. 22).

The study covers the studies conducted between 2017-2020 on environmental sensitivity in Turkey. It is limited to a total of 37 studies, including 27 articles, 7
theses and 3 papers. Since environmental sensitivity was the focus within the scope of the study, data not related to this subject were not included in the study. The studies published between 2017-2020 were examined. The databases of Google Scholar, YÖK (Higher Education Council) National Thesis Center, ULAKBİM Dergipark, EBSCOhost-ERIC, ELSEVIER Scopus, ProQuest, SAGE, SpringerLink and Taylor and Francis were searched using the keywords of "environmental sensitivity" and "environmental awareness". As far as sample is concerned, studies including schools, universities and teachers were included in the study. Research types and distribution according to years are given in Table 1.

Table 1- Research types and distribution according to years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Type</th>
<th>Years</th>
<th>2017</th>
<th>2018</th>
<th>2019</th>
<th>2020</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paper</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S4-S6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Article</td>
<td>S1-S3-S10-S11-S14-S24-S30</td>
<td>S8-S12-S15-S19-S21-S26-S27-S28</td>
<td>S7-S9-S20-S22-S23-S25-S29</td>
<td>S5-S13-S16-S17-S18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thesis</td>
<td>Master’s</td>
<td>S31-S35</td>
<td></td>
<td>S33-S34-S36-S37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>S32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in Table 1, 3 papers, 27 articles and 7 theses written between 2017-2020 were included in the study.

The detailed reporting of the data collected as a result of the research and the detailed explanation of how the researchers reached the results is an important criterion for ensuring validity in a qualitative study (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2018, p.270). A code was added to the studies included in the study, and the studies were coded as S1 (Study1), S2, S3…. The studies were examined and transferred to Excel and each study was divided into themes and sub-themes within the scope of research questions and was presented in a table. As a result of all these examinations, Table 2 was used to code the studies included in the study.

Table 2- The form designed as the data collection tool

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Aim</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Data Collection Tool</th>
<th>Results</th>
<th>Citation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>Article</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>Paper</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S37</td>
<td>Thesis</td>
<td>2019</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
After the coding and analysis process, the data were presented in a table and interpreted. The findings were supported by direct quotations from the studies included in the study. The credibility, verifiability and transferability of the study was ensured by receiving the opinions of two experts other than researchers.

**FINDINGS AND RESULTS**

In this section, findings regarding the general aims of studies on environmental sensitivity, the methods used to achieve these aims, the preferred sample groups, the data collection tools used, and the results obtained are presented. The aims of the studies are given in Table.3.

*Table 3. The aims of studies on environmental sensitivity*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aim</th>
<th>Research Code</th>
<th>(f)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Determining the level of environmental sensitivity</td>
<td>S1- S5- S13- S16- S17- S18- S21- S22- S23- S24- S25- S26- S27- S30- S33- S36- S37</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determining the factors affecting environmental sensitivity</td>
<td>S5- S6- S7- S8- S9- S12- S15- S16- S19- S28- S29- S31</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigating environmental sensitivity in terms of some variables</td>
<td>S8- S11- S14- S21- S22- S30- S34- S35- S36</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determining environmentally sensitive behaviors</td>
<td>S3- S9- S10- S37</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examining the relationship between cognitive structure and environmental sensitivity</td>
<td>S2- S4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scale development</td>
<td>S20</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 3 is examined, it is seen that most of the studies on environmental awareness aimed to determine the environmental sensitivity level of individuals. Studies also aimed to determine the factors that affect environmental sensitivity, investigate environmental sensitivity in terms of some variables, determine environmentally sensitive behaviors, and examine the relationship between cognitive structure and environmental sensitivity. When the aims of the studies conducted to determine the environmental sensitivity level of individual are examined, it is seen that the individual is carried out to determine the environmental awareness, awareness and sensitivities. When the studies conducted to determine the factors affecting environmental sensitivity are examined, it is seen that the effects of courses such as environment-nature education and environmental activities on environmental sensitivity have generally been examined. Studies aiming to examine environmental awareness in terms of some variables investigated whether variables such as gender, age, grade level, education received, and movies watched make a difference in individuals' environmental sensitivity. Finally, it is seen that one study was conducted to develop a scale. It aimed to examine the role of the individual's environmental knowledge, attitude, awareness and sensitivity in determining...
environmentally sensitive behaviors. Direct quotations for these themes and subthemes are as follows:

“The study was conducted to determine the environmental sensitivity and awareness of students studying at Namık Kemal University. The study aimed to determine the level of awareness, sensitivity and attitudes of university students on environmental issues.” (S1-Article) - (Kiper et al., 2017).

“The aim of the study is to determine whether the environmental education courses given in the undergraduate program at university contribute to the awareness, consciousness and sensitivity of the students on environmental issues. In this study, it was aimed to determine the awareness, consciousness and sensitivity levels of the students studying in the undergraduate program of the Department of Urban Design and Landscape Architecture of the Faculty of Architecture of Amasya University.” (S16-Article) - (Kurt-Konakoğlu, 2020).

“The purpose of this study is to examine whether teacher candidates' past experiences (an environmental activity, a book read, a movie watched, etc.) and some of their personal characteristics (gender, age, department at university) led to a difference in their views on environmental sensitivity. (S21-Article) - (Arslan and Kızıldağ, 2018).

“With this study, it was aimed to examine the environmental awareness and environmental sensitivity levels of social studies teacher candidates in terms of various variables.” (S35-Master's thesis) - (Uzun, 2017).

“The general aim of the study is to determine the views of Sinop University students on environmental awareness and to reveal whether students' sensitivity to the environment differ according to their gender, age groups, and the grade level in which grade they were educated.” (A36-Master's thesis) - (Karataş, 2019).

The methods of the studies on environmental sensitivity have been examined and the findings regarding the preferred methods are given in Table 4.

Table 4. Methods used in studies on environmental sensitivity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Methods</th>
<th>Research Code</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quantitative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey study</td>
<td>S4 - S5 - S8 - S11 - S14 - S21-S22 - S23 - S24 - S25 - S27 - S29 - S30 - S31 - S33 - S34 - S35 - S36</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental study</td>
<td>S12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain design</td>
<td>S1 - S3 - S9 - S10 - S17 - S16 - S20 - S37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action research</td>
<td>S7 - S19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study</td>
<td>S15</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phenomenology</td>
<td>S13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Descriptive survey</td>
<td>S2 - S18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain design</td>
<td>S6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploratory sequential design</td>
<td>S26-S32</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embedded design</td>
<td>S28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen in Table 4, it was revealed that mostly quantitative research methods were preferred in the studies on environmental sensitivity. Again, it is seen that studies in which quantitative research methods were employed are mostly review studies. It was observed that a researcher working with a quantitative method preferred an experimental design with pretest-posttest and control group (S12), and in some studies (S1, S3, S9, S10, S17, S16, S20, S37) the research design is not clear. Qualitative research is the second most preferred research method. In this method, descriptive survey (S2-S18) and action research (S7-S19) were specifically preferred. It is seen that one researcher chose the case study design (S15), while another researcher preferred the phenomenological design (S13). On the other hand, the research design of another researcher (S6) is unclear. Mixed research methods are seen to be the least preferred research method by researchers on environmental awareness and researchers employing this method mostly preferred the exploratory sequential design (S26-S32) and the embedded design (S28). Direct quotes for these themes and subthemes are as follows:

"Phenomenological design, one of the qualitative research approaches, was used in the research process." (S13-Article) - (Yanarateş and Yılmaz, 2020).

"One of the qualitative research methods, action research was used." (S7-Article) - (İbret et al., 2019).

"The case study design, which is one of the qualitative research methods, was used in the study." (S15-Article) - (Ayaydın et al., 2018).

"The exploratory sequential design followed by qualitative analysis after quantitative analysis was used as the mixed design of the study." (S26-Article) - (Ceyhan and Sahin, 2018).

"In the research, the pre-post test model with a control group was used." (S12-Article) - (Akkurt, 2018).

"... It was prepared using the relational survey technique, one of the quantitative research techniques." (S24-Article) - (Akman, 2017).

"Concurrent embedded mixed method design was used in the study." (S28-Article) - (Yılmaz and Taş, 2018).

The distribution of the preferred methods according to years is given in Table 5.

Table 5. Distribution of methods used in environmental sensitivity studies by years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2017</th>
<th>2018</th>
<th>2019</th>
<th>2020</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quantitative</td>
<td></td>
<td>S1, S3, S10, S11, S14, S24, S30, S31, S35</td>
<td>S8, S12, S21, S27</td>
<td>S4, S9, S20, S22, S23, S25, S29, S33, S34, S36, S37</td>
<td>S5, S16, S17</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>S15, S19</td>
<td>S6, S7</td>
<td>S13, S18</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>S26, S32, S28</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When the studies on environmental sensitivity between 2017-2020 are examined, it is seen that the majority of the studies were conducted in 2019 and researchers preferred qualitative and quantitative research methods. It has been determined that there were almost equal number of studies on environmental sensitivity in 2017 and 2018. It is seen that the number of the studies is the lowest in 2020.

The sample of the studies on environmental sensitivity was examined and the findings related to the sample are given in Table.6.

Table 6. Preferred sample / study groups in environmental sensitivity studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample/Study group</th>
<th>Study Code and (N)</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preschool</td>
<td>S6(not mentioned)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>S3(1774), S7(19), S9(336), S15(50), S19(30), S28(78), S34(540)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school</td>
<td>S2(56), S8(162), S12(60), S37(257)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>S1(100), S4(172), S5(336), S10(467), S11(100), S13(217), S14(242), S16(112), S17(361), S18(44), S20(355), S21(173), S22(186), S23(107), S24(516), S25(277), S27(662), S29(288), S30(309), S31(33), S35(262), S36(249), S37(260)</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td><a href="269">S26/S32</a>, S33(303)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1 “[S26/S32]” The thesis and the article from the thesis

When Table.6 is examined, it was found that the studies on environmental sensitivity were mostly conducted with university students (S1, S4, S5, S10, S11, S13, S14, S16, S17, S18, S20, S21, S22, S23, S24, S25, S27, S29, S30, S31, S35, S36, S37). The second sample group preferred by researchers was the primary and secondary schools (S3, S7, S9, S15, S19, S28, S34). Secondary schools are in the third place in terms of sample preference (S2, S8, S12, S37). The least preferred sample group by the researchers was teachers [(S26/S32), S33] and pre-school (S6) students. Direct quotes for these themes and subthemes are provided below:

“There were 30 students in the experimental and control groups. The sample consists of 60 students.” (S12-Article) - (Akkurt, 2018).

"The sample consists of 56 high school students in the 2016-2017 academic year." (S2-Paper) - (Gerçek, 2017).

"The sample of the study consists of 217 pre-service teachers studying in the science, social studies and primary school education department.” (S13-Article) - (Yanarateş and Yılmaz, 2020).

"50 special talented seventh grade students from Istanbul, Aydın and Tekirdağ provinces participated in the study.” (S15-Article) - (Ayaydın et al., 2018).

"The sample consists of 19 primary school 4th grade students studying in the second semester of the 2017-2018 academic year.” (S7-Article) - (İbret et al., 2019).

“The sample is the secondary school students studying in the province of Denizli. 540 participants determined through the cluster sampling method
constituted the sample of the study. " (S34-Master's thesis) - (Öküzcüoğlu, 2019).

The data collection tools selected according to the purpose, method and sample group of the studies on environmental sensitivity are given in Table.7.

Table 7. Data collection tools used in environmental sensitivity studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data collection tools</th>
<th>Study Code</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scale</td>
<td>A3, A5, A12, A14, A17, A20, A21, A22, A23, A24, A25, A26, A27, A31, A32, A33, A34, A35</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
<td>A1, A4, A8, A9, A10, A11, A16, A29, A30, A36, A37</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview</td>
<td>A6, A7, A15, A18, A19, A26, A28, A32</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word association test</td>
<td>A2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2N forms</td>
<td>A19</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubrics</td>
<td>A19</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metaphor</td>
<td>A13</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in Table.7, it is seen that in the studies on environmental sensitivity, the scales were preferred by the researchers as the data collection tools and this is followed by the questionnaires and interviews. The least preferred data collection tools by researchers are the word association tests, 2n forms, rubrics and metaphors. Direct quotations for these themes and sub-themes are presented below:

"In the study, the semi-structured interview form prepared by the researchers and the activities to be applied in the process were prepared in order to reveal the students' thoughts about the concept of nature in depth." (S7-Article) - (İbret et al., 2019).

"The research data were collected with 2N forms, interview records and evaluation rubrics created for each of the alternative environmental practices." (S19-Article) - (Tuncel, 2018).

"Word Association Test (WAT) was prepared to reveal students' cognitive structures in relation to their environmental sensitivity." (S2-Paper) - (Gerçek, 2017).

"The Motivation and Learning Strategies Scale” and the Environmental Attitude Scale were administered to two classes before the study (S12-Article) - (Akkurt, 2018).

The findings of the studies on environmental sensitivity were evaluated and the results obtained by the researchers are given in Table.8.
When the results of the studies on environmental sensitivity are examined, it is concluded that some of the participants (university students and teachers) have high environmental sensitivity levels, while some of the participants have medium environmental sensitivity (university and secondary school students). In the light of the results of the researchers, it was determined that lessons and trainings such as environmental education and nature sports positively affect environmental awareness. It has been determined by the researchers that environmental awareness can affect the individual's environmentally sensitive behaviors and that women are more sensitive to environment than men. In addition, it has been revealed that the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Findings</th>
<th>Study Code</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It was concluded that the environmental sensitivity levels of the participants were high.</td>
<td>S1- S11- S13- S16- S22- S25- S26- S32- S35- S36</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lessons and trainings such as environmental education and nature sports positively affect environmental sensitivity.</td>
<td>S4- S5- S9- S14- S16- S27- S30- S31</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental awareness affects the individual's environmentally sensitive behaviors.</td>
<td>S3- S9- S10- S23- S33- S37</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It has been determined that women are more sensitive to environment than men.</td>
<td>S1- S4- S10- S11- S21- S22- S34</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of alternative activities in environmental issues is effective in raising awareness of the individual towards the natural environment.</td>
<td>S7- S12- S15-S19- S28</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants' environmental sensitivity is at a medium level.</td>
<td>S5- S8- S11- S21</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental awareness has positively affected environmental behavior.</td>
<td>S10- S11- S17</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The nature-environment education given in schools is insufficient.</td>
<td>S8- S9</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants are not sensitive to news, events and actions related to environmental problems.</td>
<td>S24- S37</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Books read, movies watched and environmental education lessons on the environment did not have a positive effect on environmental sensitivity.</td>
<td>S21- S29</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive views of individuals regarding environmental awareness do not reflect on environmental behavior.</td>
<td>S2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A scale that reflects the views on environmental sensitivity has been developed.</td>
<td>S20</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The individual who is in contact with nature shows more environmentally sensitive behaviors.</td>
<td>S18</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8. The findings of the studies on environmental sensitivity
activities carried out on environmental issues are effective in raising awareness of individuals towards the natural environment. It was concluded that individuals who are in contact with nature exhibit more environmentally sensitive behaviors and environmental sensitivity affects environmental behavior positively.

In some of the studies on environmental awareness, the nature-environment education provided in schools was found to be inadequate (primary and secondary school students); the participants were found to be sensitive to news, activities and actions related to environmental problems (university and secondary school students); the positive views of individuals towards environmental awareness have not been reflected on environmental behavior (secondary school students); and finally, it was concluded that the books read, the movies watched and the environmental education lessons did not have a positive effect on environmental awareness (university students). Direct quotations for these themes and sub-themes are presented below:

"The results showed that students' cognitive structures related to their environmental sensitivity are categorized. It has been found that students' views on environmental awareness are not sufficient in changing attitudes and behaviors towards environmental awareness." (S2-Paper) - (Gerçek, 2017).

"Within the scope of the study, a statistically significant difference was found between the general score averages of the students' views on environmental awareness according to their taking outdoor sports course. The general score average of the opinions of the students taking the outdoor sports course on environmental awareness is significantly higher than the average score of the students who do not take the course." (S4-Paper) - (Arslan, 2019).

"According to the research, it has been determined that the environmental awareness of university students is at a medium level. ... The average score of environmental awareness among those who are educated and those who are educated about the environment has increased. (S5-Article) - (Pirinççi et al., 2020).

"It has been concluded that the use of alternative activities in environmental issues is effective in raising awareness of students towards the natural environment." (S7-Article) - (İbret et al., 2019).

"In this study, in which the metaphorical perceptions of the teacher candidates were determined for the concept of environmental awareness, a total of 104 different metaphors were developed. One of the main reasons for the high number of metaphors developed can be attributed to the fact that the concept of environmental awareness has a wide and comprehensive meaning. When the metaphors are examined according to branches of teachers, it is seen that almost all branches produced sufficient number of metaphors. This shows that environmental awareness has a common place in science, classroom and social studies branches and their existing infrastructure is sufficient to develop metaphors." (S13-Article) - (Yanarates and Yılmaz, 2020).

"As a result, the research findings show that students develop awareness in terms of environmental sensitivity as a value through alternative environmental practices and internalize the value of environmental sensitivity." (S19-Article) -
“When the results of the research are evaluated, it is seen that the university students have poor environmental awareness, environmental knowledge and environmental attitudes. In other words, the environmental education courses students took at the university did not have a positive effect on their affective tendencies towards the environment.” (S29-Article) - (Arslan and Albay, 2019).

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

The studies conducted in Turkey between the years 2017-2020 on environmental sensitivity generally focused on examining the level environmental sensitivity according some variables (gender, taking courses such as environmental-nature education etc.) and determining the factors affecting the environmental awareness and environmentally responsible behavior. This may be due to the individual's sensitivity to any attitude, behavior, consciousness and sensitivity towards environmental problems. The multidimensional nature of the environmental problems has brought to the agenda that people should be more knowledgeable, conscious and sensitive about the environment and approach the environment with this sensitivity. In this respect, it is important to show the necessary sensitivity towards environmental awareness and to support initiatives towards this.

When the studies on environmental awareness conducted between 2017-2020 were examined, it was concluded that the most studies were conducted in 2019 with 2 papers, 4 theses and 7 articles, and researchers preferred the quantitative research method the most. In quantitative research methods, survey studies were mostly preferred. In survey studies, it was seen that the relational and cross-sectional survey model was preferred the most. The finding that the most preferred method is quantitative research shows similarities with the studies of other researchers (Bahar and Kiras, 2017; Gürdal et al., 2005; Yıldız, 2004). This may be due to the fact that quantitative studies can generalize the results, reach a large number of samples, and are a traditional method. In addition, in the qualitative research method, action research and descriptive survey were mostly preferred. Nine researchers stated the method of the study but did not specify which research design they used. Some researchers, who indicated the method and design of the research, provided incomplete or very brief explanations. It has been determined that the number of studies on environmental awareness in 2017-2018 is almost parallel to each other. It was determined that the least amount of work was carried out by the researchers in 2020.

When the sample of the studies was evaluated, it was determined that university students were preferred more than other sample groups and primary school students were also preferred as much as university students. In addition, it has been concluded that secondary school students and teachers are less preferred than university and primary school students. This result is similar to the studies conducted on this subject (Bahar and Kiras, 2017; Gürdal et al., 2005; Küçüközer, 2016; Yılmaz, 2012). It can be said that university students are preferred more than other sample groups because researchers can reach this sample more easily. It has been further determined that scales are at the forefront in terms of data collection tools, followed by
questionnaires. This result is similar to the results of the study conducted by Bahar and Kiras (2017). It can be stated that scales are preferred because it is easier to analyze scales and questionnaires. Semi-structured interview forms were preferred the least as data collection tools. In addition, the data were obtained by the researchers through the word association tests, rubrics and metaphors.

When the results of the studies were synthesized, it was concluded that some of the participants had high levels of environmental sensitivity, while others had moderate environmental sensitivity. It was determined that lectures and trainings such as environmental education and nature sports positively affect environmental awareness. It has been determined that the activities carried out on environmental issues are effective in raising sensitivity to the natural environment. It was concluded that individuals who are in a relationship with nature exhibit more environmentally sensitive behaviors and that environmental sensitivity affects environmental behavior positively. It can be said that these results may result from effective learning teaching methods, ensuring active participation and the relationship of the individual with the environment in general. It has been determined by the researchers that environmental awareness can affect the individual's environmentally sensitive behaviors and that women are more sensitive to environment than men. This can be explained by the fact that women are more self-sacrificing and sensitive than men.

Some of the studies on environmental awareness revealed that in some researched educational institutions, nature-environment education is inadequate, participants are not sensitive to news, activities and actions related to environmental problems, positive opinions of the individual about environmental awareness do not reflect on environmental behavior, and finally, the books read, watched films and environmental education received do not have a positive effect on environmental awareness. These results of the studies point to the fact that environmental education given in some educational levels is not sufficient, students cannot fully learn some concepts about environmental awareness or do not have values and gains. Similarly, in the study of Atasoy and Ertürk (2008), it is shown that primary school students are not at a sufficient level in terms of both environmental knowledge and environmental attitude and the reason for this is the insufficient environmental awareness of the students, environmental ethics and love of nature.

In general, it has been concluded that the participants are sensitive to the environment and that the activities and lessons for the environment positively affect the environmental awareness. On the other hand, it was determined that the participants who do not have environmental awareness do not have sufficient environmental knowledge and their environmental awareness is not fully formed in the individual because of insufficient training and activities. The most basic way of dealing with environmental problems is through education. Environmental awareness is an important value that should be acquired by students. In addition to the education and environmental policies applied to instill this value in students, educational institutions and teacher competence are also an issue that needs to be emphasized.
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S25 Turan, E. Z. (2019). Teacher candidates' environmental awareness and


Chapter 7

The Role and Importance of Web 2.0 Technologies in Distance Teaching of Informatics Courses

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INTRODUCTION

Distance education is a teaching model, which started to be implemented by letters in the 1700s and in which modern technologies such as augmented reality and hologram are used today. Distance education has always had a place on the agenda due to the opportunities it provides for individuals, such as working independent of time and place, synchronous and asynchronous interaction opportunities, easy access to different e-sources, flexibility, freedom of individual learning (Bradshow and Hinton, 2004; Katane, Kristovska, and Katans, 2015; Tait and Knight 1996; Uşun, 2006; Yıldız, 2204). However, this concept was moved to top ranks of the agenda as a pandemic was declared due to Covid-19 around the world in early 2020, and countries switched to distance education urgently and necessarily at all educational levels. As the pandemic was not expected to last for a long time in many countries and countries were not prepared for such a pandemic, distance learning was considered a temporary solution. However, prolongation of the pandemic not only caused distance education to be at the top of the agenda, but also increased the efforts to make distance education more qualified. Among the problems considered under the efforts to increase the quality of distance education, teachers mostly state the followings: low rate of student participation in lessons, lack of motivation in students and their being bored on the screen (Alvarez, 2020; Bakioğlu and Çevik, 2020; Başaran, Doğan, Karaoğlu and Şahin, 2020; Bayburtlu, 2020; Code, Ralph and Forde, 2020; Klapproth, Federkeil, Heinschke, and Jungmann, 2020; Nalaskowski, 2020; Nambiar, 2020; Noor, Isa and Mzhar, 2020; Shraim and Crompton, 2020). It is evident that teachers should teach by doing more than traditional teaching methods and should use materials appropriate for distance teaching so that many learners without any distance education experience can be active and motivated for a long time on the screen. Considering that the learners at preschool, primary school, secondary school and high school are considered within Z and alpha generation, it is essential to use the informatics technologies they are familiar with and the teaching methods on which these technologies can be integrated into distance teaching. When
examining the profiles of learners in these two generations, the generation Z members are distinguished by a high tendency to using technologies such as internet, mobile phones, computers, choice of interaction in virtual communication platforms, such as social media, being self-confident and possible lack of concentration (Cilliers, 2017; Francis and Hoefel, 2018; Özodaşık, 2019; Taş, Demirdöğmez, and Küçükoğlu, 2017). In addition, generation Alpha consists of individuals, who were born with technology, where the concept of connection is at the center of life, connected to the screen for entertainment and educational purposes, started education with technologies such as artificial intelligence and 3D printers, and quickly bored with everything (Jha, 2020; Karahasan, 2018). Based on these characteristics, learners' being active and motivated on screen during learning is directly related to their interaction with their peers, teachers and content. Interaction is one of the significant subjects in distant education literature. Holmberg's Theory of Interaction and Communication (Karataş, 2005; Keegan, 1996) and Anderson's Interaction Equivalency Theorem (Anderson, 2003; Saykılı, 2019) are two theories, which provide descriptions on types, structures and significance of interactions between the elements in distant teaching and which are still popular today. Theory of Interaction and Communication urges that the most basic element of learning is the interaction between learner-teacher. The emotions that a student will have by this interaction increase learning satisfaction and accordingly, learning motivation. Thus, increasing motivation facilitates learning. Interaction Equivalency Theorem describes the interaction types between learner-teacher, learner-learner and learner-content, and specifies the effect of the proportional level between them on learning.

Based on these theories, it is considered more appropriate that teachers should give distance education by benefiting from informatics technologies that may maintain learner-learner, learner-teacher and learner-content interaction at high levels. It wouldn't be wrong to say that Web 2.0 is the most preferred technology in distance education during the pandemics as it allows to activate all aforementioned three interactions. Web 2.0 technologies have become one of the alternatives that helped teachers in distance education during the pandemic due to their miscellaneous use for many purposes and their flexibility to be used in different devices.

In this section, the followings will be discussed: development process and content of Informatics courses taught in secondary and high schools in Turkey, web 2.0 technologies preferred most in distance teaching of these courses, for what purposes and how these technologies are used, their contributions to learning and teaching process.

WEB 2.0 AND ITS USE IN EDUCATION

Internet continues to develop by evolving from the day it was invented. In the first period, we involved in internet by web 1.0 technology, we had a passive user role. In web 0.1 as a monolog structure, users would access internet sites, would read something and then leave that site. Web 1.0 was an internet system operating with a completely document-oriented approach. Web 2.0 technology was introduced in 2005 (O’Reilly, 2005) due to the increasing amount and type of information, the
desire of internet users to share this information between themselves in a dynamic structure, need to interact more with each other and with the content on the internet. Therefore, it was passed to a new period, in other words, a user-oriented period, in which users could be active on the internet environment. In the web 2.0 period, one-way communication was replaced by two-way communication. In addition, some of the important advantages of web 2.0 technology are as follows: users can produce content in various formats, they can share these on internet, they can make a comment on other users’ posts and they can contribute to the development of posts. In short, it is observed that user-content and user-user interaction has reached to a maximum level in the internet period with web 2.0.


In addition to the opportunities of interaction, communication and collaboration it provides, web 2.0 technologies have become essential for many internet users in different areas today due to ease of access and use, having many alternatives with open source in addition to commercial ones, ability to be operated on various devices such as computers, tablets and smartphones. As one of these areas, education has been also affected by web 2.0 advantages and has opened the doors of a completely different world to learners and teachers beyond traditional teaching with successful applications. In this regard, web 2.0 technologies have accelerated the transition from a teacher-centered education to a learner-centered education along with the influence of other factors. It does not only provide students with a flexibility for self-learning independent of time and place, but also contributes them to gain the abilities of a new century, such as internet and social media literacy. It can be urged that web 2.0 technologies have also many advantages for teachers. Some of these advantages are to communicate more easily and flexibly with students and parents, to monitor and direct student performances more easily, to make assessment and evaluation by alternatives without paper-and-pencil, to provide students with verbal, written and visual feedback, to plan cooperative activities between students and to maintain these out of schools, to activate constructivist approach easily, to implement new teaching-learning approaches such as flipped learning.

Due to its advantages specified above, it is seen that web 2.0 technologies are used successfully in courses taught at various educational levels from pre-school to university (Afach, Kiwan and Semaan, 2018; Alhassan, 2017; Alkhayat, Ernest and LaChenaye, 2020; Al-Ma’aitah, 2020; Azid, Hasan, Nazarudin and Md-Ali, 2020; Bingimlas, 2017; Çelik, 2020; Dalvi-Esfahani, Wai Leong, Ibrahim and Nilashi, 91
2020; Jarrah and Alzubi, 2021; Jena, Bhattacharjee, Devi and Barman, 2020; Peterson-Ahmad, Stepp and Kyla Somerville, 2018; Zerkina, Chusavitina and Karmanova, 2019). Although web 2.0 technologies can also be used easily in informatics courses requiring practice for some achievements as well as theoretical knowledge, there are few studies on this subject in the literature (Agbo et. Al, 2020; Gençtürk and Korucu, 2017).

In the following sections, information will be given about the historical development and content of the informatics course taught at secondary and high schools in Turkey, and the web 2.0 tools preferred most in distance teaching of these courses will be explained by examples.

THE DEVELOPMENT PROCESS AND CONTENT OF INFORMATICS COURSES IN TURKEY

The Informatics Courses at Elementary Schools

Rapid changes in technology after 1950 and developments such as Web 2.0 technologies, which became popular especially in the early 2000s, have made it necessary for countries to reorganize their education-training programs. Many countries have preferred to update their curricula so that students could be educated in accordance with the technological era they are living in. In this regard, one of the countries that has updated curricula is Turkey. As a result of the technological developments, the Republic of Turkey, Ministry of National Education (MEB) published the "Elementary School Weekly Course Schedule" in 1997 by the decision no. 143 (Tebliğler Dergisi, 1997). By this decision, “Computer "course was added to course schedules as an elective course, which would be taught for a period between 1-5 years (it may be taught for 1 year or for 5 years) 1 or 2 hours a week. Since the curriculum was designed in a spiral structure, students can choose this course at any grade (Gülbaşar and Kalelioğlu, 2018). Due to these developments, Computer and Instructional Technologies Education (BÖTE) departments were founded in the Faculties of Education at Turkish universities in 1998 in order to meet the need for teachers to teach computer courses (Bardakçı and Keser, 2017). Although these departments began to graduate students as of 2001, the weekly course hour of Computer courses, which was 1 or 2 hours, was reduced to 1 hour at all grade levels pursuant to the decision no. 192 taken in 2005 (Tebliğler Dergisi, 2005). In 2007, the name of Computer course was changed and named after “Informatics Technologies” pursuant to the decision no. 111 taken by the Head Council of Education and Morality (TTBK), affiliated to MEB. While course hours were increased to 2 per week at the 4th and 5th grades, it continued to remain as 1 hour per week at other grade levels (Tebliğler Dergisi, 2007). According to the regulation made by decision no. 75 taken in 2010, weekly hour of Informatics Technologies and Software course was reduced to 1, and it was decided to be taught only at 6th, 7th and 8th grades (Tebliğler Dergisi, 2010). This change, made at the period when technology began to be used intensively, astonished the whole education community, especially Informatics Technology Teachers. In 2012, a new decision no. 69 was taken and the name of Informatics Technology course was updated to be Informatics
Technologies and Software (BTY), and the BTY course was resolved to be taught 2 hours per week as an elective course in the 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th grades (Tebliğler Dergisi, 2012). The curriculum of BTY course was renewed in the same year and started to be implemented in the 5th grades. After one year following the decision taken in 2012, a new decision no. 22 was taken, and the BTY course was firstly regulated as a compulsory course. According to this decision, it was decided that the BTY course would be taught 2 hours a week as a compulsory course in the 5th and 6th grades, and 2 hours a week as an elective course in the 7th and 8th grades (Tebliğler Dergisi, 2013). This regulation made in 2013 is still effective today. In the study named "History of Informatics Technology Courses Taught at Primary and Secondary (Elementary) Schools in Turkey" carried out by the Informatics Technologies Educators Association (BTED), the changes in the informatics course are provided in Table 1 (Informatics Technologies Educators Association, 2013).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Decision</th>
<th>Course Name</th>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Selection Type</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
<th>Course Hour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>Computer</td>
<td>Elective</td>
<td>Determined by school management.</td>
<td>Assessment is made by grade.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td></td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>Computer</td>
<td>Elective</td>
<td>Determined by teachers’ board.</td>
<td>Assessment is not made by grade.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>Informatics</td>
<td>Elective</td>
<td>Determined by teachers’ board.</td>
<td>Assessment is not made by grade.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Technologies</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>Informatics</td>
<td>Elective</td>
<td>Determined by teachers’ board.</td>
<td>Assessment is not made by grade.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Technologies</td>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>Informatics</td>
<td>Elective</td>
<td>Parents submit petitions.</td>
<td>Assessment is not made by grade.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Technologies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>and Software</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Informatics</td>
<td>Compulsory</td>
<td>Compulsory in 5th and 6th grades.</td>
<td>Assessment is made by grade.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Technologies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>and Software</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Elective in 7th and 8th grades.</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Pursuant to the decision no. 47 taken on 24 January 2018, the curriculum of the Informatics Technologies and Software Course for Secondary Schools and Imam Hatip Secondary Schools (5th and 6th grades) was structured. The details of this curriculum are provided in Table 2 and Table 3 (MEB, 2018a).

Table 2. The 5th Grade Curriculum of The Informatics Technologies and Software Course for Secondary Schools and Imam Hatip Secondary Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Hour</th>
<th>Rate%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Informatics Technologies</td>
<td>1. Importance of Informatics Technologies in Daily Life</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Computer Systems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. File Management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics and Security</td>
<td>1. Ethical Values</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Digital Citizenship</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Privacy and Security</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication, Research and Cooperation</td>
<td>1. Computer Networks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Research</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Commu.Tech. and Cooperation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product Development</td>
<td>1. Visual Processing Programs</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Word Processing Programs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Presentation Programs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem Solution and Programming</td>
<td>1. Problem Solution Concepts and Approaches</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Programming</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>75</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. The 6th Grade Curriculum of The Informatics Technologies and Software Course for Secondary Schools and İmam Hatip Secondary Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Hour</th>
<th>Rate%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Informatics Technologies</td>
<td>1. Importance of Informatics Technologies in Daily Life</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Computer Systems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. File Management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics and Security</td>
<td>1. Ethical Values</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Digital Citizenship</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Privacy and Security</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unit</td>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>Course</td>
<td>Hour</td>
<td>Rate%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informatics Technologies</td>
<td>1. Importance of Informatics Technologies in Daily Life</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethics and Security Problem</td>
<td>1. Ethical Values</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Privacy and Security</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. Problem Solution</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solution and Programming</td>
<td>1. Problem Solution Concepts and Approaches</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Programming</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product Development</td>
<td>1. Presentation and Visualization Programs</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Two-Dimensional Animation Development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>34</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Specified by the decision no. 81 taken on 3 January 2018, the 7th Grade Curriculum of The Elective Informatics Technologies and Software Course for Secondary Schools and İmam Hatip Secondary Schools is given in Table 4, 8th Grade Curriculum is provided in Table 5 (MEB, 2018b).

Table 4. The 7th Grade Curriculum of The Elective Informatics Technologies and Software Course for Secondary Schools and İmam Hatip Secondary Schools
Table 5. The 8th Grade Curriculum of The Elective Informatics Technologies and Software Course for Secondary Schools and İmam Hatip Secondary Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Hour</th>
<th>Rate%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Informatics Technologies</td>
<td>1. Importance of Informatics Technologies in Daily Life</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Privacy and Security</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication, Research</td>
<td>1. Social Media</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and Cooperation</td>
<td>2. Web Updates</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem</td>
<td>1. Problem Solution Concepts and Approaches</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solution and Programming</td>
<td>2. Programming</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product Development</td>
<td>1. Three-Dimensional Animation Development</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>38</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Informatics Courses at High School Education Level

Informatics courses are provided in the high school education as a follow-up of the Informatics Technologies and Software course taught at secondary schools in Turkey. The courses in the Informatics Technologies departments of vocational high schools and the courses taught in high schools other than these high schools are different from each other. The course taught in schools other than vocational high schools is named after Computer Science. Secondary Education Institutions Weekly Course Schedule was published by the decision no. 56 taken by TTKB on 19 February 2018 (TTKB, 2018). In this schedule, the types of high schools where the Computer Science course was taught and the weekly course hours were included. The status of the course is summarized in Table 6 according to the types of high schools.
Table 6. The Status of Computer Science Course According to Type of High School.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of High School</th>
<th>Course Status</th>
<th>Preparatory Class</th>
<th>9th Grade</th>
<th>10th Grade</th>
<th>11th Grade</th>
<th>12th Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anatolian High School</td>
<td>Elective</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anatolian High School with Preparatory Class</td>
<td>Compulsory</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Science High School</td>
<td>Compulsory</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science High School</td>
<td>Compulsory</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts High School (Music)</td>
<td>Elective</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts High School (Turkish Folk Music)</td>
<td>Elective</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts High School (Turkish Classical Music)</td>
<td>Elective</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts High School</td>
<td>Elective</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports High School</td>
<td>Elective</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anatolian Imam Hatip High School International</td>
<td>Elective</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anatolian Imam Hatip High School</td>
<td>Elective</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>(2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Computer Science course includes problem solution and programming topics. It is consisted of 2 stages. If the course is received for the first time regardless of grade, the program for Stage-1 is implemented. When the course is selected for the second time, the program for Stage-2 is applied. When the course is selected for the second time, 2 or only 1 of the 3 units in the Stage-2 program can be preferred (MEB, 2018b). This is determined by teachers’ board. The curriculum of Computer Science course is given in Table 7.
WEB 2.0 TOOLS RECOMMENDED IN DISTANCE TEACHING OF INFORMATICS COURSES

The web 2.0 tools preferred most by branch teachers in the distance education of Informatics courses are grouped under 5 categories. These are as follows:

1. Assessment and Evaluation Tools
2. Classroom Management Tools
3. Tools for Preparing Interactive Presentations
4. Programming Teaching Tools
5. Cooperative Study Tools

In this section, one web 2.0 tool from each category will be introduced in practice, and alternatives will be provided for the tool introduced.

1. Assessment and Evaluation Tools

**Kahoot!**

Kahoot is an assessment and evaluation tool, which is used to reinforce any subject that students learn in online or classroom environment, and aiming to make learning and evaluation funny. It can be accessed at https://www.kahoot.com. This tool is used to determine the readiness levels of students at the beginning of a lesson, to receive instant feedback on the subject taught during a lesson and to assess the learning outcomes, given to students, at the end or out of a lesson. Kahoot may be used both in mobile and web mediums. It is used in units, such as Informatics Technologies, Ethics and Security, Communication, Cooperation and Research, Product Development, which mostly contain theoretical subjects, in informatics courses. Teachers must first register the site in order to perform an assessment on Kahoot. Registration is free. After registering and logging in, teachers may provide access activity preparation page by clicking on Create button. There are 4 parts in
activity creation page (Figure 1). The part numbered 1 is used to add, copy or delete questions from an activity. Teachers can use 2 question types, true, false and multiple-choice, in this part. It is paid to add more question types. In the 2nd part, name and sharing settings of a Kahoot activity are made. In the 3rd part, the questions we want to include in an activity and their answers are written, and correct answer is determined. In the 4th part, operations for added questions are fulfilled.

Figure 1. Activity Create Screen

When it is clicked on Add question button in 1 numbered part, question type should be selected first. After selecting question type, the correct answer of a question should be marked by filling question and option fields in the area numbered 3, and all questions to be included in an activity should be added by following the same procedure and by clicking again on Add question button. When these processes are completed, screen should be closed by pressing Done button on the top right of the screen. After completing and recording questions, all Kahoot activities prepared are collected under My Kahoots menu. After entering this menu, it should be clicked on Play button of the activity, which will be started. In the following window, teachers are provided with two options: Teach and Assign (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Activity Assign Screen
Teach option allows the created activity to be applied simultaneously. By this option, a code is determined, and students are ensured to participate simultaneously in an activity by this code. In this option, questions are only seen on teacher’s screen, while students can see some shapes (triangle, square, etc.) and colors, representing the options. Students read questions and options on teacher's screen, and answer them on their own screens. In the option named Assign, a Kahoot activity is started by setting a specific date and time. After this setting, a code and a link are created by the system in order to share questions with students. Teacher shares code or link with students, and enables students to complete an activity simultaneously. In an activity started with this option, all questions and options appear on students’ screens. This allows students to reinforce topics to the extent they wish.

Alternative Free Assessment and Evaluation Tools to Kahoot: Socrative, Quizizz, QuizWhizzer, Google Forms, Microsoft Forms.

2. Classroom Management Tools

Edmodo

Edmodo is a classroom management tool, which gathers students and teachers for an education activity (lesson, course, club, etc.), allowing them to share homework, documents and surveys on the system, by which assessment and evaluation may be carried out by means of its examination system. It can be accessed at https://www.edmodo.com. Lessons continue out of schools thanks to its components. As it has both mobile and web versions, it is preferred by many educators. Edmodo is generally used more in Informatics courses at high school level. The main purpose of using this system is to share documents regarding activities carried out in lessons or topics learned. This system is used in Informatics courses specially to share the codes, taught in units containing programming subjects, with students, and to allow students to access documents and to study and to practice individually. In addition, teachers can assess to what extent students have acquired lesson outcomes by means of homework given by the system. One of the most useful features of the system is enabling to establish a teacher-student and student-student interaction out of lessons. Edmodo is a free system. In addition to being free, there is no need to get a special membership for each class as it allows teachers to create separate classes. It also provides support for 28 languages. Teachers first must register the site in order to create classrooms on the system and to include students in these classrooms. Membership is free. After registering and logging in, teachers can start the steps of creating a class by using Create a Class button (Figure 3). In the window opened, the Create button should be clicked after filling out class name, class level and class subject (Figure 4).
After creating a class, teachers are directed automatically to class portal. There is a Class Code on the classroom portal enabling students to be included in a classroom. This code is unique for each class created. Teachers may send this code to students and allow them to join classes, or they can copy the link in the window opened after clicking on the Class Code text, and then share it with students. Teachers generally use link share method (Figure 5).

When teachers want to share a material with students, they can use post share area within a class. Many files, such as texts, images, videos, GIFs, PDFs and surveys can be shared with students in this area. In addition, the date and time of a post can be set by using clock button, thus, a post can be shared automatically at a selected date and time.

In addition to sharing materials, teachers can also assign homework and quizzes for students by clicking Create button in a class. While it is sufficient to define the issues to be fulfilled by students in the option of homework, questions must be assigned in the option of Quiz (Figure 6).
In order to assign a Quiz for students, Quiz title and a description should be first entered, which is followed by assigning questions in Quiz Question section (Figure 7).

In the Quiz Questions section, there are a total of 6 question types: true-false, multiple choice, short answer, gap-filling, matching and multiple choice. After selecting question type, question description is written in Question Text section, while answers are written in the section below. It is necessary to mark correct answer choice. In the grading part, score of a question should be determined and other questions should be prepared in the same methods. After completing all steps, it is passed to homework assign step by means of Assign button. In order to assign a homework, class, deadline, duration and other options should be set and Assign button should be clicked on. Thus, the prepared quiz is assigned to students at a selected class.

Free Classroom Management Tools Alternative to Edmodo: ClassDojo, Google ClassRoom, EasyClass.

3. Interactive Presentation Preparation Tools

Nearpod is a presentation prepare tool. This web-based and free software can
operate on both desktop and mobile devices. It can be accessed at https://www.nearpod.com. This software is generally used in lecturing theoretical topics in Informatics courses. Presentations become interactive and students can be included in presentations thanks to many components it has. It is one of the presentation tools preferred due to this feature as it supports teacher-student and student-content interaction. After preparing presentations, teachers may allow students to join presentations by means of class code or link they will send to students. Teachers must first register on the site in order to prepare interactive presentations on Nearpod. After registering and logging in, teachers can get access to the screen for preparing a new presentation by Create-Lesson button on home page (Figure 8).

![Figure 8. Presentation Create Screen](image)

By Settings button, explanations on title of a presentation and other details can be made. Any content and activity can be added to a presentation by Add Content & Activities button. When clicking on this button, two menus are opened as Content and Activities (Figure 9).

![Figure 9. Content Screen](image)

In the context menu, there are many tools such as video, slide, web content, 3D, simulation, VR, BBC Video, PDF viewer. Teachers may click on any tool they need and include it in a presentation. It is enough for teachers to press the Slide button to add a slide to a presentation. As in Powerpoint, data should be entered on the screen opened. Slide design may be set by Themes menu. Background images can be added.
to slides by the Background menu, and layout of a slide on the screen can be adjusted by Layout menu. After completing data entry of a presentation, it can be returned to a slide by clicking on Save & Exit button (Figure 10).

![Figure 10. Slide Data Entry Screen](image)

After entering data into a slide, new contents can be added to a presentation by following the same procedures. Activities menu can be used to get instant feedback from students during a presentation and then to make simple evaluations (Figure 11). There are many components, such as open-ended question, survey, drawing, matching within Activities menu. Necessary settings should be established by clicking on the component to be used.

![Figure 11. Activity Screen](image)

For example, in order to create a survey on a subject taught in a lesson, it should be clicked on Poll button, thus, survey questions can be created, answers can be added, a time limit can be set for survey by determining a duration (Figure 12). As students can be more actively involved in presentations, interaction will also increase. After establishing settings, presentation screen can be returned by clicking Save button.

After entering data to presentations, all presentations created are collected under My Lessons menu. Teachers should click Live Participation button by selecting the presentation under this menu they want to start. After clicking this button, buttons will appear on the screen of teachers in order to be shared as codes, links on various platforms.
If a teacher shares these codes or links with students, students can participate in a presentation. By this feature, when a teacher changes a slide on his/her screen, related content will automatically change on the screens of students. Moreover, if a teacher added any quiz, survey and similar assessment tools in a presentation, detailed reports of students can also be accessed under Reports menu.


4. Programming Teaching Tools

Scratch is a web 2.0 tool, developed to provide students with programming skills as of early ages by means of its components of blocks. It can be accessed at https://www.scratch.mit.edu. This tool aims to teach programming logic by combining created blocks instead of writing long lines of code. Scratch is a tool preferred frequently by informatics teachers in distant education. It is frequently used in the teaching of problem solution and practice-centered subjects of programming units, particularly in informatics courses at secondary school level. Scratch has both web and desktop applications. Teachers and students can create practices on internet by using web version of the program, they can also perform activities of programming topics without internet by installing desktop application on their computers. The advantages of Scratch used in the web environment compared to the desktop application can be stated as automatic registration and sharing options. This makes the web environment more preferred. A program prepared in desktop application may be uploaded on Scratch site and share options may be activated. Scratch's web page can be visited to download the desktop application to a computer. Membership is not necessary to carry out any study on web environment, but it is recommended to use the program after registration so that the studies conducted can be automatically saved and then can be downloaded to a computer, can be edited or shared with other people on the internet. In this respect, in order to use Scratch on web environment, it is necessary to access its web site and to register by clicking on Join Scratch button. After completing registration and logging in the site, an empty
Scratch study file may be opened by clicking on Create button. In an empty Scratch project, there are 8 main parts (Figure 13). In the 1\textsuperscript{st} part, the settings related to code blocks, costumes and sounds are made. In the 2\textsuperscript{nd} part, there are main menus, in which code blocks are collected. By this part, it is switched quickly to menus, such as movement, appearance, variable, etc., and the code blocks of these menus can be displayed in part 3. In the 4\textsuperscript{th} part, name and sharing settings may be done regarding our projects. In the 5\textsuperscript{th} part, the code blocks in part 3 are dragged and combined. All codes to be used are organized in this part. When the green flag in part 6 is clicked, the screen shots of the combined code blocks in part 5 can be seen. In the 7\textsuperscript{th} part, while dummy/object adding operations are performed to a project, the settings regarding a scene can be made in part 8.

While Scratch can be used by teachers when teaching and making applications on the topics of problem solution and programming, it can also be used by students in operations such as, individual study and sending a homework.

![Figure 13. Scratch Screen](image)

The Share button on the top of the stage should be clicked so that a teacher can send a project to a student or a student can send it to his/her teacher. Thus, a project is opened for sharing. However, a link should be shared to send this project to other individuals. On the page opened after clicking the Share button, it can be provided access the code blocks used in a project by means of the See Inside button, instructions regarding the application can be written on instructions menu, important notes about the content of application, a project and the names of contributors, if any, on Notes and Credits menu, thus anyone providing accesses to the link can see this information. Anyone getting access to the link by the Comments menu can comment on a prepared project and declare their opinions (Figure 14). A project owner may see these comments and may interact with individuals who have made comments.
When it is clicked on Copy Link, you can see a link enabling access to a project and the embed code allowing a project to be placed on websites (Figure 15). Teachers can share the activities they have prepared with students by the Copy link button, students can also share the activities they have prepared with their teachers by means of the same method. Teachers and students can add Scratch projects to their websites or blog pages with the embed code. By this method, e-portfolio environments may be created. In both methods, teachers can remotely control and inspect the activities and homework made by students.

Free Programming Teaching Tools Alternative to Scratch: Google Blockly, Code.org, mBlock, Kodu Game Lab.

5. Cooperative Study Tools

Padlet is a digital clipboard application enabling teachers or students to make cooperative studies through internet connection and allowing materials such as pictures, videos, PDFs to be added to the site. It can be accessed at
https://www.padlet.com. Added materials can be up to 25 MB in size. To state shortly, Padlet is a digital version of boards in schools. This application is used effectively in all levels where informatics courses are taught, especially in transferring theoretical topics, collecting students' thoughts and sharing student studies. Padlet is especially used in informatics courses to reinforce topics, such as hardware-software concepts, memory units, file extensions, ethics and security, communication tools and types. What is more, students have the opportunity to learn a subject in depth by making discussions under the titles of the digital clipboard contents created. Padlet is a tool compatible with both web and mobile. Teachers register the site in order to use the Padlet application. Registration is free, but it is only allowed to create 3 digital clipboards under a membership. Teachers desiring to use more digital clipboard creation space within a single account must pay additional fees. After registration, teachers are directed to the home page of Padlet, and they can proceed to the digital clipboard creation step by clicking the Make a Padlet button. There are 8 different digital panel components that can be created in the Padlet. These are wall, canvas, flow, visual sketch, shelf, chat, map and chart. Teachers can create an empty digital clipboard by choosing the component they want to use (Figure 16).

![Figure 16. Digital Clipboard Components](image)

When a digital clipboard is created, the settings for features, such as digital clipboard title, description, link, background, comment should be made. Following these settings, contents can be added to the digital clipboard by pressing the + sign at the bottom right of the screen or double clicking on an empty area on the screen. Application link should be shared with students after teachers determine contents/titles and how the application will be conducted. In this regard, adjustments can be made to the sharing settings by clicking the Share button on the upper right of the screen. If teachers do not want to make any change on settings, they can copy link by clicking on Copy link to clipboard button and can share it with students. Following this, students can provide access to digital clipboards created by teachers by clicking on the link copied, and then can contribute to related titles (Figure 17). If teachers want to make changes on sharing settings (to make a digital clipboard hidden, to specify a password for a digital clipboard, to make a digital clipboard
read-only, etc.), they must make necessary settings by clicking the Change Privacy button before clicking this button, and then click on the link copy button. The most important part of these adjustments is the Visitor permissions part (Figure 18). In this part, there are settings regarding whether individuals gaining access to the link may contribute to a digital clipboard, whether they can change digital clipboard. If students are requested to contribute to a digital clipboard, Can write option should be selected. If students are allowed only to see and read the information on a digital clipboard, Can read option should be selected. Later on, the link can be shared with students by clicking on the Copy link to clipboard button.

An example of cooperative study carried out by students on the subject of file extensions in the 5th grade curriculum in live Informatics lessons made by Zoom is presented in Figure 19. This activity has been created by 15 students, who were divided into 2 groups by means of Zoom Breakout feature. Group 1 completed the left part, while group 2 completed the right part. Each of the boxes on rightmost and leftmost of the visual represents file types, such as a picture, sound, video file etc. used on a computer.

![Figure 17. Digital Clipboard Sharing Screen](image1)

![Figure 18. Digital Clipboard Settings](image2)

![Figure 19. Cooperative Study Example on File Extensions Subject](image3)
The boxes linked with an arrow sign refer to the file extensions of the relevant file types. Free Cooperative Study Tools Alternative to Padlet: Trello, Basecamp, Google Documents, Google e-Sheets, Google Jamboard.

CONCLUSION

When examining the historical development process, the technological developments and changes have influenced education systems, and the technologies used for teaching and learning have differed in time. Another issue accelerating this dynamic process has been the competencies and habits of individuals living in that time period regarding technology use. Technology-assisted learning demands of students of Z and alpha generations, who were born in a world equipped with technology in the 2000s, have required teachers to integrate the latest technology in their methods and techniques they use in lessons. The importance of this integration has been observed clearer during the Covid-19 pandemic process going on since March 2020. Particularly the first period of the pandemics process was quite difficult for teachers, who were not competent on theoretical and practical dimensions of distance education, who had not sufficient knowledge and skills. Some of the teachers, who are competent on using materials and classroom management in classes of face-to-face education, have stumbled over motivating students for a long time and providing an interactive and enjoyable learning environment while on the screen. One of the most significant reasons for some teachers not to have the aforementioned difficulty is their ability to integrate the latest educational technologies such as web 2.0 into teaching methods and techniques. One of the difficulties that teachers may have in the selection of web 2.0 technologies is the fact that they are large in number and type, some of them are not compatible with every device. Considering that some of these technologies are costly and have access and use problems due to security flaws, in-service training for teachers on web 2.0 technologies can be urged compulsory. In addition, it should attach importance by decision-makers to make such training sustainable and to support teachers financially in acquiring web 2.0 technologies. Studies should also be carried out to include compulsory courses regarding web 2.0 technologies in higher education programs of teacher education.

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Chapter 8

Using Digital Short Stories in Teaching English Vocabulary

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INTRODUCTION

Long-running studies have revealed that modern and authentic methods are substantial means while teaching language. When these methods are combined with technology, they enable acceleration of second language acquisition for language learners. Vocabulary knowledge serves as the cornerstone of all the four language skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking. This research analyses the benefits of digital short story use with a combination of technology and short story approach in language teaching classroom as it shapes the vocabulary knowledge outcomes. “Building up a useful vocabulary is central to the learning of a foreign language” (Cameron, 2001, 72). Vocabulary growth is directly correlated with the four language skills. The more the language learner encounters new vocabulary in meaningful contexts, the stronger their vocabulary development would be. The more vocabulary foreign language learners have, the stronger their communicative powers. With this in mind, promoting vocabulary growth is an important concern for language learners. The digital environment offers rich and authentic visual and auditory input for learners. Literary works comprised of cultural and social details is a noteworthy language model for learners in many ways. Learners are able to examine literary works including syntax discourse functions and correct sentence patterns prevalent in literary texts (Stan, 2014, 454-459) and thus improving their general language capacity in the target language.

Background of the Problem

The language education system in public schools may bring about problems for students’ thoughts about language learning. Content of mandatory English syllabus equipped by authorities scares learners. These programs generally assess students’ knowledge by a grammar-based test system. Teachers can alter learner’s bias against language learning by selecting accurate methods, which are suitable for learners' interests, backgrounds and levels. Most students consider language learning as memorization of grammar rules and accumulation of vocabularies. Instructors have a troublesome duty to change students’ perceptions about language learning. Teachers ought to provide various activities which make learners acquire vocabulary intrinsically so that they are not overwhelmed about vocabulary learning. Use of literature and technology can achieve the motivation and interest of language
learners. Technologically supported language pedagogy provides an effective learning potential for language learners (Dexter, Anderson & Becker, 2014, 221-239). Digital short stories and follow-up language activities provide a rich content education which can draw students’ attention. Appropriate story material in digestible digital sizes could draw learners into the language learning literary world. According to Cameron (2001) short stories provide many instances of rich vocabulary reservoir, rhymes, repetitions and structures to learners. Vocabulary learning moves beyond learning words and becomes a step to build grammatical development (Cameron, 2001). These tools when adapted technologically supported stories can assist learners in analyzing and synthesizing the information autonomously. Digital short stories provide learners opportunities to engage fully with the literary text in a spoken and written style and acquire the language in a contextualized design (Garvie, 1990). Hence, learners gain new receptive vocabulary to add to their growing active vocabulary pool. This way learners can advance their language learning approach and become more equipped in coping with challenges they encounter in their language journey.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Short Stories in the Language Classroom

Short stories prove to be effective sources of language learning. Language teachers should be mindful of the target group and their needs to make the best choices. Digital sources provide many advantages and opportunities compared to the traditional literary sources. The visually rich digital short stories can be easily adapted to various language proficiency levels. To achieve maximum efficiency from these stories, digital short stories ought to be selected according to learner's interest, background, and language level. Materials should be in accordance with students’ proficiency levels and should provide an amount of background information for initiating true appreciation (Hill, 1994, 349-358). The key concern for the teacher is to make the literary material relatable to students. Short stories are practical for different learning styles in so far as the instructor manages to create the necessary link for learners. For instance, language teacher can easily utilize short stories with learners who have visual and auditory learning strengths. Kinesthetic and verbal learning styles can be easily addressed with literary materials. Thus, digital short stories can be molded by the language instructor to address different learning styles and diverse intelligences. Digital short stories can be adjusted for different language levels and skills. For instance, more complex elements of narratives such as conflict, climax, and solution can be introduced to more advanced groups (Erkaya, Rocha 2005, 38-49) whereas straight vocabulary practice can be targeted for lower proficiency levels. The length and detail of short stories should be organized according to students’ proficiency levels.

Different strategies should be used to create a good match between the digital narrative and the learning group. According to Gajdusek (1988, 227-257), pre-reading activities are an effective method to introduce and stimulate curiosity. Thus, implementing pre-reading activities are motivating strategies which encourage
verbal participation of language learners. Also, it is possible to address and integrate all language skills in short story applications. When learners are drawn into the story, they are ready to engage with the text fully sharing their ideas in English communicatively (Garvie, 1990). Being drawn into the story initiates creative ways of expression both in speaking and writing encourage productive vocabulary building blocks. Bland (2013, 5) supports this view indicating that authentic materials can cater to learners' effective, aesthetic and wider educational needs in addition to their functional-communicative consequences in L2. Literary works offer rich language exposure for spelling, vocabulary and grammatical structure (Heaton, 1988). Utilizing well-chosen digital short stories can achieve long-term learning results in vocabulary and other language skills. Furthermore, short stories contain words and phrases from daily life and diverse cultures. Another advantage of the use of carefully selected stories is enabling creativity and abundant speaking practice through newly gained vocabulary. Learners can interpret stories and respond creatively in oral and written discourse through individual or group activities (Oster, 1989, 85-103). Students learn to interpret and criticize the narrative work of art through the target language and improve their language skills. Learners build cultural bridges and become world citizens.

**Digital Short Stories in the Language Classroom**

Use of digital short stories provides several advantages for language learners. Students can access new information confidently and feel more self-sufficient in creating and sharing new ideas through narrative discourse. Digital narrative resources present an entertaining and informative platform for language students. They do not think of stories as regular classroom teaching, so learning becomes more interesting for them. Utilization of multimedia texts in the classroom encourages learners to familiarize with new vocabularies and language structures (Ahmadi, 2018, 115-125). Students can analyze and synthesize digital stories with rich syntax, vocabulary and grammar input. Students also find opportunities to produce verbal and written language output interacting at a personal level. Digital short story discourse provides culturally relevant and globally congruent details. Abstract concepts such as love, humanity, values and human relations etc. are experienced easily by learners. Oatley (1999) claims that fictional stories improve people's empathy skills and help to understand others. Details of the plot can affect students and makes them remember the words in the long term. Deep engagement with the reading text initiates word recognition to move into long-term memory.

One key concern of the digitalized learning is mitigating the age, background and interest of learners so that more effective learning outcomes can occur. According to Rossiter (2002), stories involving interesting and entertaining content can be used to facilitate learning outcomes. So, it is key to know the interests and realities of learners by the language teachers in order to make the right story choices. Short stories are flexible learning materials adaptable for variables such as age, background, and interests of learners to create curiosity and motivation. Learning opportunity becomes more viable for learners provided that their anxiety level is reduced, and their curiosity is increased. In such a learning context, words to learn
become more vivid in learners’ memory and become long-term easily. This study was conducted to explore if the well-chosen digital short stories can be influential materials in helping students build strong vocabulary and language skills.

Short Stories, Vocabulary Skill, and Other Language Skills

This study stems from the assumption that well-chosen digital short stories contribute immensely to the development of vocabulary knowledge of language learners. Lao and Krashen (2000, 261-270) claimed that carefully chosen literary texts have considerable implication for teaching vocabulary as gathered from their research at a Hong-Kong university. Knowing a word is more complex than one thinks. One can know a word but may only know one of the many meanings that word holds. Sometimes one cannot spell a word, but still could grasp what it refers to when s/he sees or hears it. It becomes clear that learning a word is not a one-time act of learning but an ongoing process that adds layers on previous learning. “Vocabulary development is about learning words, but it is about much more than that. Vocabulary development is also about learning more about those words, and about learning formulaic phrases or chunks, finding words inside them, and learning even more about those words” (Cameron, 2001, 73). With this in mind, word knowledge can be categorized as active or passive as well as receptive or productive vocabularies (Lehr, Osborn & Hiebert, 2004). Passive vocabulary knowledge means that learners can recognize particular words when they encounter, however they cannot use these words actively in speech or writing. Hatch and Brown (1995) presented a similar conceptualization when defining vocabulary knowledge: Receptive vocabulary knowledge can be defined as the word group that students identify when they see in a text or hear in oral discourse. Productive word knowledge, on the other hand, refers to the word groups that learners are able to use in speaking or writing. Students often acquire words as passive or receptive knowledge, and as the learners increase their familiarity with these words, they move to active or productive knowledge storages. Thus, knowing a word includes different degrees of knowing. When one knows more about a word, s/he starts to learn additional nuances about that word and connecting associations with that word. Well-chosen short stories as well as their skillful practice in language classes enable growth of vocabulary knowledge. “…vocabulary development is a continuous process, not just adding new words but of building up knowledge about words we already know partially” (Cameron, 2002, 74). We can only see the body of the flower above the surface with the roots underneath the surface holding the flower strongly. It is for this reason that learning more about a word is like growing branches in the same body of a tree as our partial understandings of a word enlarges to develop fuller meanings. Cameron uses the metaphor of a flower image whose roots are growing underneath the soil for keeping the flower alive as it grows. This also refers to multiple layers and aspects of vocabulary development which presents a flexible learning model for vocabulary growth.

Learning new vocabulary is an exciting but at the same time it is a difficult undertaking. The process of vocabulary learning can be demoralizing for some learners because learners cannot relate words easily to their first language. Also, not
all words in the second language have an equivalent in the first language. Nation (1990, 326-328) states that students should be exposed to target words regularly knowing that the best way to learn is to dwell abundantly in the second language. This way learners will be encouraged to think in L2. According to Lubliner and Smetana (2005, 163-200), words encountered regularly become permanent for students, and students may start to think in the second language without realizing. In this regard, Hişmanoğlu (2005, 1-14) expresses that unlike classical methods, short stories provide entertaining and long-term vocabulary learning. Short stories build a cultural bridge between the target language(s) and the first language. In this regard, learning vocabulary becomes a pleasant task of providing linkages between the two languages and the world cultures.

Instructors can rank particular activities in the classroom for vocabulary study. Before reading or listening/watching digital short stories a series of warm-up activities can be practiced. For instance, discussion, brainstorming or guessing word meaning can be some examples for warm-up activities. After reading texts and listening/watching digital short stories, instructors can apply several comprehension activities to check student comprehension. Short stories procure many opportunities for different learning styles or preferences. Drama activity, for instance, can be an extraordinary activity for learners with kinesthetic intelligence. Also, whole class guessing-game or character analysis in the story can attract learners with interpersonal intelligence. Oster (1989, 85-103) points out that focusing different point of views in literature widens students' vision and fosters critical thinking as various situations are dramatized. Short story discussion and activities encourage students to communicate spontaneously and creatively with others to stretch their language capacities. Interactive activities with digital story practices encourage spontaneous and fluent foreign language communication. When students gain sufficient vocabulary knowledge and increase their social participation, they can use language more effectively and strategically. Thus, learners can carry out speaking and writing activities or interact with other students in a variety of ways.

Digital short stories appeal to learners with different language proficiency levels. According to Povey (1972, 40-46), short stories provide authentic language use with rich grammatical structures and language discourses. Beginner level students may also consolidate their grammatical and vocabulary knowledge through repetitive patterns in short stories. Students have the opportunity to examine use of authentic samples, thus they acquire permanence in learning. Beginner students may have difficulty in understanding audio texts on the first try. Before listening to the audio reading, pre-reading questions can be asked by the instructor to aid students’ understanding and promote the topic. Students can practice native pronunciation input through audio discourse, and develop their listening comprehension skills. Visual aids and lively dialogues in short stories facilitate predicting the meanings of new words. Oster (1989, 85-103) stated that interesting short stories do not only improve oral skills, but also writing skills. For instance, post-reading activities can encourage learners to exhibit their views in writing or speaking by practicing newly learned vocabulary. Advanced learners as well as beginners can boost their language
skills through versatile opportunities digital short stories provide. Digital story approach provides different teaching options for different language levels and supports integrated language skills learning. This study aims to examine the effect of the digital short story application on vocabulary acquisition of learners.

**METHODODOLOGY**

**Settings and Participants**

This study was carried out with preparatory students at a Foundation University to explore how digital short story practice influences their vocabulary development in English. It covered the fall semester of 2019-2020. Students' English level was beginner according to CEFR, and they would go on to study in their departments upon completion of the Preparatory program. Learners’ basic language competencies had to be improved to be able to continue with their departmental studies. Learners' vocabulary knowledge ought to be sufficient to enable them succeed in their departments of study. Experimental and control groups were formed for the study. Ages of students were between 18 to 23. There were twenty students in each classroom. Students' weekly schedule contained a main course, listening-speaking, reading-writing and a team-teaching class. Instructors in the English Preparatory School administer quizzes for all of the skills lessons. Additionally, in the Preparatory school semester consists of four achievement tests to assess students’ proficiency level and determine a pass or fail at the end of the semester.

**Instruments**

In this study, qualitative and quantitative measurement tools were used to gather reliable and valid data. Teachers took notes observing students in the treatment class to catch the moment-to-moment details of the lesson. Semi-structured interviews formed another qualitative data source. Pre-test and post-test applications were implemented as quantitative measurements. Qualitative and quantitative aspects of the study make this research multi-faceted in understanding the phenomenon under study.

**Teacher’s Notes and Semi-Structured Interviews**

The teacher/researcher took first-hand notes in the digital short story treatment class. The instructor took regular notes to record daily details of the classroom practice and used these as self-reflection for short story practice. Some comprehension questions in the form of an informal interview were directed at the students about short stories and their answers were recorded by the teacher. These answers helped the instructor to understand students’ emerging performances in the foreign language as well as understanding their views about short stories. Interviews were carried out with random students from control and experimental groups. These interviews were carried out at the end of the study in order to get their reflections. Following questions were directed at the students to learn more about their thoughts on digital short stories, use of literature, and vocabulary learning.

- Do you think the pre-test and post-test are suitable for your level or is it too difficult?
• Do you think that short stories are effective for learning a language?
• Do you think literature/short stories is/are useful for learning English?

In addition to student interviews, teacher interviews were also done. Three preparatory-school teachers who taught control and experimental groups were asked and their opinions and suggestions were recorded. The following question is directed at the language instructors in order to get a closer understanding of their views.
• Do you think that the pre-test and post-test are explicit, intelligible and appropriate according to the level of students?

Pre-Test and Post-Test

Students were divided into two groups as experimental and control groups. Treatment was applied to the experimental group during a six-week period of digital short story application. The pre-test was prepared taking into consideration the word knowledge of students. This test was applied to both experimental and control groups. It consisted of five categories which aimed to measure students' comprehension as well as their ability to use vocabulary in meaningful sentences. The first section of the test included two definitions given where students were asked to match one of the two definitions that fit the given word most appropriately. Students also were asked to correctly write ten sentences with the ten given words. Also, they answered multiple-choice questions from among a variety of options. In the last part, students matched the words in the first column with their synonyms in the second column. The pre-test provided the researcher with information about students’ current word knowledge. Pre-test revealed that the current vocabulary level of students was nearly the same between two groups. After a 6-weeks treatment period of the experimental group, a post-test was given to both groups in order to understand whether the digital short story application had a significant effect on students’ vocabulary development or not.

The Treatment Phase and the Digital Short Stories

First, pre-test was applied to both groups in a lesson hour, and after taking the results, a vocabulary list was created according to students' level as well as taking into consideration of the course book. Selection of digital short stories depended on many criteria including, the vocabulary list created, students’ proficiency levels, student background and interests. Digital short stories were selected from the British Council website to draw students' attention through fascinating topics such as history, literature and culture. An extensive digital short story program was carried out for the experimental group students. These students watched/listened two digital short stories in each lesson. During the class period, students participated in various activities including vocabulary, speaking and writing. The instructor implemented the same procedure for each story and at the end of six weeks gave the post-test. It can be deduced from the results that students made progress in all language skills, thanks to the digital storytelling application.

The digital short stories were selected considering substantial characters from the prominent names of English literature and history in alignment with the A2 language proficiency level. Digital short stories included approximately 2-3 minutes
of audio and provided students with an opportunity to understand what they were listening and reading. Each digital short story supplied vocabulary activities which students completed both before and after listening to the short stories. Pre-reading exercises included probing questions about the story’s theme and allowing for some guessing for the meanings of words in the text. The while-reading activities concentrated on the main text, and students engaged in various language practices such as putting the sentences in the correct order, true-false exercises and giving short answers to questions related to the text. The post-reading activities aimed to make students converse through the newly learned words. These activities served to understand whether students grasp the topic of the text and comprehend the meanings of new vocabularies.

Data Collection Procedure

This study analyses the effect of digital story application on the vocabulary acquisition of English Preparatory School students. Students were informed about the study at the beginning of the class so that they attended exercises voluntarily throughout the process. Firstly, a pre-test was applied to all students to learn about students' vocabulary knowledge. A series of activities were practiced by students with each short story. The researcher created an observation form to note as much detail as possible in each classroom, so that students' progress could be noted down. Interviews were added in order to be informed about the opinions and comments of teachers about the pre-test and post-tests as well as their view of the digital story application. Another set of interviews were carried out with selected students from both groups in order to get a closer understanding of the student views. The post-test applied at the end of the study in order to understand whether digital storytelling application was useful or not and so to determine if this digital application is worthy of use for English Preparatory language learning context.

FINDINGS AND DATA ANALYSIS

The following data shows the results of pre-test and post-test for both groups.

Table 1: Results of the Pre-test and Post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>Post-Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61-70</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71-80</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81-90</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>91-100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the result of the pre-test, the control group which has an average of 66.60 surpassed the experimental group with an average of 64.60. However, this difference is a small-scale difference which might not give the control group a big start.
The following diagram shows the results of the Pre-test and Post-test of the Control group.

*Diagram 2: Control Group’s Pre-test and Post-test Score Differences*

Diagram 2 indicates that comparison of the means of pre-test and post-test results showed that vocabulary learning outcomes was not substantial. The control group students could make no headway to categorize, match, define and contextualize the determined words indicating that solely using course books for vocabulary teaching might not be an effective strategy.
The following diagram shows the results of the Pre-test and Post-test of the Experimental group.

*Diagram 3: Experimental Group Pre-test and Post-test Score Difference*

The experimental group post-test scores dramatically outscored the control groups' scores after the treatment period, which supports the study. It means that digital story application can be a strategy language teacher utilize to achieve more positive vocabulary learning outcomes.

According to results in the post-test, preponderant score of experimental group demonstrated that digital storytelling is a useful language teaching application. The experimental group’s score, having 14 points difference between the general average of the pre-test and the post-test, proved that students also made progress numerically. Students frequently encountered same words in different contexts thanks to digital short stories; thus, they could recall words more easily. Students could also advance their critical thinking and higher-order thinking abilities through analyzing short stories. Through the characters and historical events providing cultural transmission, students gained new perspectives and motivation for learning, and they became eager to read more. Thus, digital short stories offer more functional learning opportunities when compared to classical methods.

Researcher Observation, and Interview Questions and Responses

The instructor wrote down notes instantaneously in each lesson by observing students’ behavior. It can be deduced from these observations that students improved their overall language competencies. At the end of the digital short story process, students began to communicate efficiently and faster compared to the beginning of
the study. Students seemed to acquire knowledge instinctively rather than engaging in memorization. New learning methods assisted students in developing their skills of critical thinking and self-confidence. Learners were keen on interpreting short stories autonomously and interact with other students to share their thoughts. Also, students were not concerned about exam scores because these readings would not be part of the preparatory school assessment. Students adjusted and adapted to these lessons readily as well as enjoying and internalizing short stories.

Three experienced lecturers who were teaching the digital short story application shared their opinions. The question of whether they thought the pre-test and post-test are explicit, intelligible and appropriate according to the level of students, were answered by the first instructor to be confusion free for most of the sections of the exam. Yet, the instructor added that it would have been better if the number of words in the writing section were fewer. The second teacher expressed that the test validity was achieved because of the meticulous choice of words and exercises from the course book. The third lecturer remarked that multiple-choice questions were about knowing the lexical meanings which were not sufficient on its own since students should also learn how to use these words in a sentence. The instructors compromised that the use of different question types was substantial to procure reliability and increase the presumption of getting the same results in two groups.

The interview was carried out with students from both groups. One question was directed at students from both groups, and two other questions were asked only to experimental group students. The common question asked to students in both the groups was: “Do you think the pre-test and post-test are suitable for your level or is it too difficult?” According to most of the students, writing sentences from the given words was the most challenging part since they could not ensure writing correct sentences due to lack of vocabulary and grammar knowledge. Students stated that they were familiar with multiple-choice questions compared to other parts. Students' general statement about the pre-test was that although it was explicit and feasible, they had trouble answering them. The second question for experimental group students was: “Do you think that short stories are effective for learning a language?”.

Students indicated that short stories promoted their language competencies and contributed to their vocabulary and grammar knowledge. Students also confirmed that they could deduce words’ meaning from dialogues thanks to visual aids and other features of short stories. Finally, the third question was asked to the experimental group students: “Do you think literature is useful for learning English?”.

Most students responded to this question by saying that they found the topics of the stories to be attractive, and digitalization of literature drew their attention, too. Entertaining activities and listening/watching tools rendered literature a more pleasant experience for students.

CONCLUSION

The study inquired about the effectiveness of digital short stories for English preparatory school students’ vocabulary knowledge development. Analyzing the results of this study showed that listening to and reading to digital short stories
enhanced their vocabulary repertoire. The digital story application encouraged students to read a lot and make them more curious about different language points. Different kinds of stories allowed students to recognize other cultures and learn more about them. Students could observe different perspectives such as human values, morality and lifestyle varieties that influence their personality positively, thanks to various topics in short stories. After the treatment phase of the experimental group, students made presentations in skills lessons. Students portrayed more self-confidence and self-control while using language thanks to vocabulary gained from short stories. Vocabulary activities became more entertaining as students gained particular vocabulary knowledge, and they responded to questions more fluently and willingly in the classroom. They could also utilize words properly in their articles in the reading-writing lesson. Besides, this study overcomes an essential problem in the experimental group language classes. Students exposed to the teacher-directed method with a strict course book focus. Most of them lacked self-confidence and were participating reluctantly in their English classes. The instructor collaborated with students to back up their pedagogical and psychological wellbeing as well as nurturing their academic success. The digital story method increased students' autonomy, creativity and consciousness in learning, and thus, they attended actively in pair work activities and individual assignments. This study encourages trying new approaches and styles in language teaching contexts so that we can go outside of the box of teaching routines. Trying novel alternatives will open the way for new discoveries for language instructors but more importantly it will result in positive learning for language learners.

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The Role of Cultural Intelligence in Multicultural Education and Teacher Competencies

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INTRODUCTION

Culture is the whole of material and non-material products, the total of symbolic and learned products or features which a human society hands down from generation to generation socially (Cevizci, 2010, p. 320). Parekh (2002) defines culture as the system of meaning and importance created within history, the order of beliefs and customs which a group of people use to understand, regulate and structure their individual and social lives. Culture, one of the foundations of social solidarity, helps people with similar accumulations and purposes to identify with one another (Tanrıkulu, 2018). Since culture-human relationship isn't unidirectional, it may change in the direction of new needs appearing within the course of time. On the one hand, people are affected by cultures of societies, but on the other hand, they make contributions to them. Individuals' personal reactions have an effect on a society's reaction, guide it and, hence, make some changes in a society's culture. Non-static nature of culture underlies the mentioned change. For this reason, the culture of every society does not change at the same rate. The rate of cultural change differs depending on the degree of a society's interaction with other societies. While cultures of some societies change rapidly, those of others change slowly (Aktan, 2003). Culture has a integrative nature and it is shared by society members collectively. People sharing the same beliefs, speaking the same language, protecting their countries have a cultural unity. However, multiculturalism is a concept pointing to the existence of different cultures or cultural groups. The phenomenon of multiculturalism is composed of the interaction of opinions stated in the way that people are nested into culture, cultural diversity and intercultural communication are inevitable and desired and all cultures have internal pluralism (Parekh, 2002, p. 430). Today, the mentioned interaction is at an inevitable point especially for multi-nation states.

Multiculturalism

As a definition, multiculturalism refers to the capacity of different communities, each of which has a different culture, to live together with equal opportunities in the integrity of a nation state (Say, 2013). Historically, the concepts of multicultural and
Multiculturalism does not go a long way back. Multiculturalism was used for the first time in 1941 to describe a cosmopolitan society composed of unprejudiced and unbound individuals (Doytcheva, 2009, p. 141). In the 1970’s, together with the increase in social diversity in many countries, mainly in the USA and as a result of the awareness of the racism and pressure against ethnic minorities, the concepts of multiculturalism and diversity showed up (Munley, Duncan, Mcdonnell, & Sauer, 2004). In this period, multiculturalism came up in Australia and Canada with the aim of encouraging cultural diversity especially in the direction of a state policy. This concept emerging as a result of naming the policies which they developed with the aim of encouraging the cultural differences of indigenous peoples and immigrants as "multiculturalism policies" spread to the United States of America, Great Britain, New Zealand, Europe and Latin America in the next decade (Yanık, 2013, p. 42). However, the taking place of the concept of multiculturalism in scientific studies started only in the 1980’s and 1990’s (Munley, Duncan, Mcdonnell, & Sauer, 2004).

More than one nations' living under the roof a state arises from cultural diversity. For this reason, the states holding more than one nations under the same roof are the multi-national, hence, multicultural states (Kymlicka, 1995). On the other hand, today the increase in the cultural diversity of the nations in the world is an irrefutable fact. Today, in almost all the countries in the world, people with different ethnic origins, religions and languages are living together (Açıkalın, 2018, p. 23). However, these countries' being multi-national does not mean that their citizens do not regard themselves as a single nation having certain purposes. For example, the Swiss have a strong shared sense of faithfulness despite their cultural and linguistic differences. The reason for this is the fact that multinational states cannot continue their existences unless national groups remain loyal to big political communities in which they live together (Kymlicka, 1995). Multiculturalism is likely to express more than one situations in different forms. It is possible to list these as follows;

- A description of the demographic structure of a society,
- Practices belonging to different cultures observable in a society such as festivals, dances, etc.,
- The way how a society establishes a relationship of with minorities in it,
- Policies administered by public authorities so as to have minorities benefit from equal opportunities,
- Institutions and practices arranged accordingly for the benefits of minorities such as consultative committees, private offices, agencies and financial funds (Vertovec, 1996, p. 50).

**Multicultural Education**

In the world changing and differing rapidly together with the concept of multiculturalism, the multicultural education was regarded as necessary to help students reach full democratic maturity and have them understand "others" (Banks, 1992: 35). In the literature, there are different definitions for multicultural education. While some of these definitions include cultural characteristics of various groups,
others emphasize social problems (Gay, 1994). Multicultural education is based on a philosophy of education providing ethnic, cultural differences with life and legitimacy and aiming to provide students with equal academic opportunities to help them reach success. Multicultural education is an education policy having its own values and rules, including educational programs, teaching materials and organizational structures and is based on the regulation of all the elements of education-teaching and educational policies in a way which is based on plurality (Polat, 2009, p.156). According to Ramage (1996), multicultural education is founded on the principle of plurality and diversity and based on the principles of democracy, equality and justice. Parekh (2002) defines multicultural education as the ability to make an independent decision by evaluating intellectual curiosity, self-criticism, arguments and proofs, show respect to others, be sensitive to different thinking and life styles and carry out activities with the aim of reproaching from an ethnocentric understanding.

Multicultural education was born with the movement of minority rights started in the 1960's in the United States of America and today has turned into an approach adopting the realization of education within the framework of the principles of "equality and justice" by taking into account students' cultural differences (Açıkalın, 2018, p. 224). The purpose of multicultural education helping to get to know and understand many cultures (Shaw, 1988: 254) is based on the equality of students belonging to different ethnic, racial, cultural, social class and language groups (Banks, 2013, p. 13). The main purposes of multicultural education were determined by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE, 1977) in the USA as follows:

- To improve the skills of evaluation and interpretation of such problems as democratic participation, racism, sexism,
- To develop the ability to comprehend overt and covert sides of a value in the transfer of that value,
- To investigate into the dynamics of different cultures and their effects on the development of teaching strategies,
- To investigate into linguistic and learning differences.

Among some other purposes of multicultural education are to develop cultural and ethnic literacy, to make contributions to students' personal developments, to clean them of behaviors and values based on prejudice, to acquire intercultural knowledge, to establish intercultural communication and to establish healthy, unprejudiced relationships when they encounter people from different groups by having them acquire such abilities as being able to establish interpersonal relationships, having an idea, making evaluations in integrity, understanding different viewpoints and analyzing how they affect cultural values, beliefs, expectations and attitudes (Gay, 1994). Besides this, what is aimed in multicultural education is to create equal educational opportunities for all students coming from different races, ethnic structures and social groups and having different beliefs and thoughts and achieve to establish dialogues between different student groups. In order to achieve these basic purposes, it was also seen essential that some dimensions
of education should be in harmony with one another.

Banks (2013) showed the dimensions of multicultural education in the following figure.

![Figure 1. Dimensions of Multicultural Education](image)


- **Process of Knowledge Building**: Process of knowledge building is related to teachers' helping students understand, inquire and determine how cultural assumptions, reference points, viewpoints and prejudices in an area affect knowledge building in that area.

- **Content Integration**: Content integration covers teachers' presenting basic ideas, principles, generalizations and theories which they use when explaining subjects via examples, data and information from various cultures and groups.

- **Equalitarian Pedagogy**: Equalitarian pedagogy exists when teachers change their own teaching methods in a way to increase the success of students coming from different racial, cultural and class groups. This covers the use of teaching methods to be in harmony with many learning methods included in different cultural and ethnic groups.

- **Decrease in Prejudice**: This dimension focuses on students' racial behavioral characteristics and how they can be changed via teaching methods and materials.

- **Strengthening School Culture and Social Structure**: Grouping and labeling, involving in sport activities, disproportion in success and communication between staff and students from different ethnic and racial groups are components of school culture and should be examined so as to create a school culture to strengthen students from different racial, ethnic and cultural groups.
When it is evaluated within the context of the above-listed purposes and dimensions, it is seen that the most important function of multicultural education is to train teachers and create a teaching program. Multicultural education encourages that teaching programs and teacher attitudes should help to get to know, protect individuals coming from different ethnic origins and have them be proud of their cultures (Barrington, 1981: 59). National Council for Accreditation for Teacher Education (NCATE) (2002) emphasizes the importance of training preservice teachers in a culture-sensitive way and defines cultural diversity as differences between individuals and groups depending on ethnic origin, race, socioeconomic level, gender, disability, language, religion, sexual orientation and geographical region.

Villegas and Lucas (2002) specified six characteristics which culture-sensitive teachers should possess:

- Being socio-culturally conscious, that is to say, being aware that there are many ways of perceiving the truth and these ways are affected by individuals' social environments,
- Being able to see learning resources in all students, not regarding differences as problems which need overcoming,
- Being aware of their own responsibility in schools' function of providing all students with educational richness and diversity,
- Understanding how students structure knowledge and supporting learners to structure knowledge,
- Being knowledgeable of the lives of students,
- Re-designing teaching via knowledge about the lives of students.

What is important in terms of teachers is becoming aware of cultural differences. Teachers with this awareness regard student from different cultures as learners bringing rich knowledge and experiences to school. It shouldn't be forgotten that teachers' attitudes determine their expectations about students, behaviors toward students and what students learn significantly (Irvine, 1990; cited by Villages and Lucas, 2002). In developing positive attitude toward multicultural education, it is rather important that individuals should have necessary knowledge and skills to be able to adjust to cultural differences. Cultural intelligence, which is related with individuals' being successful at adjusting to intercultural differences (Earley and Ang, 2003), provides a basis for teachers' developing a positive attitude toward multicultural education. Banks (2013) states that teachers' being aware of which behaviors, values and attitudes shape students' cultures is possible through knowing their own social and cultural contexts and having a developed cultural intelligence.

**Cultural Intelligence and Its Dimensions**

The concept of cultural intelligence was introduced for the first time by Earley and Ang in 2003 in the field of social sciences and management science in the book entitled “Cultural Intelligence: Individual Interactions Across Cultures” and published in Stanford University (Yeşil, 2009). Within years, different definitions have been made in the scientific world for "cultural intelligence (CQ)" or
"individual’s cultural quotient" (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). Cultural intelligence defined by Earley and Ang (2003) as an individual's ability to adjust to new cultural environments effectively was defined by Ang et al. (2012) as an individual's ability to understand, interpret and behave correctly in situations arising from cultural differences in intercultural environments. Cultural intelligence, an ability which can be developed via education, traveling, intercultural experiences and active participations (Van Dyne et al., 2012), is a capability helping an individual act in his/her social life effectively especially in multicultural environments (Ang et al., 2012). This type of intelligence comes into the prominence especially in individuals' relationships with different culture groups.

The concept of cultural intelligence as a continuing ability explaining why some individuals are more effective in doing this than others has an important potential of understanding of intercultural interactions. Thanks to cultural intelligence, individuals can establish empathy with people coming from different cultures (İbiş, 2018) and interpret a foreigner's gestures, mimics and behaviors in the same way as the citizens of that person will do (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004).

![Figure 2. Dimensions of Cultural Intelligence](source: D. Livermore (2010). Leading with cultural intelligence: The new secret to success. New York, NY: American Management Association, Amacom.)

The concept of cultural intelligence used to reflect the ability to cope with people from different cultural backgrounds effectively is a multidimensional concept (Thomas D. C., 2006; Livermore D., 2011). The concept of cultural intelligence introduced by Earley and Ang as having three dimensions, namely cognitive, motivational and behavioral, was later examined in four dimensions by adding the dimension of meta-cognitive cultural intelligence (Earley & Ang, 2003; Livermore D., 2010). The meta-cognitive dimension of cultural intelligence refers to the level of awareness related to cultural knowledge, which an individual sets on when an individual is establishing communication with people from different cultures, and the capability of checking this knowledge; the cognitive dimension signifies the knowledge possessed in relation to other cultural characteristics; the motivational dimension points to the willingness to establish relationships with different cultures; the behavioral dimension indicates the competency of exhibiting sensitive and
respectful behaviors toward cultural differences (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Together with all these dimensions of its, cultural intelligence corresponds to both intellectual and behavioral acts of individuals.

**Meta-Cognitive Intelligence:** Meta-cognition and cognition is an individual's mental ability representing his/her cognitive functioning aiming at learning and understanding the world (Morgan, 1991; Van Dyne et al., 2012). Moreover, cultural cognition aims to reveal individuals' strategic approaches in understanding different experiences. For the concept of meta-cognition, the expression of "knowledge of knowledge" is used. By using his/her meta-cognitive intelligence, an individual can determine whether s/he can use strategic decisions/cultural knowledge, see how cultural differences affect people's behaviors and evaluate if plans, expectations and strategic approaches are appropriate for intercultural encounters (Vann Dyne, Soon & Livermore, 2010). In this perspective, individuals with high meta-cognitive intelligence dimension are expected to have a strong analysis ability.

**Cognitive Cultural Intelligence:** Cognitive cultural intelligence helps to understand intercultural problems and differences as a knowledge dimension. This factor is mostly taken in hand to emphasize the approach which fits for intercultural competence (Vann Dyne, Soon & Livermore, 2010). It defines the understanding of cultural norms, values, religious beliefs, language and communication rules, traditions, briefly the components of cultural systems and affects an individual's behavior in this way (Earley & Peterson, 2004). Individuals with high cognitive cultural intelligence feel less uncomfortable when entering a relationship with people from different cultures and can distinguish similarities from differences between cultures more easily.

**Motivational Cultural Intelligence:** In the dimension of motivational cultural intelligence, the motivation factor is based on the exhibition of interest, confidence and desire in adjusting to intercultural environment. Motivation, the Turkish equivalent of which is "güdü", is defined as "the power bringing about behavior and achieving continuity". Individuals with motivational cultural intelligence as the ability to see intercultural interactions differently spend every kind of effort to gain new experiences from people with different cultures (Earley & Peterson, 2004). Especially in case of achieving intrinsic motivation, an individual's adaptation might gain continuity.

**Behavioral Cultural Intelligence:** Behavioral cultural intelligence represents the action dimension as the ability to adjust verbal and non-verbal communication in accordance with intercultural situations. Behavioral cultural dimension implying individuals' knowledge about when these actions should be performed and when they are not performed indicates high level cultural awareness (Vann Dyne, Soon & Livermore, 2010). In other words, behavioral cultural intelligence focuses not on what people think or feel but on "what they do" (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). The observation of this intelligence dimension is possible only through individuals' behaviors.
Multicultural Education and Relationship between Teacher Competencies and Cultural Intelligence

Awareness and abilities helping an individual become active, efficient and successful in a multicultural environment form the focal point of cultural intelligence (Yoğurtçu, 2015). For this reason, teachers’ having a developed cultural intelligence helps them analyze different cultures from a few different perspectives and bring them to the classroom.

When the related literature is examined, it is seen that there are some studies aiming to determine the relationship between multicultural education and cultural intelligence. In the study made by Thomas and Inkson (2005), it was found that the individuals with high cultural intelligence were competent at understanding a culture, had cognitive equipment in relation to different cultures, could adjust when establishing communication with different cultures by exhibiting behaviors which were in accordance with the mentioned culture and tried to restructure their attitudes to show sensitivity/ feel respect to different cultures. Kumar, Che Rose and Subramaniam (2008) found in a study made with postgraduate students that cultural intelligence increased employee efficiency and became effective in the acquisition of personal characteristics in individuals living in multicultural environments. In the study made by Petroviç (2011), it was revealed that deriving pleasure from intercultural communication, experiencing multicultural classes, openness to cultural learning and being in interaction with people from other cultures were important signs of teachers’ cultural intelligence. Again, in a study in which Koçak and Özdemir (2015) examined the relationships between the preservice teachers’ cultural intelligence and their attitudes toward multicultural education, the general result that cultural intelligence had an important effect on the attitude toward multicultural education was reached. Yaşar Ekici (2017) reached the result that there was a significant relationship between the preschool preservice teachers' cultural intelligence levels and their attitudes toward multicultural education. In a study, Gezer and Şahin (2017) examined the relationship between the attitude toward multicultural education and cultural intelligence and determined a positive, moderate level, significant relationship between three dimensions of cultural intelligence excluding the cognitive dimension and the attitude toward multicultural education. In the study made by Ekinci (2019) with teachers, it was found that meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational and behavioral cultural intelligence were the strong predictors of multicultural competence. In the study carried out by Uğur (2019), a positive significant relationship was determined between the teachers' cultural intelligence and cultural sensitivity, emphatic tendency and multicultural education attitude.

CONCLUSIONS

Migration movement and advancement in transportation networks in our age freed people from being imprisoned in a single geography. The increasing ethnic diversity in countries together with international migration movement gave rise to the emergence of the concept of multiculturalism and multiculturalism observed within nation states have come to an inevitable point nearly all over the world.
Individuals’ being involved in the existing education system without being assimilated within cultural diversity is possible only through multicultural education. At this point, the most important factor playing an active role in multicultural education is the teacher and the school environment. Especially, teachers' competency over multicultural education is an undeniable fact. Studies indicate that teachers’ becoming successful in multicultural education is related with their having some characteristics. Among these are teachers' reaching competency level socio-culturally, students' demographic information and being knowledgeable of resources which they reach and students' taking into account what they learn in social life. In this perspective, the need felt for the importance and necessity of cultural intelligence rises to prominence. In fact, taking in hand different cultures in various perspectives becomes possible only for teachers and educators with developed cultural intelligence. A teacher with a high level of cultural intelligence is aware of cultural norms, values, religious beliefs, customs and traditions and shows interest in and desire to learn different cultures in a multicultural educational environment. Moreover, s/he is capable of evaluating verbal and non-verbal communication according to situations. S/he is aware how a student perceives the world and the learning environment. S/he is not uncomfortable with establishing relationships with students and feels desire to gain new experiences together with them.

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Chapter 10

Assessment and Evaluation Practices of Social Studies Teachers According to Inclusive Education

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INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, students' recognition of individual differences, respecting these differences and accepting them as richness, is important to live together in a multicultural society. As a matter of fact, educational scientists and educational institutions require the regulation of laws and curriculums in a way to guarantee education and accessibility for all, and teachers, who are the implementers of education, to implement practices to ensure the participation of all students in education with an equitable attitude. (Booth ve Ainscow, 2002; Banks, 2008; Clark vd., 2019; Florian ve Linklater, 2010; UNESCO, 2016; UNICEF, 2012).

With the rapidly changing world, the post-modern way of thinking, in which the individual is at the forefront and flexibility is effective, has also affected the educational approaches, thus the assessment and evaluation approaches and methods. The process that starts with the purpose of teaching in the education-training process follows a cyclical movement as teaching activities, measurement, criterion, evaluation, feedback, regulations within the program and the whole process requires planning and implementing accordingly (Demirel 2007). In the past, traditional assessment and evaluation methods were used because the evaluation of students was success-oriented. These are; written exams, multiple choice tests, true-false, matching, gap-filling questions, and oral exams. However, today, the approach of evaluating students' development with alternative assessment and evaluation methods selected according to the learning-oriented process assessment approach is accepted. These are; Performance tasks and projects, portfolio, assignments, concept maps, diagnostic branched tree, structured grid, observation and interview, power point presentations and posters, learning diaries, drama, interest inventories, student assessment form, self-assessment form and peer assessment. Social Studies Teaching Programs’ assessment approach that is being implemented in Turkey is suitable to the individual-centered constructivist approach. According to this program, “no human being is exactly the same as another. For this reason, it is against human nature that the curriculum, assessment and evaluation process is ‘suitable for everyone’, ‘valid and standard for all’. For this reason, it is imperative to act with the understanding of maximum diversity and flexibility in the assessment and
When examining regulations regarding the evaluation of student achievement in Turkey, explanations about the assessment of students with special educational needs is important, though inadequate in terms of inclusive education. Although there are explanations on the right to education and participation in education, there is no explanation in the regulation regarding the evaluation of foreign students and refugee students (Taneri, 2019). These regulations, which include explanations on the educational status of only two of the disadvantaged groups, are insufficient in terms of inclusion in education such as including all disadvantaged groups, universality, eliminating inequalities, and culture sensitivity.

The aim of inclusive evaluation is to carry out an evaluation that is based on democracy, equality and justice, considering the individual needs of students with differences, without discrimination in line with human rights and freedoms in the evaluation of students. Since the aim of inclusive assessment is to enable students to learn, evaluations are made frequently in the learning process in order to understand the learning situation of the student and restructure the learning-teaching process in line with their needs. Inclusive assessment approaches can be listed as follows; culture-sensitive evaluation, authentic evaluation, alternative evaluation, differentiated evaluation and individualized evaluation. All of these approaches include the evaluation of students with methods differentiated according to their individual needs.

Adapting to the multicultural structure of the changing global world is possible by accepting differences as wealth. The culture-sensitive and egalitarian nature of inclusive education is a necessity for today's educational practices. The method of presenting students' learning with the method they choose will be an assessment approach that will prevent the students with differences from falling behind by eliminating the concept of result and success-oriented exams. Table 1 lists what can be done to make assessment and evaluation applications inclusive.

**Table 1. What can be done to make the assessment inclusive?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inclusive assessment, all students must participate in the assessment process.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students with differences must be admitted that these differences are actually wealth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The achievements of students with individual differences should not be evaluated with a single exam held in equal time with their peers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measurement tools should be diversified and differentiated according to individual needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In order to ensure learning and to understand the needs of students, assessment and evaluation practices should be applied continuously in the process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyzing the assessment results together with the students, providing feedback, and transitioning from a point-oriented approach to an assessment that supports learning should be made.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The evaluation of students should be carried out within themselves and according to their own development speed, and should not be turned into a racing platform</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

evaluation process” (MEB, 2018).
where they are compared with their peers.

While positive discrimination is made to disadvantaged students, their humiliation and exclusion in the classroom should be prevented.

Discriminating expressions should be avoided in assessment and evaluation tools.

Language used in assessment and evaluation tools should be an inclusive language that accepts and respects differences and is culture sensitive.

Referring to studies on inclusive education in Turkey; refugee students, students who need special education, minority and female students and teachers’ and administrators’ views on inclusive education is seen (Ünal and Aladag, 2020; Koçyiğit and Şimşek, 2019; Göl and Sakız, 2020, Yıldırım, 2020; Özcan, 2018; Kazu and Deniz, 2019, Göksoy, 2019; Açıklın, 2010, Sarıcı Bulut et al., 2018; Gürğür and Rakap, 2019, İra and Gör, 2018; Gürdoğan Bayır, 2019; Bayram and Öztürk, 2020).

Even though studies on inclusive education in Turkey has increased in recent years, it is understood that studies on learning-teaching processes, teaching material preparation and assessment and evaluation practices in inclusive education are insufficient. Understanding how social studies teachers' assessment and evaluation practices for their disadvantaged students is important in order to ensure inclusiveness in education processes. With this research, it is aimed to understand the assessment and evaluation process of Social Studies teachers according to the inclusive education approach. The aim of this study is to examine the following questions:

1. What are the assessment tools used by social studies teachers to evaluate disadvantaged students?

2. What are the problems faced by social studies teachers in the assessment and evaluation process according to inclusive education?

3. What are the solution suggestions for the problems faced by social studies teachers in the assessment and evaluation process according to inclusive education?

The aims of this study are important because inclusive education is a recently introduced concept in education and current social studies curriculum and teacher education programs in Turkey gives importance to inclusion in education.

**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

The phenomenology design was used to conduct this study. Phenomenology aims to examine individuals' views, experiences, and perceptions about a phenomenon (Creswell, 2012). As a qualitative research approach phenomenology focuses on individuals’ perception of a phenomenon (Glesne, 2012). Since this study investigates assessment and evaluation practices of social studies teachers’, it is important to understand participants’ experiences.

**Participants**

5 social studies teachers were selected with purposeful sampling method to be participants. Two criteria were taken into account in selecting the participants. First criteria was choosing teachears who enrolled in inclusive education in-service
training program. Second criteria was, teachers with disadvantaged students in their class.

Data Collection and Analysis

In phenomenological studies, interviews are the main data collection tools because they can be used to understand an individuals’ perceptions and experiences on a phenomenon (Creswell, 2012). In the study, 30-minute individual and semi-structured interviews conducted. Such questions were asked for the purpose of the research: ‘What should be considered in the assessment of disadvantaged students?’.

The data used in this study were collected during the data collection process of the researcher’s doctoral thesis. The research was conducted in two public schools in the fall semester of the 2018-2019 academic year. In these schools, observations were made for Social Studies teachers in Social Studies lessons during one academic year. In collecting the research data, semi-structured interviews, in-class observations and document analysis are used. However, the main research method in this research is interviews. It is important to establish a strong relationship with the participants in order to ensure trustworthiness in the data collection process, as it will enable the participants to express themselves clearly (Glesne, 2012). Also, in order to ensure trustworthiness written consent forms included that participants were going to be informed how the data was going to be gathered, used, and that they were free to withdraw from participation at any time during the study. In addition, pseudonyms were given to the participants during the study in order to ensure the confidentiality of the participants. Finally, employed multiple methods (individual interviews with the participants, observations and document analysis) to collect data and also two researchers analyzed the data separately.

The document analysis was carried out by examining five exams collected from the participants, prepared for students with special needs. While examining these exams, question types and bloom's taxonomy were taken into consideration. Since there were no structured themes, inductive analysis approach was used. Firstly, codes then based on these codes, themes were found by coding the data line by line. 23 themes found at the end of coding process. Then these themes were reduced to 3 themes and it was decided to have 3 major findings.

FINDINGS

The findings of the study emerged under three main categories; 1) Examination of assessment tools used by social studies teachers to evaluate disadvantaged students, 2) Problems faced by social studies teachers in the assessment and evaluation process according to inclusive education, 3) Solutions for the problems faced by social studies teachers in the assessment and evaluation process according to inclusive education.

1. Assessment tools used by social studies teachers to evaluate disadvantaged students

Social studies teachers stated that they took exams consisting of multiple-choice questions, oral exams, exams prepared for students in need of special education, and used project assignments while evaluating disadvantaged students. Table 2 shows these assessment and evaluation tools that teachers use.
Table 2. Assessment and Evaluation Tools Used by Social Studies Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment and Evaluation Tools</th>
<th>Ali Teacher</th>
<th>Melis Teacher</th>
<th>Sibel Teacher</th>
<th>Dilek Teacher</th>
<th>Nermin Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multiple choice exam</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral exam (In-class performance)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exam for students who need special education</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project assignments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 2, it is seen that all of the teachers used an exam prepared by themselves for students who need special education (SEN). Likewise, all of the teachers use multiple choice exams in their evaluations. Oral exams are used by two teachers and one teacher who stated that she used the project homework in evaluation.

Below are the opinions of the teachers about the assessment and evaluation practices they use:

“We cannot give a grade below 45 point to SEN students and refugee students who have a special situation. Last year I was doing oral exams to SEN students. With a few questions. This year they’ll probably do the exam themselves. We first make a joint exam for the students, then see what they have achieved, then we are preparing an easier exam if necessary” (Melis Teacher).

Melis teacher said that: Explaining the exam she applied especially for SEN students, the teacher firstly stated that it is an exam she applied to all students, if the SEN students get a grade below 45, she said that she applies a special exam. The participant, who stated that they cannot give a grade below 45 to refugee students and SEN students. Below is the observation of Melis teacher's assessment and evaluation practice:

“The teacher made an announcement at the beginning of the exam saying that the questions are clear, you have nothing to ask, I do not accept any questions. The teacher gave the same exam paper to the disadvantaged students in her classroom, which she applied to other students” (Melis Teacher).

Sibel Teacher’s thoughts on assessment and evaluation tools she uses in inclusive education for refugee students are as follows:

“While evaluating the student, of course, I take into account that the student is a refugee. After all, the other children, who have been educated in Turkish here since the first grade, express themselves better, these students have difficulty expressing themselves of course, I evaluate them accordingly. I do not give the same grade with the other, surely more. I do a test exam for refugee students, they are marking something there, when I get enough grade from the exam, I add it to the oral exam, I give the passing grade. they pass
Sibel teacher stated that while evaluating the refugee students, she made her evaluations by considering the disadvantages of these students due to their foreign nationality. While evaluating, the teacher stated that she gave more grades to refugee students than students whose mother tongue is Turkish, she also increases their grade with oral exam scores. She stated that the reason for this is the lack of grade repetition practice and that she followed this way to pass the students. It is observed that; The teacher took a quiz. She told the students to put their bags between them at the table with their friend’s. She said ‘you don't need to put it’ to the refugee students and told the student who has a better level of Turkish to help her friend who does not speak Turkish.

Teacher Sibel said the following about the assessment and evaluation tools she used within the scope of inclusive education for students who need special education:

“We evaluate our SEN students according to the SEN exam. My student with SEN in our 5-B class got 100 from SEN questions. My student in my class got 40. According to him, I think to alleviate the questions even more. While I am doing the exams, I give them a regular exam paper and then somehow collect and give their special exams. I do this so that others do not exclude them, because they say why are you asking different questions. I think others do not understand that these students are different” (Sibel Teacher).

Teacher Sibel stated that she used a special exam in the assessment of students who need special education. Stating that there is a level difference between students with special needs, the teacher stated that in such cases, she arranged the exam questions to be more suitable for the level of that student. She stated that she took precautions in order not to make other friends feel that they were doing a different exam in order to prevent exclusion in the classroom, and that she tried to prevent the exclusion of students in need of special education with this practice.

Nermin Teacher said the following about the assessment and evaluation tools she used:

"I give the same exam to students with SEN, so I do not discriminate them with their friends in the classroom, then I give them another exam. In my free hour, I invite my SEN students from every class and ask them the exam questions I have prepared. I prepare the questions according to the level of the students. Since most of the students with SEN I took the exam, this year are at the same level and the questions were very easy, I did the exam collectively. While evaluating, SEN student’s exam is easier than the normal students exam’s. We make that adjustment while asking questions. While doing the exam, I make sure that the subjects are the subjects we cover. I’m preparing the exam questions myself. On the exam I used; open-ended questions, true- false questions, gap-filling, table-based questions, multiple choice questions. Mostly multiple choice questions" (Nermin Teacher).

Teacher Nermin stated that she used exams as a main assessment and evaluation tool for SEN students. The teacher stated that she gathered SEN students in all her classes together and gave them a common exam. It is an easy exam and prepared by
herself. She stated that in order to prevent the exclusion of SEN students in the classroom, SEN students took the same exam with classmates and then took the exam prepared for them. She stated that half of the content of these exams consisted of multiple choice questions and the remaining half consisted of filling the gaps and classical open-ended questions.

Dilek Teacher said the following about the assessment and evaluation tools she used:

"There are special exams for students with SEN, there are no special exams for refugees because they use Turkish very well. As such, we do not give them a separate exam, but we have separate questions for students with SEN. Everyone prepares for their own students. We usually ask visual, illustrated, multiple choice questions that will attract the attention of these students and that they can answer. We don't ask many open-ended classic questions. We try to ask questions appropriate to their level " (Dilek Teacher).

Dilek Teacher stated that she prepared an appropriate exam for SEN students which mostly uses visuals. It was observed that Dilek teacher took an oral exam. She selected students randomly from the list and asked a question to this student from within that unit. She did not ask questions to the refugee student, but to the SEN. This question was a relatively easy one at the knowledge level.

Ali Teacher said the following about the assessment and evaluation tools he used:

"Evaluation practices bind us. I do not like the multiple-choice test method at all, but all national examinations in Turkey is already done selectively so we have to prepare their children to it. We hold multiple choice exams as compulsory for national exams, but the multiple choice question type dulls the students. We conduct special exams and in-class observations when evaluating students with special needs. As scoring for the final evaluation we use official exams and the observations we made during a semester" (Ali Teacher).

Ali Teacher said that after observing the students according to their behaviors for a semester regarding the assessment of the students with special needs, he evaluated in-class performance and made special exams for them. The exams administered by the teacher consist of multiple choice questions. It was observed that teacher Ali, who did not give any opinion on the evaluation methods of other disadvantaged groups, evaluated the refugee students according to the exam and evaluation methods he made with all of his other students.

All social studies teachers stated that they applied a special education exam prepared for SEN students. It was understood that teachers did not make any difference in assessment and evaluation practices for other disadvantaged groups, except SEN students. On the other hand, while there is no special examination for refugee students, two of the teachers stated that they made their evaluations by taking their situation into account while evaluating the refugee students. It was understood that the pass and fail directive in the assessment of SEN students and refugee students was effective on teachers' assessment practices. Because the absence of
grade repetition leads teachers to increase the grade of the students and complete the passing grade. Although one of the teachers did not find the multiple-choice questions sufficient, he stated that he preferred this assessment application in order to prepare for the high school entrance exam. Table 3 shows the content of assessment tools used by social studies teachers to evaluate SEN students within the scope of the question types used by teachers.

Table 3. Content of assessment tools used by social studies teachers to evaluate students in need of special education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>True - False</th>
<th>Matching</th>
<th>Gap-filling</th>
<th>Open-ended questions</th>
<th>Multiple choice questions</th>
<th>Visual questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ali Teacher</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Melis Teacher</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sibel Teacher</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilek Teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nermin Teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the assessment tools that participant teachers use while evaluating students in need of special education; it is seen that they use true-false, gap-filling, matching, visual questions, open-ended questions, short answer questions, and multiple choice questions.

Looking at the exam questions prepared by Ali teacher for students who need special education; it is seen that the questions are written in large font size and all of the questions are at the knowledge level according to Bloom's Taxonomy. Questions are visualized with figures. The exam, which has 22 questions in total, consists of 9 questions for filling in the gap, 8 for matching, 5 for true and false questions.

Below is the example of the exam questions prepared by Ali Teacher for SEN students:

Fill in the blanks below with the appropriate words from the given words. (9x2p)
* Peninsula * Lake * Plain * Mountain * Sea * Plateau * Stream * Valley * Bay

1. I am deeply split by streams, I am a plain higher than my surroundings.
2. I am a body of water completely surrounded by land.
3. I am a flat land with high elevation and steep sides.
Looking at the exam questions prepared by the teacher Melis for students who need special education; It is seen that 4 of the 7 multiple choice questions are of the knowledge dimension level according to Bloom's Taxonomy. It was seen that 3 of them were at the understand level in the cognitive process dimension. 7 questions consisted of filling the gaps by using visuals, and these questions were also in the knowledge dimension.

Below is the example of the exam questions prepared by Melis Teacher for SEN students:
➢ What clothes should we wear in summer? (10 points)
   A) Sweater B) Boots C) Coat D) Short sleeve T-shirt

Looking at the exam questions prepared by the teacher Sibel for students who need special education; It was seen that 6 questions were multiple choice, 5 of these questions were in the knowledge dimension according to Bloom's Taxonomy, and 1 of them was in the understand level of the cognitive process dimension. It was seen that 5 true false and 4 gap filling questions are in the conceptual knowledge level in the knowledge dimension.

Below is the example of the exam questions prepared by Sibel Teacher for SEN students:
➢ Which of the following could be your role in school? (10 points)
   a) Student  b) Child  c) Neighbor  d) Guest

Looking at the exam questions prepared by Dilek teacher for students who need special education; the 10-question exam consists of multiple choice questions. It is seen that all of the questions are in the knowledge dimension according to Bloom's Taxonomy. Questions are visualized with figures.

Below is the example of the exam question prepared by Dilek Teacher for SEN students:
➢ According to convention on the rights of the child, What is the age limit to be accepted as a child (10 Points)
Below is the example of the exam questions prepared by Nermin Teacher for SEN students:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What do you call the community, which is both an institution and a group, shown in the photo on the left? (10 points)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Family  b) Tribe  c) School  d) Friend</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Problems faced by social studies teachers in the assessment and evaluation process according to inclusive education and their solution suggestions

Considering the problems faced by social studies teachers in the assessment and evaluation process according to inclusive education; Participating teachers stated that they experienced problems such as lack of time, not being able to be fair, excessive class size, and insufficient social studies course hours. Below are examples of the problems teachers encounter in assessment and evaluation practices according to inclusive education:

“The most important problem is that time is not enough, doing the lessons and prepare exams for special students. To be honest, we find the exam papers online. It is on some platforms; we take and arrange it then adopt it according to ourselves and apply it to the students. There is a problem here, the exam results of the students with SEN and the exam results that are more difficult for normal students are reflected in the system in the same way. So sometimes a SEN student gets 80, 90 point. There is a bit of unfairness here ”(Nermin Teacher).

“It is a problem for us that the classes are crowded while applying assessment and evaluation practices. When the classes are crowded, time is not enough for both the exam of regular students and the exam of students with SEN. The decrease in the hours of social studies lessons is also a problem ”(Sibel Teacher).

“Now when we talk about inclusive education, we can also think of refugees. For example, we do the same exam as everyone, but we need to be more flexible when evaluating them. Because they have a special situation. So we should evaluate them more positively. There are some SEN members, their exam is easier than ever. Here, we cannot prepare a separate test for each special situation, neither time nor energy is enough, nor is it possible. But we are preparing a special exam ”(Melis Teacher).

Other problems faced by participating teachers in the assessment and evaluation process according to inclusive education are; It has been understood that teachers have lack of equipment for students who need special education, the fact that the guidance and research center is not involved in the process, the level differences of students with language impairments, teachers' assessment and evaluation approaches
and national exams are composed of multiple choice questions. Teachers explain these problems as follows.

“We do not receive support from guidance and research centers on this issue. We prepare the questions ourselves, we apply them ourselves. Frankly, we cannot fully approach these students as our field is not special education” (Dilek Teacher).

“When we say assessment and evaluation, we immediately consider tests. But the tests are not suitable for these SEN students. They should not be evaluated as knowledge, but rather in terms of skills and behavior. I think the main problem is that we, as teachers, focus on multiple choice exams. These students are bored with attention deficit. Although the questions in the multiple choice exam are easy, they are not suitable for these students ”(Ali Teacher).

Social studies teachers encounter in the assessment and evaluation process according to inclusive education; The solution suggestions for the problems of lack of time, not being able to be fair, excessive class size and insufficient social studies course hours are as follows:

“As a solution, if there is an additional payment for the extra time we allocate to special students, teachers would be more willing to do this” (Nermin Teacher).

As a solution to this situation, it would be better to increase the hours of social studies course. In this way, more time can be allocated to disadvantaged students” (Sibel Teacher).

As a solution, I don't think this is possible under these conditions, but if there was time, I would talk to special students for five or ten minutes at the end of each lesson. I would say; this lesson, we talked about this, did you understand, what did you understand? Because we cannot spare time for them in the classroom” (Melis Teacher).

Social studies teachers encounter in the assessment and evaluation process according to inclusive education; The solution suggestions they have brought to the problems of students in need of special education, guidance and research centers’ not being involved in the process, level differences of students with language deficiency, teachers' approach to assessment and national exams consisting of multiple-choice questions are as follows:

“Guidance and research centers should be involved in the process and take responsibility” (Dilek Teacher).

“As a solution, because of these national exams, we focused on test exams consisting of multiple choice questions. Basically, the structure of these exams should be changed” (Ali Teacher).

Considering the solutions offered by social studies teachers to the problems they encounter in the assessment and evaluation process according to inclusive education; It is stated that the additional time allocated to special students is priced, changing
the multiple-choice structure of national exams, being flexible in performing assessment and evaluation practices, dealing with students in need of special education, involvement of guidance and research centers in the process, reducing the class size, increasing the number of social studies courses.

**DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND IMPLICATIONS**

It has been observed that social studies teachers only evaluate students in need of special education and refugee students in the assessment of disadvantaged students according to inclusive education. The result that all of the teachers used a special exam prepared by themselves for SEN students to evaluate these students is similar to the research result of Sivrikaya and Yılmaz (2016). It was understood that two of the teachers made their evaluations by considering their special situation while evaluating the refugee students. Gay (2014) also advocates for students who have differences in their study by approaching them with a culture-sensitive education and enabling them to participate in education. It was understood that the absence of repetition in the classroom in the assessment of special needs students and refugee students was effective on teachers' assessment practices. Walters and Borgers (1995) argue that the practice of grade repetition causes students to fail, so teachers should avoid grade repetition. This result is similar to the research result.

All of the teachers used multiple choice exams as a tool of assessment and evaluation; a teacher project assignment; two teachers use oral exams. It has been understood that the structure of national high school entrance exams is effective in the use of multiple-choice exams. The results of Çelikkaya et al. (2010) and Çalışkan and Kaşıkçı (2010) that teachers use traditional assessment and evaluation tools is similar to the result that all of the teachers evaluated SEN students with exams and questions prepared according to result evaluation methods. In the assessment tools teachers use while evaluating SEN students; it was observed that they used true and false, fill-in-the-blank, matching, visual questions, open-ended questions, short answer questions, and multiple choice questions.

It was determined that two of the teachers applied the same exam to SEN students in the classroom with their peers in order to prevent the exclusion of students who need special education. Although this result is similar to the conclusion of Cook et al. (2000) that there is exclusion in general education environments where disadvantaged students are present, ignoring the differences of these students does not coincide with the inclusive education approach. It was understood that two of the teachers differentiated the exam questions for these students when there was a level difference between the students with SEN. Despite this, it was understood that most of the teachers prepared a single exam for students with special needs and they applied this exam as a common exam by gathering students with special needs in all their classes. As Gosselin and Gagne (2014) and MEB (2018) also stated, evaluating students with individual needs with a single exam is not suitable for inclusive education.

It was determined that three of the teachers, who included questions in the understanding and application level in the cognitive process dimension according to the Bloom’s taxonomy in the assessment tools applied by teachers and all of the
teachers, used questions at the knowledge dimension according to the Bloom’s taxonomy. While this result is similar to Gündüz’s (2009) study, it differs from this study in that there are no questions at the evaluation and creation level.

Teacher resources problems faced by social studies teachers in the assessment and evaluation process according to inclusive education; unfairness, not being equipped with SEN students and teachers perceive their approach to assessment practices as a problem. In the study of İlk and Açıklalın (2018), the result that social studies teachers do not receive training in the field of special education and do not feel themselves competent in the applications related to this field coincides with the results of this research. Other problems faced by social studies teachers in the assessment and evaluation process according to inclusive education are the lack of time, excessive class size, insufficient social studies course hours, and the absence of a guidance and research center in the process. Teachers also consider the level differences of students with language deficiencies and the national exams to consist of multiple-choice questions as a problem. These results are similar to the research results of Yıldırım (2017) and Bayram (2019). Solutions offered by teachers for these problems; charging the additional time allocated to special students, changing the multiple-choice structure of national exams, being flexible while performing assessment and evaluation practices, dealing with SEN students at a special time, including guidance and research centers in the process, reducing the class size and increasing the number of social studies courses. Being flexible in assessment and evaluation practices is similar to the research results of the Ministry of National Education (2018), and Sivrikaya and Yığmıs’s (2016) result of teachers need cooperation with guidance and research centers is similar to the results of this study.

As a result of the research; It is recommended that students should be process-oriented, individualized and evaluated within themselves, teachers should be given in-service training to eliminate their lack of equipment, special education exams should be prepared at schools with a committee consisting of special education teachers and guidance and research center and social studies teachers, and the process should be followed.

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Chapter 11

Media Literacy Education in Early Childhood

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Media literacy is literacy in the 21st century.

Media Literacy now

Humanity is in the transition process between the information society and super intelligent society in its life which started as a hunter society. As the Internet has entered the lives of people in the 21st century, important changes have been experienced in digitalization and technology fields. Considering the evolution of societies, it can be seen that the hunter society continued for two thousand years, agricultural society continued for ten thousand year and industrial society has been ruling for more than two hundred years. Information society, which started in the second half of the 20th century, has been continuing for more than 50 years. The new period experienced today is named as Society 5.0, a concept proposed in Japan in 2015 while the concept of Society 4.0 leaded by German was discussed. It can be stated that humanity can pass from a period to another or move up to a higher level in a shorter time with digitalization. Technological innovations provide speed and comfort to people in accessing to information as well as affecting them from different aspects from their ideas, moral values, preferences to perspectives on life. It is reported that power lies within media literacy in today’s digital era (Rogow, 2017).

It is necessary to think about the terms of “media” and “literacy” while addressing the concept of media literacy. The word “media” in English is the plural of “medium” in Latin (Oxford Dictionary, 2021). The word of “medium” means a way to convey or express something (Cambridge Dictionary, 2021). The word “medya” in Turkish is defined as the name given to the whole of communication and publishing/broadcasting organs and communication mediums (Turkish Language Institute Dictionary, 2021). “Literacy” is a concept defined for the first time in 1951. According to this first definition, literacy is the ability to write one’s name and surname, and to put a signature. This definition was changed to the ability to define, understand, interpret, gather, communicate, and calculate using written resources and records in different forms in 2004 (UNESCO, 2004). Literacy is a case allowing the individual to address a large mass of the society and to reach his/her targets by improving his/her knowledge and power in the 21st century. Types of literacy for different purposes have emerged as the needs of the individual have changed. One of them is media literacy.

Media has such an important place in today’s world that it creates a second
parallel world to the one we are living in. Potter (2005) states that there is a thin line between these two worlds. It is possible to state that media literacy is necessary to see this line clearly. Rogow (2015) people without the ability to travel on a sea of limitless data and turn it into usable information will lose their ways at lightning speed. Especially media literacy about digital media technologies requires special interest (Herzquina & Lauricella, 2020). Prensky (2003) classifies those who are and are not familiar with digital media as “digital natives and digital migrants”. Children who were born in and after 1980 and grew up with access to new, digital, interactive, and mobile technologies are usually called “digital natives.” On the other hand, digital migrants were born before 1980. Digital migrants are a generation trying to comply with digital technologies later. Although digital natives are familiar with digital technologies, this does not mean they are media literate. Digital media technologies are tools like pencils. Knowing how to use the pencil does not mean knowing how to write (Rogow, 2015). Similarly, it is important but insufficient to know how to use digital media tools that are under our fingers and can be easily used through touch screens.

The first systematic definition about the concept of media literacy was made by Finnish researcher Sirkka Minkkinen (Minkkinen, 1978). Minkkinen regards media literacy as an education aiming to develop cognitive, ethical, philosophic, and aesthetic skills. Although there is no consensual definition of media literacy, a concept that has been discussed since the 1990s, the aspect of “critical approach to accessed message” is accepted. Media literacy has been defined as the ability to access, analyze, and assess messages, to create and spread new messages (Livingstone, 2004; Potter, 2005). Hobbs (2004) emphasizes to main aspects in his definition of media literacy as individuals’ learning critical analysis and creating their own messages.

The National Association for Media Literacy Education (NAMLE), the leader institution in media literacy education in the USA, defines media literacy education as “necessary practices to develop the ability to access, analyze, assess, create and behave using all types of communication” (National Association for Media Literacy Education, 2021). This definition is commonly used in media literacy studies and practices.

Visual, auditory, and pressed mediums such as book, journal, gazette, periodical publication, television and radio broadcasting, computer software, movie, photograph, cassette, CD, bulletin, advertisement, cinema, video games, digital media, mobile media, and communication technological that we cannot dream of right now are mentioned when talking about media. Although it is hard to define, the abovementioned media elements are divided into two as new and old ones. Digitally presented news articles, blogs, music and podcasts, social media networks, e-mails, web sites, virtual and augmented reality, game applications, streaming services, in short, services and digital media applications describing the method of delivery of media medium from media provider to media user are new media (Cote, 2020). Online newspapers, TV, published newspapers, journals and books can be described as old media. The New Media Institute defines new media as “a comprehensive
concept used to define everything related to Internet, and the interaction between technology, visuals and sounds.” This is the opposite of old media including radio and TV and printed materials like books and journals.

According to Rogow (2015), literacy based on reading, writing and arithmetic conventionally taught in schools should expand in a way to include logic and reflective thinking. This should be done in a way to promote creativity and cooperation. Media literacy steps in here and is an urgency for children in early childhood. The aim of media literacy is to develop the habit of questioning and the ability of expressing that are necessary to be effective thinkers, effective communicators, and active citizens in a large perspective (National Association for Media Literacy Education, 2021; Rogow, 2015). Media literacy develops in interaction with the conventional literacy skills of children. Early literacy turning into conventional literacy indicates “what children know about reading and writing before they officially learn to read and write” (Ghoting & Martin-Diaz, 2006). This term expresses that the literacy development starts with birth, develops slowly, and should be supported in suitable environment developmentally. Thus, it can be stated that media literacy in early childhood is associated with early literacy skills and should be supported from the early ages like early literacy.

Media literacy in early childhood is defined as the ability to access to developmentally suitable media, interact, discover, understand, critically question, evaluate and create (Herdzina & Lauricella, 2020). The phrase of “developmentally suitable media” in this definition is important. Because media literacy requires closely looking into child development while considering how children establish relationships with media in early childhood.

Media literacy in early childhood focuses on helping young children understand the role of media and preparing them to be creative and healthy media consumers and creators for all their lives. According to NAMLE, media literacy is a valuable life skill and should be generalized. The aim of NAMLE is for everyone to acquire this skill one day. Media literacy consists of six main actions in early childhood. The skills that must develop with the support of adults to master these actions are determined as access, interest, and discovery, understanding, critical questioning, evaluation and creating (Scheibe & Rogow, 2012; Herdzina & Lauricella, 2020).

1-Access

The act of access means purposefully selecting media and accessing to media. Children should access high quality media technologies physically and know how to use digital tools effectively. Thus, children are expected to become skilled in the ability to purposefully access media. Children should be aware that how media makes them feel like. Children should question whether media help them grow and develop. In this regard, the ability of critical thinking about why and for what purpose media is chosen should develop in children. Children should also develop a demand about asking for the support media consultants ensuring access and use of media, technology, and other digital tools.
2-Engage and Explore

The act of engage and explore means being interested in and discovering media in a way to support development and learning. Children should develop the ability to discover media contents in a controlled manner within the scope of this act. Children should discover technology with a flexible mentality by following their interests. Children should also participate in social games and discovery activities with other people using media tools.

3-Comprehend

The act of comprehending means understanding media messages applications and transforming these into a suitable understanding. Children should develop the ability to interpret content and information while using media and to transform information obtained from a media source into another context or situation within the scope of this act. It is important for them to understand technology, design, visual and editorship processes used for information communication.

4-Critically Inquire

The act of critical inquiring means analyzing media messages for independent and critical thinking. Children should become skilled about developing an understanding about the process of questioning. For instance, obtaining information from various resource4s, looking for evidence and providing evidence for one’s opinion, interpreting, analyzing, and documenting information are among the skills developing this understanding. Children should be able to explain correct, suitable, reliable elements that are real or fiction, or real or role in media. The perspective of media should be considered by critically questioning the development of media content and the effect of media on different people and its target audience should be examined in this process.

5-Evaluate

The act of evaluation includes learning how to evaluate media content and its effect in a suitable way. Children should develop their skills of determining and comparing type of media resources and selecting media suitable for their purposes. Children should understand that a reliable media source may not be reliable for everything and deeply think about their media experiences.

6-Create

The act of creating includes creating and expressing ideas using media. Children should consider themselves media creators and effectors. In this regard, children should discover ideas, brainstorm, and spread in the way of discovering, finding different ways of access to systems (hacking), improving, combining, or destroying different things. The ability to explain the purpose of the decisions made in the creation and reflection process and to connect the media content created with the larger world.

That fact that children master six main actions and skills means that they learn media literacy. Although this process seems quite complicated for the early
childhood period, there are applicable actions meeting the criterion of “developmentally suitable” for children in this age group. Especially home environment, early childhood education institutions, museums, public libraries and after school study programs should be prepared to support media literacy skills in children in early childhood (Erikson Institute Media Literacy Report, 2017). The USA National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) states that media and technology may promote effective learning and development in early childhood when intentionally used by early childhood educators to support learning objectives within the scope of appropriate practices (NAEYC, 2009). Media experiences of children have become an important part of their lives. Thus, the adults around children should be supported in terms of information and resources about the use of media to be able to make conscious decisions. Media literacy education cannot be limited to school, and parents and all adults responsible for the care of children should be given tips.

Even though it is addressed by many different disciplines, media literacy should be primarily addressed within the scope of children’s rights. The child’s right to participate is directly relate to media. This right contains the freedom to examine, obtain and provide all types of news and ideas with a tool selected by the child or in a written, verbal, printed, and artistic manner. It is known that the actualization and realization of the right to participate granted to children are difficult. Media literacy education may contribute to actualizing these rights. The United Nations Convention of the Rights of the Child, thus, has an important place. Media literacy is an important opportunity for children to use their rights regarding social participation and protection specified in the convention. According to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, Article 13 and 17 mention the child’s right to participate (UNICEF, 2021).

“Article 13: The child shall have the right to freedom of expression; this right shall include freedom to seek, receive and impart information and ideas of all kinds, regardless of frontiers, either orally, in writing or in print, in the form of art, or through any other media of the child's choice.”

“Article 17: States Parties recognize the important function performed by the mass media and shall ensure that the child has access to information and material from a diversity of national and international sources, especially those aimed at the promotion of his or her social, spiritual, and moral well-being and physical and mental health.”

Teaching media literacy starts as adults values the feeling of interest for themselves and children. Children regularly interact with media in home and outside home from the moment they were born. It is necessary to mention the role of adults in children’s lives while referring to this interaction. No one is an expert in media literacy education, but adults are media consultants for children (Donohue, 2017). In other words, the foundation of media literacy in early childhood is the relationships between children and adults. Becoming skilled in main six actions that media literacy is based on in early childhood is possible with the support of adults. It is quite important to select media contents, determine the limits of using media, and
emphasize the importance of family communication strategies supporting media as a learning tool (Hobbs, 2004). Family or adult support is necessary to increase the quality of media literacy experiences of children as well as being a role model in media literacy. In this regard, the main subject of media literacy in early childhood is how parents and other adults should be supported. It is important to educate adults about media literacy to help the integration of technology into the experiences of children significantly.

Media literacy education is based on the understanding that how digital devices can be appropriately and intentionally used to support learning and learning from each other during this process. Media literacy in early ages is about teaching children how to think about information provided through various ways such as TV, radio, internet, and books. It is a fact that early childhood years are the most innocent years in human life. Children tend to believe and establish emotional bonds with the characters they watch in this period. This complicates teaching them media literacy skills. Children subject to media contents can misunderstand these contents, get confused and experience fear. This situation may occur especially when they are exposed to age-inappropriate contents and when they watch to many advertisements.

Children should be given help to understand the thing they see, hear, and click is “information” in the media literacy process (Common Sense Media, 2021). Children must know that media contents they watch were created for a purpose and they must be in interaction to decide what to do with these contents. It can be recommended for this process that educators should be prepared to learn together with children, cooperate with their colleagues, act with the knowledge that it is impossible to master all new media technologies, and benefit from open-ended questions.

Any type of contents such as cartoons or advertisements can be used to start teaching media literacy to children. Conversations can be made about the advertisement watched. Advertisements on television or internet can be shown for this purpose. The educator becomes a role model for the ability to use television or digital tools. The aim is to enhance children's skills of purposefully accessing media and using media tools. The difference between media and reality should often be mentioned and compared, and the subject that what would happen if we did what they do should also mentioned. The similarities and differences between the visuals on the packaging of toys or food that children are familiar with and what is inside the packaging can be discussed (Common Sense Media, 2021).

It is extremely important to teach children about asking questions. Children who learned asking questions become critical thinkers by obtaining the final tool to become successful in digital world (National Association for Media Literacy Education, 2021). It can be stated that critical thinking is a fundamental life skill (Scheibe & Rogow, 2012). Critical thinking is a purposeful and organized judgment resulting in interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and deduction. Critical thinking expresses certain cognitive and intellectual skills such as reasoning, deduction, association, and analysis, and requires the individual to control his/her own ideas.
and improve oneself (Altın & Saracaloğlu, 2018). Knowing the right question is a big part of critical thinking. A child facing a media content can ask the following questions to analyze media: Why was it made? Who did it? What is missing? How would different people interpret this? How do I know whether this is true? Who can benefit from this content? Who can get harm from this content? (National Association for Media Literacy Education, 2021). A major advancement can be ensured in media literacy education by integrating asking questions to children’s daily lives. Especially families can get children adopt the habit of asking questions during conversation by acting as appropriate role models.

It is quite important to get children adopt the habit of talking and thinking about media contents. Such efforts serve to the development of critical thinking about media by raising awareness about the appropriate use of media and technology. The perspective of public health in media literacy focuses on screen time of children while social sciences focus on critical thinking. The use of technology in early childhood education is addressed with the safety-based health paradigm in the USA. The perspective prioritizing safety is important for the wellbeing of children and it is not possible to abandon this perspective fully. However, just like it is not possible to help children become literate by keeping them away from books, it is not possible to help them acquire media skills by distancing from media (Rogow, 2015). The phrase “Media literacy is literacy in the 21st century.” used by the non-governmental organization named “Media Literacy now” Draws attention to the importance of developing a pedagogic perspective in media literacy. Rogow (2015) reports that complex education objectives cannot be reached with only health paradigm; thus, media literacy education should start with the question “How can we help children become literate in a digital world?” instead of the question “How can we keep children safe?” considering health and safety concerns.

Reid, who has been a media literacy teacher for 15 years, stated that it is necessary to focus on critical thinking instead of shortening screen time (Yee, 2020). Media messages reach everyone at different levels without any discrimination of the young, elderly or children. The documentary named Social Dilemma broadcast in digital broadcasting platform Netflix begins with an impressive statement: “We entered the age of wrong information from the information age.” (Orlowski, 2020). Moreover, media messages that we are not sure whether they are wrong or correct are not limited to a specific medium and spread to new environments. Therefore, teaching children thinking critically about media messages and using media to form their own messages from early ages is critical for health, welfare, and democratic participation. It is important for children of all ages to accurately perceive, interpret and form media contents affecting all parts of life. What should be paid attention more is that earlier education. The fact that young children and youngsters acquire media literacy skills from early ages protects them from wrong information as well as creating a difference in their personal and professional lives.

In this conceptual study, media literacy in early childhood was defined and the fact that media literacy skills are an important power in the digital era. It was emphasized that media literacy education is a children’s right, and critical thinking-
based six main actions that children should master and the role of adults in this process. In this regard, it is recommended that states should revise their educational policies in terms of media literacy, update early childhood education curriculum by adding media literacy learning standards and raise media literacy educators. Public libraries or municipalities can increase the number of works and projects aiming to raise awareness in the society by forming online free curriculum. It can be stated that the continuance of media literacy advocacy is critical.

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Chapter 12

Art Education and Its Importance in Early Childhood

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“Every child is an artist. The problem is how to remain an artist once we grow up.” Pablo PICASSO

Considering the fact that human beings create art all around the world for the last 30,000 years, it is obvious why we should understand that art plays an essential role in human life and in the history of education. We can clearly state that art has been one of the most effective tools for human beings to express themselves with self-recognition and has been reflected in visual, auditory and verbal forms such as music, theatre, dance, paintings, sculpture, architecture and literature. Besides, art activates the imagination and creativity of an individual and it is one of the most liberated areas where it is possible to express one's individuality. Pre-school period, a period when the individual cannot use verbal and written expression adequately, has critical importance in supporting artistic development as well as supporting all other developmental areas. Because pre-school education period is the period when learning and development is the fastest.

Vygotsky (1978) states that learning takes place when children interact with people around them, including their peers. The child starts to develop a feeling of self as a part of a relatively wide social and cultural environment and develops an urge to communicate through culturally meaningful symbols. Vygotsky's work is significant in terms of emphasizing social, cultural and historical effects that surround children. Vygotsky identifies teachers and peers as the partners of children during their learning processes and underlines their importance as 'moderators' for enabling children to learn more. Obviously, children live in a different realm in today's world when compared to earlier times. If we would speak about these determiners in a child's life, primarily the majority of children spend their time in environments outside their households. Children spend most of their time with other children, accompanied by baby sitters and teachers; therefore they come together with individuals who introduce them to different opinions and experiences compared to the individuals that they would interact with in their households or neighborhoods. Secondly, direct experiences that children had before television in order to gain knowledge is now replaced with mediated messages that they get from the television, videos, electronic games, the internet etc. Most of the individuals believe that
knowledge and learning proceeds naturally from simple to complex, from specific to general and from concrete to abstract. In addition, most of the individuals assume that children's world gradually gets wider starting from the feeling of the self; leading to the understanding of family, school friends, and finally leading to the understanding of a wider world where their perception expands from direct experiences. Curricula designed for early childhood education is based on these assumptions in regards to child learning and its nature and is advised to be based on concrete objects and areas that are open for all the experiences and quests (as cited in Zimmerman & Zimmerman, 2000; Thompson, 2003).

Regarding the topic of this study; when the concept of art in early childhood education is considered in terms of child development education, experts and psychologists suggest that the art works of children and their artistic expressions are affected by the models in their culture, including the popular culture and state that children imitate drawing styles that they observe around them. Although the first sketches and drawings of children are almost identified by universal forces, it doesn't take a long time before these universal forces are affected by the culture. Nevertheless, we have to accept that our understanding in regards to the nature of children is deeply affected by our perspectives on children (Thompson, 2003; Zimmerman & Zimmerman, 2000).

Children of today are introduced to and faced with unfiltered information through direct and indirect experiences of individuals, places and objects; much more than the children of earlier generations. Thus, when children are given the choice of what to draw, traditional topics of children art compete with the visuals presented by the commercial culture. The imagery choices of children identify the content and shape of their drawings, starting from the time when they create graphic symbols. The choices of small children affected by the media and the peer culture differs significantly to the classical definitions of children's art, emphasizing the developmental priorities of direct experiences and autobiographical images. The complexity that has increased in children's lives, the changes in schooling and the daily context of friendship, the proof of acceptance towards the images and opinions presented by the popular culture create the necessity for the critical reconsideration of the developmental and cultural assumptions towards early art education (Thompson, 2003).

Within the last 50 years, art education aimed for children in their early childhood period was affected by three approaches on art education. The first approach sees art education for young children as a natural and inner reflection of their developmental processes. This approach considers the individual with a psychological aspect. The second approach is based on cognitive development theory and focuses on the fact that children form a general idea about the world by means of art. The third approach suggests that art education is a tool for children to express themselves and to communicate with other people; and creates a way for children to understand themselves within the society they live in. Early childhood education experts still continue to discuss and look into the place of art in the curricula and try to find effective ways of teaching art during this period. The search
of appropriate models for art education led to research studies conducted by education experts in order to interpret these concepts. For instance, McArdle's (1999) study looks into the concept of teaching art 'in a proper way'. O'Donnell (1996) conducted a research on the appreciation of art by small children. “The art of teaching” is a complex process, just like many works of art. The artist prepares a pallette, plays around with colours, effects and textures; thinks, subtracts, adds and erases and starts all over again. It is quite difficult to describe or prescribe the art of knowing when a fine tuning or a significant progression will take place or when to stop, however the artist knows the way and creates a piece of art throughout this chaos. That is to say, teaching creativity will require knowledge on creativity. The task is to practise creativity during teaching, as well as reflecting it to the content and the process. Creative teaching may look uneasy, curious and fun. It feeds from challenge and mystery. This approach requires tolerance towards uncertainty, mistakes, disharmony, inconsistency and common sense. During the 90s, art education in early childhood in the US had a 'holistic' approach emphasizing on visual art education that is 'developmentally appropriate' and this discipline-based approach caught the interest of the public. Many educationists believe that children should have a dose of content knowledge in the field of art and history, throughout their artistic development. Thus, children can relate to art in a meaningful way during activities that are appropriate to their developmental level and can engage in discussions related to art. In order to do this, teachers working in pre-schools and primary schools can engage and involve parents, teachers, local artists and people from their society in their planned art activities. A series of practical examples based on society-based art education can be included in the curriculum starting from pre-schools, until the 3rd grade of primary school. Children engaged in a curriculum that has been developed in light of these ideas;

- can visit the art museums in their society and gain information and insight on art history and culture,
- can create their own works of art using their own topics and explanations,
- can meet local artists in their classrooms,
- can gain insight and skills related to themselves, related to the culture of their society and develop skills by using their sketch books and discover the world around them by doing so,
- can use manipulative materials such as sand and water, designed for interaction and creating a pleasant feeling in terms of aesthetics (McArdle, 2001; McArdle, 2008; Zimmerman & Zimmerman, 2000).

As it can be obviously understood, the nature of experiences that children have in regards to art depend on the artistic development of adults and their guidance and mentoring for children to learn about art. This is especially recognized for children between the ages 2 to 5 in pre-school period, for children who are in pre-primary school and also for primary school children up to 3rd grade. Yet, despite the importance of art education, art can be neglected during the first years of education and can be left for a Friday afternoon, or only come to mind when there is a special occasion or a special day such as festivals or school events. In addition, art activities
in schools are mostly outcome-based activities instead of activities where children actively engage in artistic processes. The messages of such didactical approaches towards art cause an understanding and perception that sees children as incompetent or unskilful when it comes to making artistic decisions; and a process where adults set rules on how art should be perceived. Every environment and context has different opportunities and difficulties in regards to art education, however young children rely on adults for accessing materials and for encouragement to use these materials. The interests and needs of children in art education identify the content and structure of a 'child-centred' curriculum. The teacher plays the role of a facilitator for the children to express their needs. The most important emphasis in art curriculum is to assist every child in expressing their personal needs and develop their skills and capacity in art. A developmentally appropriate art education should be perceived as the implementation of spontaneous approaches towards creating art through appropriate materials, in appropriate classroom environments with educational experiences based on relevant resources. Gardner (1980) suggests that natural artistic skills of children come to light when adults provide materials and encourage children. This argument is accepted by many early childhood education experts at this point in time. Artistic expression occurs in pre-school period at the ultimate level. This decelerates during the primary education period, and accelerates again during the adolescence period. Gardner believes that children between the ages 2 to 5 can engage in art activities when they are provided with materials, however adult interference can hinder the revelation of their natural creative abilities that they are born with. When considered from this point of view, the child is perceived as a 'creative artist' who should not be directed but encouraged by the adults, as s/he represents the world. Natural talents of children can be revealed only when adults do not interfere directly. The roots of this “child centred” art education approach comes from the 1940s, during when art education objectives have been perceived as a therapeutic tool for overcoming anxiety and blockages, for moving away from aggression and for describing fantasies with the support of children's creative abilities (as cited in Zimmerman & Zimmerman, 2000; Eglinton, 2003; McArdle & Piscitelli, 2002).

Lowenfeld (1947), who still has a lasting impression on art education theory and practise, states that adult authority has negative effects on art education of children who are in pre-school period and of children in primary schools up to 3rd grade. He states that although every child has the capacity to create art from the day they were born, this capacity has been hindered by the society. In fact, it is known that children are born with a natural discovery and curiosity feeling. They start learning, discovering and interacting with everything around them from the moment they are born. For this reason, they have to be raised in an environment where they can develop curiosity towards the living and non-living things around them; and where they can learn and discover. On the contrary, classified and organized information has been emphasized in a 'subject-based' curriculum presented to children in art education. The primary role of the teacher is to decide on the content and to teach knowledge, skills and insight. According to Lowenfeld’s values and
manifestation, all resources presented to children as a source of inspiration including art work directed towards adults, materials prepared by adults, duplications and drawings based on observation should be removed from educational environments. However, this approach towards 'child-centred' practices have been questioned by many contemporary art educators (Temiz & Karaarslan Semiz, 2018; Zimmerman & Zimmerman, 2000).

More recently, art education curriculum for children between the ages 2-5 has been accepted as the total of acquired skills. The idea of children creating works of art whilst reflecting their feelings and thoughts visually, where they 'create meaning' has been emphasized. In addition to this; the freestyle discovery of colours, textures, specifications of materials, design, expression of feelings, perceptions and ideas are perceived as good objectives set for the children of this age group. Art education process begins with the first introduction of environment to the children; when they start seeing, perceiving, naming and arranging the environment. The process then leads to enjoying what is being done, and creating works of art. Art activities do not aim on a product-focused process, however a product can be created with the methods and techniques used at the end of the process. When the use of senses and feelings are the main focus within the process, there might not be an apparent outcome or product. When considered from this point of view, process is much more important than creating a piece of product. Primary studies held on children's art perception focus on the preferences of children in terms of colours, subjects and style; however, these studies have contradicting outcomes. Some researchers suggest that children are interested in works of art with bold and contrast colours, and even shiny art work with silver or golden colours. Other findings show that children aged four and five prefer abstract art using simplified geometrical shapes that can be easily defined, and that are formed with bold colours. Contents that appeal to children are identified as people, objects, actions, interactions, gestures, emotions and expressions. In a study, 3 year-old children were presented with clear, saturated, vibrant and contracting images in simple designs, based on spatial relations. Within this study, it was observed that children give positive reactions to the works of art that portray or show subjects familiar to them. According to this outcome, selected works of art that are meaningful for art education and for discussion should consist of content that are relevant to children's interests and the information they receive from the world around them, as young children base their reactions towards art to their sensory experiences. Art activities have to be meaningful for children, so that they are interested in these activities organized by the teacher and responsive towards art activities whilst learning about art. The feelings, thoughts and dreams of children can expand and flourish through such activities. However, such teachers do not exist in pre-school environments (as cited in Lye, Garces-Bascal & Wright, 2017; as cited in Zimmerman & Zimmerman, 2000; San, 2018; Temiz & Karaarslan Semiz, 2018).

30 to 50% of the children attending pre-school are involved with art-related activities every day. Art education organised for children between the ages 2 to 5 in such environments are inspected and governed by pre-school teachers who do not have an history of art education. Pre-school teachers and early childhood educators
typically have not gone through a formal art education, however they are encouraged
to integrate art to the basic curriculum. Kindler (1997) states that teacher training
does not prepare teachers adequately for taking initiatives towards developing an art
curriculum that has such wide boundaries. Several studies support the assumption
that the inadequate expertise of teachers in teaching visual arts contributes to the gap
between the theory and practise. From pre-primary school up to 3rd grade in primary
school, art can be taught to children by an art teacher for one or two hours per week,
however most of the art teachers do not have an history of pre-school education. The
lack of knowledge and pedagogy related to art education leads to various problems
on how art education is included in early childhood curriculum and how art is being
taught to children. Another problem appears to be the textbooks being used for art
education in pre-schools, as they mainly develop basic skills and focus on activities
for developing hand skills where outcomes that are swiftly created, rather than
enabling children to create meaning through art. Textbooks related to art activities
focus on figural elements such as colours, lines and shapes rather than the meaning
of art. Another concern is that art may not be seen as a discipline in environments
with a lack of emphasis of art or in schools where there are no art teachers. Art may
not be taught at all, or children can be engaged in activities that may seem related to
art but actually have no relevance to art education. For instance, early childhood
educators sometimes use set materials and children follow strict instructions with
shapes and colours that are pre-determined on the same pages. These types of
activities do not involve artistic skills or do not encourage children to investigate,
understand or discuss about works of art created by other people. These activities are
quite structured and do not create space for children to express their creativity. There
is no sense in defending that these experiences are art activities. Cutting and pasting,
collage work, colouring images with set boundaries can only develop fine motor
skills of children and their eye-hand coordination. Art activities aiming to enable
expression of children's feelings through art materials can be seen as activities that
are therapeutic or activities that feed themselves; however, they cannot be viewed as
activities that emphasize the cultural heritage or activities that define the role of art
in society (as cited in Twigg & Garvis, 2010; Göl Güven, 2009; Suwasa Astawa &

Within this context, it is possible to move away from subject-centred art
education and follow a 'child-centred' approach, where the special interests, skills
and abilities of children are combined with visual arts and their knowledge and
understanding is being developed. Based on this, pre-school teachers,

• can keep printed reproductions of art work in classrooms and enable children
to have regular access to adult art work, whilst creating discussion and dialogue
opportunities on art work,

• can encourage children to speak about and interpret the works of art with each
other,

• can present models on manipulative skills such as cutting and pasting,

• can create a discussion platform not only open for adults, but also for the works
of art created by children,
• as children can learn from each other in a natural way, models of work created by children can be used as well as work created by adults,
• can encourage children to speak about how art can be used to express thoughts and feelings metaphorically (Bell, 2011; Eckhoff, 2010; Zimmerman & Zimmerman, 2000).

Accordingly, it is clear that viewing, analysing and evaluating works of art are actions that are as important as creating art within the context of art education. Newton (1995), states that children can use the language to describe, discuss and interpret works of art from 3 ages onwards. Children learn from each other through such activities, they listen to each other and interact, they respond and move their bodies while responding; for instance, they use their bodies when they come up with a story of taking a walk when they observe such an action in a painting. Children can relate to the events in their own life with the descriptions made on an art work. This suggests that being exposed to high-quality works of art within a certain amount of time can lead to a better understanding of aesthetics within the scope of art education and in general and it can enable the development of perception in children whilst they can develop a flawless synthesis of perceiving, feeling and thinking. Thus, an important and rich learning space can be established for young children through 'viewing art' and 'participation in art activities' within the context of visual arts. However, such experiences of participation are not included within the scope of art education for young children or this only covers a small portion of children's interaction with visual arts as most of the activities are based on creating art. However, it is suggested to include art activities designed for children that introduce them to high-quality and developmentally appropriate works of art within the scope of early childhood curricula, in terms of content and presentation. However, despite the standards of curriculum and the suggestions; art viewing and appreciation experiences remain as an inconsiderable component in all probability. The research studies held on art viewing focus on the value of exploration of works of art and having conversations about these pieces of art. Research studies show that consideration of art work in terms of aesthetics increase the visual literacy and support the integrative thinking and reasoning. Children see various interpretations of common and familiar themes through works of art. Thus, children learn about unique perspectives and appreciate the individualistic expressions of artists with each piece of art. Mai ve Gibson’s (2009) research studies support the idea that aesthetic abilities are closely related with artistic experiences and cognitive development. Because, thoughts and feelings come together during the perception and appreciation of art (as cited in Lye, Garces-Bascal & Wright, 2017; as cited in Zimmerman & Zimmerman, 2000; Eckhoff, 2008; Eckhoff, 2010; Eglinton, 2003; Savva, 2003).

In a research study (Eckhoff, 2008), teaching strategies have been presented to pre-school teachers in order to support the integration of enriched and meaningful art viewing activities to small children's art-related experiences on a regular basis (Figure 1).
The experiences of creating art

Experiences on Aesthetics

Encountering with Art

Figure 1. Integrative Experiences on art (Eckhoff, 2008).

This research is a museum-based art programme designed for young children, emphasizing on experiences of children when viewing and creating art. For this reason, the research requires a theoretical frame for explaining the rich interaction between students and teachers in museums, galleries and studios. According to this, all of these learning approaches together with the recent research studies on educational sciences emphasize the importance of the learning environment in learning experiences. Piscitelli and Weier (2002) similarly discuss the important role of the adults and teachers in regards to the support given to children for moving them towards a deeper level and carry them forward, for instance in a museum environment where they focus on the behaviors of children and ask them various questions. The selected objects and the introduction of these objects related to art has great effects on the development of the understanding and admiration of children in regards to visual arts. Because children's experiences related to art are being shaped mainly by the adults in their lives. For this, it is very important to identify educators and teaching methods for viewing and creating works of art. For instance, in Eglington's (2003) suggested art programme model, teachers play an integrating and active role where they motivate the participation of children in an art-based discussion/activity. The role of the teacher in viewing art should be mentoring, guiding and supporting children for discovering their interests, rather than imposing knowledge and information on specific works of art. Young children have the ability to observe and think on works of art when they are given the chance to have a meaningful conversation with adults. Dialogues should reveal responses from children that are descriptive, analytical, interpretative and judgmental. In this way, teacher invites children to a deeper understanding level than their current mental processes, by letting them to focus on particular details on the art work and by asking them questions. When 'children', 'works of art' and 'teachers' are engaged in a three-fold interaction, teachers witness children viewing art and their perceptions on art during discussions, when children create meaning through cognitive and affective connections. Teacher's role here is to select appropriate works of art and present them to children on a regular basis; for facilitating their observations, reactions and discussions and to enable children to see and to think. The interaction between
'children', 'works of art' and 'the teacher' plays an important role in shaping the reaction, motivation and attitudes of children towards works of art (Eckhoff, 2008; Eglinton, 2003; Lye, Garces-Bascal & Wright, 2017; Piscitelli & Weier, 2002).

On the other hand, it is possible to establish and develop environmental awareness and consciousness through the curricula and activities related to art in schools; as a completely different aspect to the context of 'art'. Recent studies show that having increased interaction with art materials during sensorimotor games can improve the senses of children and can allow children to learn about the environment in an active way whilst supporting their cognitive development. Besides, studies held on environment, Montessori and art education indicate a positive change in ecological attitudes of children who have interacted with nature-based materials during early childhood period. An action research held on this topic (Wei, 2020) looks into the effect of providing environmentally-conscious art materials during art education in a Montessori school on environmental awareness of children. The research has been administered with 7 pre-school students studying in a private Montessori school in the west of US. The research design is comprised of both qualitative and quantitative components; including observation notes on environmental awareness of children, literature research, behavior graphs and group discussions. In the research, the prediction was towards the idea that children will develop a positive relationship and curiosity towards natural environment once they go through experiences with environmentally-conscious art materials during their sensory experiences. Thus, children can develop their tactual and visual senses by nature-based art activities where they can feel and observe the real tissues, textures, dimensions and colours of plants and animals. Art materials that are consciously created are materials consist of biological decaying (totally natural materials) materials or sustainable objects (eco-systems or objects that do not harm the environment). These art materials include earth-based materials such as water, natural lighting, clay, stones, sand; animal and plant wastes such as sea shells, feathers, flowers, nuts, barks, leaves, fruits, seeds, and wool; natural construction materials such as felt, strings, paper, natural garments and wood. The outcome of the research study indicates that the closeness and relationship of children towards environment increased by 16% and their reactions indicating awareness have increased by 23%. The frequency regarding the use of these materials are positively related to environmental actions. The findings show that environmentally-conscious art materials have a positive effect on the environmental awareness of children. The outcome of this study encourages a reconsideration of the role of educators, art curriculum and materials on environmental awareness of students (Wei, 2020).

In the context of art, another aspect that might bring in important outcomes in terms of child development is 'art therapy' method, where art is used as a means of therapy. Art creating process can act as a tool for children to deal with difficult emotions, to learn how to tolerate disappointments and for them to develop self-recognition and confidence throughout their lives and allow them to express their emotions in an healthy way. Children are creative by nature, and they can use the creative process as a means of communication and for dealing with various
difficulties in life. Various issues that might cause problems for children can be the loss of a family member or a friend, learning difficulties, traumas, phobias, behavioural problems and emotional problems such as insecure attachment. Even if various therapy methods are helpful for a child, many children can find it frightening or difficult to express themselves verbally. Art therapy is a special psycho-therapy field that is rapidly developing, and a method that can help children and adults to express their feelings and experiences beyond verbal communication. The aim of art therapy is to facilitate positive changes by creating a relationship with the therapist and art materials in a safe environment. Art therapy can be used as a part of any type of therapy, or as the therapy itself. It is extremely effective for children and families, as short-term and long-term therapy. Children with special needs can also benefit from art therapy in various ways. For instance, autistic children use art as an appropriate tool to communicate. Children with ADHD show an increased focus through art activities and children having cancer treatment can be comforted through art therapy. None the less, art therapy is not only useful for children with special needs. A way of making art therapy accessible to every child is to bring it to schools (Hartling, 2014; Keane, 2017; Waller, 06).

Rafael was sitting at the corner of the classroom with his knees bended and tucked to his chin and with his arms entwined. He was rocking back and forth and he seemed indifferent towards his environment. A Spanish-speaking Mexican immigrant, Rafael and his mother was living with his uncle since Rafael’s father died of an heart attack. At the beginning of the school year, Rafael’s uncle was shot on a street corner; and Rafael was in a huge chaos filled with sadness and anger; when he was faced with having no home with his mother while he was trying to find balance in his life. Teachers were looking into Rafael’s eyes filled with mystery and were looking for words that never came out of Rafael’s mouth. One day, the teacher brought a big djembe drum to the classroom and started playing the drum while calling the names of the students, asking them to sing. Rafael also got up and joined the circle. He waited for his turn and started thumping out while saying his name. Rafael began attending the pre-school a month ago, however that was the day when he showed himself in the classroom. Rafael began to participate in all the classroom activities. However his interest and expression was mainly in music, dance and visual arts (Brown, 2020).

As it can be seen on the example above, 'art' concept in early childhood period should be considered with a multi-dimensional perspective and must be enriched; and it can help children coming from different backgrounds and ethnicities for integrating with the society they are in; and support them in having a healthy communication. Because art has a central position in many cultural traditions. This case study indicates the potential importance of art for the young children under risk; and for children having a problematic education life. Integrating art into education and bringing in various cultural traditions to the classroom creates important opportunities for children coming from different backgrounds to develop the sense of belonging and pride. Art integration creates a comfortable environment for
children to express their individuality and let them construct new skills and knowledge on their previous cultural knowledge. Additionally, research studies indicate that participation in art activities increase the socialness and inter-personal skills and has the potential to decrease behavioural and emotional problems. Especially, the healing power of art is consulted in cases where children have heavier issues; for instance, in cases of traumatic incidents such as sexual abuse. It was identified that clay-based work used in art therapies have decreased the symptoms of trauma and increased the life skills of participants and created a sense of belonging whilst empowering them (Brown, 2020; Brown & Sax, 2013; Haynes, 2015; Morrison, 2020).

As an outcome, people learn at an optimum level when their bodies are involved and when they sense events and incidents with more than one receptor. The multiple learning styles provided by art can be of great importance not only for children with a normal development; but also for children having educational and developmental retardation. Children having different developmental levels should have the opportunity to participate to educational processes and to experience success and achievement in a meaningful way, in order for learning to be accessible to all students. Be it music, creative movement or dance, be it other forms of art such as visual and auditory; there is strong evidence that art-related educational experiences provide these opportunities. Moving from this evidence, the well-deserved interest and consideration should be given to art education during early childhood and art education should be valued urgently.

“A nation with a lack of art is a nation missing life force.” Mustafa Kemal ATATÜRK

REFERENCES


The simple process of creating, healthy emotion regulation, and expression. Increasing motor skills, Increasing social skills [Access date: 15.02.2021].


From the moment children are born, they find themselves in a family environment, which is one of the influential and important structures on their development, and they can acquire basic and primary life experiences from this environment (Özyürek & Tezel & Şahin, 2014). Research results reveal that parents’ quality relationships with their children, child-centered environments they provide in accordance with their development, and intervention programs offered to parents contribute positively to children's brain development, mental, physical, social-emotional development, and academic achievement. (Boonk, Gijsselaers, Ritzen & Brand-Gruwel, 2018; Fan & Chen, 2001; Graves & Brown Wright, 2011; Jeynes, 2015; Mendez, 2010; Öncü, 2010; Ruiz, Gesell, Buchowski, Lambert & Barkin, 2011; Sheridan, Knoche, Edwards, Bovaird & Kupzyk, 2010).

Another factor that is as effective as their parents on the development of the child is play. Play, which has an undeniable effect on the child, is both a learning tool and supports development by providing the most natural learning environments for the child, is accepted as the most important spiritual nutrient after love and a need as important as nutrition and sleep (Pehlivan, 2012; Sevinç, 2004). While play contributes to the physical development of the child, it has a significant influence on helping children adopt the social rules created by adults by applying them in their games, also building their own social order that they have created with their peers, achieving emotional satisfaction and developing friendship relationships, thanks to the opportunities and emotional skills they have developed during the game. Furthermore, when both genders play together, they learn that despite the biological differences of genders a common culture is created and play helps them develop their cognitive abilities as well as making sense of their mental state and to the positive development of their personality. (Ånggård, 2011, Aydt & Corsaro, 2003; Cobb-Moore, Danby & Farrell, 2009; Coelho, Torres, Fernandes & Santos, 2017; Gmitrova, Podhajeckáb & Gmitrovč, 2009). The first playmates of children from the first years of early childhood until they start preschool education are their parents (Gülay Ogelman, Aytaç, Erol, Erdentuğ, Akdeniz Yolaç & Güner Özbilenler, 2019). For this reason, in addition to the importance of the place of mothers and fathers both as parents and as playmates in the lives of preschool children, it is possible to say that the games that parents play with their children have a very important role in
terms of their contribution to the development of children. In order to make an assessment regarding the quality of parent-child relationship, it is important to obtain information about the structure and nature of the games parents play with their children, the contribution of parents to the game process, and the type of games they play together.

Due to the industrialization reforms in agriculture in the 1980’s in Turkey, migration from villages to cities became obligatory, causing family structures to transform from traditional extended family structure to nuclear families (Kandiyoti, 2013). In traditional extended families and in the first years of transformation into nuclear families, mothers were regarded responsible for many needs such as care, development and the education of the child, although the interaction styles of children with their mothers and fathers were established quite differently (Cabrera, Tamis-LeMonda, Bradley, Hofferth & Lamb, 2000; Rohner & Veneziano, 2001). In fact, mothers were expected to carry out activities such as playing games with the child in addition to all these responsibilities regarding the child. The father’s role and importance in the life and development of the child were hardly mentioned (Taşkın, 2011). Because in the traditional perception of fatherhood roles, fatherhood definitions that express the responsibilities of the child regarding the child other than earning money and meeting the financial needs of the child (Ezgin, 2020) were not yet made.

The fact that the nuclear family in Turkey forced mothers to take an active role in working life in order to cope with the economic difficulties brought by urban life has changed the role of fathers as the only person in the house that brings income to the house and manages economic livelihoods (Kandiyoti 2013; Ezgin, 2020). However, as women started to benefit more from educational opportunities, the increase in the discourse and practices regarding the equality of men and women, and even the reflection of this in the sharing of domestic duties, caused a change in parenting roles. Thanks to the studies of researchers who focused their attention on this, increasing researches on family relationships led to a rise in the studies in which paternal roles began to be redefined in the 90s (Tezel Şahin, Akınço Koşgun & Aydın Kılıç, 2017). While these studies focused on changing family roles on the one hand, on the other hand, they focused on the importance of the father on child development and revealed that starting from infancy the father has a very important role in child development (Aslan, 2020).

With the realization of the importance of the father on the development of the child, while academic studies conducted in Turkey, on the other hand, the Mother-Child Education Foundation (AÇEV); within the scope of the Father Support Program and the First Business Fatherhood project, which was put into practice, efforts were initiated to enable fathers to take an active role in the care and development of children in early childhood (AÇEV, 2019). In accordance with these programs, AÇEV (2017) conducted a research and subsequently prepared and published a report. According to the report; 78.5% of fathers watched television at home with their children, this ratio increased to 86% for fathers with children between the ages of 4-10, and the rate of fathers who played fictional games with
their children remained at 43% (AÇEV, 2017). When the relationships of fathers with their children during play are examined, it is concluded that fathers spend more time with their boys than with girls (West, 2001). Since many studies have shown that preschool children's games are based on gender (Änggård, 2011), it is important to know what kind of games girls and boys play for their genders and how the game is set up while playing games with their fathers. For all these reasons, this study needed to investigate how fathers play their games with their four-year-old preschool children, and fathers' views on games. For this purpose, answers to the following questions were sought:

1. What are the opinions of 4-year-old children living in Silvan district of Diyarbakır regarding the games they play with their fathers?
2. Fathers who live in Silvan district of Diyarbakır and have 4-year-old children;
   a. What are the factors they pay attention to when planning the games and games they play with their children?
   b. What are their views on playing games with their children?

**Method**

The research was designed in a case study model, which is one of the qualitative research types. The case study aims to understand the real life, current context or environment, a complex, special and interesting phenomenon, a situation, a process, one or more individuals, taking into account the complexity and context within their own circumstances (Büyüköztürk, Kılıç Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz & Demirel, 2018; Creswell, 2015; Punch, 2014). Since the role of fathers in children's games is examined in terms of both fathers and children in this study, the case study model was deemed appropriate.

**Study Group**

The study group of the study consists of seven four-year-old children, two girls and five boys, who attend an independent kindergarten in the Silvan district of Diyarbakır in the fall semester of the 2019-2020 academic year, and the fathers of six of these children who agreed to participate in the study and could be interviewed. The children are a group who receive education in a kindergarten classroom where four-year-olds are educated and benefit from pre-school education for the first time. Two of the fathers have a bachelor's degree, three fathers are high school graduates, and one father is a secondary school graduate. When the professions of fathers were examined, it was determined that one father was a teacher, one father was a manager (vice principal) in an educational institution and one father was healthcare personnel. The other three fathers are self-employed. Five of the fathers are between the ages of 30-35, while the age of one father is over 40. Information on fathers and their children is shown in Table 1.
Table 1 Information on fathers and their children in the study group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fathers</th>
<th>Fathers’ age</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Children</th>
<th>Child’s Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father 1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>High School</td>
<td>Self-Employed</td>
<td>Child 1</td>
<td>Girl (CG1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father 2</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>Bachelor’s</td>
<td>Vice Principal</td>
<td>Child 2</td>
<td>Boy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father 3</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>Bachelor’s</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Child 3</td>
<td>Girl (CG2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father 4</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>High School</td>
<td>Healthcare Personnel</td>
<td>Child 4</td>
<td>Boy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father 5</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>Secondary School</td>
<td>Self-Employed</td>
<td>Child 5</td>
<td>Boy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father 6</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>High School</td>
<td>Self-Employed</td>
<td>Child 6</td>
<td>Boy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father 7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Child 7</td>
<td>Boy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The family structure of all the participants that make up the study group is nuclear family. The mothers of two of the children have a bachelor's degree, three of them are secondary school graduates and two of them are high school graduates. One of the three working mothers is a teacher, one a nurse, and another mother is a cleaning staff; the other four mothers are housewives.

**Data Collection**

As a data collection tool in research; semi-structured interview questions prepared by the researchers were used. Interview questions were formed from the questions deemed appropriate to be asked by the researchers after the relevant literature readings were made. Accordingly, child interview questions consisting of seven questions for children and father interview questions consisting of 10 questions for fathers were prepared and asked to the participants in the interviews. The data were collected by one of the researchers. Interviews started with fathers first. Fathers, who volunteered to participate in the study, were given an appointment for the interviews, some fathers were interviewed with a visit to their homes at the time of their departure from work in order to facilitate the interviews; some were interviewed when they dropped off their children or came to pick up their children from school. Permission was obtained from the fathers to record audio recordings in interviews with both fathers and children. During the interviews with fathers, children were made sure to be away. The interviews with the children were carried out in a suitable environment such as the school administrator's room or the teachers' room, where stimulants were reduced, and the researcher and a child could chat alone.

**Data Analysis**

In order to put the interviews with the children and fathers into written form,
the audio recordings taken from the interviews were listened by the researchers and all the interview records between the researcher and the participants were transferred to written documents. Thus, 23 pages of speech transcripts were obtained. While analyzing the data obtained from the interviews with children, the children in the study group were given codes according to their gender and they were ranked. Accordingly, girls are stated as “CG” and boys as “CB”. The interview with each child was named in line with these codes and turned into written documents. In the analysis of the data obtained from the fathers, the fathers were coded as "F1", "F2" by giving the sequence number. These documents were read by each researcher separately. The data were analyzed by two researchers together. The content analysis method used in qualitative research methods was used in the analysis of the data.

Results

In the presentation of the findings of this study, which was conducted on the views of children on play behavior and the views of fathers on the games they play with their children, game-playing processes for children and fathers are presented under separate headings with themes obtained from the analysis.

1. Process of playing with fathers according to children

Accordingly, the findings obtained from the interviews with the children were collected under the themes of fathers as playmates and fathers who make rules.

Fathers as playmates

When the children in the study were asked which parent, they play with the most, four out of seven children stated that they played games with their father, two of them stated that they played with their mother, and one child played with both their mother and father. Children who stated that they preferred to play games with their father, explained that they chose their fathers because they gave the opportunity to play games as a family, their fathers play building construction games and play games with materials such as robots and police cars that they love very much. One of the children expressed this idea as “… I am impatient when playing with him…” (CB5). A child who stated that he was playing games with his mother stated that he played games with his mother because she allowed him to play games with the smartphone.

The children were also asked who they would choose if they wanted to play a game with one of their parents. Two of the three children who responded with the father as the parent who they most wanted to play games indicated that their reason for preferring the father was because he increased their desire to play games. One of the children said, "Because the father plays differently (CG2)”, expressed the father's presenting a difference in the game as a factor in choosing the father as her playmate. The three children, who said that the parent they want to play with is their mother, cited their mothers not having time to play games with them because they were busy with housework and stated that they wanted to play with their mother if she had the opportunity.

Fathers who make rules
When children play games with their fathers; when asked whether their fathers added rules or not, four children stated that their father added different rules to the games and that their fathers also guided them in the game. In the formation of this thought, one of the children says “Dad says, do you do like that in the game? (CG1)” was effective. One of the two children who stated that their father did not add any rules to the game they played said, “I don't want him to add any rules (CG2).” The other child stated that he was not very satisfied with the rule added by his father with the words ”He adds, but I add a better rule (CB5)”.

1. The Process of Playing Games with Their Children According to Fathers

Interviews with fathers were analyzed in line with research questions. Accordingly, the quality of the time the father devotes to his child in relation to the father's planning of the games and games that fathers play with their children, the type of game played with the child and the game material and the game environment preferred by the fathers have emerged. The views of fathers about playing games with their children, the role of the child's gender in the game, the role of playing games with the child according to fathers, the task of playing games with the child, the society's view of father-child games and the importance of playing games with their children from the perspective of fathers. Detailed explanations on these themes are presented below.

The quality of the time the father devotes to his child

When the fathers were asked how they spend time with their children, the answers given by the fathers were collected on the themes of enabling their children to enter different physical environments, doing care work for their children, sharing the same physical environment with their children and not being able to spare time for their children. One of the two fathers who provided different physical environments to his children stated that he took his child to the park or outdoor areas whenever he had time and that he did not like being inside very much. The other father said that when he was at home, he took his children to the park.

One of the two fathers, who stated that he interacted with his children through play, said, “So we play hide-and-seek. We do two somersaults on the bed (F6)”, he not only stated that he communicated with his child through play, but also the types of games they play. Another father, father of four boys, emphasized the way of spending time with his child, and emphasized that they actually played similar types of games with all of their children, and stated that they sometimes spent time playing the games the children wanted and sometimes the games the father wanted.

One father stated that the way he spends time with his child is through participating in the care work such as cleaning, feeding, and helping with their homework. In addition, this father described activities such as watching television and eating together, based solely on sharing the common physical space with his children, as spending time with them.

Game type and game material played with the child

When the fathers were asked what the games, they played with their children were, four fathers stated that they left the choice to their children and they played
whatever game they wanted to play (play dough, building a house with legos, catching up, hide and seek, making toys talk), and the two fathers stated that they determined the game together (ball games). Fathers also stated that by teaching their children the games they determined, they also played different games (games with rules - chess, fighting games - wrestling, etc.) with their children.

When the fathers were asked which game materials they preferred and why they preferred them when playing games with their children, the fathers did not specify the type of material but stated that the game material was suitable for the development of the child and that it was a material that attracted the child's attention. Two fathers stated that they chose game materials paying attention to the development of the child's imagination, and one father stated that he used the game materials because it was effective in improving the child's self-confidence by improving his skills. In respect thereof, a father said, “… We bring toys, we try to play with them. We try to produce something imaginary… (F2)” One of the two fathers who stated that they prefer toys that are interesting to the child said “… He likes cars that turn into robots. For example, he watched a movie. He can also be affected by it… He likes those cars made from robots. (F3) " One of the fathers also stated that he preferred the game material in order for his child to stay away from the games on the phone.

**Game environment preferred by fathers**

When asked which environments they prefer when playing games with their children, three fathers said they prefer the park, one father said he chose to play at home, another father stated that he will play games in any environment as long as there are no guests around. A father, who preferred the park as a playground, said, “Park, green spaces, open spaces. Because the child runs from here to there. I run after him, but I know he is comfortable. So he relaxes. It is throwing the energy out. (F2)” Another father on the other hand who chose the home to play replied: “You know he's trying to play with us because he doesn't have many friends. With his mother, with me. He's been playing with his little brother now. (F3)”

**The role of the child's gender in play**

Fathers were asked who determined the content of the games they played with and with which gender the father felt better when playing. One of the fathers who stated that he preferred to play with girls, remarked that he had to say girls because he did not have a son, while the other father stated that he did not have difficulty in determining the game content with girls, that the girls were more compatible, they could be temperate during the game by understanding the feelings and facial expressions of the father’s every movement and he thought that this could not happen with boys. One of the fathers, who stated that it is easy to determine the content of the games with boys, stated that it was easy for his child to know the games he played in his childhood, another father could play the games his son suggested, and the other father was not able to know the games played by the girls so it was easier for him to play with boys. Emphasizing that the gender of the child is not important in determining the content of the game, a daughter's father said, “I think this has nothing
to do with gender. Our point of view determines this… I support her favorite games. She doesn't have to play with a doll. If she loved toy cars, we would play with them instead. So I am more interested in how much my child enjoys it. (F4)”.

The task of playing games with the child

When the fathers were asked which parent's duty to play with the child was, two fathers stated that it was the common duty of the parents, two fathers said that it was the duty of the father, and both fathers claimed that this duty belongs to the mother. A father (F3) who thinks that both parents have a common duty stated that playing games with the child is a common duty of the mother and father, since the child needs both parents. One of the two fathers (F4), who stated that playing games with the child was the duty of the father, based this view on the grounds that the mother did not have time to devote to the development of the child because she was both a working mother and was busy with housework when she came home. One of the two fathers (F6) who stated that playing games with the child was the mother's duty said that playing with the child was the mother's duty because he came home tired from work in the evening, while the other father (F1) stated that the task of playing games with the child was attributed to mothers according to the traditional understanding. He stated that this was due to the fact that she was the person spending the most time with children. However, this father (F1) added to his views that it is beneficial for fathers to spend time with the child by playing games for periods ranging from half an hour to an hour a day.

Society's view of father-child play according to fathers.

When asked how playing games with children is welcomed by the society, three fathers stated that the father-child relationship was developed in the new generation and the father-child relationships in compliance with the old traditional understanding lost their importance, and the father's playing with his child was responded positively by the society. The two fathers, who stated that the father's playing with the child was viewed negatively by the society, stated that the fathers loved the child only when the child was happy, and the fathers wanted to just rest at home because they were working and coming home tired. One of the fathers, on the other hand, stated that society's point of view is not important for the father to play with his child.

The importance of playing games with their children in the eyes of fathers

When the fathers were asked about their perspective on playing with their children, five of the fathers received this favorably, while one father did not see it positively when he evaluated playing games with the child, which he saw as the mother's job, from his point of view. Five fathers who have a favorable opinion on fathers playing games with their children do not have the experience of playing games with their own fathers, they believe that father-child games strengthen the relationship between father and child, thinking that the child who plays with the father can get the love he needs through play. Although they receive basic education from the mother, they cannot meet the game needs with their mother. Therefore, they emphasized the importance of father-child play for children.
Discussion, Conclusion and Suggestions

In this study, which was conducted to determine the views of fathers and children about the games that fathers played with their four-year-old children, it was found that the children mostly played with their fathers because working mothers were unable to play games with their children after work, and non-working mothers were busy with housework all day long. The situation here shows that the gender role attributed to the mother reduces the quality of the mother-child relationship. In addition, it shows that the father interacts with the child more through play. The mother's answer to the question of which parent children prefer as a playmate was revealed by this study that the intensive interest of their mothers in housework created an obstacle in their interaction with their children.

In traditional patriarchal Turkish families, whether they are working or housewives, the duties of mothers at home, ascribed to their gender, are to fulfill the needs of the children, care for their education, as well as to fulfill the household chores (food, cleaning, etc.) (AÇEV, 2017; Kandiyoti, 2013; Özyürek & Tezel Şahin, 2014). While this role attributed to the mother causes the children to prefer to play with their fathers, it also enables them to become playmates who are fun, creative and add different rules to the game. However, studies conducted together with the results of this research (Ezgin, 2020) show that fathers refrain from interacting with their children and taking responsibilities of their children, even during periods of time that can be quite fun, such as playing games with their children. It was found that some fathers had views in accordance with the social perception of both the gender roles attributed to the mother and the traditional father roles assigned to them, and they adopted appropriate behaviors accordingly.

According to the findings of this research, one of the beneficial points of father-child games for children is that the game environments preferred by fathers for their children are open-air venues since mothers cannot take the children outdoors due to their dedication to housework. On the other hand, while fathers can contribute to the type and content of the game by using their creativity while playing games with their sons, they think that their productivity is limited in contributing to their games with daughters. Since research show that outdoor games make it possible to play genderless games rather than games that are suitable for gender roles (Änggård, 2011), fathers take their children to outdoor playgrounds, offering the advantage of playing games suitable for both genders. Playing outdoor games in this way will also contribute to the development of the father-child relationship.

The results of the research show that the fathers included in the study are not aware of the importance of playing that affect all developmental areas of their children, participation in games and the types of games that can be played with children. In addition, half of the fathers have a traditional patriarchal view that the task of playing games with the child belongs to the mother. However, fathers stated that they realized that this was a need because their fathers did not allocate time to play together (AÇEV, 2017), they believed in the importance of father-child games for reasons such as the development of father-child relationships and meeting the
love needs of children from their fathers. It has been determined that fathers have some difficulties because of social perceptions and social roles. For this reason, the perception of fatherhood roles, the quality of parenting relationships, in the trainings that will be prepared by taking intervention programs for father participation (McBride, Rane & Bae 2001; Mendez, 2010), prepared on the basis of schools, or by popularizing AÇEV's "First Business Fatherhood" trainings (AÇEV, 2017), father-child play programs and providing creativity training for fathers can contribute both to the regulation of family relations and to increase the quality of father-child relationship and games. Through these programs, the games that fathers can play with their children can be taught to fathers, and they can make changes in the content of the games that fathers play with their children, enabling them to experience more enjoyable processes. Through these programs, information about child development can be provided to fathers so they can also produce games suitable for their children as their ages change. By conducting research questioning the effectiveness of these intervention programs for children and parents, contributions can be made to the body of literature.

REFERENCES


Chapter 14

Language Teachers’ Perspectives of Learner Centredness of Their Coursebook: The Case of an English Preparatory School at a Foundation University

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INTRODUCTION

Coursebooks are essential instruments for language teaching and learning. Teachers and learners utilize coursebooks in a variety of contexts. It is necessary to evaluate the coursebooks used in language classes to assess if they are good fit for learners and the context. An ideal teaching situation generates a learner-centered language experience because today’s world calls for a more active and communicative performance on the part of language speakers. This study explores if and to what extent the Interchange coursebook of a Foundation School Preparatory School is based on learner-centred teaching principles. Views of language instructors are significant in the evaluation of the learner-centredness of the coursebook which is why language instructors are chosen as the participants of the current study.

A good coursebook is integral for effective learning practices. Hutchinson and Torres (1994) claim that no teaching-learning situation is complete without adopting a well-chosen coursebook. Coursebooks enable teachers a variety of resources providing effective classroom practices and learning tasks, but still language instructors exemplify a variety of adaptation techniques and improvisation while teaching. A well-chosen coursebook encourages learners self-access to independent learning opportunities. Coursebooks that encourage active participation of learners pave the way for a student-centred learning environment. Prucha (2003) states that a coursebook is inseparable from the teaching-learning process. This is why the coursebook choice is vitally important. Coursebook is a means for classroom management as well as self-direction for autonomous learning opportunities (Prucha in Tandlichova:2003, p.145-151). If students have a chance to be creative and independent in the language class, they tend to benefit from long term learning outcomes. Student-centred teaching aims to achieve learning both in and out of the class in a more memorable style. Another positive aspect of student-centered learning is its invitation for generous learner participation. As students participate more, they become better at using language communicatively. Thus, student-centred orientation promotes learners’ communicative competence as well as their
independence.

In today’s world, English learning goals evolved to include more communication due to increasing globalization. With this in mind, today’s students need superior communicational skills in comparison to the previous generation. Such a learning goal requires abundant authentic language experience. Thus, a coursebook that gives learners opportunities to use language in authentic contexts triggers learners’ fluency and eloquence. According to Cummins (2014), fluency is seen by language instructors as a common goal. Using the target language communicatively influences learners’ fluency as well as encourages learner autonomy. More involvement in the class will encourage learners to take charge of their learning out of the class, too as a result of their increasing confidence and emerging independence. Students can be aware of their own learning as they engage in more self-directed learning experiences. With autonomous learning practices students learn to evaluate their own progress through self-assessment. This is vital because it also stimulates awareness and consciousness of their learning. Self-assessment goes hand-in-hand with learner autonomy and student-centered learning practice (Knowles, 1975).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Coursebook Authenticity and Pragmatic Disposition

Coursebooks have global importance in teaching and learning practices. Ur (1996) explains that she prefers adapting a coursebook because “…a set framework helps me (her) to regulate and time my(her) programme; and, perhaps paradoxically, provides a firm jumping-off for the creation of imaginative supplementary teaching ideas” (Ur, P.1996, p.193). Adaptation is a must for any good language educator. A well-chosen coursebook saves time, provides pre-planned activities and a variety of resources. It is widely accepted among instructors that they should modify, evaluate, eliminate or supplement coursebooks considering their learners’ needs and interests. For instance, addition, omission, reduction, extension, modification, and replacement common adaptational strategies utilized by instructors to improve the capacity of a coursebook and make up for the gaps in the coverage of the book (Yangın Ekşi, 2012).

In addition to choosing the best fit for our learners, it is necessary to study the book for its authenticity because it is an integral part of communicative-based teaching. According to Yangın Ekşi (2012) authenticity of a textbook is directly correlated if a language discourse is taken from real life context and is created by a real speaker for a real intended audience for a concrete reason. This implies that language is not altered or modified to make it fitting for an EFL language context because it takes away the naturalness of the original language discourse.

Today more communicative competence is expected when assessing English language proficiency of language learners. Well-designed coursebooks present real-life scenarios with a strong element of authenticity. When coursebooks meet the needs and interests of learners and provide learning opportunities, learner motivation is fostered (McGrath, 2006, p. 178). Authentic coursebooks provide a learner-centered class environment. To contribute to the learning process in a student-
centred class, meaningful input and purposeful tasks should be provided for the learner. Learners’ awareness about what to say and how to say is known as pragmatic knowledge, and it is vital importance in real life communication. We do not have second chances in real life communication. Knowing a second language well and communicating effectively requires that language speaker has adequate vocabulary knowledge, grammatical knowledge, sociolinguistic appropriateness and language fluency (Schmitt, 2010). Coursebooks should enable learners to know pragmatic knowledge and sociocultural peculiarities of the language in order to eliminate communicational breakdowns. Yule (1996) states that speakers build and maintain efficient and appropriate communication when they have a good command of language and cultural conventions. Thus, language users can understand each other clearly and achieve effective communicational skills when equipped with sociocultural knowledge which will allow them to participate adequately in various social situations.

Learner Autonomy and Collaborative Communication Disposition

Learner autonomy makes learners self-determined as well as critically aware. Autonomous learners are opt to cope with challenges encountered while using the second language as well as developing skills in the negotiation of meaning. In Illés’s definition, learner autonomy is captured as being closer to “language use rather than being learning driven” (2012: 509). Coursebooks that provide relevant tasks from real life encourage learners to participate actively and thus, plant the seeds of autonomous learning. A language class which utilizes authentic activities involves students vigorously in the lesson. Students’ engagement in purposeful learning tasks leads to ubiquitous learning in and out of school. Hence, learning becomes more relevant to life and they are naturally prepared for it.

Insufficiency of communicative focus or the absence of contextualization is detrimental for a language class. Language is not only comprised of linguistic and lexical elements only but imbedded in social context, power dynamics and innuendos, and thus, an awareness of social factors and pragmatic aptitude will bring about the success in communication (Harlow,1990, p.348). With this in mind, social contextualization of language can be realized in the authentic disposition of the coursebook and the socially dexterous teaching act of the language teacher.

In today’s world a coursebook that is not in line with communicative elements of real life will be inadequate for learners. Coursebooks that are predominantly associated with structural syllabus are bound to lead to a teacher-oriented class. Unlike structural syllabus, functional syllabus makes learning more practical and productive through the simulation of real-life. Functional syllabus has realistic learning tasks which learners can utilize and respond to in different sociocultural situations in a learner-centered class environment (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983, p.18-19). Consequently, fluency and effective communication is achieved through functional syllabus planning and authentic teaching model.

If learners can be aware of their own learning progress, then they will be able to engage in self-assessment. Coursebooks that focus on self-assessment encourages learners to take responsibility for their own learning. Such a learner can construct
knowledge rather than just passively receiving it. Self-assessment is closely related to the concepts of learner autonomy and student-centred learning (Knowles, 1975). Student-centred learning paves the way for self-regulated learning. Self-regulated learning makes learners set their own goals, monitor their performance and reflect on their learning progress. Learners easily recognize what they need to learn and pinpoint their deficiencies. Self-regulated learning has clearly shown that self-generated feedback on one's learning is associated with academic gains (Zimmerman and Schunk, 2011). Motivated learners regulate their own learning and they realize their own competence for further learning. Hebert (1998) asserts that via self-assessment students begin to internalize instructional goals and begin to apply them to future efforts. Boud (1995) suggested that self-appraisal is a critical skill which is helpful for success not only in formal learning activities but also in lifelong learning effort which is an essential part of our vastly changing world.

Self-realization is not an individual process as commonly considered. Individual awareness oftentimes is realized in the social practice of life. Similarly, self-learning is most satisfied through collaborative language projects and engagements. Collaborative dialogue enables learners applying information presented in class to their real-life situations. Thus, it is evident that individual and social are two essential pieces of learning. Social underpinnings of learning pinpoints the importance of collaborative learning for the self. With collaborative dialogue, learners engage in problem-solving and knowledge-building (Swain, 2000) in addition to competence building. Collaborative practice enables transfer and maintenance of knowledge. Peer-to-peer learning is prominent during collaborative tasks and learners can learn from each other. Learners actively communicate and improve their pragmatic competence through collaborative participation. Coursebooks that embrace collaborative dialogue provide support to language instructors in actualizing a learner-centred teaching/learning practice.

Collaborative share of language discourse makes learners more enthusiastic and motivated in using the target language. When they are aware of their own learning process, their intrinsic motivation is triggered. Harmer (2007) argues that to accomplish communicative goals in the language class, students need to be willing and urged to convey a message with a communicative purpose in mind. Collaboration is key in the agenda of the language instructor because when learners communicate collaboratively through carefully planned authentic activities, learner’s language competence and motivation are fostered abundantly. These aspects prepare the language learner for real life communication.

Coursebook Adaptation for Independent-Learning and Self-Assessment

An ideal coursebook provides everything a teacher needs for an effective language teaching/learning experience. However, as all language instructors know, there is no perfect coursebook out there which is why adaptation is a necessity and reality for educators. Still, a well-chosen coursebook is a great advantage for learners. Adaptation of coursebooks play a vital role in the engagement of learners through different learning opportunities. Professionally produced coursebooks may lack appropriacy or relevance for meeting different learning styles, personalization
and communicative competence (Singapore Wala, 2003, p. 144). Adaptation plays a vital role when the coursebook is inadequate in some aspects. Teachers use some techniques such as adding, deleting, supplementing, simplifying and omitting to make the coursebook more appropriate for their learners. Tomlinson (2010) states that one of the important roles of teachers is to evaluate, adapt, replace, and supplement the coursebook/materials in order to render them more efficient. Relevance, universality of topic, and authenticity are three areas which are critical to the process of deciding whether to adapt or supplement the coursebook (Saraceni, 2003). Supplementing content with relevant authentic materials and inserting open-ended dialogues make coursebooks more engaging and fitting for learners. When authentic language is practiced communicatively, student-centred learning environment is exercised. Coursebooks that are adapted according to learners’ communicative competence results in pedagogical advantages such as ease of decision-making, personalization of content, capacity of critical thinking, emerging of motivation and active involvement of learners. There is strong relationship between class experience and quality of coursebook for achieving the best language teaching and learning practices.

METHODOLOGY

This study evaluated Interchange coursebook used by the English Preparatory school at a foundation university in order to find to what extent the learner centered approach is prevalent in the book. Mixed research design is employed in the study to integrate both quantitative and qualitative paradigms. Data is collected, analyzed and interpreted in both styles so as to present a general picture related to research problems (Creswell, 2003). Mixed methodology provides enriching data analysis comparing different sets of data for a deeper understanding of a concept. Research Questions

The following research questions are explored in this study:

• To what extent is the coursebook in line with the learner-centred approach?
• To what extent is the coursebook likely to expose the learner’s authentic language use?
• To what extent is the coursebook likely to engage the learners communicatively?
• To what extent is the coursebook likely to trigger the learners’ autonomy?
• To what extent is the coursebook likely to lead to self-assessment?

Participants, Data Collection, Instruments, Data Analysis

Forty English language instructors teaching at various language levels at a foundation university were invited to participate in the study. Some instructors did not utilize Interchange Coursebook in their teaching so they were not included in the study. Also, a few other teachers did not choose to volunteer for the study. A total of 30 out of the 40 instructors participated in the study.

Two data collection instruments were used in the study. These were; 1) Questionnaire, 2) Interview. For the questionnaire the related literature was surveyed and key instruments of the study were inquired (Pintrich, Smith, Garcia
An item pool was constructed by studying the items taken from originally developed instruments. 30 items were drawn from the item pool and the instrument was constructed. Questionnaire consisted of 30 items on a five-point Likert type scale (5 – strongly agree to 1 – Strongly disagree) grouped under four dimensions as 1) Authenticity & Learner-Centeredness 2) CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) & Learner Initiation, 3) Learner-Autonomy & Self-Assessment 4) Integrated Skills & Learner-Centeredness. A semi-structured interview was prepared by the researcher to get deeper information about coursebook and its contribution to learner centered teaching from the viewpoints of teachers. The interview included 14 open-ended items.

Data were collected in the spring semester of 2019 with the participation of 30 instructors who volunteered for the study. The questionnaire with 30 items was administrated to the instructors. After completion of the questionnaires, a face-to-face interview was also undertaken with 3 instructors. All interviews were tape-recorded and notes were taken upon getting participants’ permission.

The data collected through the questionnaire were entered into the data set using SPSS. This data set was later subjected to data cleaning by employing the missing data, outlier and normality. Analysis of the data set for data cleaning did not result in any missing case and outlier, and satisfied the normality assumptions. After that, the data set was subjected to descriptive (frequency, percentage and mean) and inferential statistics (correlation) for addressing the research questions. Descriptive statistics was used to portray the participants’ tendencies. Also, correlation analysis was used to investigate the relationship among the variables and determine the degree of association (Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun, 2011).

The Qualitative data analysis procedure was used through the use of face-to-face interview. Interview transcripts were transcribed as a written text. These written texts were subjected to thematic content analysis paying particular attention to the qualitative aspects of the data and the emerging concepts (Joffe and Yardley, 2004). Specific codes emerged in the thematic content analysis which were categorized under 14 themes. The results of qualitative analysis were reported under specific themes and quotations from the interviews were added to support the emerging themes. Anonymity for the instructors was assured. For example, TF1 refers to female teacher numbered 1 and a similar procedure is used in referring to the other participating teachers.

**FINDINGS**

The general tendencies of the instructors and the results revealed that the instructors tended to agree that the coursebook promoted student centered teaching approach to some extent, but did not fully agree that the coursebook satisfied all criteria of the notion of student-centeredness. The results revealed that the coursebook led to authenticity, communicative language teaching, self-assessment, integrated skills and student-centeredness to a certain extent. However, the coursebook had limitations in terms of learner autonomy, learner initiation, authenticity and motivation. Teachers indicated that the weaknesses of the books...
were not due fully to itself and activities in it per se, but due to the its different implementations and different students’ profiles.

Quantitative Findings

The descriptive statistics of the responses given by the teachers are given in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1: Distribution of Teachers’ Responses to Different Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither Agree or Nor Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authenticity &amp; Learner-Centredness</td>
<td>3,40</td>
<td>0,75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Coursebook is Compatible with The Requirements of The Learner-centred Approach in English Class</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0,0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10,0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Language Used in The Textbook is Authentic, That is, Like Real-life English</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0,0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33,3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a Relationship Between the Content of The Coursebook And Real-life Situations</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0,0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13,3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Content of The Textbook is Relevant to Students’ Needs as (an) English Language Learner(s)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0,0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16,7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Content of The Textbook is interesting</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6,7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16,7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Content of The Textbook is Motivating</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10,0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23,3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Content Serve as A Window into Learning About the Target</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6,7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6,7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Culture (i.e., American, British)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>------------------------------------------</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT &amp; Learner Initiation</td>
<td>3.49 0.90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Activities Encourage Sufficient Communicative Practice</td>
<td>3 10.0 5 16.7 4 13.3 15 50.0 3 10.0 3.333 1.184</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Activities Encourage Sufficient Meaningful Practice</td>
<td>2 6.7 3 10.0 8 26.7 13 43.3 4 13.3 3.467 1.074</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Activities incorporate Pair and Group Work</td>
<td>3 10.0 0 0.0 2 6.7 11 36.7 14 46.7 4.100 1.213</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are a Lot of Activities for Students to Engage in Communicative Interaction</td>
<td>3 10.0 3 10.0 4 13.3 11 36.7 9 30.0 3.667 1.295</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities in the Coursebook Promote Learners’ Language Development</td>
<td>1 3.3 4 13.3 6 20.0 12 40.0 7 23.3 3.667 1.093</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities In The Coursebook Motivate Learners</td>
<td>2 6.7 6 20.0 11 36.7 7 23.3 4 13.3 3.167 1.117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are Activities for the Development of Communicative Strategies</td>
<td>0 0.0 9 30.0 5 16.7 12 40.0 4 13.3 3.367 1.066</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Activities introduce the Main Principles of CLT</td>
<td>0 0.0 3 10.0 12 40.0 11 36.7 4 13.3 3.533 0.860</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Coursebook Enables Learners to Use English Outside the Classroom Situation</td>
<td>4 13.3 7 23.3 6 20.0 10 33.3 3 10.0 3.033 1.245</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Coursebook Facilitates Interactive Learning</td>
<td>2 6.7 4 13.3 4 13.3 14 46.7 6 20.0 3.600 1.163</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner Autonomy &amp; Self-Assessment</td>
<td>3.31 0.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When Learners Study for the Class, They Set Goals for Themselves in Order to Direct Their Activities in Each Study Period

|               | 2 | 6,7 | 11 | 36,7 | 7 | 23,3 | 6 | 20,0 | 4 | 13,3 | 2,967 | 1,189 |

Learners See Knowledge as Something that They Should Discover Themselves

|               | 7 | 23,3 | 6 | 20,0 | 11 | 36,7 | 4 | 13,3 | 2 | 6,7 | 2,600 | 1,192 |

Learners Expect Themselves Rather Than Their Teachers to Be Responsible for Evaluating How Much They Have Learnt

|               | 4 | 13,3 | 9 | 30,0 | 7 | 23,3 | 5 | 16,7 | 5 | 16,7 | 2,933 | 1,311 |

The Coursebook includes Parts for Self-assessment

|               | 2 | 6,7 | 1 | 3,3 | 2 | 6,7 | 10 | 33,3 | 15 | 50,0 | 4,167 | 1,147 |

The Coursebook Encourages Learners to Assume Responsibility for Their Own Learning

|               | 0 | 0,0 | 4 | 13,3 | 9 | 30,0 | 13 | 43,3 | 4 | 13,3 | 3,567 | 0,898 |

Learners Like the Student-centred Teaching Method Employed by Teachers

|               | 1 | 3,3 | 6 | 20,0 | 8 | 26,7 | 13 | 43,3 | 2 | 6,7 | 3,300 | 0,988 |

Learners Prefer Their Teachers to Ask Students Thought-provoking Questions to Keep the Lesson Interesting

|               | 3 | 10,0 | 2 | 6,7 | 6 | 20,0 | 11 | 36,7 | 8 | 26,7 | 3,633 | 1,245 |

Integrated Skills & Learner Centredness

<p>|               | 3,41 | 0,86 |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills in The Textbook include a Wide Range of Cognitive Skills That will be Challenging to Learners</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>3.3</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>30.0</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>30.0</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>26.7</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>10.0</th>
<th>3.100</th>
<th>1.062</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Coursebook Provides an Appropriate Balance of The Four Language Skills</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>3.367</td>
<td>1.245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Listening Materials are Well Recorded and Authentic</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>3.400</td>
<td>1.276</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Development of Discourse and Fluency Skills is Given Sufficient Attention</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>3.500</td>
<td>1.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Type of Syllabus Design is Used in The Book Appropriate for Learner Centred Approach</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>3.633</td>
<td>0.928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers Place A Lot of Stress on Listening, Speaking and Real Language Use</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>3.467</td>
<td>1.137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Average</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teachers' responses pointed out that the coursebook promotes authenticity and learner-centredness but they are undecided on the contribution of the coursebook to students' motivation. In addition, according to teachers, more relevant and authentic topics should be included. In terms of CLT and learner initiation, the results revealed that the coursebook was sufficient in terms of pair and group work activities which involved interaction, but, communicative practices and interactive learning still were not adequate.

The coursebook enabled learners’ opportunities of self-assessment to observe their own progress but the activities did not enable learners to discover knowledge on their own. Learner autonomy was not adequately prevalent in the book. The type of syllabus design was appropriate for the learner-centred approach but the skills in the coursebook did not reflect a wide range of cognitive skills that would be
challenging to learners. The coursebook stressed four language skills but their distribution is not balanced.

*Table 4.2: Correlation among Dimensions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Authenticity Learner Centredness</th>
<th>CLT Learner Initiation</th>
<th>Learner Autonomy Self-Assessment</th>
<th>Integrated Skills Learner Centredness</th>
<th>Overall Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Authenticity Learner Centredness</td>
<td>R 1,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P 0,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT Learner Initiation</td>
<td>R 0,810**</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P 0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner Autonomy Self-Assessment</td>
<td>R 0,622**</td>
<td>0,685**</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P 0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated Skills Learner Centredness</td>
<td>R 0,736**</td>
<td>0,861**</td>
<td>0,740**</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P 0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Evaluation</td>
<td>R 0,879**</td>
<td>0,955**</td>
<td>0,827**</td>
<td>0,925**</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P 0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*<0.05; **<0.01

Multiple correlation analysis was carried out in order to investigate the correlations among “authenticity learner centeredness”, “CLT learner initiation”, “learner autonomy self-assessment”, “integrated skills learner centeredness” and “general assessment”. The correlation analysis produced 10 pairwise correlation all of which were statistically significant at 0.01 significance level. The correlation of authenticity, learner centeredness with CLT learner initiation was significant and positive \( r = 0.81, p < 0.00 \), with learner autonomy self-assessment as significant and positive \( r = 0.622, p < 0.00 \), with integrated skills learner centeredness as significant and positive \( r = 0.736, p < 0.00 \) and with overall assessment as significant and positive \( r = 0.879, p < 0.00 \). The correlation of CLT learner initiation with learner autonomy, self-assessment was significant and positive \( r = 0.685, p < 0.00 \), with integrated skills learner centeredness was significant and positive \( r = 0.861, p < 0.00 \) and with overall assessment was significant and positive \( r = 0.955, p < 0.00 \). The correlation of learner autonomy self-assessment with Integrated skills learner centeredness was significant and positive \( r = 0.74, p < 0.00 \) and with general assessment was significant and positive \( r = 0.827, p < 0.00 \). The correlation of integrated skills learner centeredness with overall assessment was significant and positive \( r = 0.925, p < 0.00 \).

The following section shares the qualitative data results. The qualitative data is also very important, because it validates and explains the quantitative data findings. Both types of findings provide a deeper understanding of the Interchange coursebook from the lenses of the language instructors.
**Qualitative Findings**

*Table 4.3: Qualitative Findings*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEMES</th>
<th>Interview – I Teacher coded as T.F.1</th>
<th>Interview – II Teacher coded as T.F.2</th>
<th>Interview – III Teacher coded as T.F.3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Authentic language use (reflective of real life-contexts) | YES  
- Newspaper articles  
- Marriage program  
NO, not full extend  
- Cambridge publishing | - Depending on units and topics  
- Depending on level  
- Role play language | - activities  
- role play |
| 2. Relevant content & interesting content - interesting topics | YES  
- thematic way  
- ordered way  
- the way used  
- motivating  
  * the way it was designed pictures colors etc.)  
  * real life stuff / authentic stuff  
NO | - The level / profile of learners  
- topic  
  * Nature of the topics.  
  * Not relevancy to the real life | YES  
- interesting topics  
* Political issues  
* Global warming  
* Real – life topics  
- engaging in communicatively. |
- American culture  
  * coffee  
  * TV series  
  * Advertisement  
- Other countries culture  
  * South Korea – food) | - American culture  
- Other countries culture  
  * African  
  * Indian  
  * Canadian | - American culture  
- British culture  
- Other counties culture  
  * China  
  * Japan |
| 4. Activities and motivation in the coursebook | - quite  
Activities motivating  
  • Real life materials  
  • Real life dialogues | - partially  
* Depends on their age  
Activities motivating  
  • Applicable in the class  
  • Appropriate their age level  
  • Role plays | - Partially  
* Depends on class Activities motivating  
- Political issues  
- Every day topics / activities  
- Real life topics  
- Role plays in restaurant |
| 5. Real-life language use (pragmatic competence & idiomatic expression, speaking in specific situation like being polite-politeness) | Real life language  
  • Standard language  
  • not using slang words  
Pragmatic competence  
  • limited  
  • only daily usage | Real life language  
  • American daily life  
  • Dislike  
  • Feeling far away  
  • Not Turkish daily life  
Pragmatic competence  
  • (book) serving formal language  
  • (students) Not using formal language  
  • (students) informal letters | Real life language  
  • Real life  
  • Politeness  
  • Pragmatic |
| 6. Pair and group work           | - pair & group work  
|                                  | • YES - balanced   
|                                  | • After grammar   
|                                  | • After vocab     
|                                  | • Before reading  | - pair & group work  
|                                  | • YES - balanced  |
| 7. Sufficient communicative practice & Activities (the function of activities & the content of activities) | - Sufficient  
|                                  | • Adding many activities  
|                                  | • functional      | - Not sufficient  
|                                  |                    | * not aware of the topic |
| 8. Communicative Language Teaching & The Coursebook (Learning the knowledge unconsciously / using task-based approach and CLT) | - not leading communicating interaction  
|                                  | - (teacher) initiating this type of teaching  
|                                  | - learning the topic unconsciously  
|                                  | - needing teacher effort for CLT  | - (book) aiming to get information by their own  
|                                  |                                  | - (book) leading CLT  
|                                  |                                  | - not giving directly  
|                                  |                                  | - depending on students  
|                                  |                                  | - depending on the class  
|                                  |                                  | - understanding grammar unconsciously  
|                                  |                                  | - needing teacher effort for CLT  |
| 9. Interactive Learning- Coursebook (Learner Involvement) | - pushing / encouraging students to interactive learning  
|                                  | - (Ss) initiating their own conservation  | - (book) not fully providing interactive learning  
|                                  |                                      | - encouraging Ss involvement  
|                                  |                                      | - progress check at the end of every unit  
|                                  |                                      | - giving authority for teachers and Ss |
| 10. Responsibility for Learners' Own Learning. | - (Ss) not aware of their responsibilities  
|                                  | - (book) not enough for encouraging Ss to take responsibilities for their own learning  | - progress check at the end of the unit  
|                                  |                                      | • Beneficial for learners  
|                                  |                                      | • Assessing self-development  
|                                  |                                      | • Assessing self- |
DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

Discussion of Authenticity & Learner-Centredness

Teachers’ overall assessment of the Interchange Coursebook in terms of Authenticity & Learner-Centredness was \( \bar{X} = 3.4 \) referring that they did not fully agree but they tended to agree that the coursebook was in line with the criteria of authenticity and learner centredness. The coursebook was found

- to be not fully authentic;
- to be not adequate in terms of relevancy of the content and interesting topics;
- to be not fully in line with the students’ profiles;
• to serve mainly to culture of target language; and to be encouraging and motivating to some extent.

**Discussion of CLT & Learner Initiation**

Teachers’ overall assessment of the Interchange Coursebook in terms of CLT & Learner Initiation was $\bar{X} = 3.494$ referring that they did not fully agree, but they tended to agree that the coursebook was in line with communicative language teaching and learner initiation. The coursebook was found
to give equal emphasis to pair and group work
to expose to communicative practices, but to be not adequate
to serve inadequately the communicative language teaching element
to provide interactive learning, initiate learners’ conversation and encourage them to involve in conversations.

The book is sufficient in terms of pair and group work which involve interaction, but participants believe that the coursebook does not sufficiently promote communicative practices and interactive learning.

**Discussion of Learner-Autonomy & Self-Assessment**

Teachers’ overall assessment of the Interchange Coursebook in terms of Learner-Autonomy & Self-Assessment was $\bar{X} = 3.31$ referring that they did not fully agree but they tended to be undecided if the coursebook was in line with learner-autonomy & self-assessment. The coursebook was found
to enable learners to take responsibility for their own learning
not to enable learners to discover knowledge on their own

**Discussion of Integrated Skills & Learner-Centredness**

Teachers’ overall assessment of the Interchange Coursebook in terms of Integrated Skills & Learner-Centredness $\bar{X} = 3.411$ referring that they did not fully agree but they tended to agree that the coursebook was in line with integrated skills and learner-centeredness. The coursebook was found
to stress the four language skills, but not in a balanced way. Speaking was found to be the main focus of the book, but writing was not given adequate emphasis.
to be designed as student centered
to lead functional syllabus
to promote learners to think deeply involving cognitive thinking.

Sahgagard, Rahimi and Zaremoayyeddi (2009) evaluated interchange series coursebook to determine how it was used in EFL classes. The result of their study also showed similar findings with the current study, which are:

• interchange coursebook focuses on pair work, group work
• prioritize meaning as well as grammar,
• encourages to express themselves and to produce meaningful language
• emphasizes communication skills but ignores discovery learning activities and
• it is not satisfactory for establishing active learner-centered classes.
CONCLUSION

The coursebook promotes student-centred teaching approach to some extent, but the coursebook does not satisfy all criteria of student-centredness. The results revealed that the coursebook leads to communicative language teaching, self-assessment, integrated skills and student-centredness to a certain extent. However, the coursebook has limitations in terms of learner autonomy, learner initiation, degree of authenticity and motivation. Teachers indicated that the limitations of the book are also because of its different implementations by different instructors and prevalence of different student profiles. Re-designing the coursebook considering these shortcomings can be a solution to eliminate the limitations of the coursebook. In addition, providing culture-specific and authentic activities to fill the gaps in order to satisfy the criteria of student-centred teaching approach can be embraced.

The coursebook mostly stresses target language culture; e.g., American and British culture. So, either the coursebook should be adapted to include more aspects of the Turkish culture. If this is not possible it is necessary to adapt the coursebook in line with our culture where instructors bring culture specific activities into the class to support the activities in the coursebook. In addition to these, the coursebook should also be redesigned paying particular attention to the inclusion of authentic materials and activities, interesting and motivating topics, diverse student profiles, communicative language teaching, learner autonomy and initiation, and balanced presentation of all four language skills. Coursebooks should be organized with the goal of making it a student-centred language journey.

Every student is unique and their specific needs and interests should be acknowledged by language teachers. Thus, teachers need to make use of the different teaching methods and create additional materials in order to create learner-centred learning environment and support the coursebook in an enriching way. Language instructors should acknowledge that there is a strong relationship between coursebooks and student-centered orientation as the study findings indicated. Students, on the other hand, need to acknowledge the principles of lifelong learning and be active by participating in all coursebook tasks and activities in order to reach their best potential.

REFERENCES

INTRODUCTION

It was of critical importance to bring up a child for Turkish people in pre-Islamic period, i.e. in Ancient Turkic Tribes. As in Roman education style, fathers were responsible for their son's education, while mothers cared for their daughter's education. A well-brought-up boy was called "Ataç- Atavistic" and a well-brought-up girl was called "anaç-matronly" (Akyüz, 2012:10).

For Turks, adopting a religious system together with the conversion to Islam, the education of a child continued based on the principle of teaching at a young age by realising the importance of a child and with full of child love as in Turkish moral laws before Islam. The prominent scientist Ibn Sina (Avicenna) (989-1037), suggested that it is necessary to start a child's education as soon as his breastfeeding period finishes, before he gains any wicked trait and the aim of this teaching to be conducted through plays must be morals teaching (Akyüz, 2012:28). In Turkish world after adopting Islam, child training was based on raising a religious and well-behaved child.

While child rearing continued in the same way during Seljuq times, in Ottoman Period, it continued in Sibyan Schools that were regarded as the primary schools of the time. The reason why Sibyan Schools are sometimes defined as kindergarten schools is that the age of starting education in Ottoman period was 4 years, 4 months and 4 days as a tradition. However, it is not true to regard Sibyan Schools as kindergarten schools of the time. A student finishing Sibyan School could start medrese, that can be counted as college of the time. In addition, methods used in Sibyan Schools and Kindergarten Schools are different.

In European history as well, a late change was seen in the attitude towards child and as a result, some opinions suggesting that child education must be started as early as possible emerged. Ottoman Empire, affected by this movement of thought in the world, started the Westernisation movement and was influenced by the changes in the field of child education that took place in Europe in 19th century. In addition, in Ottoman Empire that had a cosmopolitan structure, gathering the attention on child education at very early ages was maintained through minority
groups. The establishment of the first kindergarten schools in Ottoman Empire was ensured with minority population.

Since religion was quite prevalent both in Christendom and Islam world in general sense, the first aim of the education in kindergarten schools was to raise children who know their religion. When their future world view and policies changed, some more objectives such as creativity, coordination of hand and brain, sharing, taking the initiative, preparation to basic education were also added.

In New Turkish State, during the period of Turkish Republic, established upon the fall of Ottoman Empire, when religious system turned into laic structure, a new attitude towards children was developed, that is, adopting the values of the state and nation by the child, creativity and rationalism were regarded as the essences of child education.

The education that would be given to the child before primary education would be through plays and it was believed that this education would ensure children who would take the initiative and adopt the values of the Republic. However, pre-school education couldn't be valued enough as it deserved.

**Establishments of Kindergarten Schools in Ottoman Empire**

In the new period starting with the second constitutionalist period, advancements related to education in Europe were followed with the translations of foreign literary works. In this way, the education system of Western world, especially Germany and France was analysed and with the effect of these studies new formations and entities were given place.

One of these was kindergarten schools included in primary education accepted according to Tedrisât-ı İptıdaiye Kanun-ı Muvakkatı (Temporary Primary Education Law) which was dated 1913. Kindergarten schools in Ottoman Empire had first been founded as private schools. Valide Mektebi (Mother School) opened by Terakki School in Salonica in 1893 (Alkan, 2003:63) and Ana Mektebi (Mother School) opened by Armenians in Adapazari in 1896 (Özel, 2005:34) can be given as examples. As well as the term "mother school", some other terms such as "Kindergarten" and "nursery school" were also used.

Another Kindergarten School was opened as a private school by İsmet Haydar and Azize Haydar in Istanbul in 1909. The advertisement on the opening of this new school in Beyazit Mithat Pasha street including 4 iptidai and 3 rüsti classes was given in a newspaper (Tanin, 24.06.1909, 291).

The nursery school called "New School “Yeni Mektep” " opened in 1915 in Istanbul, similar to the school in Salonica, by Satı Bey with the partnership of administrative committee of Fevziye School was among the private kindergarten schools. An advertisement about this school was published in a magazine saying that children under 7 were accepted in this kindergarten school, Fröbel and Montessori methods were applied in the school, and this school was not a school just imitating the West but also adapting these methods and integrating them according to conditions in Turkey (İçtihat, 30.01.1330:477-478).

It is of critical issue that they explained the method to be applied in the advertisement by stating that it was not dependent on a single method, took Fröbel
and Montessori as examples, was suitable for eastern culture and adapted for Turkey's children.

The first official kindergartens were opened in 1913. The first attempts had been started in the previous years, however, because of the crisis created by Balkan wars, they were postponed to the year 1913. Together with Tedrisât-ı İptidaiye Kanun-ı Muvakkatı (Temporary Primary Education Law) which was enacted on 6 October 1913, on condition that it was included in primary education, kindergarten became compulsory for every child. With the 3rd, 4th and 5th articles of this law, the first regulations on kindergarten schools were made (Düstûr, 1913:804-823). These are as follows:

According to Article 3, "kindergarten schools and sibyan schools" were regarded as a part of primary education. According to Article 4, "kindergarten schools and sibyan classes are the institutions that serve for the emotional and physical development of children by involving useful plays suitable for children's ages and trips, handicrafts and hymns, poems on the country, conversations on natural history". Again Article 4 states that "kindergarten schools are special to children aged between 4 and 7. An arrangement regarding kindergarten schools was anticipated with the sentence "Statute and instructions concerning the organization and regulations of these will be declared after studying on the issue in Meclis-i Kebîr-i Maarif (Grand National Assembly of Education)".

Article 5 states that "additional sibyan classes will be opened in primary schools for children aged 5-6 in the places where there are no kindergarten schools".

In 1914, a number of studies were conducted on kindergarten schools. A detailed document prepared and proclaimed as per article 4 in Tedrisât-ı İptidaiye Kanun-ı Muvakkatı (Temporary Primary Education Law) which was dated 1913, that regulates the program of kindergarten schools and aims to illuminate teachers about teaching a lesson was formed by Meclis-i Kebîr-i Maarif (Grand National Assembly of Education) (Akyüz,2006).

The facts that music lesson was included in the curriculum prepared with the document whose very first sentence emphasizes that kindergarten schools and classes are "not a place of instruction “but” a place of education, life and action" and that drama was applied for the first time in lessons are of critical importance.

According to this document implementing Montessori method, the syllabus of kindergarten schools consisted of following lessons: Conversations On Morals, Painting, Native Language, Life and Action Lessons, Music, Natural History and Gardening Lessons, Gymnastics.

In 1915, on the other hand, a statute only about kindergarten schools was proclaimed (BOA,SD.HU.no:231/5;Maarif Vekâlet Mecmuası, 1331:88-90;Faik Reşid, 1927:142-144; Özalp,1982:548-550). With this statute consisting of 15 articles, kindergarten schools were legalised. When the decisions in the statute are to be generalised;

1) Kindergarten schools can be opened both as girls' school as part of iptidaiye class and independently. (Article:1)

2) While opening a kindergarten school, it is taken into consideration that
the building is appropriate to be used as a school and hygienic, that it has a garden and the education materials are supplied. (Article: 2; subclauses of a, b, c)

3) Kindergarten schools can be either paid or they can be free. If it is paid, those who don't pay the money cannot enter this kindergarten school. (Article: 3–4)

4) Boys and girls aged between 4 and 6 are accepted to Kindergarten School. (Article: 5)

5) The child to be enrolled has to bring bill of health. (Article: 6)

6) Children are classified according to their ages. Classroom size mustn't exceed 30. (Article: 7)

7) Children in kindergarten schools are inculcated with sanitary and moral plays, walking in the school, physical education lessons, national and religious stories, conversations, drawings and handicrafts. (Article: 8)

8) In kindergarten schools, children are examined once a week. (Article: 9)

9) In kindergarten schools, there are as many mistresses and mistress assistants as the number of the classes. (Article: 10)

10) Teachers who will work here must graduate from Darûlmuallimat (Women's teacher training school) or prove to be qualified to teach in a kindergarten school with an exam and must speak and write Turkish very well. (Article: 11)

11) Teachers have to be of Ottoman nationality and with a bill of health they need to provide evidence that they don't have any illness. (Article: 12)

12) Sibyan classes to be opened in accordance with Tedrisât-ı İptidaiye Kanun-ı Muvakkati (Temporary Primary Education Law) are also dependent on the decrees of this statute. (Article: 14)

Methods used in Kindergarten Schools: Fröbel and Montessori

When we look at the methods used in one term in kindergarten schools, we come across two important figures namely Fröbel and Montessori methods. Fröbel is a German educator who lived between 1782–1852. As a successor of the pedagogue Pestalozzi, Fröbel advocated the idea that education starts in the cradle, just like Pestalozzi. He emphasised the importance of child's having an unrestricted pre-school education with various plays developing manipulative skills of children.

In his kindergarten school that he opened in 1839 and called "Kinder garden", he had a chance to put his thoughts into practice. Kinder gardens were closed by Prussia (Germany) ministry of education upon the claims that kinder gardens made children and teens irreligious.

Fröbel likened the child and child's soul to a newly sprouted tiny flower. According to him, everything is under the influence of a permanent law. Fröbel states that "the purpose of education (upbringing) is to apply the permanent law of nature in the human beings and come up with good results. Education fulfils its aims as long as it brings to light the power of the body and soul of children. With this reason, education and training will be tied to child's soul and guide children without interfering with them. In order to understand child's soul, some plays are provided for child and he should be observed." (Batır,2010:42-43).
Fröbel's main aim is to keep children who are not at their school age busy in the best way. The education of little children should start with the training of emotional organs. The first duty of mother is this. Later, the child should amuse himself with various toys. However, it is maintained that the child learns a number of principles by himself during this playing. The play starts with an object, i.e. toys and later songs are sung with words, names and utterances included in the game and playing process, that is education process, is completed with tales and stories. Fröbel emphasised the importance of the first education of a child in terms of the development of a society, and throughout his life he tried to impress this idea on the other societies (Halil Fikret, 1930:412-420).

During second constitutional period, the second method applied in Turkish kindergarten schools was Montessori method. Montessori is an Italian pedagogue who lived between 1870–1952. She started her educational studies with special needs kids (retarded children) and then she focused on the education of children who are not at school age. The method used by Montessori is a method that doesn't restrict children as they are full of energy and action and involve them in free time activities. Montessori calls this method "self-directed teaching (Autoéducation)".

Maria Montessori stated that "the period when children learn best and grow the fastest is between the ages of 1 and 6; between these years child acquires his basic features" and published a piece of work called "Children's House" in 1936. In this work;

She investigated the answers to the following questions "in the development of child, should we tell the child how to behave and should we force him to behave in the desired way when necessary? or just by leaving him completely free should we allow for the behaviours that he himself will show with his own free will and a psychological development occurring by itself with the toys according to his interests?" and then she was of the opinion that "the answer was to provide an opportunity for a child for self-directed learning and make this process as easy as possible" (Halil Fikret, 1930:219).

According to her, children's houses should be like this;

"Children's houses should look like a family house rather than a typical school. They should have a few rooms and a garden. Children should be able to play freely and engage in gardening. In the garden, there should be arbours that will protect children from rain and sunlight. The most important room of the child house is "mind occupying rooms". A bathhouse, dining room, a room for conversation and chats, a flat for gymnastic and a recreation room should also be available in child houses..." (Halil Fikret, 1930:220).

Here child learns how to behave his teachers and friends. He does his own work by himself. He gets dressed, takes off his own clothes and washes his hands by himself. Children learn every kind of housework here. There exists a garden that enables them to know animals and plants more closely. They also do handicraft. They have physical training. In addition, they have different colours and models of toys. Thanks to this, they learn to differentiate among colours. Thanks to silence lessons, they learn silence. Children who get tired since they are very active because
of their ages learn to relax their bodies and mind with a 5-minute silence (Halil Fikret, 1930:226).

Telling fairy tales and stories that we come across in Fröbel method doesn't exist in Montessori method. Montessori didn't lean to fairy tales as she worried that children may be corrupted under the influence of the tales that they are listening to.

However, some pedagogues didn't agree with her about fairy tales and criticized by stating that: "Children are gifted with fairy tales and stories from all eternity. It is unfair to get this right from them. The thing that corrupts children is not the fairy tales but the real events around them, in other words, the immediate environment of the child" (Halil Fikret, 1930:226).

Cevdet Bey, one of the teachers from Darûlmuallimin (teacher training institution), also suggested the necessity to incorporate lessons with fairy tales or stories so that students can pay more attention to lessons (Muallim Cevdet, 1341:360-367).

In kindergarten schools opened during Ottoman period, Fröbel and especially Montessori methods had been used. In fact, it would be more appropriate to say "they were tried to be used". Because since kindergarten schools were started to be opened, there hadn't been teachers qualified enough to teach in these schools. Teachers who knew Fröbel method were generally Armenians and those who were trained in Allians Israelit, i.e. in Jewish schools.

A few years later, female teachers graduating from Darûlmuallimat (Women's teacher training school) in Istanbul were started to be appointed to these schools. Yet, Fröbel method used by Europe wasn't known in the country. Female teachers who were trained in Allians Israelit got information from a Jewish mistress while those trained in Darûlmuallimat was in touch with an Armenian mistress. Afterwards, pre-school education was shaped with the studies of educators such as Satî Bey, Kâzım Nami¹.

**Kindergarten Schools with Statistical Data**

Kindergarten schools that started to have a curriculum with the statute in 1915 ended in 1919 with the closure of "Women Teacher Training schools" (Cicioğlu, 1983:21). Kindergarten schools that somewhat continued their existence during the time of independence war continued to be existent as private schools in the years when the Republic was founded.

Kindergarten Schools also took their place in the new Turkish State reshaped with the proclamation of the republic. In Turkish Republic where the total number of the kindergarten schools was 80 in the academic year of 1923-1924, the number of kindergartens according to class types and ages are given in Table 1 in a detailed way:

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Table 1: Kindergarten Schools and the student numbers in the year 1923–1924

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As seen in Table 1, there were 80 kindergarten schools in 38 provinces and 5880 students were being educated in these schools in the academic year of 1923–1924. Children aged 3-7 continued the Kindergarten schools. Classes were divided with names such as Sprout, Rosebud and Rose. In the academic year of 1923–1924, in every province of the country there existed kindergarten schools.

The educational institutions from which teachers working in kindergarten schools in the same year graduated can be classified, as in Table 2, as The Women's Teacher Training College (Darulmuallimat), Foreign Schools and other educational institutions. The age range of Kindergarten teachers who got a salary between 1–3.000 kurus was between 18 and 60.

| Gazi Ayintap | 4 | 129 | 103 | 77 | 309 | 0 | 56 | 80 | 71 | 102 | 309 |
| Kars | 1 | 22 | 54 | 0 | 76 | 3 | 19 | 36 | 15 | 3 | 76 |
| Kırklareli | 2 | 69 | 65 | 47 | 181 | 3 | 16 | 53 | 62 | 47 | 181 |
| Karesi | 2 | 176 | 90 | 69 | 335 | 68 | 96 | 75 | 79 | 17 | 335 |
| Kara Hisar-ı sahip | 2 | 91 | 111 | 0 | 202 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 69 | 133 | 202 |
| Konya | 4 | 133 | 83 | 60 | 276 | 21 | 77 | 90 | 50 | 38 | 276 |
| Kocaeli | 5 | 105 | 84 | 69 | 258 | 0 | 94 | 99 | 65 | 0 | 258 |
| Kırşehir | 1 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 20 | 0 | 3 | 7 | 10 | 0 | 20 |
| Gelibolu | 1 | 54 | 0 | 0 | 54 | 0 | 2 | 20 | 24 | 8 | 54 |
| Kütahya | 2 | 62 | 78 | 63 | 203 | 19 | 48 | 71 | 46 | 19 | 203 |
| Giresun | 1 | 3 | 35 | 37 | 75 | 0 | 3 | 35 | 37 | 0 | 75 |
| Mersin | 1 | 67 | 56 | 54 | 177 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Maraş | 1 | 39 | 0 | 0 | 39 | 18 | 15 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 39 |
| Mamüretülaziz | 1 | 75 | 0 | 0 | 75 | 21 | 19 | 12 | 13 | 10 | 75 |
| Menteşe | 1 | 13 | 16 | 23 | 52 | 0 | 13 | 16 | 23 | 0 | 52 |
| Malatya | 1 | 59 | 0 | 0 | 59 | 0 | 0 | 20 | 10 | 29 | 59 |

Table 2: The number of teachers working at kindergarten schools, their salaries and distribution of age during the academic year 1923-1924.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Located in the provinces of kindergarten</th>
<th>The number of schools</th>
<th>Graduation</th>
<th>Salaries</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>nursery class</td>
<td>Foreign schools</td>
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</table>


As seen in Table 2, during the academic year 1923–24, there were a total of 136 teachers working at kindergarten schools. Most of these teachers had graduated from nursery class department of teacher's training schools. The age of the majority of the teachers in kindergarten schools was between 18 and 25 (total 90), while the number of the teachers aged between 41-60 was so small throughout the country (total 2).

The salary of kindergarten school teachers were generally between 601–1.000 kurus (A total 102 teachers). There were kindergarten school teachers in Ordu, Antep and Konya who would get between 1.001–3.000 kurus. On the other hand, very small number of teachers (total 31) would get a salary between 1–600 kurus.

When it comes to the jobs of the parents of the children in kindergarten schools, they can be categorised into several groups including: merchant, shopkeeper, craftsman, civil servant, religious functionary, farmer, notables and other jobs. Distribution of these jobs are presented below in a table.
Table 3: Distribution of the jobs of the parents of the children in kindergarten schools during the academic year 1923-24.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Located in the provinces of kindergarten</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Distribution of the jobs of the parents of the children</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Merchant</td>
<td>Shopkeep, Craftsman</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adana</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edirne</td>
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<td>48</td>
</tr>
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<td>İstanbul</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eskişehir</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordu</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>İçel</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erteğrul</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burdur</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolu</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tekfurdağı</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teke &quot;Antalya&quot;</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Çanakkale</td>
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<td>81</td>
</tr>
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<td>30</td>
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<td>Hamit Abat</td>
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<td>Sinop</td>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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<td><strong>1.539</strong></td>
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</table>

When Table 3 is analysed, it can be seen that the children of shopkeepers and craftsmen (total 1.539), the children of civil servants (1.540) went to the kindergarten most whereas sheikhs and Islamic clergymen sent the least children to kindergarten schools (total 86).

The importance of kindergarten schools was understood better together with the studies in the field of education after the law on unification of education. With changes made in the teaching methods in the curriculum of kindergarten schools, the actual objectives were tried to be reached.

Some significant developments in preschool education in Turkey were observed after 1960s on the way to institutionalization and after Turkish constitution of 1961, programs were developed in the matter of preschool education.

**CONCLUSION**

Pre-school education is a very crucial step when a child starts learning at very early ages and affect child's future education positively. Here it is ensured that child gets used to school.

Turkey also made attempts in the field of preschool education in the last quarter of 19th century considering the changes in the world. Started at private schools and in minority schools and opened in classes, kindergarten schools started to be a part of education in the progress of time.

In these institutions first having teacher problems, the problems were solved with the reforms made in teacher's training school. With the law of Kindergarten Schools dated 1915, the schools whose legal framework had been determined were developed more during republic period after they were dealt with in a detailed way.

The change in the mentality of parents with various jobs towards preschool education and their support became a factor that increased the number of institutions. In the future progress, the basic contributing cause in supporting the preschool education was mothers' working.

Kindergarten schools using Fröbel and Montessori methods couldn't get enough attention for a long time in Turkey. After 1960s, with the critical studies in this field, today education life starts with preschool. Also, today, in Preschool Teaching Program of Elementary Education Departments of Education Faculties, pre-service teachers are trained for kindergarten schools.

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Tanin, 24 Haziran 1909, 291.
INTRODUCTION

The change in consumption habits with the transition to postmodernism has also changed the content of the phenomenon of consumption. Today, consumption has become a kind of lifestyle beyond its economic, psychological and cultural dimensions. As stated by Durning (1992) Consumption within the liberal economy, defined by Adam Smith, who emphasize the striking role of private enterprise as “let them do”, undertake the role of propulsive force in free market economy. Thus, the dimensions of mass consumption driven by the media and advertising sector controlled by transnational capitals especially on the Internet have reached incredible levels with the dizzying developments in information systems. The images engraved in the human mind by mass media began to capture people without realizing of it and the consumption of material objects was replaced by the consumption of images and brands.

As a result, according to theorists' views like Baudrillard, Davis, etc., in the postmodern era, people found themselves in an unreal world surrounded by images, indicators and simulations. What is consumed now is the symbols and images of material beings. Images spread through advertisements stimulate people's desire to consume.

Today the question of “whether humanity consuming to live” or “living to consume” (Bauman, 1998, p.93) has become one of the most important philosophical questions. Durning (1992, p. 24), with reference to Aristotle's word “the avarice of mankind is insatiable”, said by Aristotle centuries ago, argues that as long as the demands are satisfied, new requests come in to play and this is the first rule of the economy today. In short, today's consumers now have desires that lose their importance when they are satisfied and the individual is constantly tending to other desires without knowing exactly what he wants. With the new sales techniques and the development of credit opportunities, with the discourse of immediate satisfaction of desires it is possible for almost everyone to satisfy the desire for the consumption object so in other words, “consumption is democratized” (Durning, 1992).

Today, theorists' and researchers like Davis, Ditmar, Simmel, Baudrillard, etc. argue that with the desire for the object of consumption, people's places in social life have started to be determined by the products they consume and what they buy from where and how they consume them have become a part of their identity. Individuals
now express their need to be valued and respected through consumption. In today's consumer society fashion gives the commodities an imagist character and equips them with the unlimited possibilities of the world of indicators, creates symbolic values, extends these indicators to the masses and it manages to meet these needs of the consumer by using advertising effectively to shorten the validity time of these commodities, and by creating manipulations on time, space and taste.

In addition to the media, cinema and music industries, other researchers’ hold the view that fashion, which is one of the means of increasing the consumption capacities of people and keeping their desires and wishes alive, plays a leading role in bringing new identities to people through manipulations made on the bodies and appearances of individuals through the images created in society.

In short, fashion now offers commodities as a way of life to be consumed. As Coco Chanel said ‘Fashion is not something that exists in dresses only. Fashion is in the sky, in the street, fashion has to do with ideas, the way we live, what is happening” (Levinson, 2019). Maybe Virginia Woolf's words take place in ‘Orlando,’ “Vain trifles as they seem, clothes have, they say, more important offices than to merely keep us warm. They change our view of the world and the world's view of us” (1992,179) find their meaning nowadays. Especially “women's body” and “women's identity” have been made a kind of project within the consumer society by global fashion brands. Women are perhaps one of the most manipulated actors in consumer society, surrounded by images of the other woman and discourse of “ideal body” which are constantly recreated by fashion through the media.

In this study, in the first part titled as ‘Fashion as a form of communication’, the language and means of communication used by fashion to motivate the desires of today's consumer society will be discussed. Then in the second part, concepts like ‘The Other Women, the concept of the other and the image of other women created by fashion’ will be studied. In the last part titled as 'Gigi Hadid at the Burberry Monogram Collection Spring 2019', it will be tried to analyze how fashion uses photography as a means of communication and indicators to create the image of the other woman.

FASHION AS A FORM OF COMMUNICATION

When it comes to how fashion motivate the desires of today's consumer society through the media as a form of communication, Mills (1956, p. 436) argues that mass media do not reflect the real world that we live or that is to be lived, but rather a world that they create. According to him, the mass media tell people what they should be and enable them to undergo this change effectively. He explains the effect of mass media on individuals in 4 items:

1- Mass media gives individuals a new “self-personality” and convince the person to adopt it
2- It instills in into people what they should be, how they should be, and creates desire in this direction.
3- Teaches individuals what to do in order to have new personalities.
4- Individuals are feel free from their real personalities even if they do not match
their real-self at all. It gives some kind of escape.

In addition to mass media's power to change individuals, Kawamura (2005) refers to the structure of fashion that shapes and changes social life and states that it must first be defined as fashion for the mass to adopt and begin to consume anything. In fact, as Barthes (1967) points out, through fashion media, by establishing a connection between visual presentation, sign and words, it forms a kind of propaganda discourse based on ideological illusion in the consumer society to shape social life.

According to Kawamura (2005), fashion does not present a material object, it appears in the minds as a product without real existence. According to Barthes (1967) Fashion must be treated as an abstract idea because in terms of fashion real cloth is very different from clothes that represented. This is the relationship between the signifier and signified, which are actually two elements of Sign. Here, of course, the actual dress is also meant as an indicator, but as the author says, the meaning of the real dress here is not richer or more interesting than the meaning of traffic signs.

Therefore, in the discourse created by fashion through the media, the real dress is of little importance for the discourse of fashion. Because the consumer is not interacting with this dress. The discourse created and used by fashion turns the real dress into a symbol enriched with meanings and values. As a result, no object alone creates a desire for consumers. In order to create the desired desire, this object must be named or placed within the context. If we consider this situation in terms of communication theory according to Jakobson's communication model (Todorovic, and al., 2017) when we communicate, information is produced on both sender and receiver sides. In a fashion communication the sender produces a statement (on different media, etc.) to inform receiver. Of course, there is not only information in this statement, there is also a relation, that is to say in a communication, there is the dimension of the utterances and there is the dimension of the enunciation. The relation, the context comes to qualify the meaning of what is stated. So, when we talk about fashion as a communication phenomenon, we can distinguish the level of the content and the level of the relationship. For example, in any fashion discourse the garment (the dress statement) will remain the same, but the meaning of what is stated will vary according to the context of enunciation. When we see the dress worn by a model during a fashion show in London, it takes a different meaning than to see it carried by someone in the streets who does not have the same body as the said model. On the other hand, there is also a symbolic dimension associated with the statement in the context which helps to clarify its meanings. For example, a dress remains a dress in any discourse but a transparent dress discovers more than it covers.

In other words, it could be argued that there is what the statement provides as information and there is what the statement communicates on the symbolic level.

The clothes we wear have a language. The clothes we carry convey a lot of information to the other party in today's communication system, which Winkin et al (2013) defines as orchestral communication. For example, our profession, our age, the current weather (cold, hot) social status, income, etc. In addition, options such as military clothing, sports clothing, work clothing also carry information about the
place of the person in the society. Baudrillard (1983) states that in feudal regime clothing was a part of a representative system of society. Immediately, by clothing, we knew to recognize the caste or rank of person. This situation is still valid today. Chanel's designers, for example, use high quality fabrics and detailed designs while designing a new outfit for rich and prestigious customers to suit their prestige and social positions.

For instance, we can analyze in terms of media communication the above two discourses of Miss Sixty that started production in 1991 and mainly produces clothes and accessories for young people. In Figure 1, Miss Sixty produced their discourse through a brand model (Candice Swanepoel) and in figure 2, a famous Italian actress (Asia Argento) was used. In both photos, jeans are at the focal point of discourse. There are those who argue that as an object of clothing Jean refers to, durability, comfort, convenience and so on. However, when the object is separated from these meanings, it can have many symbolic meanings. These symbols sometimes represent rebellion or vanity, or left ideology or represents the life of countryside. Davis (1992) summarizes these characteristics of Jean as comfort, carefree, unsettled life, and vitality in social relations and life in open spaces. Givens (2002) defines jeans as the expression of youth's reaction, rebellion, and independence since Wild One.

In the second photograph when it is looked at closely the scattered construction of the room the rebellious gaze of the model emphasizes a kind of rebellion and the spirit of rebellion. However, the model also exhibits an irresolute stance. Standing backwards in the chair and grasping the boat with her left hand emphasize her shyness as Pease (1988) stated. At the same time, the semi-transparent knitwear is an invitation to sexuality. Givens indicates that the head, which is tilted to the right or left, is the expression of shyness, as well as the courtship movement. Her half-open lips are also a call for sexuality. Eyes of her focused on the audience as if they were ready to argue at any moment with an aggressive and defiant attitude. In fact, there is also an attitude of scorn. The context established with the use of body language and space is designed in a state of uncertainty with sexuality, flirting
elements, and not knowing what to do. In short, the image proposed to youth through this discourse produced in 1995 is a rebellious, aggressive, full of sexual energy and yet unstable.

If we look at the first photograph, indecisive and rebellious youth fulness leaves its place to a more stable, more harmonious image of a woman who knows what she is doing. Jean is no longer an uprising, but an object that emphasizes sexuality. At the same time, the upright head and the confident expression of the model emphasize this image. The revolt and the shy sexual invitation have now been replaced by an open and confident invitation. This invitation is especially strengthened by the hips that is overemphasized. Pease (1988, p.95) describes women's touching her bodies, or touching an oval object as courtship movement.

In this photo, the model's touching her hips that it emphasized by moving the hips further outward refers to a sexual invitation. This invitation is further emphasized by the denim shirt, which stretches to the elbows, bare neck, and half-open lips.

In the second photo, the transparent knitwear has now been replaced by low-cut, décolleté shirt and boots have been replaced by high heels. The ankles, which are not visible in the second photograph, are open in the first photograph. Writing the brand of “Miss Sixty” in large and red letters also emphasizes the sexuality. In the second photograph, the messy and sloppy hair was replaced by a well-groomed hair. The woman in life in the second photograph is isolated from life in the first photograph. She takes a glance at the outside world, from the place where she is isolated from all other objects surrounding life. Half-open, even almost-closed eyes show an impulsive attitude. The fact that a model is used in the first photograph and an actress in the second photograph has a meaning in the context of both discourses. Because people prefer brands that they know and appeal to the lifestyles they know.

These two short analyses provide a good example of how fashion discourses form discourse of propaganda based on ideological illusion in the consumer society. Both discourses clearly show how jeans, a simple clothing tool, produce different messages in different contexts. However, it is also important in terms of revealing how these discourses of two different time periods have marginalized women and the female body.

THE OTHER WOMEN

In the consumer society, by imposing a female model in line with the expectations of the society, a perception is created that the female body is beautiful and delicate. It’s generally accepted that today, the woman thinks that she will be appreciated and happy if she reaches the ideal measures imposed by the system. However, as mentioned above the capitalist system, which aims for continuous profit, has also used advertising effectively and turned the “body” into a project and constantly renews its ideal dimensions.

Almost every day, through media, various ways and items such as beauty masks, dietary prescriptions, solarium, Botox, are introduced as the essential and indispensable items to have a perfect body and beauty. Thus, in the consumer society, women do not hesitate to turn their bodies into an object of consumption in
order to be valued and respected. Marcuse (1997, P.67) stated that consumer society and consumer culture produce false needs that force masses and individuals to behave according to consumption-based lifestyles by turning them into “one-dimensional people”. Thus, staying young and slim is described over the female body as a value and a false need is created. In this sense post-modernity is another element of pressure on the body.

While modernity considers being born and maturing and dying as a necessity of human nature, postmodernity rejects this definition. Because staying young is a value. Thus, consumers are constantly trying to re-establish their own identities through consumption of fashionable clothes, healthy foods, and items for fashionable lives.

As Baudrillard (2004) states, in the post-modern era, the body has literally replaced the soul in moral and ideological function. The reason for this that among the things that are consumed we can attribute much more meaning to body than other objects. In advertisements, fashion and mass culture the absolute presence of the female body is defined by the concepts like health of the body, abstinence, youth, elegance, femininity, care, regimes and calls are made for rediscovering the body by the discourse of physical and sexual liberation (Baudrillard, 2004). Thus, for women, the body has become an object of salvation. As we said above, the continuation of the consumer society is only possible by achieving the change in the perceptions of individuals towards their own bodies. Baudrillard (2004) sees beauty and eroticism as the locomotive of the sanctification process of the body. The dual concept mentioned above is the new ethic of the relationship with the body. Thus, Baudrillard (2004) argues that beauty becomes an absolute, religious commandment for women. Being beautiful is an indicator of being chosen at the body level, just like success at work level.

In a certain culture, various sets of expectations and behaviors that women are asked to follow are called femininity (Bilton & al, 2002). In this context, “physical charm” and “beauty are more concerned with the concept of femininity and are of interest to women. This concept of femininity leads women to be more interested in their appearance.

Thus, it has been accepted that women should equip their body with jewelry, clothes, dyed substances and scents in historical process, and even reflect their aesthetic perception to their body through various applications that will cause deformation in their body. In this context, ideals of beauty vary from culture to culture.

Figure 3: Eric Laffourge, Surma Girl (Ethiopia)
For instance, as seen in Figure 3, in Surma people, who lived in tribal life in Ethiopia, the woman who got married splits her lower lip and places a plate on it, and as the lip grows, the plate is enlarged. This practice also turns into an economic value, the larger the plate, the more animals the husband gives to the woman. However, besides all these, the plate attached to the lip is carried as an ornament, as an element of beauty. This “painful” practice, which can be called as outdated for Western society, is accepted as a symbol of true “beauty in Surma culture and has continued unchanged for centuries.

The ideal body forms of American and Western culture are accepted as a symbol of beauty in the societies that have been introduced to Western culture. And this understanding of beauty has changed rapidly in the historical process, especially in the post-modern era. For example, the statue of Venus of Willendorf in Figure 4, dated between 24,000 and 22,000 BC, is a symbol of fertility and beauty of women. The details on the face are almost negligible. Beautiful eyes and red gloss lips are not shown. Instead, large hips and breasts are given in more detail as a symbol of fertility and strength. The important thing is not the face and expressions, but the body itself.

Within the limitation of our study, it is not possible to explain the entire historical adventure of beauty. However, these two examples are given to show how the understanding of beauty has changed in various cultures and historical periods.

In short, the ideals of beauty vary over time and from culture to culture. Once a fat woman, the symbol of wealth, nobility and fertility, has left its place to the thinness of woman in today's world. What is new is that the fascination of thinness is crowned in the consumer society, and that it becomes a value. Today, women seem discontented with their own bodies and their roles in society, that is, their femininity, and it is ensured that they constantly run from one product to another, from one illusion to another to become an ideal woman. In today's consumer society, women who do not meet the body dimensions and social roles imposed by the consumer culture are excluded. In particular, the media supports this marginalization by including women in screens, newspapers, and magazines that are appropriate to accepted beauty patterns. The female body has been transformed into a spectacle of entertainment.

Unlike the one shown in Figure 3, the woman in Figure 4 is now presented as a trinket. The female body has been transformed into an object of consumption through discourses such as “emancipation” and “rediscovery”. And the sample body
ideals of this system are models. The fashion sector produces its discourse through mannequins that conform to these idealized body sizes, traps the body and beauty in various forms, and sets new roles for women in social life and plays a leading role in marginalizing those who do not comply with these forms.

It is important to know how social anthropology defines the concept of ‘other’ and what ‘other’ refers to. ‘Other’ is the origin of the word ‘otherness’. The word ‘other’ defined as “one of the two; a different person or thing from the one in view”. The other is different from us. They have different color, language, gender, belief, culture, etc. that separate them from us.

A social structure needs an “other to define itself and position itself in society. According to Hobsbawm, the other is not the “we”. If a party defines itself as “we, especially in wars and conflicts, then they must have common features that make ‘we’ ‘we’. These characteristics are not the “other.

The othering of women through fashion is in fact the cause and result of a conflict. The consumer society, which connects its continuity to constantly changing objects of desire, benefits from this conflict. According to Simmel (1968), the first sociologist of modernity, fashion is a product that creates class division. It not only holds a particular social framework together, but also close the doors to others. When the substrates begin to adopt the style of the superiors, the superiors abandon that fashion and turn to another fashion that allows them to distinguish themselves from the masses. According to the author, fashion objects are objects that can only be obtained with money. And today, the female body, which is a visual element in the media, is objectified. Among the things consumed, Baudrillard (1999) refers to object, more unique and more precious than other objects: The Body.

In the 1960s, when Twiggy entered the fashion world, the perception of the ideal female body began to change. Twiggy's figure in 1960's fashion poses for the 1960s model is skinny, anorexic and pipe looking. However, in the 1940s and 1950s, women like Marilyn Monroe and Susan Hayworth were regarded as beauty figures. (Figures 5 and 6). The beauty perception of these years was the full-figured, round-
faced female bodies with large breasts and hips. Together with Twiggy, the “other” body was presented to the women on stage. Now the ideal body, a thin waist, a normal breast, a bony face, long and thin legs. Ideal female body size is no longer 90-60-90 (36 sizes) iconized from 40s to 90s, but zero size corresponding to 32 sizes. A woman who does not meet these measures is now seen as a deformed body for the fashion and media world, not beautiful and other.

The development of the fashion industry and the transformation of the concept of beauty into a uniform consumption perception has increased the role of the modeling profession and its role in society. Mannequins, which conform to the ideal format of female beauty, are now role models. As Bell, Lawton & Dittmar (2007) noted, global fashion brands industrialized in the consumer society have begun to control mannequins’ bodies more than ever to achieve the ideal female body that meets the brand's goals. In fact, this inspection has reached such dimensions that the majority of mannequins are forced to enter these bodies for the sake of experiencing mental and physical problems (Bell, Lawton & Dittmar, 2007). Naturally, in order to have the bodies that are in accordance with these measures determined by the fashion industry and to go beyond the other, women can go out of their natural ways and cause severe damage to their bodies. Where diet and aesthetics are not enough to achieve the body size that meets the brand's market objectives, digital photo processing techniques such as Photoshop come into play.

Figure 8: Ralph Lauren 2009

Figure 9: Victoria Beckham eyewear 2017

Figure 10: Ralph Lauren Model

Figure 9, Fillipa Hamilton, was fired from Ralph Lauren for her overweight. However, in Figure 10, Photoshop was applied to reduce the waist area, which was extremely thinned for the denim advertisement of the brand. Again, in Figure 8, the face was greatly enlarged by digital photographic processing techniques on the attenuated body to emphasize the glasses. The limits of the female body are now being pushed through digital technology. A woman is forced into a body shape called a creature rather than a human. In both of these advertisements, the female body is now idealized far beyond the original, and as Baudrillard (1981) says it has become
a stimulate.

To sum up, while being overweight in the consumption society is seen as a defect in the women who are overweight, the fashion is exalted and the superfine models are driven to the stage. This situation causes the female individual living in a modern society to imitate the external appearance of the models that she sees as idol through emulation in order to get approval by the society and to get rid of her ‘other’ identity. They run from one product to another, from one operation to another, in an illusion to fit their bodies into zero-size clothes, low-waist trousers and tight-fitting evening dresses and emulate these bodies that have been turned into objects of desire. However, it is not always the end to reach these objects of desire, but it is always a new beginning, because the objects of desire that are constantly renewed to consume the surplus of the capitalist system are unlimited. For shaping bodies to adapt to mass production is a necessity for capitalism.

**BODY LANGUAGE ANALYSIS OF GIGI HADID AT THE BURBERRY MONOGRAM COLLECTION SPRING 2019.**

This age, which was defined as the age of vision and images by some thinkers (Sontag 1993, Schroeder 2007, Baudrillard 1999) where our environment is surrounded by various images never seen before, appearance has become one of the most important issue. This is the age of an image-saturated world (Schroeder 2007). The reason for this is the transformation of the meaning loaded on commodities within itself. The fact that commodities contain exchange value rather than use value and determine their importance accordingly and cause a change in perception towards them. The commodities are now becoming desirable with exchange values, not with their own use values.

In the process of commodification of the body, one of the most important concepts that serve the aims of global capitalism and which should be discussed in terms of its results is the concept of fashion. In today's consumer society, as mentioned above, something has to be turned into fashion in order to be consumed by the masses. Fashion indicates “endlessness and temporality. Fashion is born, grows, spreads and extinguishes. What was once admired, imitated, elevated, popularized is transforming into something that is outdated one day. One fashion is being destroyed by another, being eliminated by another, and it is replaced by the next and the last. Commodities that are dressed with things other than their use value are now presented to the masses in the world of images and images by means of images.

It is accepted by many thinkers that the photograph represents the things they have acquired today in infinite detail and closest to reality (Ogilvy, 1989). The persuasive nature of photo makes it possible to form the meaning. Today, which is called the image civilization, it is almost impossible to shape fashion without photography, to make the consumption continuous, and to ensure the continuation of the consumer society. Susan Sontag (1993) states that “a capitalist society requires a system based on images”.

As mentioned before, the body among the things consumed in today's consumer society, is more beautiful, more precious and unique than other objects. It is also the
richest object in terms of semantics (Baudrillard 1999). Editors and advertisers explain how to dress bodies, how to have a desirable body, to people through the use of mass media to optimize desirable bodies. In this context, the most used images in the advertising world are photographic images.

Fashion photography occupies an important place in advertising photography in terms of reflecting the brand image in the consumption culture on the one hand and addressing potential buyers to the world of perception. Fashion addresses the masses by placing photograph, fashion and body in a world of irregular contexts and uncontrolled fantasies (Jobling 1999). Time and space reconstructed with images belong to a world of magic (Flusser 2012).

Barthes (1977) states that the real dress, which is loaded with practical factors such as protection and ornamentation in fashion photography, move away from these practical factors. In fashion photographs, a side meaning is created outside the layout and by cultural and social implicit messages it is tried to influence the consumer in various ways. In short, fashion photographs directly address our consciousness, and in some aspects, they target our subconscious (Schroeder 2007). This ‘magic world of images’ is very different from the world in which nothing can repeat itself and everything is the result of the past experiences. In this world, the relations formed by images among themselves rather than causality come to the fore (Flusser 1994). In this sense, fashion photographs are produced functionally for certain purposes and with conscious choices.

Barthes (1977) states that six items play a role in the semantic function in fashion photography. These are retouching techniques, posing, objects, photogenic, aestheticism and syntax. Based on this definition, we can say that the reality recorded with photographs changed in three stages. The first is the selection before and during shooting. Subject selection, current position, selected technical variables (aperture, shutter speed, focal length, framing, sharpness, etc.) will change the meaning of the image recorded with the photograph. Secondly, the changes made in the post-shooting process (framing, interventions with digital processing methods, the context, location, size, under-photograph and over-photograph writings, etc. of the photograph prepared for publication) can be converted into meaning. The last stage is about the reality of the person who looks at it in front of the photograph. People with different lifestyles and professions, who have adopted different ideologies and practices of thinking, have different meanings from the same photograph. Temporality can also be added. The same photo can have different meanings to the same person at different times and therefore in different moods. To produce fashion photograph fashion designers, market researchers, art directors and photographers and professionals in the publishing world are needed. In addition to clothes models who present them have an important place in fashion photographs. Models are used as an important factor in making clothes as the object of desire. In our analysis in the first part, the Italian actress used in Figure 1 and the model used in Figure 2 can be given as an example of the role played by the models used in creating semantics in fashion photographs. Fashion photos produced with large budgets and large working teams are not coincidental and they should be free from fault. Every posture, every
movement, every object is selected by passing through a lot of filters.

At this stage of our study, Gigi Hadid’s pose for Burberry Monogram Collection spring 2019 (Figure 11) will be analyzed in terms of body language and photographic elements.

In determining the poses of models in fashion photographs, cultural elements, past, myths and iconography are used. Therefore, it is necessary to analyze historical, mythological and iconographic phenomena evoked by the objects and poses used in fashion photography in order to reach the meaning of photography. In this photo, Gigi Hadid stands on a coffee table placed in the middle, with her legs wide open and completely isolated from the outside world. One of the feet of the tripod on which the camera is used for shooting has entered the frame. In contrast to the model in Figure 1, no object showing the connection of the model with the outside world is included in the photograph. The model is in a transgenerated form, almost spiritually ecstatic. This ecstasy is emphasized by a hat that falls to the ground and forms part of the outfit. The woman looks like an ornament and a figurine on the coffee table. The closed eyes are dull, devoid of meaning and cold expression, and one of the feet of the tripod, especially the frame, reinforces this feeling. When we look at the pose given by the model, it is seen that it presents a body image belonging to gods and goddesses. The pose, called Utkata Konasana in Yoga, which means Goddess Pose (Figure 12), strengthens this image of the model. In addition, the model's self-transcendence also emphasizes the trance situation. This pose is applied to yoga in order to reach the inner goddess energy and unleash powerful feminine energy. In this pose, the erotic and sexual power is emphasized besides the divine power of the woman. The language of this divine body is also incorporated into the elements of sexuality and dating. Givens (2002 167) says bending the head to the right or left is a courtship movement.

When the model grasps the head with her left hand, this exchange rate movement is emphasized. Pease (1988) says that when women touch their hair, somewhere in their clothes, or an oval object, it refers to a courting movement. Givens also says that when emotions are raised, we touch our body unconsciously to relax, to reveal
emotions. In this sense, it also emphasizes a self-transition movement that touches the head. This emphasis is reinforced by the fact that the neck stands directly opposite the viewer. In addition, stripped arms and standing in the open is an indicator of sexual appeal (Givens, 2002, 44). Open legs and low-cut details of the outfit further emphasize the woman's sexual power. The model here is like a trinket standing on the coffee table as both a god and a sexual object.

Another reading area other than the pose is the face. The model has a still face. Her eyes are closed and his lips are full. Lips never communicate with the audience. Moreover, the closed eyes emphasize the divine exposure of the model. Her face is empty, blank, neutral and gives “do not touch me” message (Givens 2002). As a divine being it puts a distance between all other living things and becomes inaccessible. The high heels of the model emphasize the erotic image of the woman by showing the legs long, and emphasize that the feet of the woman are gentle and that the contact with the floor is as low as possible. The female body resists the force of gravity. The fact that the model stands in the air without touching the table also reinforces the image of being suspended in the air. A goddess-like model is located in a fantastic world not on the earth.

To summarize, in particular in fashion photography, the represented dress loses its real features and is equipped with various indicators. Based on Barthes, the body language evaluated in ‘posing’ produces various meanings for the photographer. Although some of these meanings can be read directly, some of them speak to the spectators subconscious and form an image for the brand to which they introduce their products. This image is actually an image presented to women. Outside of society, this image is a kind of sexual image that has been idealized, ripped off with real life and turned into a trinket to be exhibited. This image was created by using the body language in harmony with the advertised clothes. The woman, altered by fashion, has gradually moved from the rebellious, revolting role of woman (see figure 1) to a graceful flower (see figure 2) and from there to the inaccessible erotic goddess (see figure 11).

CONCLUSION

It should be accepted that the body is a very important object in terms of consumption culture. The main objective of the consumer society is to make the body look more beautiful, to be healthy and under control, to look alike the ideal. Ideal bodies are often presented to people through photographic and cinematographic images. The necessity of photography for the continuity of the consumption culture and the achievement of its targets is certain. As a result of the perception of the ideal body created through photographs people try to differentiate their bodies by using the products and services offered by the consumer society in order to reach and to have the ideal body. The important indicator that the imposed ideal body is adopted by the people is the data and the news showing that the aesthetic operations are increasing day by day. The increasing number of aesthetic operations also shows that people have become alienated from their own bodies and that the body is now commodified in today's capitalist consumer society.
The identity and role of women in society, as well as the female body, have been turned into a project in the consumer society, and these ideal identities are constantly imposed by other female images created by the fashion industry. The problem is that what is ideal is inaccessible. Standard images are consumed in the global world. Extremely thin models presented in mass media are taken as role models by women. The bill of this illusion, created by fashion, is very expensive, especially when beauty becomes a divine commandment for women. Women who are exposed to these inaccessible, other female images spread all over the world, not only pay economic costs, but also face many psychological illnesses such as anorexia, neurosis, gluttony and low self-confidence.

The existence of the capitalist system called globalization, which came with the discourse of bringing societies closer and creating a global village, as Baudrillard states, became dependent on production through consumption. Body and woman identity, which is an object of consumption, continues to be one of the means of consumption regardless of the price.

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Chapter 17

A proposal of Education - Training Program Based on Climate Change Education in Social Studies Course in Turkey

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INTRODUCTION

Global climate change is not only an environmental problem that marks the century we are in, but also the most important environmental problem that will affect future generations. Education has been targeted as a method to solve this problem as concerns about climate change are increasing (UNEP 2006). Climate Change Education, which is related to Environmental Education, Education for Sustainable Development and Disaster Risk Reduction Education, has started to form its own identity in recent years (Mckeown and Hopkins 2003; Læssøe et al. 2009; Anderson 2010; Robinson 2011; Nazir et al. 2011; UNESCO and UNEP 2011; Kagawa and Selby 2012; Tong et al. 2012; Ho and Seow 2015; UNESCO 2015; Mochizuki and Bryan, 2015). The purpose of climate change education; To raise climate-literate individuals who understand the basic principles of the climate system, know how to evaluate scientifically reliable information about climate, make informed decisions that can minimize the effects of climate change, and act in a way that will help ensure sustainable societies (UNESCO 2009a; Mochizuki and Bryan 2015; UNESCO 2015). Climate literate is defined as an individual who "understands the basic principles of the world's climate system, knows how to evaluate scientifically reliable information about climate, communicates meaningfully about climate and climate change, and can make conscious and responsible decisions about actions that may affect the climate" (US GCRP 2009). Since climate change education is an approach that has started to form its own identity in recent years, it is not possible to talk about a standard curriculum yet. However, in this study, it is possible to mention some principles and components put forward by scientists and organizations such as UNESCO, UNEP, NOAA, who have made significant improvements in climate change education, which were used while developing a program based on climate change education.

NOAA sets 7 basic principles framing the climate system (US GCRP 2009):

1. The sun is the main energy source for the Earth's climate system.
2. Climate is regulated by complex interactions between the components of the
Earth system.

(3) Life on Earth depends on climate, is shaped by and affects climate.

(4) Climate changes over time and space through natural and human processes.

(5) Our understanding of the climate system has been developed through observation, theoretical studies and modeling.

(6) Human activities affect the climate system.

(7) Climate change will have consequences both on Earth and on human life.

The components of climate change education can be summarized as follows:

(1) In accordance with the Climate Change Education, topics covering climate and climate change should be taught according to the interdisciplinary approach (Niepold et al. 2008; UNESCO 2009a; UNESCO 2009b; Wise 2010; Robinson 2011; Johnson 2011; National Research Council 2011; UNESCO and UNEP 2011; Anderson 2012; Kagawa and Selby 2012; Alexandru et al. 2013; Mochizuki and Bryan 2015; Nussbaumm et al. 2015).

(2) The goals and objectives related to Climate and Climate Change should be arranged in a way that does not cause misconceptions for pupils (McKeown and Hopkins 2010; Wise 2010; Pruneau et al. 2010; Robinson 2011; Shepardson et al. 2012).

(3) In order to teach the relationship between climate change and the process, the pupil should be offered learning by experiencing (Pruneau et al. 2001; McKeown and Hopkins 2010; Shepardson et al. 2012).

(4) The effects of Climate Change should be linked to local and regional events (Mckeown and Hopkins 2003; Pruneau et al. 2003; UNESCO 2009a; Anderson 2012; McKeown and Hopkins 2010; McKeown and Hopkins 2010; Shepardson et al. 2012; Nussbaum et al. 2015; UNESCO 2015).


The need for a comprehensive education program on climate change, which was put forward by the United Nations in various conferences held within its own organization and with the contracts signed with the party countries after these conferences, sheds light on the inadequacy of the existing programs. UNESCO (2015) underlined that especially curriculum development experts should understand the multidisciplinary nature of climate change and design an education program that can be integrated into the curriculum, which is associated with national and local events.

In addition, such a training program is needed in order to correct the misconceptions of the students about climate and climate change. Shepardson et al. (2012) examined the experimental studies on misconceptions in climate change.
education and explained the students' misconceptions as "climate change and causes of global warming", "greenhouse gas and greenhouse effect", "global warming and climate change", "climate and weather", "the carbon cycle and the greenhouse effect", "effects of global warming and climate change".

It is important to develop education programs based on the climate change education approach in order for pupils to develop skills that can positively contribute to the climate change mitigation and adaptation process in the changing and developing world, and to increase their awareness of the environmental problems that may be experienced both today and in the future. Such a program is exceedingly needed to raise awareness on climate change, especially for secondary school students (Robinson 2011; Alexandru et al. 2013). It is also important to target students in developing countries, especially those living in rural areas. Because developing countries and rural areas are the regions most affected by climate change, both environmentally and socially (UNESCO and UNEP 2011). Therefore, it is important for students in these regions to have knowledge of how to cope with the effects of climate change.

Despite the need for a curriculum based on climate change education that is constantly emphasized in the literature, curriculum development studies based on climate change education has not been found for students in the secondary school curricula of Turkey. There are very few examples in the world of curriculum development studies based on climate change education. In this context, the problem of the current research is to develop and to test an education model integrated with local, regional and national events with an interdisciplinary approach on climate change education, that will equip middle school students with the skills necessary to transform them into climate literate individuals. The sub-problem of the study is to reveal whether there is a significant difference between the success scores of the group in which the global climate change education-training program is applied and the success scores of the group in which the current curriculum is applied.

By creating a educational-training program that is intertwined with other disciplines and integrated with local and regional events of the research; it is believed that the research can reveal the cause-effect relationship and that this result can be generalized under similar conditions" (Can 2017). The groups whose equivalence was provided were determined as experimental and control groups by random assignment.

An education-training program consisting of objectives, content, learning-teaching process and evaluation sections related to global climate change was
developed by the researchers. "Global Climate Change Achievement Test" was prepared to test the effectiveness of educational-training program developed. The educational-training program consists of 12 goals. 9 of these 12 objectives were written by the researchers in accordance with the climate change education approach. The remaining 3 objectives were obtained from the 6th grade Social Studies curriculum of Turkey. 3 questions were prepared to measure the learning-teaching process related to each objective. The test items were transformed into the final test after being analyzed by pilot studies after expert opinions. The experimental and control groups were formed from 6th grade students who are studying in a city in Turkey. While the climate change educational-training program developed by the researchers was applied to the experimental group, the current curriculum was applied to the control group, and no intervention was made in the learning-teaching process of the group. The process was initiated by giving pre-tests to the experimental and control groups. At the end of the process including 24 class hours, a post-test was applied to both groups.

**Data Collection Tools**

**Development and Implementation Process of Global Climate Change Education - Training Program**

1. The relevant literature examined and focused in particular on the results of applied research carried out in the secondary schools of Turkey in order to identify the misconceptions of secondary school students about Climate, Climate Change and Global Warming.

2. According to the principles and components that make up the Climate Change Education, 9 objectives were written in accordance with the 6th grade level of secondary school. 3 objectives were obtained from the 6th grade Social Studies curriculum of Turkey. Thus, the education-training program has 12 objectives in total.

**Table 1: Global Climate Change Education-Training Program Objectives**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Explain the difference between weather and climate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>It makes inferences about the climatic characteristics based on human life in different natural environments of the world.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Discusses the effects of human on climate and the effects of climate on human.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>It makes inferences about the characteristics of climate types in Turkey by using maps and visual materials.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Explain the role of position and landforms in the distribution of climate types in Turkey by using maps and visual materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>It expresses that the Ozone layer is one of the layers of the Atmosphere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Discusses the main causes of the increase in greenhouse gases with examples based on the greenhouse effect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Explaining the causes of depletion in the ozone layer and estimating its effects on living things.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Distinguish between climate change and Global Warming.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>It states that Climate Change is caused by natural conditions and human activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>It makes inferences taking into account regional differences about how will affect the geographic regions in Turkey by climate change.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Discusses potential problems in some sectors in Turkey as a result of the effects of global warming.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. The objectives that make up the Global Climate Change Education-Training Program have been prepared by considering the following points, respectively:
   
a) "Explain the difference between weather and climate" has been determined as the first objective because students have difficulties in distinguishing the difference between weather and climate and it is at the prerequisite learning stage before teaching climate change. Otherwise, this objective is not included in the curricula of Turkey but it is in the content.
   
b) "It makes inferences about the climatic characteristics based on human life in different natural environments of the world" is included in the curricula of Turkey. This objective is important for students to make inferences through examples in the world in accordance with the constructivist approach while transferring the climate types in the world to students, and to learn about the world climate types and to understand that the same climate type is not seen everywhere.
   
c) "Discusses the effects of human on climate and the effects of climate on human". This objective is at the prerequisite learning stage in order for the students to understand that climate affects people's lifestyles and people's lifestyles also affect climate.
   
d) "It makes inferences about the characteristics of climate types in Turkey by using maps and visual materials." "Explain the role of position and landforms in the distribution of climate types in Turkey by using maps and visual materials". These objectives are included in the curricula of Turkey. Knowing the characteristics of the climate types in Turkey is one of the prerequisites of learning for next objectives. It is necessary for students to comprehend that climate types can also be regionally diversified. Students should be able to relate climate change with local / regional events, which is frequently emphasized in the literature. Thus, students will be able to predict the possible effects of climate change on Turkey in next objectives.
   
e) "It expresses that the Ozone layer is one of the layers of the Atmosphere." This objective must be taught in order to get rid of the misconceptions of the student. As mentioned in the literature, studies on the conceptual confusion experienced by students in subjects such as climate change and global warming emphasize that they especially confuse the ozone layer with the atmosphere. Although atmospheric layers were taught in the 8th grade curricula of Turkey, the Ozone Layer was taught in previous grades. This causes students to mislead that the gas layer surrounding the world is only the Ozone Layer. For this reason, while teaching the Ozone Layer, the layers of the Atmosphere should also be taught.
   
f) "Discusses the main causes of the increase in greenhouse gases with examples based on the greenhouse effect." This objective is another issue that
students make misconceptions. In the researches, it is frequently emphasized that students think the greenhouse effect is a harmful formation. With this objective, it is aimed for students to realize that the greenhouse effect protects the world from the harmful rays of the sun, but that the greenhouse effect increases global warming with the increase in greenhouse gases.

g) "Explaining the causes of depletion in the ozone layer and estimating its effects on living things." This objective is important for students to understand that there is not a perforation but a depletion in the Ozone layer and how this depletion affects living things. Secondary school students in many countries in Europe have expressed the depletion in the ozone layer as a hole (Uherek & Schüpbach, 2008).

h) "Distinguish between climate change and Global Warming." This objective is another issue that students have confusion about concepts. Climate change and global warming are separate terms. However, it is frequently emphasized in the studies mentioned in the literature that students often confuse these two terms. In order for the student to comprehend the effects of climate change and global warming on the world, it is necessary to distinguish these two terms and their functions.

i) "It states that Climate Change is caused by natural conditions and human activities." This objective aims to help the student get rid of the misconception that climate change is solely due to human activities, and at the same time, to increase students knowledge of the discourses that cause climate change to be perceived as a phenomenon.

j) "It makes inferences taking into account regional differences about how will affect the geographic regions in Turkey by climate change". This objective aims to enable the student to associate climate change with local / regional events. One of the objectives-behaviors that are desired to be formed especially by the student in climate change education is that the student can foresee that climate change may occur in different ways according to regional differences. For example, the student should be able to comprehend that there will be an avalanche danger in the Eastern Anatolia Region and a flood hazard in the Black Sea Region due to climate change.

k) "Discusses potential problems in some sectors in Turkey as a result of the effects of global warming". This objective aims to activate the student's metacognitive skills together with the previous objectives and to make inferences on the sectors through previous learning. The student should be able to foresee the problems that may arise in sectors such as summer tourism due to the rise of sea level and winter tourism due to low snowfall.

4. The most appropriate approach / strategy / method has been determined in order to realize the objectives.

5. While preparing learning - teaching strategies, pedagogical approaches and educational materials, which are frequently emphasized in the literature, were chosen to facilitate the teaching of climate change topics. For example, narrative techniques, visual images and texts are powerful tools that make global climate change dynamics more understandable, enable students to participate in complex scientific issues such as climate change, and affect their attitudes and behaviors (Nussbaum et al. 2015;
Anderson 2012). Various teaching strategies that improve metacognitive skills are also among the pedagogical tools that should be used in climate change education in terms of their benefits to students. (Scannell et al. 2010). Strategies such as discussion, debate, inner-outer circle, socratic seminar, interactive learning, open session, buzz group, philosophical chairs, diagnostic branched tree, Ishikawa Diagram, fishbowl, structural grid and 7E learning cycle were chosen to increase students' metacognitive skills. In addition, using visual educational resources in lessons based on climate change education also helps students increase their knowledge level on global warming and climate change (Taber and Tyler 2009). For this purpose, training videos were also used within the scope of the lesson. The training videos were selected from the "What is Climate Change" videos prepared by the Istanbul Policy Center, Sabancı University and Stiftung Mercator (Kurnaz et al. 2015).

Learning - teaching strategies and instructional materials determined for the objectives are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Learning - teaching strategies & Instructional Materials

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>Learning - teaching strategies &amp; Instructional Materials</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Explain the difference between weather and climate.</td>
<td>Meaningful Learning, Discovery Learning, Inquiry-based learning, Demonstration, Question-Answer, Group work, Smart board, Training Videos, Turkey Climate Map Types, Images, Worksheets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It makes inferences about the climatic characteristics based on human life in different natural environments of the world.</td>
<td>Meaningful Learning, Question-Answer, Self-Study, Textbook, Smart board, Training Videos, Images, Worksheets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discusses the effects of human on climate and the effects of climate on human.</td>
<td>Interactive Learning, Blended learning, Philosophical Chairs Technique, Question-Answer, Smart board, Observation Form, Google Earth, Remote Sensing Visuals (Geographic Information Systems), Opinion Boards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It makes inferences about the characteristics of climate types in Turkey by using maps and visual materials.</td>
<td>Discovery Learning, Inquiry-based learning, Interactive Learning, Group Work, Question-Answer, Textbook, Smart board, Training Videos, Globe, Observation Form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explain the role of position and landforms in the distribution of climate types in Turkey by using maps and visual materials</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It expresses that the Ozone layer is</td>
<td>Meaningful Learning, Inquiry-based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One of the layers of the Atmosphere.</td>
<td>Discusses the main causes of the increase in greenhouse gases with examples based on the greenhouse effect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning, Question-Answer, Worksheets, Diagnostic Branched Tree, Smart board, Slides.</td>
<td>Discovery Learning, Buzz Group Method, Ishikawa Diagram, Question-Answer, Worksheets, Observation Form, Training Video: “Greenhouse Effect”, Smart board.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Lesson plans were created by writing the content, learning-teaching process and evaluation stages in accordance with the objectives.

7. Learning - teaching strategies were supported by appropriate assessment tools. For the assessment phase were prepared in-class assessment tools, rubrics and worksheets.

8. The education-training program was prepared for the pilot study in order to test its effectiveness.

**Development and Implementation Process of Global Climate Change Achievement Test**

1. The number of objectives that make up the education-training program is 12. It is recommended to write three items to measure each behavior (Atılgan et al. 2007). For this reason, 3 multiple-choice test questions were prepared for each objective. Construct validity was taken into consideration in the distribution of the items in the test. Each question is made up of 4 options.

2. For the content validity of the test questions, experts from different disciplines were given an expert evaluation form and their opinions were taken. For
the test items, opinions of experts from the fields of Climatology, Social Studies Education, Science Education, Program Development and Assessment-Evaluation were received. And then the test items were corrected for spelling errors by showing them to a linguist.

3. For the pre-pilot study, 3 secondary schools with different socio-economic levels were selected by purposeful sampling (maximum diversity sampling) method. According to the maximum diversity sampling approach, diversity can be achieved in the data source by selecting the sample from schools in regions with different socio-economic characteristics (Büyüköztürk et al. 2013). The pre-pilot study was conducted in 2017 with 587 students at the 5th grade and 434 students at the 7th grade, with a total of 1021 students.

4. The education-training program has been prepared according to the 6th grade level. “Global Climate Change Achievement Test” was applied to 5th and 7th grade students in order to distinguish between students who have seen the subject before and students who have never seen the subject.

5. The data were entered using the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) 22.0 package program. 5th grade students are more than 7th grade students. In order to equalize the groups, the test results of 5th grade students are arranged in ascending order. And then, 153 students from the top and bottom were excluded from the test and 434 students at the 5th grade and 434 students at the 7th grade were taken as a basis.

6. According to the test results, the 5th grade students were analyzed for the distribution of lower-upper groups among themselves. In this analysis method, the most successful 27% group (upper group) of the experimental group and the least successful 27% group (lower group) were taken as criteria (Atılgan et al. 2007). In the analysis made according to this criterion, 117 students in the upper group and 117 students in the lower group were determined. The remaining 200 students were excluded from the test because they could mislead the results. The same procedure was applied for 7th grade students. The total of the lower and upper groups at the 5th grade level is 234 students, and the total of the lower and upper groups at the 7th grade level is 234 students.

7. For test reliability, test items were subjected to item analyzes such as Kuder-Richardson (KR20), item discrimination index, test difficulty, item difficulty index, item reliability, range width, and skew coefficient. The main purpose of item analysis is to reveal whether the test items distinguish between knowing and unknowing students and how well the items function.

8. In order to measure the compatibility of the 32-question test items with the main study group, the second phase of the pre-pilot study of the test was applied in a secondary school where students from both rural and urban populations were educated.

9. The test was applied to 75 students from the 5th grade and 75 students from the 7th grade in order to distinguish the student who has seen the subject before and the student who has never seen the subject, and then the item analysis was started.

10. As a result of the statistical analysis, item difficulty indexes, item
discrimination indices, test averages, standard deviations and reliability coefficients (KR-20) were calculated. The results obtained are shown in Table 3.

**Table 3: Results of Test Items**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No</th>
<th>( p_i ) (Item Difficulty Index)</th>
<th>( r_{ij} ) (Item discrimination index)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item 1</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 2</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 3</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>easy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 4</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 5</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 6</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 7</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 8</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 9</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 10</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 11</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 12</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>easy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 13</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 14</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 15</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 16</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 17</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 18</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 19</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 20</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 21</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 22</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 23</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 24</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 25</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 26</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 27</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 28</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 29</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 30</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 31</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 32</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Kuder – Richardson Coefficient 20 (KR20) 0.70

11. As seen in Table 3, since there were no items with an item difficulty index below 0.30 or above 0.70 and a discrimination index below 0.30, all items were used without any items removed from the test. The Kuder-Richardson (KR20) reliability coefficient of the test was found to be 0.70. The average item difficulty of the test was found to be 0.48. The average discrimination of the test was found to be 0.44. While this shows that the test is a test with average difficulty, it indicates that its
distinctiveness is quite good and the items can be used without correction.

12. The test, whose validity and reliability studies were completed, was ready for the pilot study.

**Data Analysis**

**Findings Regarding Equivalence of Experimental and Control Groups**

1. In order to test the effectiveness of the education-training program, the pilot study has started.

2. The pilot study of the education-training program was carried out in a secondary school that accommodates rural and urban populations together.

3. The Global Climate Change Achievement Test, which is a part of the education-training program and developed by the researchers, was applied to 5 classes (125 students) studying at the 6th grade level in the pilot school selected in order to determine the control and experimental groups.

4. Non-parametric test analyzes were performed because of the size of the study group as experimental and control groups was less than 30. The Kruskal Wallis - H test was used to determine whether there was a significant difference between classes. The Kruskal Wallis - H, tests whether two or more sample means differ significantly from each other (Büyüköztürk 2017). According to the results of the Kruskal Wallis - H Test, the significance value between the groups was found to be \( p = 0.000 \). Bonferroni test, one of the Post-Hoc (multiple comparison) tests, was used to find the group that created the difference due to the \( p \) value found was \( p <0.05 \). If the number of groups is more than 2 in comparison tests, it is recommended to perform multiple comparison tests to avoid type I error (Pallant 2016). According to the significance values obtained in the group comparisons made in line with the Bonferroni test, two classes were determined as the Experiment and Control groups. Experimental and control groups were assigned randomly.

5. After the experimental and control groups were determined, the normality test was conducted for the Global Climate Change Achievement Test Pre-Test scores of the groups. Normality test results are shown in Table 4.

**Table 4: The Global Climate Change Achievement Test Normality Analysis Results of Experimental and Control Groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Kolmogorov - Smirnov</th>
<th>Shapiro - Wilk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistics</td>
<td>Sd.</td>
<td>p.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>.148</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>.146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>.142</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>.191</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Shapiro - Wilk analysis results were taken as basis in the normality test since the experimental and control groups were below 30. As seen in Table 4, it was determined that the test showed a normal distribution since the significance values of the test results of the experimental and control groups were \( p > 0.05 \). Although the test results showed normal distribution, the Mann - Whitney - U and Wilcoxon Marked Ranks Test were chosen for the analysis, which are among the non -
parametric tests, since the size of the study group as experimental and control groups was smaller than 30.

6. The Global Climate Change Achievement Test was applied as a pre-test before the experimental model was applied to groups. In order to determine whether there is a significant difference between the pre-test scores of the groups, the Mann Whitney - U test, which is one of the non-parametric tests, was used because the groups were below 30 people.

The Mann-Whitney U test results regarding whether there is a significant difference between the pre-test scores of the experimental group taught according to the Global Climate Change Education-Training Program and the control group taught according to the current education-training program are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Mann-Whitney U Test Results for the Global Climate Change Achievement Test Pre-test Scores of the Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Item Sum</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>S.O.</th>
<th>S.T.</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>24.38</td>
<td>634.00</td>
<td>283.000</td>
<td>-1.011</td>
<td>.312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28.62</td>
<td>744.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the analysis results seen in Table 5 as the significance level was found as p> 0.05 as a result of the non-parametric Mann Whitney-U test conducted to determine whether there is a significant difference between the pre-test scores of the groups. There was no statistically significant difference between the groups. This shows that the experimental and control groups can be regarded as equivalent to each other in terms of Global Climate Change Achievement Test pre-test scores.

7. The Global Climate Change Education-Training Program was implemented in the experimental group classroom for a total of 24 lesson hours, 2 lesson hours per week.

8. After the study, the Global Climate Change Achievement Test was applied to the control and experimental groups again. Post-test and achievement scores were analyzed using the Mann Whitney - U Test. Pre-test and post-test comparisons of the groups were also made using the Wilcoxon Signed-Ranks Test.

**RESULTS**

In order to test whether there is a significant difference between the experimental group scores and the control group scores, the pre-test and post-test values of the groups were compared.

Table 6: Descriptive Values of Groups' Global Climate Change Achievement Test Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>S.s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>15.73</td>
<td>3.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16.77</td>
<td>4.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>23.27</td>
<td>7.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17.04</td>
<td>5.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Table 6, experimental group's the pre-test mean score is 15.73; the post-test mean score is 23.27. Control group's the pre-test mean score is 16.77; the post-test mean score is 17.04. The groups are equivalent according to their pre-test averages. There is a difference in favor of the experimental group according to the post-test averages.

**Table 7: Mann-Whitney U Test Results for the Global Climate Change Achievement Test Post-test Scores of the Groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th>Item Sum</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>S.O.</th>
<th>S.T.</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>33.29</td>
<td>865.50</td>
<td></td>
<td>-3.236</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>19.71</td>
<td>512.50</td>
<td>161.500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the analysis results seen in Table 7 as the significance level was found as p<0.05 as a result of the non-parametric Mann Whitney-U test conducted to determine whether there is a significant difference between the post-test scores of the groups. There is a statistically significant difference between the groups in favor of the experimental group.

**Table 8: Mann-Whitney U Test Results related to the difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Achievement</th>
<th>Item Sum</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>S.O.</th>
<th>S.T.</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>35.56</td>
<td>924.50</td>
<td></td>
<td>-4.352</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17.44</td>
<td>453.50</td>
<td>102.500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 8, the significance level was found to be p <0.05 as a result of the non-parametric Mann Whitney-U Test conducted to determine whether there is a significant difference between the achievement scores of the groups. A statistically significant difference was found between the groups in favor of the experimental group. Based on these findings, it can be stated that the Global Climate Change Education-Training Program applied to the experimental group is more effective than the current education-training program applied to the control group.

**Table 9: Wilcoxon Test Results for the Experimental Group's Global Climate Change Achievement Test Pretest - Posttest Scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Ranks</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>S.O.</th>
<th>S.T.</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test – Post-Test</td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>-4.050</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pozitive</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12.90</td>
<td>271.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 9, the significance level was found to be p <0.05 as a result of the non-parametric Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test conducted to determine whether there is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental group. A statistically significant difference was found between the pre-test and the post-test scores. While 21 students in the experimental group increased
their scores, the scores of 3 students did not change. Based on these findings, it can be stated that the Global Climate Change Education-Training Program applied to the experimental group increased the success of the students.

Table 10: Wilcoxon Test Results for the Control Group's Global Climate Change Achievement Test Pretest - Posttest Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Ranks</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>S.O.</th>
<th>S.T.</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control Group Pre-Test – Post-Test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-1.277</td>
<td>.202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.21</td>
<td>50.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pozitive</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.25</td>
<td>102.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 10, the significance level was found as p > 0.05 as a result of the non-parametric Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test conducted to test whether there is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the control group. There was no statistically significant difference. While 10 students in the control group increased their scores, the scores of 9 students did not change and the scores of 7 students decreased. Based on these findings, it can be stated that the current program applied to the control group has no effect on students’ success.

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

As emphasized frequently in the literature, the most important factor that necessitates the climate change education approach is the misconceptions observed in students. Terms that students confuse the most; weather and climate, climate change and global warming, Ozone layer and Atmosphere (Shepardson et al. 2012). Because these terms are not learned correctly, students cannot distinguish between weather and climate, climate change and global warming, Ozone layer and Atmosphere (Pruneau et al. 2010). It is thought that teaching the relevant terms in the right order and with appropriate teaching strategies in the Global Climate Change Education Program enables students to integrate the terms with each other and relate events and phenomena and increase success.

Providing meaningful learning in climate change education depends on the primary resources from which students obtain information on climate change. (Khalid 2003; Choi et al. 2010). These resources are teachers, textbooks and course materials. Expression techniques, visual images and texts are powerful tools that enable students to participate in complex scientific topics such as climate change and affect their attitudes and behaviors (Nussbaum et al. 2015; Anderson 2012). In addition, pedagogical approaches that include critical thinking and problem solving skills are useful in teaching climate topics (UNESCO 2015). Therefore, it is thought that the use of learning-teaching methods and techniques such as video, map, data analysis, cooperative learning, problem-based learning and various educational technologies are effective in the development of learning skills of the experimental group.

Students' use of cognitive processes such as analyzing, observing, recording,
synthesizing and evaluating information in climate change education contributes to the realization of meaningful learning (McKeown and Hopkins 2010; Mochizuki and Bryan 2015). The ability of students to collect local weather data as a lesson activity and to associate this data with the local climate ensures the permanence of information in the context of learning by doing and experiencing. It is thought that the Global Climate Change Education-Training Program, which is implemented on the basis of these methods and techniques, increases the learning skills of students. For example; simple data analysis was used while taught to students the objective which "explains the difference between weather and climate". The students were divided into four groups and analyzed the monthly total rainfall (mm) data and monthly average temperature (°C) data of four selected cities. Students found the annual average temperature and annual total precipitation values and compared them with other groups. Thus students are able to shape in their minds the regional climate differences of Turkey. Selected cities; Rize, Kars, İzmir and Ankara. The reason for choosing these cities is that students can learn the Black Sea Climate, Continental Climate and Mediterranean Climate by analyzing and comparing between groups.

The city where the study was conducted is in the Black Sea Region and the Black Sea climate is dominant in this region. Another point emphasized in climate change education is that subjects are taught in relation to local events in order to achieve success. A training strategy integrated with local events was designed in order for the students to get an idea about the climate of their region by analyzing the Black Sea Climate prevailing in Rize with data.

UNESCO (2015) stated that while preparing a curriculum on climate change, it is particularly beneficial to associate it with national and local events in teaching the subject. A curriculum designed in this way is beneficial to students within the scope of Education for Sustainable Development (McKeown and Hopkins 2003). A curriculum blended with both scientific and local knowledge creates the necessary awareness within the scope of climate change mitigation and adaptation (UNESCO 2009a). Educational activities with a local focus create successful learning outcomes (Pruneau et al. 2003; Anderson 2012; Nussbaum et al. 2015). Therefore, it is thought that the teaching strategies used in the developed program increase the success of the students.

"Discusses the effects of human on climate and the effects of climate on human". This objective is not included in the secondary school curricula of Turkey. However, it is taught superficially in the content. Students learn about the effects of climate on human life by examining people's lifestyles, the type of materials that make up their homes, their clothing, and the types of their food in the objective of "it makes inferences about the climatic characteristics based on human life in different natural environments of the world". The students establish the connection between climate and human life based on the clothes and food of the people and also by getting an idea about the climate of the region they live in. The primary subject of the climate change education approach is that the student realizes that the human also affects the climate in this process which moves from tangible to intangible information. This interaction between climate and human beings is taught in the 6th
grade curriculum only in the way that climate affects people's lifestyles. In the 8th grade, it is taught that humans can also change and affect the climate without revealing the clear connections between them. Since the Life Science course, the connection between climate and humans is taught by focusing on improving the environmental attitude of students, mostly with environmental problems caused by humans, while is taught climate determines of people's lifestyles in the 6th grade curriculum. Global warming and climate change are taught in the 8th grade, and the clear links between them are not revealed. However, the connections between them should be taught consecutively, sequentially and in relation. Just as the link between climate and change has to be deliberately taught (McKeown and Hopkins 2010). For this purpose, the objective (Discusses the effects of human on climate and the effects of climate on human) was taught after the objective (it makes inferences about the climatic characteristics based on human life in different natural environments of the world) in order for students to establish connections and to provide the prerequisite learning required for next objectives. Within the scope of the developed program, the relevant objective was taught to the students using Google Earth (GIS) and Philosophical Chairs Technique. It was ensured that the students developed ideas by using the Philosophical Chairs Technique. With the Google Earth (GIS) program, the environmental changes that occur as a result of human activities such as urbanization and deforestation were shown to the students, and it was tried to concretize in the minds of the students how humans can change the climate. Using geographic information systems such as Google Earth while teaching climate topics has a positive effect on students' academic achievements, as it enables show to students the changes of the earth and nature over time as a result of human activities (Haslett et al. 2010). Therefore, it is thought that the use of learning-teaching methods and educational technologies are effective in the development of learning skills of the experimental group.

"It makes inferences about the climatic characteristics based on human life in different natural environments of the world" and "It makes inferences about the characteristics of climate types in Turkey by using maps and visual materials". These objectives are included in the unit of "life on earth" in the 6th grade Social Studies course of Turkey. It was seen in the experimental studies in Turkey, that the students' misconceptions were corrected by using different methods and techniques while teaching the related objectives. Bitlisli (2014) found that students have misconceptions about desert climate and polar climate mentioned in related objectives. Talay (2011) examined the acquisition level of the concepts mentioned in the related objectives and found differ from school to school that the acquisition levels of concepts such as desert climate, arctic climate, Mediterranean climate, Black Sea climate and Continental climate. Akdağ (2010), has determined that students are confused about climate types of Turkey in related objectives. According to the findings of Akdağ (2010), students fall into error when synchronizing continental climate with any region, due to some climate types in Turkey are named with the geographical region terms in which they are included. Related objectives can be gained to students by choosing the appropriate methods and techniques. For
example, Karaca (2014) found that Problem-Based Learning increases the academic success of the student in related objectives. In order to achieve this, Karaca (2014) designed activities consisting of scenarios for the students and found that the students helped by working together on the scenarios with group work, and the students who were not active in the group also benefited from this cooperation, thus increasing their academic success. Özdemir (2012), found that the materials such as “photographs reflecting the daily life in different natural environments of the world”, contained in teacher's handbooks prepared by M.O.E., are partially used by teachers. In related objectives were used educational songs about desert climate-polar climate-monsoon climate, visual images, videos, group work and the fishbowl that will increase cooperation and ensure the participation of passive students. It is thought that the use of these methods and techniques for related objectives in the developed program increases the learning skills of the students by getting rid of their misconceptions.

"Explain the role of position and landforms in the distribution of climate types in Turkey by using maps and visual materials". This objective is a prerequisite for students in order to be able to understand impact of climate change on Turkey. Furthermore, it is necessary for the student to comprehend that climate types can be regionally diversified. Students should associate the geographical conditions brought about by this location with the types of climate by understanding the geographical position of Turkey. It is seen that the researchers corrected the students' misconceptions with different methods and techniques while teaching the related objective in experimental studies carried out in Turkey. Akdağ (2010), has determined that students confuse of the concepts; "Geoid" and "sphere", "parallel" and "meridian", "equator" and "meridian", "special location" and "math location", "sketch" and "map", "physical map" and "special map". Akdag, stated that this situation is caused by not using appropriate methods, techniques and materials while learning is taking place. Arslan (2008), also obtained similar findings about the aforementioned concepts. Although Piaget stated that students aged 11 and over had more developed abstract thinking skills, Akdag emphasized that the students' inability to concretize these concepts was due to not choosing effective methods and techniques during teaching. For related objective were used materials such as the globe, physical map and raised-relief map that will enable students to learn both by seeing and touching, as well as techniques that will enable them to learn by discussing, such as group work. It is thought that the use of these methods and techniques for related objective in the developed program increases the learning skills of the students by getting rid of their misconceptions.

"It expresses that the Ozone layer is one of the layers of the Atmosphere". This objective is not included in the secondary school curricula of Turkey. However, it is taught superficially in the content. Although Ozone Layer mentioned in previous classes in order to teach the Greenhouse Effect, the structure, composition and layers of the atmosphere are given superficially in the 8th grade. It is important to give the correct order of concepts in order for students to develop the concepts of climate change in the context of the climate system. Unless the concept order is taught
correctly, students' misconceptions increase and prevent successful results in climate change education. Misconceptions are the most important factor in why education about climate change is difficult (Wise 2010; Shepardson et al. 2012). According to Pruneau et al. (2001), the most important factor that makes difficult the teaching of climate change is the difficulties in teaching the concepts of climate knowledge. One of the reasons why the Atmosphere and the Ozone Layer are often confused by the students is that they try to teach the ozone layer in order to teach them the greenhouse effect without teaching the structure and layers of the Atmosphere. This causes misconceptions in students. The most important issue for climate change education to be successful is to correct students' misconceptions. Because the student will not be able to conceptualize the greenhouse effect without understanding the Ozone layer is a part of the Atmosphere.

Ozone Layer, Atmosphere, Greenhouse Effect are the terms that students mostly misunderstand (Pruneau et al. 2010). Research conducted in Turkey showed that students misrepresent concepts such as Ozone, Atmosphere and Greenhouse Effect. These researches revealed that students' misconceptions were corrected with different models, methods and techniques used (Emli and Afacan 2017; Tuncel 2017; Bakırcı and Yıldırım 2017). In addition, Wise (2010) stated that the researches on climate change education mostly focused on misconceptions about climate change and classroom activities to teach climate concepts, and summarized that the teaching of relevant concepts using appropriate strategies was successful. It is thought that the use of these methods and techniques for related objective in the developed program increases the learning skills of the students by getting rid of their misconceptions.

"Discusses the main causes of the increase in greenhouse gases with examples based on the greenhouse effect". This objective is another example that students make misconceptions. In the researches, it is frequently emphasized that students think the greenhouse effect is harmful. With this objective, it is aimed for students to comprehend that the greenhouse effect protects the world from the harmful rays of the sun, but the greenhouse effect increases the global warming with the increase in greenhouse gases.

As stated in the reports of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), the main cause of global climate change arising from human activities is greenhouse gas emissions (GHG). Greenhouse gas emissions have reached unprecedented levels since the industrial revolution (Bofferding & Kloser, 2015). It is stated that especially the warming observed in the last fifty years is caused by human activities (UNEP and UNFCCC 2001). In the context of climate change mitigation and adaptation, it is important to be able to comprehend the reasons for the increase in greenhouse gases and the greenhouse effect in accordance with the climate change education approach. Because the focus of these education and awareness-raising efforts is mitigation and adaptation strategies that provide a general method to reduce greenhouse gas emissions and the impacts of climate change (Mochizuki and Bryan 2015). Although the increase in greenhouse gases and the greenhouse effect are frequently emphasized in the UN reports in order for the
climate change education approach to be successful, students have misconceptions about the greenhouse effect and greenhouse gases. According to researches; many individuals have described the greenhouse effect as a hole in the ozone layer or as a dust cloud in the atmosphere that contributes to heat retention (Pruneau et al. 2010). Shepardson (2012) examined the experimental studies on misconceptions about climate change and determined that greenhouse gases, greenhouse effect and carbon cycle are some of these misconceptions. Similar misconceptions are outstanding in experimental studies conducted in Turkey. Tuncel (2017), Özbek (2010), Yalçın (2010), Emli and Afacan (2017), Artun and Okur (2015), Bakirci and Yıldırım (2017), Akgün and Atmaca (2015) determined misconceptions about Greenhouse effect in experimental studies on secondary school students, and corrected their misconceptions and increased their academic success by using various teaching, methods and techniques. In this study, educational videos, Buzz group method and Ishikawa Diagram were used to teach students the reasons for the greenhouse effect and the increase in greenhouse gases. With these methods and techniques, it is aimed that students understand the greenhouse effect is a formation protects the planet, and the greenhouse effect increases global warming with the increase in greenhouse gases. Özbek (2010) used the project-based learning, Bakirci and Yıldırım (2017) used the common information structuring model, Tuncel (2017) used the technique of teaching with cartoons to correct secondary school students’ misconceptions about the greenhouse effect. And they increased the academic success of the students on the greenhouse effect due to the increase in greenhouse gases. Therefore, it is thought that the use of similar learning-teaching methods and educational technologies are effective in the development of learning skills of the experimental group.

"Explaining the causes of depletion in the ozone layer and estimating its effects on living things". This objective is not included in the secondary school curricula of Turkey. However, it is taught in the content. This objective is another example that students make misconceptions. While the change in the ozone layer should be expressed as “depletion”, students and even educators also pronounce this change as “hole”. Uherek and Schüpbach (2008) stated that secondary school students in many countries in Europe express the ozone depletion as a hole. It is important for students to understand that there is a depletion in the Ozone layer, not a hole, and how this depletion affects living things in order to ensure the academic success that climate change education requires. Another common misconception is that students confuse the depletion of the ozone layer with the greenhouse effect. According to researches; many individuals have described the greenhouse effect as a hole in the ozone layer (Pruneau et al. 2010). In addition, there are studies that found that students confuse the depletion in the ozone layer with global warming (Emli and Afacan 2017), that the depletion of the ozone layer cannot be assimilated by the students (Artun and Okur 2015), and that students give alternative conceptual answers to the depletion of the ozone layer (Bakirci and Yıldırım 2017). Therefore, the students were taught that there is not a hole but a depletion in the ozone layer by reminding them that the Ozone layer, which was taught in previous lessons, is a part of the Atmosphere. The Ozone depletion and its effect on living things were taught to the students by using
the 7E learning cycle. The 7E learning cycle is an effective teaching strategy that includes the phases of engage, explore, explain, elaborate, extend, exchange and evaluate. In the explore phase, the students made a connection between the Ozone depletion and the function of the Ozone Layer, which they learned in previous lessons. They produced hypotheses by consider the reasons that lead to the deterioration of the ecological balance. And they tried to divide these reasons into two groups as natural and human. In the explain phase, the researchers gave clues to the students in response to the hypotheses from them about natural causes and human activities that cause Ozone depletion. In the elaborate phase, the students synthesized the function of the Ozone Layer, the Ozone depletion and the reasons causing the depletion explained by the researchers. And then, students regrouped the reasons causing the depletion as natural causes and human activities. In the extend phase, the students tried to associate them with their real lives after grouping the factors that cause of the Ozone depletion. And they made inferences about how the Ozone depletion has an effect on living things. In the exchange phase, the students moved to a position suitable for the Fishbowl Technique. A circle was drawn right in the middle. The students, who having an idea about the effect of the Ozone depletion on living things, went into the circle and gave examples of living things. Students outside the circle made notes as observers. In the evaluate phase, the researchers evaluated the notes obtained from the observers. Mecit (2006) found that the 7E learning cycle has a positive effect on students' critical thinking skills. Öztas (2016) used the 7E learning cycle in the unit of "living things and energy relations", which is related to the ozone layer, greenhouse effect, and sustainability topics, and found that it increased students' academic success. Therefore, it is thought that the use of learning-teaching methods and educational technologies are effective in the development of learning skills of the experimental group.

"Distinguish between climate change and Global Warming". This objective is not included in the secondary school curricula of Turkey. However, it is given in the content. Not giving the difference between the concepts of climate change and global warming and not choosing the appropriate methods and techniques cause misconceptions in students. Shepardson et al. (2012) examined the experimental studies on misconceptions in climate change education and explained the students' misconceptions as "climate change and causes of global warming", "global warming and climate change", "effects of global warming and climate change ". Shepardson et al. (2012) summarized the factors hindering the conceptualization of climate change and global warming as the inadequacy direct observation of climate change and contrasting effects such as heavy snowfall due to global warming. In addition, Pruneau et al. (2001) stated that factors are important obstacles to the conceptualization of climate change and global warming such as people who think climate change is a phenomenon and low-age students who have limited ability to compare today's climate with the climate of the past period. In order for students to correct these misconceptions and develop strong arguments against those who think that climate change is a phenomenon, the concepts of climate change and global warming should be taught with correct pedagogical approaches. Within the scope of
the developed program, the relevant objective were taught to students with a cooperative learning and problem-based learning. Strategies like this, used with climate change education, correct students' misconceptions (Pruneau et al. 2010). Using education systems provide students with the necessary skills, knowledge and attitudes towards critical thinking and problem solving in order to teach future scenarios of climate change such as global warming or global cooling, and it increases the success in climate change education (Anderson 2012). Also; The use of many strategies and methods in climate change education enables students to be successful by conceptualizing the information in the climate system (McKeown and Hopkins 2010). It is thought that such learning-teaching methods and techniques used for the related objective within the scope of the developed program are effective in the development of students' learning skills.

"It states that Climate Change is caused by natural conditions and human activities". This objective aims to help the students get rid of misconception that climate change is only caused by human activities and to increase their knowledge of the discourses that cause climate change to be perceived as a phenomenon. The UNFCCC noted the distinction between climate change attributed to human activities that alter atmospheric composition and climate variability attributable to natural causes (IPCC 2007; IPCC 2013). Within the scope of the United States Global Change Research Program (USGCRP), the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), the United States National Science Foundation (NSF), and the American Association for the Advancement of Science (AAAS), organized the "Atmospheric Science and Climate Literacy Workshop" following the UNESCO's call to develop a guide that includes minimum standards for climate change education on climate literacy and can help educators methodologically. At the end of the workshop, a guide (US GCRP 2009) was published for students of all ages on the climate-oriented approach, climate literacy, and the basic principles of climate science. One of the principles in guide is the principle that “climate changes over time and space through natural and human processes”.

Appropriate methods and techniques should be chosen to teach students that climate change is caused by both natural and human activities. Because it is difficult to correct this false belief in the student's mind because of those who say that climate change is a phenomenon, and to compare today's climate with the previous period's climate due to the low age of the students (Pruneau et al. 2001).

Teaching-learning strategies and educational technologies were used such as interactive learning, structural grid, debate, videos and visual images in order to teach the student the relevant objective due to the difficulties faced by students in conceptualizing climate change. UNESCO (2015) stated that using strategies that improve students' critical thinking and problem solving skills are beneficial in climate change education. In addition, Anderson (2012) stated that using teaching strategies that provide students with the necessary skills, knowledge and attitudes towards critical thinking and problem solving increases students' academic success. Therefore, it is thought that the use learning-teaching methods such as interactive
lerarning, debate and group work are effective in the development of learning skills of the experimental group.

"It makes inferences taking into account regional differences about how will affect the geographic regions in Turkey by climate change". With this acquisition, it is aimed that the student can relate climate change with local/regional events. One of the target-behaviors desired to be formed especially by the student in climate change education is that the student should be able to predict that climate change may take different forms according to regional differences. With this objective, the student was taught that climate change would appear as an avalanche danger due to the continental climate seen in the Eastern Anatolia Region and as a flood hazard due to the Black Sea climate seen in the Black Sea region.

It becomes even more important for students to anticipate the possible regional effects of climate change with IPCC reports, which aim to report the possible environmental impacts of climate change, and UNESCO's statement (2009a) that climate change education should be blended with both scientific knowledge and local knowledge within the scope of climate change mitigation and adaptation. The effects of climate change will vary from one geographic region to another (drought, flood, etc.). This requires considering possible local and regional environmental risks in climate change education (McKeown and Hopkins 2010).

Students' comprehension of the possible regional effects of climate change is also closely related to "Climate Change Education for Sustainable Development". Because "Climate Change Education for Sustainable Development" supports the development of a set of analytical skills that will enable students to consider the causes of climate change and the identification of possible solution results (Mochizuki and Bryan 2015). At the same time, students' comprehension of the possible regional effects of climate change is also related to "Disaster Risk Reduction Education". By using interactive pedagogies including Disaster Risk Reduction Education and Climate Change Education, students can be able to foresee possible disasters due to climate change (Kagawa and Selby 2012). In addition, Anderson (2012) and UNESCO (2015) stated that using teaching strategies that provide students with the necessary skills, knowledge and attitudes towards critical thinking and problem solving increases their academic success. It is thought that the use of the open-session technique which enables students to make inferences by discussing with the interactive teaching strategy is effective in the development of the experimental group's skills.

"Discusses potential problems in some sectors in Turkey as a result of the effects of global warming". This objective is important in terms of enabling students to make inferences about how global warming will affect economic activities. In this objective, it is expected from students to associate the geographical features with the economic activities of the region / country they live in. Because, students to make inferences about how global warming will affect economic activities is not included in the secondary school curricula of Turkey.

According to IPCC (2012), climate change and global warming will have widespread effects on human life and ecosystems, and these effects will result in
losses in economic activities as well as environmental. Concretizing the effects of climate change and global warming on economic activities in the minds of students will have positive results within the scope of the climate change adaptation strategy. Because adaptation is also important in terms of reducing the vulnerability of natural and human systems to the effects of climate change and adapting to a changing climate through the arrangements made in social, ecological or economic systems (UNESCO and UNEP 2011; Anderson 2012; UNESCO 2015; Mochizuki and Bryan 2015). Also, since the effects of climate change and global warming have the possibility to change (drought, flood, etc.) from one geographic area to another (McKeown and Hopkins 2010), the students should anticipate that Climate change and global warming how might affect Turkey's economic activities.

In order to teach students this objective and to develop their metacognitive skills were used interactive learning, Inner-Outer Circle, Socratic Seminar, question - answer, Newspapers, Smart Board, Worksheets, Observation Form. Students were made to associate what they learned through previous objectives in the debate. Throughout the discussion, students focused on: "different climate types seen in Turkey, disasters specific to these climate types caused by global warming and climate change (drought, flood, forest fire, avalanche), the effects of these disasters on economic activities". Students were made to remember their previous knowledge during the debate. And then, it was ensured that the students realized what they knew and discussed in accordance with metacognition. Metacognition is a remarkable strategy in teaching-learning strategies according to climate change education. Metacognition has been frequently examined in experimental studies and has been found to increase students' learning skills (Scannell et al. 2010). Scannell et al., found that various teaching strategies that improve metacognitive abilities are useful in climate change education. Therefore, it is thought that the use of teaching-learning methods, techniques and various educational technologies that will improve students' metacognitive skills is effective in the development of learning skills in the experimental group.

Climate change education designed according to an interdisciplinary approach, enables the topic to be taught effectively and the interdisciplinary curriculum integrated with each other enables improving the climate literacy of students (Niepold et al. 2008; Anderson 2012; Nussbaummm et al. 2015). Since the teaching of climate and climate change topics is conceptually difficult, students often make misconceptions about climate and climate change (Wise 2010; Shepardson et al. 2012). Reflective, experimental, socio-constructivist approaches used in conjunction with climate change education yield successful results in correcting students' misconceptions (Pruneau et al. 2010). For climate change education to be effective, the content of the curriculum must be specific, sufficiently clear and flexible. Flexibility means that the content can be adapted according to regional and local events. Because different regions have different risk maps, students achieve successful learning outcomes when the curriculum is integrated with local events (Pruneau et al. 2003; Anderson 2012; Nussbaum et al. 2015; UNESCO 2015). Another point to be considered in order for students to achieve successful outcomes
in climate change education is learning - teaching strategies. According to Anderson (2012), creating education systems that provide students with skills, knowledge and attitudes towards critical thinking and problem solving enables them to cope with future scenarios such as global warming or global cooling. Similarly, strategies such as problem-solving education increase the degree to which students behave in a sustainable way through concrete gains (Howell 2006; Stall-Meadows and Herbert 2011). In addition, the use of various teaching strategies that improve metacognitive skills in climate change education also increases the academic success of students (Scannell et al. 2010). In this context, it is thought that the use of learning - teaching methods and techniques and various educational technologies in educational-training program designed and developed by integrating with local / regional events in accordance with the interdisciplinary approach increases the academic success of students by realizing meaningful learning.

In summary, the essence of climate change education is to improve students' knowledge of the climate system and climate change, their attitude towards the environment and their motivation. What needs to be done for this is to develop education programs in accordance with the climate change approach in order to transform students into climate-literate individuals who have advanced environmental attitudes and behaviors, understanding the basic principles of the climate system, knowing how to evaluate scientifically reliable information about climate, making informed decisions that can minimize the effects of climate change, acting in a way that helps ensure sustainable societies. Despite the need to develop a program according to the climate change education approach, which is constantly emphasized in the reports of the United Nations and UNESCO, no such program development work has been encountered. Current researchs includes testing the effectiveness of learning-teaching strategies that can correct misconceptions about climate change topics and studies to increase students' attitudes and behaviors against climate change positively. In this context, it is believed that this education-training program developed by researchers is important in terms of pioneering and guiding the field.

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INTRODUCTION

Discourse of all types form the concern of current Language Teaching Pedagogy for cross-cutting diverse practices of meaning making. Starting from the systematic functional references to the notion of text (Halliday, 1973; 2014; Van Dijk, 1997) up until the most recent shifts to a multiliteracies pedagogy (Kalantzis & Cope, 1996; Mills, 2006), discourse has been defined in a variety of ways as structure, tool, commodity, medium, body, narrative, semiotic system, community, social practice and identity (Fairclough, 2013; Gee, 2004; Wodak, 2006). Either conceived as the realization of speech acts in a conversation (Blum-Kulka, 1984) or as linguistic production of interactional frames (Tannen, 1994), it is clear across all this multiplicity of conceptualizations that the term is concerned with “language use”; results in “social action” and in turn constructs forms of “social reality” (Chilton, 2005:22). Thus, as Lakoff (2006:144) puts it, discourse in our daily linguistic interactions “creates and recreates us continually” In the same vein, as a form of textual discourse, the construction and reconstruction of an identical news on the same event with the same meaning potential might result in a variety of narrations, each with diverse socio-culturally embedded frames of interpreting the world.

Placed between reality and textuality, news, as a type of discourse, has come out to be one of the main areas of research due to the increased effect of printed and screen media on people in the 20th and 21st centuries. The branch of discourse analysis taking “news” as the object to be searched, has been established in a multi disciplinary domain contributed by social sciences like linguistics, socio-linguistics, ethnography, rhetoric, semiotics, psychology, artificial intelligence etc. (Van Dijk, 1988:22). This multi disciplinary nature of news discourse analysis stems from the recognition of news as a type performing different functions in the society as well as containing different inherent linguistic properties unique to that type. The two-fold view of news both as a device for informing people and as a specialized text type governed by specific rules and stylistic choices brings in the interaction between the concepts of “context” and “text” (ibid.24-5). Structurally, the coherent and cohesive body of writing organized around some semantic and syntactic rules is meant to form the text. Context is used by Van Dijk (1988; 1997), to stand for the relationships of
text with outer reality conditions like cognitive processes and representations or socio cultural factors. In a sense, then, text can be viewed as the concrete body where the context is realized, thus, naturally directing the researches on news discourse towards unearthing the systematic nature of news reports which are units of language use.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

Acting within the above stated frame, this study aims to explore the application of text dependent and context-free rules considered to be governing the news discourse on four different news articles of the same topic. Two international newspapers -the *Times* and the *International Herald Tribune*- and two local newspapers -*Cumhuriyet* and *Milliyet*- act as the sources of the news articles aimed to be the cross-cut of news discourse to be analyzed. All of the 4 news articles selected are intended to give an account of the same reality –the expulsion of two western officers by the Afghan government after their recently discovered secret talks with the Taliban forces and the diplomatic reactions of the western political world to the “undesired” action. Focusing on this field of investigation, the study first implements the news schemata offered by Van Dijk in order to identify the macro- semantic relationships. It attempts to classify the parts of news discourse under the categories of headline, lead, main events, consequences, circumstances, previous events, history, verbal reactions, expectations and evaluations according to each piece of information’s relevance in the overall structure of the news report. The results reached for the categorization of the propositions are displayed in top-down news schemata graphics giving a chance to further the analysis in to the sequencing of propositions paragraph by paragraph. Following the analysis of each news article an interpretation part aimed to summarize the viewed organization of the text is addressed. Apart from the macro-level relationship webs presented, in these interpretation parts the lexical and syntactic choices that come to the fore in the news article are also displayed on the micro level. What is assumed to be reached as a result of this analysis is to set the textual differences resulting in and resulting from the contextual differences by using the universally established principles of news analysis.

**RESULTS**

The results obtained through a comparative discourse analysis of the 4 news articles that depict the same event – British Government’s talks with Taleban- suggest a comprehensive view into the structural organization of the propositions and the author choices made. In the sections that follow, the analysis of each news article will be displayed following the same pattern, in order to account for a complementary frame of analysis.

1. **Analysis of the News Report by “The Times”: Brief Description of the Structural Organization**

The news article by “The Times” with the headline “Diplomats’ talks with Taleban were sanctioned, says Britain” displays the informative function of the non-
fictional narrative type by giving an account of the main event in a reported sentence which can lead to the classification of the headline under the category of verbal reactions as well. The Sub-headlines “Expulsion order not justified, say UN and EU” and “Meetings in line with reconciliation strategy” point to the adoption of the specification rule by dividing the macro proposition in the headline into two separate propositions and, thus, leading to a swift transition to the summary of the news. The other component of the summary part, the lead, comes in the first paragraph and states the same reactions of Britain mentioned in the headline and sub headlines identifying the exact time of the event as well as the participants (the tenors- Britain, western diplomats, Afghan government, members of the Taleban).

The main event that can be categorized under the story section can be stated as the Britian, UN and EU chiefs’ efforts to persuade the Afghan Government to allow the return of the officials expelled on the accusation of talking with Taleban Forces. The consequence of these persuasion efforts seems not to have been achieved yet. However this decision making progress while the accused have 24 hours to leave the country implies the progression of the efforts and stands as the consequence of the main event.

Another part of the story section is the context where the main events take place and the circumstances that give way to the occurrence of the main event. The circumstances that have lead to the main event forms the background of the event at the time of happening. In order to depict under what conditions the main event took place, the news article clarifies the context by giving information on how, why and when the expulsion order was made by the Afghan government, the suspicion of President Karzai and what the MI6 secret service members were trying to do with the uncommitted members of Taleban at the time of accusation. The previous events section delivers the happenings that had lead to the main event with a notion of historical past. Among the previous events an unknown Afghan official’s earlier claims about the two western officials to be expelled and Western diplomat’s prior categorization of the Taliban forces as hardcover, middle and uncommitted layers can be stated.

The verbal reactions seem to have been utilized excessively starting with the headline of the news as emphasized in the study earlier. A senior UN official’s describing the Afghan government’s move as foolish, a foreign and Commonwealth Office official’s statement on the difficulty of finding someone without any “Taleban connection”, a UN spokesman- Aleem Siddique’s insistence on two accused men’s involvement in the talks as part of a fact finding mission and his final justification as “that does not equal talking with terrorists” all act as the witnessing of the third parties to the main event. The expectation that the two men will leave the country in 24 hours is briefly stated in the final. Considering all these points, the news analysis schemata for the article can be formulated as in the news branching schema in figure 1.

1.1. Proposition Sequence and Functions of the Paragraphs in “The Times”

The analysis of the propositions through the suggested frame of discourse analysis gives out the following segments of information that are expressed in
Headline: “Diplomats’ talks with Taleban were sanctioned says Britain”
Sub headline: “Expulsion order not justified, says UN and EU”
Sub Headline: “Meetings in line with reconciliation strategy”

1st Paragraph: The lead. First mentioning of the main event with a specification of the field and the tenors as well as the time of the event. Britain’s insistence on the official status of the talks with the Taliban connected groups and refusal of the expulsion order.

2nd Paragraph: The main event. UN and EU chiefs’ efforts to persuade the Afghan officials to take the expulsion order back. UN Official’s verbal reaction describing the act of Karzai as “foolish”.

3rd Paragraph: Circumstance. The details of the now debated expulsion order. Specifications on why, when and how it was given. The identification of the circumstances that gave way to the placement of the order.

4th Paragraph: Previous events. What had been claimed earlier about the two officials by whom? Supporting the circumstances from a historical view.

5th Paragraph: Circumstance. The details about the timing of the order (just before a visit to Pakistan). The mode of the complaint that reached the Afghan president (How was he told and what was he told?- He was told that the pair had been attempting a deal with Taleban behind his back).

6th Paragraph: Circumstance. Detailing the stance of the western world against the talks with the uncommitted members of the Taleban forces. Britain and other countries currently supporting these talks.

7th Paragraph: Circumstance. MI6 coming out as the officially known actor of the persuasion talks with the uncommitted members of Taleban.

8th Paragraph: Previous event. Giving background information on the Western diplomats’ earlier categorization of the Taleban Forces in three categories. Supporting the current circumstances.

9th Paragraph: Verbal reaction supporting the current situation. A foreign official in Afghanistan stating the difficulty to find someone having no connection with the Taleban.

10th Paragraph: Circumstances. How the UN learned the order of expulsion.

11th Paragraph: The previous fear of the UN for the pair. Supporting the main proposition in the 10th Paragraph.

12th Paragraph: Verbal Reaction. United Nation’s spokesman Aleem Siddique’s denying of the pair’s talks with Taleban Forces and evaluating the act as a part of the attempts to persuade the Taleban leaders to change sides.

13th Paragraph: Verbal Reaction. Mr. Siddique’s striking statement: “That does not equal talking to terrorists” and accusing the Afghan government of interrupting the efforts to meet the political sides in Afghanistan.

14th paragraph: Consequences and expectations. The accused pair expected to leave the country within 24 hours. Turning back to the consequences of the main event: Diplomats and Afghan officials still talking on the issue.
Figure 1: News analysis schema of the news in “The Times”
1.2. Interpretation of the News Report

The structuring and sequencing of the propositions in this news report reveals that the propositions in the article have been organized around the currently valid news discourse principles. The reduced information encountered in the macro propositions of headlines are gently specified and detailed following the universal news organization schemata. A macro proposition is usually followed by smaller propositions detailing and supporting their superior. This becomes clear after the main event of the news article is stated in the 2nd paragraph. The following paragraph draws the details of the current situation and leaving the stage to a more detailed background acts as the initiator of the general panorama supported with the more specific sequence of current and historical background.

2. Analysis of the News Report by “International Herald Tribune”: Brief Description of the Structural Organization

The second news article on the same event is taken from the “International Herald Tribune” and is relatively shorter than the article in “The Times”. Another marked difference that can be noticed upon a close look on the news is the partial quality of the article. The headline and sub-headline are found to be bearing completely different propositional relationships organized around completely different macro propositions. The propositions under the main headline come together to account for “the expulsion of the two officials accused for talking with the Taliban officials” as the main event. On the other hand, the propositions under the sub-headline “Signal on cross border lines” foreground a different main event accounting for Karzai’s visit to Pakistan and his talks with Pervez Musharraf on the issue of terrorism. The inclusion of two distinct main events in the same article makes it possible to derive two distinct news schemas from the same news report. However, the location of the “expulsion order” news in the first place foregrounds this news as the more important one between two news related to the reality in the region. Acting with the relevance of the first main event to this analysis, the news schema of the first main event is given below.

2.1. Proposition Sequence and Functions of the Paragraphs

Headline: “Afghan talks fail to avert expulsion of 2 aides”

1st Paragraph: Lead. Accounting for the brief summary of the news combined with the heading. Supporting the more general proposition stated in the headline and detailing it with the displaying of the field (the order of expulsion) and tenors (Karzai and the two accused officials). Presenting the summary of the news as a verbal reaction of an official (Aleem Siddique).

2nd Paragraph: Main event. Giving a full account of the event by naming the tenors mentioned in the macro proposition of the lead with the reason of the action they face. (Michael Semple, acting representative of EU and Mervyn Petterson, a political officer with Unama ordered to leave Afghanistan on the accusations of threatening the national security).

3rd Paragraph: Consequences. Stating the growing frustration of the western
world with Karzai government because of the expulsion order. Verbal reaction and the circumstances: Drawing attention on the current happenings that form the background for the main event by stating western diplomats’ discontent with the unsuccessful reconciliation process undertaken by Karzai.

4th Paragraph: Circumstances. Giving a panoramic account of the circumstances under which the debatable expulsion order was given. Stating the reason for the unexpected diplomatic row between the sides. (Two officials’ meeting and speaking with the insurgent movement leaders in recently recaptured town of Musa Qala.)

5th Paragraph: Details of the circumstances that led to the failure of resolving the issue. (Karzai in preparation of a trip to Pakistan when told about the complaint)

6th Paragraph: Verbal reactions. Statements for the circumstances. UN spokesman Siddique’s counter accusation of the Afghan government for misconstruing the nature of the meetings held with uncommitted members of Taliban.

7th Paragraph: Verbal reactions. Siddique’s witnessing as a support for the reason of the misunderstanding between Karzai and the western diplomats.

8th Paragraph: Direct verbal reaction of Siddique. Support for the circumstances. Siddique’s denial: “We do not talk with terrorists”. Siddique’s clarification of the participants of the talk as “elders, local authorities and people across the political spectrum”.

9th Paragraph: Direct verbal reactions. Support for the circumstances. Emphasis on the need to talk to all parties in Afghanistan under the current circumstances.

10th Paragraph: A macro proposition giving an account of the historical background for the events currently taking place.

2.2. Interpretation of the News Report in “International Herald Tribune”
Figure 2: News analysis schema of the news in “International Herald Tribune”
The news report sample taken from the “International Herald Tribune” displays an organization schema different from the sample taken from “The Times” in the sequencing of some propositions as well as in the partition of the propositions. The most salient difference, as mentioned earlier at the beginning, seems to be the co-existence of two main events in the same article. It appears to be forming a more comprehensive and broader account of the happenings in the region by including both the news that has gained popularity in the international arena and the news that has significance for a local area. As to the sequencing of the propositions it can be regarded to be putting into use one of the commonly adopted frames for news design. However the location of the propositions intended to inform the reader about previous events at the end of the article makes a difference from the news article of The Times.

When the top down orientation of the propositions is considered the verbal reaction-dependent nature of the news rather than displaying direct comments on the main event and the circumstances can be felt. The first place, which can be considered to be giving the most important proposition to the readers is given to what the UN spokesman told about the event, which can be taken as a sign of foregrounding the official point of view asserted by the western world on the issue. This view also becomes salient when the discursive properties of the news article are considered. The only voice that takes part throughout the verbal reactions in the article is the UN official Alleem Siddique accounting for the western side and justifying the actions of the two accused man. The statements seem to be carefully selected and positioned to perform the functions of refusing the claims, accusing the act of Karzai Government, clarifying the event and justifying the talks. However while these verbal reactions are being transferred any direct comment seems to have been strictly avoided by the author.

Another micro level aspect that can be encountered as different from the news article in the Times is that, The international Herald Tribune gives the exact names of the accused man together with their status in the mission while, within the same proposition, it mentions of the other men involved in the event as “two Afghans working with the men”. This omission of the names encountered in the article draws a portrait in tandem with the weak view of the east and the strong view of the west world.
Figure 3: News analysis schema of the news in “Cumhuriyet”
3. Analysis of the News Report by “Cumhuriyet”: Brief Information on the Structural Organization

“Cumhuriyet”, taking Daily Telegraph’s claims on secret talks of the British secret service MI6 with Taliban forces, represents its propositions under the headline of “İngiltere düşmanıyla pazarlıktta” - (England negotiating with the enemy) and the above typed sub headline “Brown görüşmeleri yalanlasa da, MI6 yaz aylarında Taliban’la Helmand’da masaya oturmuş” - (Although Brown denies the talks, MI6 apparently negotiated with Taleban in the Summer). The headlines seem to be suggesting strong claims on Britain’s secret talks with the Taliban who has changed into “düşman” (enemy) with the involvement of a presupposition element. The schematic representation of the macro propositions that function in the top down orientation of the news report can be formed as such:

Apart from the headlines at the beginning of the article, there are also two sub headlines embedded in the body of the news report which function as an indicator for the inclusion of different propositions into the news discourse, thus, also signaling the comprehensive and detailed nature of the news. The lead, centered between the columns of the article, summarizes the main event around which the propositions are woven, together with the headlines and sub headlines. The lead can be said to have the expulsion expectations of the two accused officials from Afghanistan and the claims of the Daily Telegraph newspaper as the propositions. The lead being introduced before the main body of the news report, the first paragraph of the report functions as the main events section that provides information about the sides of the event. Through a close look on this, news account in “Cumhuriyet” can be considered to be a well structured top down organization of propositions sometimes subordinated to other propositions as well. Almost every category that is responsible for the bits of information in the text seems to be performing some functions.

3.1. Proposition Sequence and Functions of the Paragraphs

The proposition-by-proposition table of the schematic parts based on the paragraph sequences of the Cumhuriyet news has been listed below in logical sequence:

Headline: “İngiltere düşmanıyla pazarlıktta” (England negotiating with the enemy)

Sub- Headline: “Brown görüşmeleri yalanlasa da MI6 yaz aylarında Taliban’la Helmand’da masaya oturmuş” (Although Brown denies the talks, MI6 apparently negotiated with Taleban in the Summer)

Sub-headline: “ABD büyük rahatsızlık duyuyor.” (The U.S. is quite uncomfortable with the situation)

Sub- headline: “Sınır dışı ediliyorlar” (They are deported)

1st Paragraph: Statement of the main event. Claims on the English Secret Servise talking to Taleban,statements on Daily Telgraph displaying the news.

2nd Paragraph: A macro proposition linked with the main event. Details of the
circumstances that are undergone at the background.

3rd Paragraph: A macro proposition clarifying the circumstances of secondary events that are mentioned.

4th Paragraph: A macro proposition focusing on the unnamed peoples’ explanation of the circumstances. Supporting the circumstances. (“İngilizlerin Taliban’la doğrudan barış yapmak için görüştüğü anlaşılıyor-The English appear to have talked to Taleban on peace”)

5th Paragraph: A macro proposition about the consequences of the main event. Supporting the Palestine.

6th Paragraph: A macro proposition linked with the consequences of the event. (Emphasis on the President Brown’s expected action)

7th Paragraph: A macro proposition repeating the same information on the main event. An account of the previous events: (Sınırdışı kararı iki yetkilinin Helmand’da Taliban’la görüştüğü iddialarının ardından gelmişti.- The decision to deport followed the claims that two officials talked to Taleban in Helmand) Verbal reaction of the Afghan government accusing the two officials.

8th Paragraph: A macro proposition linked to the Afghan Government’s verbal reaction. A statement of what is expected from the two accused men.

9th Paragraph: A macro proposition linked with the events that happened prior to the main event. The depiction of a certain time with the notion of history.

3.2. Interpretation of the News Report

The news report by Cumhuriyet is considered to be embodying a detailed news schema of subordinating propositions to organize the structure of the discourse. Structurally, what remains from the observations on the progression manner of the news report is its similarity to the progression of the news article by The International Herald Tribune. Though in the sequencing of the propositions there are some differences as to the places of the statements, the places where the accounts of the previous events stand in these two articles shows resemblance to each other and even collide.
Figure 4: News analysis schema of the news in “Milliyet”
Another similarity of Cumhuriyet to the news articles studied so far is the sufficient use of verbal reactions as the witnesses for the events being reported about. However, when the discursive differences in the verbal reactions are considered it is seen that Cumhuriyet has given chance to more than two voices as the reported statements. Many sides including the Daily Telegraph, Gordon Brown and the Afghan Government become many voices which are approached from an equal distance.

At the micro level analysis, the choices of some words describe the attitude of the author. The use of the words in the headline describes İngiltere as the actor and the modality condition of the verb “pazarlıkta” tells that the issue is still in progress as if the bargains with the enemy are still going on. Again at the lexical level of distinction the paper can be viewed to be making use of presuppositions in the headline. The replacement of the word “düşman” as it is seen now presupposes that Afghanistan is the naturally born enemy of England.

4. Analysis of the News Report by “Milliyet”: Brief Description of the Structural Organization

The news report by The Newspaper Milliyet, gives the shortest account of the same news chosen as the constant topic. Taking the headline “İngilizler Taliban’la “defalarca“ görüşmüş” the news article represented here is composed of 4 paragraphs and it has got one more sub- headline -“2 Diplomat da suçlanıyor”. The article’s structure seems to be the weakest among the 4 articles analyzed so far because of its lack of specification and lack of circumstances events. A schema showing the structural analysis of news discourse is given below.

4.1. Proposition Sequence and the Functions of the Paragraphs

The proposition sequence of the same news in Milliyet keeps the following pattern of organization as a route of progression:

   Headline: “İngilizler Taliban’la “defalarca“ görüşmüş” (The English reportedly talked to Taliban several times.)
   Subheadline: “2 diplomat da suçlanıyor” (2 Diplomats also accused)
   1st Paragraph: The initial statements forming a summary when taken with the headline. Defining the field and giving an answer to “what are the claims?”
   2nd Paragraph: A macro proposition linked with the first paragraph, giving details about the event that forms the main event. Identification of all the parties that attended
   3rd Paragraph: Under the sub-headline “2 diplomat da suçlanıyor”, a macro proposition on the previous happenings take place. The accusation placed on the two western officials is reported as a direct verbal reaction.
   4th Paragraph: A macro proposition stating the possible results of the claims stated in the third paragraph. The denial of English prime-minister Brown within a verbal reaction. A proposition stated on the possibility of Brown’s being forced by the situation as an expectation.

4.2. Interpretation of the News Report

The news report to be found among the pages of Milliyet is designed to give a very brief account of the same main event represented in the other news articles. The
subordination of the propositions seems to be following a less detailed schema and some categories of the branching are lacking. For most of the universally established categories only one proposition is addressed, which allows only for a limited look to the happenings. The circumstances part is omitted, which comes to mean that the background to the main event is stated with the help of a single proposition accounting for the previous events.

Apart from the insufficient semantic structuring at the macro level, at the micro level there seems to be an omission of some relevant information. In the 4th paragraph while informing about the accused the phrase “isimleri açıklanmayan 2 diplomat” (2 unnamed diplomats) takes place. However, the unnamed diplomats are named in the other news reports and whether intentionally or not the flaws in the informative function of the news report results in a failure to meet a serious reader’s need for information.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

News analysis, established as an autonomous discipline as a consequence of the advances in two worlds- one marked with the technological innovations that foreground the impact of media on people and the other marked with the linguistic studies that has gained momentum towards discourse- takes once untouchable and holy “text” to a democratized “context” of people’s interpretation. Information has long been accessible to people, however another access to the same information by identifying the way it is submitted reveals the ideology behind the semantic structures, lexical choices, the organization and the sequencing of the propositions.

In this personal attempt to unearth the relevance of the “textual” choices for the shared “context” of people, two international and two local newspaper articles have been analyzed through the news analysis models put forward by Van Dijk (1988) and news schemas for each of the articles have been utilized to characterize the differences form a macro- semantic point of view. Upon this search it has been found that the same reality- the expulsion of two western officials from Afghanistan after the accusations about their relations with Taliban forces- is submitted in 4 different ways.

In structure, the only significant deviation from the universally established news schemata was in Milliyet’s account. The newspaper has been viewed to be reporting relatively shorter and in a less detailed way, skipping over the circumstances category. Cumhuriyet’s account of the news has been considered to be giving the most far back historical background for the main event going into the past of the region as far as 1996- the first invasion of Afghanistan. With regard to the diversity of the discursive voices, Cumhuriyet is viewed to be giving the verbal reactions of all the sides involved in the event, while the International Herald Tribune and The Times foreground the verbal reactions of the western officials who justify the officials’ undesired talks with Taliban forces as well as accusing the Karzai Government. The lexical choices of the headlines in the Turkish newspapers may also be interpreted according to their political stance in the democratic life of Turkey. Milliyet uses the word “English” carrying the issue to a national scale in line with what the name of the newspaper suggests. However, Cumhuriyet uses the word
“England” while addressing to the actor of the event which reflects the republicans’ tendency to see the event on a broader scale, among the countries.

As a result, in this study of discourse analysis via a comparative perspective on the news of the same event, the identification of macro-semantic textual characteristics of the articles indicates to a universally established news schema. However, what gains significance as a result of the analysis undertaken through a textual identification of the meanings in four different accounts of the same reality can be somehow ironically regarded as the diversity of the contexts. Narratives and the voices reconstructed through particular lexical and grammatical choices have resulted in this variation of meaning, although all 4 topic-restricted news reports apparently followed a common news schema. In this sense, setting exemplar cases to the textually and contextually oriented nature of meaning, similar analyses might be employed in the classroom procedures of language teacher education. A language teacher who is discourse oriented in research could easily -and increasingly- be aware of the multiplicity of meanings realized through a wide variety of modalities and semiosis across diverse contexts of meaning making (MacLure, 2003:12). In turn, it is this discourse awareness that holds the potent to bear new interpretations of the communication events, people, space and objects in the multi-literate language classroom.

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Chapter 19

Teaching General English Language and Teaching Medical English Language to Non-native English Speakers Medical University Students: Similarities and Differences

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INTRODUCTION

Non-native English speakers use and speak English in most parts of the world in academic contexts. In addition, English is supposed to be used by non-native English speakers university students in medical contexts for improving their academic abilities, skills, and performances.

Crystal (2003) mentioned that the number of non-native English speakers is getting more and more as 3 to 1.

Jarecky, Sandifer (1986) and Harris, Wempner (1996) stated that international teaching can provide an opportunity for clinician–educators to gain professional development and cultural immersion as well.

In fact, this experience can be a great set of circumstances that makes it possible for medical educators to be exposed to novel teaching methods and approaches as well as learning styles. Accordingly, they might enhance medical educators’ teaching repertoire as a whole.

Obviously, language and communication issues are understandably main concerns when projecting a foreign teaching tasks. Therefore, assessing language skills can create a major role in the language learning process as learners need to present in real life what they have accumulated in terms of language productive skills.

Once there exists an opportunity to teach medical English to non-native English speakers university students, it can lead to a better understanding of the challenges that non-native English speakers university students face in the course of medical English instruction.

Teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in Brief

English is particularly effective owing to high student motivation and immediate real-world utilisation. Medical professionals, through acquiring English language skills, can enhance their own professional development by participating in international conferences, reading journals, sharing their own experiences with peers, and having contribution to medical education advancement in any possible aspect.

Since most of medical journals are published in English and international conferences are carried out in English, learning General English and medical English can provide medical professionals with some opportunities to acquire medical English. In this regard, Popa (2013) and Chia et al. (1999) asserted that learning
medical terminology by medical professionals being active in their community is encouraged.

Teaching medical English language to non-native English speakers medical university students and in medical education is going to be comprehensive and positively impact a lot of medical professionals. For instance, this can enhance medical doctors, nurses, and healthcare staff and enable them to more accurately perform their tasks and interact with, diagnose, and treat their patients more professionally.

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses are language programs designed for learners learning English with an identifiable purpose and clearly specifiable need (Dudley-Evans and St Johns, 1998; Johns and Price Machado, 2001; Widdowson, 1983).

Concerning the origins of ESP, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) expressed that an increase in scientific, technical and economic activities following the Second World War and the Oil Crisis of the early 1970s encouraged many people to learn English for specific reasons instead of simply for pleasure or prestige. English became subject to the wishes, needs and requirements of people other than language teachers.

The issue of making language programs more relevant to the learners’ needs provided the ground in terms of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Richards, 2001). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) defined ESP as an approach that all decisions for the content of the program and teaching methods are based on learners’ reasons for learning. Hence, a crucial principle of ESP is going to be the syllabus of an ESP program particularly projects the goals and needs of learners instead of the structure of General English. Various kinds of students have various language needs and what they are instructed are supposed to be limited to what they need. (Richards, 2001).

An ESP approach is initiated with an analysis of learners’ needs. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) explained ESP as having been divided into two main areas named as English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). In our context, the requirement for teaching medical English language to non-native English speakers medical university students can be an example of ESP.

Academically speaking, the language of medicine and health care is unique to a great extent. Non-native English speakers medical university students can internalize medical English knowledge through spending time studying it in meaningful and contextual ways.

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) considered needs analysis being the basis of ESP and the process of establishing the what and how of a course.

**Teaching General English Language and Teaching Medical English Language in Brief**

Regarding the spread of English being an international language, it can be verbalised that it has caused an ever-growing number of students studying at university levels when the medium of instruction is English. Some universities in non-English-speaking countries are inclined to offer such programs to students in
different parts of the world.

Teaching General English language and teaching medical English language to non-native English speakers medical university students appears to be a barrier, especially at the beginning of these students’ academic study.

In fact, they need to be competent in both medical field as well as language skills in order to be capable of coping with academic requirements. These students are required to apply English to gain knowledge in medical area. Besides, they should comprehend lectures, participate in the classroom discussions in different subjects, attend relevant conferences, and write laboratory reports together with class assignments in English when needed.

Some characteristics of medical English can be mentioned here.

- Medical English should be designed and carried out to satisfy non-native English speakers medical university students’ needs.
- Medical English program for non-native English speakers medical university students should make use of the methodologies, approaches, and activities of medical discipline.
- Accordingly, medical English program for non-native English speakers medical university students is going to be centered on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres proper to these activities.

Overall, medical English teaching and learning may appear to be more motivating compared to General English for non-native English speakers medical university students.

One of the reasons can be the purposeful use of time and effort of these students with having specific purposes in medical context efficiently. Accordingly, designing matching materials, methodologies, approaches, and focusing on the language features focusing on these students’ needs in medical context are needed to be highly considered.

Regarding English for medical purposes, it was sensed that applying English for medical purposes has steadily been increasing in international and intranational stages as well.

English for Medical Purposes (EMP) refers to the teaching of English for health care staff such as doctors, and nurses (Maher, 1986).

Concerning the analysis of medical texts, it can be seen that they have a great quantity of multilingual vocabulary. In other words, some of them can be named as terms, found in several languages in phonetically, grammatically and semantically similar forms (Laar, 1998).

Faulseit (1975, cited in Laar, 1998) explained that the most representative feature of medical language is that most of its multilingual vocabulary includes terms of Latin or Greek origin. Many words of Latin origin have entered English at different stages in the development of vocabulary, and at various levels of assimilation into the English language (Pennanen 1971, cited in Laar, 1998).

Words entering English from French or directly borrowed from Latin are of general vocabulary of English. However, the words of multilingual vocabulary are generally derivatives from Latin stems. Some of these words also adopted suffixes
together with a few stems of Greek origin (Laar, 1998).

In terms of language difficulties, Jordan (1997) mentioned that language difficulties may emerge throughout the course of lectures, seminars, tutorials, discussions, supervisions, laboratory work, fieldwork, and self-study. These difficulties can also become obvious when students deal with reading journals and textbooks, using library related resources, writing essays and reports, preparing closely connected and appropriate projects, presenting closely connected and appropriate research papers, conducting case studies, and the like. Indeed, language difficulties of teaching General English language and teaching medical English language to non-native English speakers medical university students are to be defined and scrutinized.

**Needs Assessment of Medical Students for English Language**

Needs assessment is considered as being a process through which learners’ needs, wants and lacks are supposed to be identified clearly and definitely for clarifying the very objectives for an appropriate curriculum design (Al-Ahdal, 2010; Ibrahim, 2010).

As Kazem and Fatemeh (2014) mentioned, neglecting learners’ needs and interests can cause lack of motivation. This may end in poor performance and academic achievement. Based on the idea that Ghalandari and Talebinejad (2012) asserted, instructors, course designers and material writers are supposed to incorporate learners’ needs as an indispensable part of syllabus to attain the optimal objective of successful learning.

Moreover, it is asserted that the only way for achieving useful feedback through which language acquisition is supported can be assessing students’ learning needs (Sabbour, Dewedar, and Kandil, 2010).

The requirement for addressing students’ educational needs appears even more important in a context in which English is taught as a foreign language (Jane Koch MA et al. 2011). However, it seems that the majority of the research on ESP teaching is performed for English as a Second Language (ESL) students in health sciences (Molnar, 2011) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students are neglected to some extent (Heming and Nandagopal, 2012).

In most cases, as Heming and Nandagopal (2012) stated, in the course of teaching ESP to medical students, the major focus seems to be on subject-unique vocabulary and associated modifiers, but it is asserted that students encounter difficulties with general vocabulary as well. Thus, it can be useful if this need of students to be met through improving medical students’ general vocabulary knowledge.

In order to guide medical students overcome the challenges they may face in the passage of their academic education, perceiving their English language needs is absolutely necessary (Faraj, 2015).

According to the statements provided by Faraj (2015), the English language used in medical context currently covers the special terminology and structures that students have not been exposed to before in their education. In addition, most of the students have major problems with medical English particularly while studying in
their first year of medical education.

Besides, the curricula of English language courses are mostly on grammar translation method that it may not provide students with necessary skills and abilities regarding communicative purposes and it may also lack functional language.

In this regard, Doley (2010) suggested that a medical English curriculum should encompass all major English language skills named as speaking, listening, writing, and reading along with English grammar and medical / general vocabulary for satisfying students’ need of communicative competence.

Lu and Corbett (2012) highlighted that reading is the most required skill for medical students due to the fact that most of their textbooks and journal articles are presented in English. Listening, writing, and speaking come in the next priorities.

Regarding teaching General English language and teaching medical English language to non-native English speakers medical university students, it is clear that medical students studying in non-English medium contexts mainly need to improve their English reading skills to carry out related research for their academic work such as problem-based learning tasks. Besides, speaking skills and an interactive way of learning English in groups can be regarded to be significant. In fact, changing in the students’ perspectives towards English language needs can be understood.

**Role of Medical English in Medical Education**

In terms of the significant role that English language plays in medical education, both learning purposes and seeking medical knowledge and presenting medical research activities in international fields should be highly considered.

It is worth considering that teaching General English language and teaching medical English to non-native English speakers medical university students to be noted in all details to the possible extent.

Some of the basic concepts concerning the points of teaching General English language and teaching medical English language to non-native English speakers medical university students can be presented as the necessity of these students’ need assessment, General English and medical English content evaluation, advancing teachers’ knowledge in both General English and medical English, evaluating and renewing General English and medical English curricula when needed, and providing training especially in-service training, for the teacher continuously and in effective and professional manners.

Actually, in this sense, various academic, practical and objective recommendations can be provided by relevant forces involved in related curricular activities and programs. These recommendations are about to be applied by the instructors, text developers and educational authorities for the act or process of improving teaching General English language and teaching medical English language to non-native English speakers medical university students.

In today’s world of communication, when conveying one’s thoughts may cause emerging international integration, teaching and learning English seem to be more needed due to the fact that English language serves as an international medium of association of thoughts and communication as well. The demand to express specific information has also joined to this discipline. English language is the lingua franca
for communicating the basic concepts of different fields, including medicine (Faraj, 2015).

As Milosavljević (2008) expressed, medical doctors and researchers need to learn English, both for the purpose of teaching and learning as well as publishing their research work.

It has been stated that the level of medical English utilised in lectures, textbooks, and journal articles has been increasing steadily (Hwang and Lin, 2010).

The crucial role that English language plays in medical discipline is because of the fact that much of the scientific, technological, and academic information is globally conveyed in English (Creswell, 2013). Accordingly, having medical students and doctors motivated in order to learn English is evident to be very much instrumental (Milosavljević, 2008).

Heming and Nandagopal (2012) believed that English is the de facto language of international medicine and so being fluent in English would be a necessity to be exposed to extremely important medical and scientific information.

Conducting research and accumulating information are not merely the factors which emphasize the role of English language in medical education. It is probable that the quality of medical care to be influenced in negative manner by the lack of language competence (Ibrahim, 2010).

Based on various studies, it has been expressed that medical students’ insufficient English language proficiency may be considered as the principal obstacle to their academic achievement (AlRukban, Munshi, Abdulghani, and Al-Hoqail, 2010). In this sense, it can be implied that the problems that English as a Foreign Language (EFL) medical students encounter concerning their medical subjects might be attributed to English language incompetence to some or a limited extent (Faraj, 2015). Conversely, having or gaining adequate knowledge of English language and the ability to use (speak) English as a Second Language (ESL) can have positive effects on students to such an extent that it even enhances their self-confidence (Jane Koch MA, Yenna Salamonson PhD, Du BN, Sharon Andrew PhD, and Dunncliff, 2011).

In general terms, if we intend to grasp a better understanding of the role of English teaching and medical English language to non-native English speakers medical university students, and in medical education, a profound view at the difference between English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Specific Purposes (ESP), and English for Medical Purposes (EMP) can be helpful. Basically, it should be noted that EAP is learnt with an intention to attain the ability to read and comprehend the texts in a scientific field, while ESP teaches the skill of utilising the target language for communication in the work environment. Hence, it could be concluded that ESP is mostly applied in an ESL context and EAP for EFL ones (Kazem and Fatemeh, 2014). According to the definition by Hutchinson and Waters (Ghalandari and Talebinejad, 2012), ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are on the basis of the learners’ reason for learning. Accordingly, learners’ needs are considered the center for teaching ESP. It is true for teaching medical English language to non-native English speakers.
medical university students, and in medical education in our context.

**Educational Content of English For Medical Purposes**

With refer to what Kazem and Fatemeh (2014) explained, in the early 1960s, ESP became one of the most important areas of EFL teaching and large numbers of ESP books have been published since then, but the majority of them lack a careful research base and defined theoretical position. Consequently, for achieving educational objectives effectively, evaluation of teaching materials is significant by which the perceiving of the manner they work is gained with respect to acquisition theory and pedagogic practice as well (Al Fraidan, 2012; McGrath, 2002; Tomlinson, 2005).

Regarding the challenges posed by the language barrier, Bruzzi (2006) verbalized that optimal communication and perception require language fluency; however, a partial language barrier causes barriers to teaching that are not easily overcome.

In terms of the materials, both the students and the academicians consider that materials in medical English program must be closely relevant to the medical field. Therefore, authentic medical materials and the related authentic tasks should be relevant to non-native English speakers medical university students’ needs. Moreover, the materials should be carefully selected and enable meaningful communication in medical contexts and settings.

In this sense, Guariento and Morley (2001) mentioned that text and task authenticity should not be separated since the language input and output generally take place inseparably in real world communication circumstances.

Concerning renewing old fashioned curricula and pedagogic approaches of teaching medical English, it is said that in teaching medical English language to non-native English speakers medical university students, and in medical education, there can exist inadequate time for these students to learn a great number of medical terms, improve their English language skills such as reading and listening skills and develop their writing ability (Lu and Corbett, 2012). In some universities as Tucker, Chen, and Glass (2012) mentioned, formal training is conducted to understand language obstacles in medical education. Additionally, language learning programs are integrated within the medical curriculum to accomplish these obstacles.

Starkey (2015) stated that some of the language difficulties that make medical education struggling for students may cover understanding lectures, reading comprehension, correlating written material with verbal lectures, taking notes, and academic writing.

Some major developmental aspects can enhance students’ English proficiency including increased exposure to English, motivate students to become competent in English, and provide opportunities for interaction with English speaking peers as much as possible (Heming and Nandagopal, 2012).

The language learning strategies encompass metacognitive, cognitive, and social strategies. Students should be exposed to and actively participate in different training programs on how to adopt a mixture of these strategies as they are utilised to apply mainly cognitive strategies to a great extent (Al-Qahtani, 2013).
In terms of motivational aspect, it is crucial to enhance medical students’ motivation while English language learning is realised. In this regard, Milosavljević (2008) is of the opinion that motivation is an important tool for learning.

**Teachers of English for Medical Purposes**

The most crucial aspect about medical English teachers is to improve their medical knowledge as much as needed, and medical terminology and structures applied in medical texts. They could develop themselves through participating in relevant training programs. Their knowledge of medicine can assist them achieve medical English designed for medical educational objectives (Chang, 2007).

It is recommended that medical English teachers engage non-native English speakers medical university students to the process of language learning by means of coordinating practical sessions and creating some settings in which these students can develop entire aspects of English language as much as possible in effective manners. In this sense, Doley (2010) mentioned that current research indicates that teachers can also develop students’ understanding of the material through asking them frequent and challenging questions.

Medical English teachers themselves who teach medical English to non-native English speakers medical university students may face some problems as well. To exemplify, one of the challenges they face can be lack of university resources (Heming and Nandagopal, 2012). Another barrier might be a diverse student body which makes it difficult for a teacher to instruct all students productively (Starkey, 2015). The students accumulating limited English language proficiency and being exposed to traditional pedagogical approaches through which teachers are trained, make the circumstance even more difficult for medical English teachers (Rivera-Goba and Campinha-Bacote, 2008). In this sense, a more accurate evaluation of non-native English speakers medical university students’ English language proficiency, pedagogical approaches, and university resources are needed to be carried out to help for developing medical English teachers.

In terms of the English language instructors’ knowledge to teach medical English, medical content knowledge of medical English instructors must be sufficient to teach medical English.

It is recommended that medical English teachers should follow the medical literature and expand their knowledge of medical English, basic medical concepts and terms, particularly medical terminology. Accumualting these pieces of medical knowledge can ensure the circumstances in which medical English teacher are able to transmit the medical knowledge through teaching medical English effectively to non-native English speakers medical university students.

Furthermore, medical English instructors are strongly encouraged to cooperate and work with medical content instructors and medical academicains, to the possible extent, to be exposed to these medical academicians’ knowledge and experience.

**Teaching General English Language and Teaching Medical English Language to Non-native English Speakers Medical University Students**

It seems that most non-native English speakers university students in medical
schools use their native language medical textbooks. The minority of these students may read medical English texts and articles regularly if their General English as well as medical English are adequate.

Due to the fact that there is increasing use of English Internet resources namely PubMed and UpToDate, and English journal articles, non-native English speakers university students in medical field can benefit from them to a great extent.

However, the added cognitive load of English language as a foreign language during studying medicine is not supposed to be underestimated.

Actually, non-native English speakers university students in medical discipline should decipher the medical lexicon of English language while they are processing the facts and reasoning strategies of medicine, as being a future medical doctor, at the same time.

To be exposed to medical English, medical students need to have some basic background knowledge of General English. ESP (English for Specific Purpose) programs are specially designed based on need analysis so that ensure the learners with different proficiency levels. They include, for medicine, some skill based syllabus, such as writing lab reports, lab assignments, research proposals, assignment writing, referencing, citation, and presentation practices regarding medical subjects of their lessons and the like.

In one hand, General English language can refer to the linguistic competence learners are about to acquire without being influenced by any other events, conditions, academic field or major. It can be a sort of core or basic linguistic knowledge. On the other hand, medical English deals with providing linguistic content knowledge of medicine. Here, language is a means of conveying medical key terms and facts which enables medical students to improve their medical knowledge.

Almagro (2001) specified that the teaching of ESP is characterized by some distinctive features being the ones that make this kind of teaching differ from the teaching of General English. To exemplify, the following points can be highlighted:

- ESP provides the possibility to teach while the students’ needs are considered.
- Teaching is directed to use English for communicative purposes in a real context.
- The students’ performance is more crucial compared to their competence.
- Esp is taught in the university or in post graduate courses in which the knowledge accumulated before is important for further specialized language used.
- Learning the language is a priority for students owing to the immediate characteristic of its use.
- Teaching is going to be realized on the basis of the needs analysis.
- ESP classes are heterogeneous with regard to linguistic competence and specialized in the students’ subject field of study.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) mentioned that English for General Purposes (EGP) refers to contexts namely the school in which needs cannot be readily
specified. It is more useful to take EGP into consideration providing a broad foundation instead of a comprehensive and selective specification of goals like ESP. Besides the rough separation at the definition level, there exists an overlapping connection and proportion between them. In order to clarify their relation, Widdowson (1983) established distinctive characteristics of ESP and EGP.

The most important EGP features can be as follow:
- The focus is often on education.
- As the learners’ future needs seem to be impossible to predict, the course content is more difficult to choose.
- Considering the above-mentioned point, it is significant for the content in the syllabus to have a high value.

Regarding the most relevant ESP features, it can be highlighted that the focus is on training. Also, since English is going to be applied in specific vocational contexts, the selection of the appropriate content seems to be easier. In addition, it is important for the content in the syllabus to have a high value through being most relevant to the vocational context. Furthermore, it is probable that the aim is to establish a restricted English competence.

As Teo (2007), Tierney, (1994), Teo (2007) stated, educational system in some settings may emphasize didactic lectures and diligent study of written material through less instruction applying interactive questioning and analytical reasoning.

Tony Greening (2009) and Harland (2003) believed that by limiting information to the essential concepts in teaching medical English, a medical English teacher can provide a basic cognitive structure and outline called scaffolding. Besides, the teacher should allow students to develop and organize comprehensive knowledge through their own reading and experiences.

There can be different points worth scrutinizing regarding the similarities and differences between teaching General English language and teaching medical English language to non-native English speakers medical university students. Some of them can be as follow:
- What do non-native English speakers medical university students in English as a Foreign Language sense as their academic English needs?
- What are medical English instructors’, medical academicians’, and medical school administrators’ perspectives and perception towards these students’ General English language needs as well as medical English ones?

To sum up, needs analysis can be considered as being the process of collecting data reflecting non-native English speakers medical university students’ profile and their academic needs to make sound decisions regarding the goals, objectives, and content of medical English curriculum which is supposed to fulfill these students’ needs. Since these students’ academic and English language needs may vary in the course of their medical education, needs analysis in this context is going to be a cyclical and ongoing process realizing before, during and after teaching medical English to non-native English speakers medical university students indeed.

For teaching medical English, it is seen that along with applying the internet, video cameras have proved extremely useful for contextualized learning in medical
English curricula (Belcher, 2004). To conclude, non-native English speakers medical university students’ communicative academic and medical language needs are supposed to be satisfied through both purposeful and meaningful tasks. Most of these tasks can be problem-based as they provide the students with better contextualization of medical concepts.

Additionally, utilising technologies providing real world data of medical discipline is encouraged. It should also be noted that teaching medical English to non-native English speakers medical university students is a demanding profession for medical English instructors. These instructors should initially analyze these students’ needs in their medical contexts and accordingly plan and apply the most effective teaching as much as possible.

**CONCLUSION**

Teaching medical English has the feature of a valuable professional development experience that can develop a medical teacher’s pedagogical skills.

Teachers, textbook developers, and educational authorities can enhance the quality of learning and teaching through considering the effective elements of medical English learning namely accomplishing language barriers, reviewing medical English curricula, providing extracurricular programs to develop the teachers’ and students’ medical English proficiency, choosing optimal teaching materials, the efficacy of what have been confirmed by means of evaluation, and modifying medical education context considering the assessed needs of students.

It can be concluded that there exists a need to increase the class hours, manage proper technological equipment, and appoint trained and experienced instructors to be able to instruct efficient medical English.

Designing a curriculum for teaching General English language and teaching medical English language to non-native English speakers medical university students should be handled in the manner in which it matches these student’s needs. Also, it is going to provide guidance and help for these students to satisfy their economic needs and achieve the goals specified in their General and medical English programs to the possible extent.

Basically, through needs analysis these students’ requirements regarding medical English can be explored which may motivate them to acquire medical English more efficiently. Indeed, conducting needs analysis has an important role in developing English for Specific Purposes curriculum and medical English one as well. The view of the administrators, the students, doctors, and content-area instructors should be considered.

Teaching General English language and medical English to non-native English speakers medical university students should be regarded as being necessary, important, and purposeful. Even teaching medical English to non-native English speakers medical university students must be taken into account much more due to their medical studies during their medical education and after their graduation as well.

In fact, English is very crucial for these students. Medical academicians are aware of the necessity and significance of medical English, presumably through
reflecting the fact that they often need to utilise English for their own medical / professional studies. However, it is possible that these students are not fully aware of the importance of General and medical English for their medical education as well as studies now and in the future. Actually, in the course of their medical education, it is likely that they will realize the significance of medical English more consciously.

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Chapter 20

Family in Homeland Studies Textbooks at The Early Republic Period

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INTRODUCTION

In the "Introduction" section of the "Homeland Information" textbook dated 1939 prepared by Tevfik Tarık Danisman for police schools, the "Importance and Benefits of Homeland Information" section includes the memorandum dated 18-9-1931 written by Atatürk to the Chief Deputy.

"The importance of Homeland Information, which is among the classical education programs in order to raise the children of the motherland as good citizens, is known. In addition, I believe that any measure to be provided to have these books read to citizens in the country will be valuable."

It would be appropriate to read these words carefully in order to understand the importance given to the Homeland Information course. The introduction of a new ideology, a new system, new institutions and organizations, and the newly established state to citizens; in addition, explaining what is expected of the people / people who are citizens of this new state is the most important and first activity of the period. The transformation movement expected from national education is the creation of the people required by the system as soon as possible. For this reason, the sole purpose of the foundation years is to make a rapid transformation. This is why Homeland Information is very important in schools. Homeland Knowledge textbooks not only included basic citizenship information such as the state, organs of the state, rights and responsibilities, but also presented the behaviors expected from the public / citizen in different environments such as families, villages, towns, parks and cities. Based on the fact that the first living space of the child is the family, firstly the expressions about "family" in the books were examined. Then the expressions such as women, men, children, father, mother, master, agha were discussed throughout the contents of the book. The roles offered for the child, the characteristics associated with these roles, the behaviors expected from these roles and the spaces where these roles are constructed / depicted were grouped and analyzed.

METHODS

The textbook is one of basic tools that define the limits of “legitimate knowledge” in a country. Also, it is one of the tools directly used by the power in
the process of transferring culture and tradition (identity transfer) and teaching its own values (creating identity) (Apple 2014:49-50). The textbook, which contains some messages with the visuals, content, the language it addresses, the theme it addresses or does not receive, shows the codes of the dominant and “normal” discourse in a country. The content of the textbook means subjects or themes that can or can not actually be spoken in that country. In this respect, textbooks are one of the basic elements of “official discourse” (Çayır 2014). When examined periodically, the characters that the government wants to create in the textbooks emerge with certain expressions and discourses in the context of both the language used and the issues that are expressed or not. While these textbooks sometimes address the child directly, sometimes they address the child indirectly. When the textbooks of a period are considered, the tendencies of this period and the duties and responsibilities assigned to children can also be revealed.

In this study, critical discourse analysis has been used. Critical discourse analysis is one of the types of discourse analysis. Van Dijk uses the concepts of the discourse and ideology side by side in his studies on discourse, power, discourse analysis for many years. Based on the studies on the concept of the discourse, he lists the discourse under the following headings (2011:3-5):

- Discourse as social interaction,
- Discourse as a tool of power and oppression
- Discourse as communication,
- Discourse as the use of language shaped by contextual features,
- Discourse as a social semiotics,
- Discourse as the use of natural language,
- Discourse as the structure made up of the complex layers,
- Abstract structures versus dynamic strategies,
- Types or sexes.

According to Van Dijk (1985), critical discourse analyse is a type of discourse analysis that studies on social power, dominance, and inequality. Critical discourse analysis is a special approach that focuses on the strategies of manipulation, legitimation and the others. In critical discourse analysis, first micro structures and then macro structures are determined. With the macro structures created, discussions are created depending on ideology, authority and social practice. In this study firstly all the context of the textbooks listed at the Table 1 have been read. Then the roles for man, woman and child have been listed according to places. While creating the tables, the properties in the expressions used for roles were also given. These tables showed us the change in family structure over the years from tradition to modern also transformation. The textbooks examined during the study carried out are as follows:
Table 1: The Homeland Studies textbooks taught in 1927-1950 for primary schools.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Name of the Book</th>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Years Taught</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary School 3</td>
<td>Yeni Yurt Bilgisi/New Homeland Information</td>
<td>Mithat Sadullah</td>
<td>1934-1938 (1934 edition)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(For village schools)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School 4</td>
<td>Yeni Yurt Bilgisi/ New Homeland Information</td>
<td>Mithat Sadullah</td>
<td>1927-1930 (1929 edition)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School 4</td>
<td>Yurtbilgisi Dersleri/ Homeland Information Lessons</td>
<td>Tarık Emin Rona</td>
<td>1939-1942 (1940 edition)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School 4</td>
<td>Yurtbilgisi Dersleri/ Homeland Information Lessons</td>
<td>Bedia Ermat- Kemal Ermat</td>
<td>1943-1950 (1948 edition)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School 5</td>
<td>Yurt Bilgisi/ Homeland Information</td>
<td>Muallim Abdulbaki</td>
<td>1927-1930 (1927 edition)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School 5</td>
<td>Yurt Bilgisi/ Homeland Information</td>
<td>Ali Seydi</td>
<td>1927-1930 (1930 edition)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School 5</td>
<td>Yurt Bilgisi/ Homeland Information</td>
<td>Maarif Vekaleti</td>
<td>1930-1938 (1933 edition)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School 5</td>
<td>Yurtbilgisi Dersleri/ Homeland Information Lessons</td>
<td>Tarık Emin Rona</td>
<td>1939-1942 (1939 edition)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School 5</td>
<td>Yurt Bilgi Dersleri/ Homeland Information Courses</td>
<td>Bedia Ermat- Kemal Ermat</td>
<td>1943-1950 (1949 edition)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FINDINGS**

1. **New Homeland Information 3rd Grade, 1934**

   This textbook, which was prepared for the third graders of the village schools and the primary schools, was taught between 1934-1938. The content of the book consists of texts and events such as conversations between father and son, children asking their teachers what they heard from their fathers and explaining what they have learned at school, as well as the teacher asking students questions. When the content of the book is examined, it is as if it was written only for men, and it was assumed that the reader (student / child) was only male. While the teacher addresses the children, he calls out "My son!", "My children". The narrator of the book is a village boy named Kaya. Throughout the book, Kaya tells about his experiences at school, the homework he prepared, and her father's travels.

   There are prominent statements about family in the book. The family is defined and the relationships of family members with each other are explained:

   ".... *Family people mean grandmother, grandfather, mother, father and...*"
... Family people are always interconnected, they love each other. They want their good. In the evenings, the family members have their meals in joy. Then they gather in a room and talk sweetly. They read books and newspapers. How happy are the family people who love each other and work for each other, right? " (12)

Members of the family are grandparents, parents, and children. It was stated that the family members were tied and loving to each other, and the reader's approval was obtained by asking “isn't it?”. Here family members eat, chat and read books or newspapers while being together. When family members are together, it is evening. Instead of family members, the expression "family people" was chosen. The roles and characteristics of women, men, children in the textbook are as follows:

**Woman:**

*Table 2: Women's role-characteristics-behavior and place in the New Homeland Information (1934)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Tasks - Behaviors</th>
<th>Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Caregiver, who detects the deficiencies</td>
<td>Taking care of the shortcomings of the house, telling the necessary things to the father, taking care of the children</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peasant woman / housewife</td>
<td>Working at home, taking care of children, helping, contributing to production, hardworking</td>
<td>Doing housework, taking care of children, helping their spouses by working in the field</td>
<td>Home-field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village member / Peasant woman</td>
<td>Kind hearted, hardworking</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peasant / housewife / wife</td>
<td>Sews, makes food</td>
<td>Sewing men's seams, cooking their food</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 2 is examined, it is seen that the main roles assigned to women in the textbook are mother and peasant women. A woman in the family is the person who cares for the child and informs the father about the deficiencies: "...Mother; looks after the shortcomings of the house, tells the father what it is necessary, looks after the children. " (11)

Stating that women work in village life as well as men, the book states that women are also in working life: “.... Not only men but also women work in the villages. Peasant women do both housework, take care of their children, and help their husbands by working in the fields. " (14)
A member of the village people, the peasant woman is kind-hearted and hardworking just like the other villagers (peasant men and children). The peasant woman is mentioned with the child (14). Throughout the book, the peasantry is emphasized and it is mentioned that the village people work together. Although it is said that the peasant woman works with the man, the main task assigned to the woman is sewing and cooking. It is possible to deduce the activities of women in the village from the statements of Kaya, the main character of the book, while giving information about his village:

“..... We all have fields, we cultivate. Then we help ourselves many times in the village. Women sew the men's seams and cook their meals. Men work in the fields from morning to evening, preparing the wheat to feed their citizens. ” (19-20)

Since the fiction of the book consists of the conversations of the boy Kaya with his father, the information about the woman is limited. Throughout the entire book, only one woman was spoken. According to the content, Kaya was very sad that day. Because his very close friend died of tuberculosis. In the incident that took place at home in the evening, Kaya's father said that tuberculosis was talked about in the council of elders, and Kaya's mother asks what they were talking about (34). Throughout the whole book, there is no other place where the woman speaks. The woman is speechless and dumb.

The places where women are depicted are basically houses. In addition, the woman took place in the fields and villages. Basic characteristics of women can be listed as caregiver, helper, informative, kind-hearted, hard-working. While the peasant woman is the main female figure, there is no information about the urban woman.

**Man:**

In this textbook, the main characters are father and teacher. The table of roles, characteristics, duties and places depicted for the man based on the statements in the textbook is as follows:

*Table 3: Male role-characteristics-behavior and place in the New Homeland Information (1934)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Tasks -Behaviours</th>
<th>Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head of family / Father</td>
<td>Caretaker, supplying needs, loved, counted</td>
<td>Taking care of home, buying whatever the family needs</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peasant man</td>
<td>Hardworking, productive, helpful / helpful, reading, arguing for the development of the village, literate, knowledgeable</td>
<td>Working in the field, helping each other,</td>
<td>Field, coffeehouse, village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peasant man</td>
<td>Hardworking, feeding the country</td>
<td>Working in the field, producing wheat to feed the country</td>
<td>Field</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The main role played by the man is that he is a village man. The village man works in the field and feeds both his family and the people of the country by producing. The men relax in the coffee house in the evenings, where the old men read the newspapers while speaking to make the village beautiful:

“..... we go to bed early every evening. In the mornings, we wake up early with roosters and lamb bleating. Everyone goes to work. The fields are big; golden wheat spikes stretch as far as the eye can see. Everyone is helping each other. In the evening, when the grown-ups return from the field, they sit under the big plane tree in the middle of the village. The coffee shop brings their coffee, the elders of the village read the newspapers, they talk about whatever is needed for the village to progress and make it beautiful. ”(19),“... We all have fields, we cultivate. Then we help ourselves many times in the village. Women sew the men's seams and cook their meals. Men also work in the fields from morning to evening, preparing the wheat to feed their citizens. " (19-20)

The fact that the villagers read newspapers in the coffee house and argue for the progress of the village gives the clue that there are literate village men in the village. At the same time, since there are talks about the progress of the village, these peasant men have some knowledge. The villager is also the head of the family:

“... Every family has a headman; The head of the family, that is, the father, takes care of the house and takes whatever the family needs such as food and drink. Family people also love and respect him. Mother; takes care of the shortcomings of the house, tells the father whatever it is necessary, looks after the children. Children also love their mothers and fathers and work at home and school to make them happy. " (11)

The head of the family meets all the needs of the family members. Here, although the mother is expressed as a caretaker, the main actor is the man who is the head of the family. The mother only acts as an intermediary, and the man who has authority and power has the ability to "give". Based on these expressions, it is possible to say that in all the fiction of the book, the head of the family has the power to meet the needs of the "family people" and the peasant man has the power to meet the needs of the "people of the country".

Other male figures, professions and characteristics that take part in the fiction of the book are as follows:

Table 4: Male figures, professions and characteristics in the New Homeland
Information (1934)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Profession</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>A smiling man, communicating with children, calling out &quot;My Children&quot; to his students, and graduating from Istanbul Male Teacher's School 3 years ago. He is described as &quot;the best man&quot; in the book.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaya’s Father</td>
<td>Farmer</td>
<td>The elder council member is a peasant man who communicates with his child</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
and loves animals.

Hüseyin Ağa | Mukhtar | The person chosen by the people of the village, the head of the village, the civil servant, also marries his son Ahmet in the fiction.

Village imam | Imam | Village council member

Memiş Ağa | Country guard | X

Ranger | Ranger | The person who protects the life and property of the peasant

Ali’s Uncle | Clerk / Officer | Man who lives in town

Ahmet Ağa | Villager / Farmer | A naive and stern peasant man complaining about taxes.

Mehmet’s Father | Villager | A man buying a ball for his kid

Town doctor | X | X

Kaya’s Uncle | X | Urban man living in Istanbul

When we look at the professions of the men we know about in the book, examples such as teacher, clerk, mukhtar, farmer, country guard, village guard and imam are presented to the student. Social actors in the society where the child lives are very colorful for a village, and sample data from outside the village and the main professional groups in the surrounding area are presented to the children.

Child:

The main character of the book, Kaya, is a village boy. In the book, children other than Kaya are also given with their names. These are Ahmet, Durmuş, Mehmet, Ali, Nuri. Throughout the book, no girl name is ever mentioned.

Table 5: The child's role-characteristics-behavior and place in the New Homeland Information (1934)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Tasks - Behaviours</th>
<th>Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family member</td>
<td>Loving his parents, working to make them happy</td>
<td>Working at home and school, loving parents</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village boy</td>
<td>Working from an early age, taking responsibility, going to school, helping their family, durable,</td>
<td>Caring for chickens, grazing animals, carrying food to the field, going to school, helping parents with work</td>
<td>Village, field, school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village boy</td>
<td>Hardworking, well-intentioned</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Village</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Table 5, the fiction of the book is based on the life of the village child. The child is basically a family member. From an early age he works like other members of the family:

“... Children also love their mothers and fathers, they work at home and school to make them happy.” (12) “... Our teacher gave us a new duty of enrollment, he said: You are village children, you live in the village. What would you do if you wanted to tell the village to an urbanite who doesn't know the villages? Here, write this as a duty and bring it to me? ” (12) “... We village children get used to working when we are four or five years old. We take care of chickens; we graze the sheep and cows. We bring water from the fountain with small jugs and bins. At noon, we take the meals prepared by our mothers to our fathers and brothers working in the fields. We enter the school when we are seven years old. Every evening when we come from school, we help our mothers and fathers”. (14)

The child is also a hardworking and well-intentioned person of the village people. The child is associated with the mother: “.... The village is a home for hard work. The people of the village, together with their women and children, are the kindhearted, hardworking people of this home. ” (14)

The main character of the textbook, Kaya, went to the city on summer vacation and chats with Ahmet about the village and villagers, who is 3 years younger than him. In the textbook, this dialogue continues for 5 pages (18-22). Ahmet and Kaya's conversation allows us to compare villagers and urban children. Toy is mentioned for the first time during this dialogue. Ahmet asks Kaya if there is a toy shop in the village. Kaya explains that there are no toy shops in the village, but that the village children make their toys from tree branches themselves. The mention of games and toys in the book is a different feature of this textbook from the other books examined.

“... - No big stores there, toy stores?
- No, but of course it would better if there were. But we village children always make our toys ourselves from tree branches .... ”(18)

**Table 6: Village and urban child in the New Homeland Information (1934)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Village Boy/ Kaya</th>
<th>Urban Boy/ Ahmet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Characteristics</td>
<td>Hardworking, knowledgeable about where he lives, hardworking, helping his family, making his own toy</td>
<td>He is three years younger than Kaya, so he cannot leave his mother, he does not know about the village, he wonders where the toys are obtained ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**2. New Homeland Information Grade 4, 1929**

The roles-characteristics-duties and responsibilities-places tables consisting of expressions about women, men and children in the New Homeland Information textbook for 4th grades which was taught between 1927-1930 are as follows.
**Woman:**

In the New Homeland Information textbook written by Mithat Sadullah, published in 1929, the duties of women were defined in the roles of: mother, housewife, wife, peasant woman and village woman. The places where women are defined in this context are limited to houses, villages and fields, and examples are always given for men in professions mentioned in the book. The woman is depicted in a limited space, and the works she has common responsibility with the man are housekeeping and childcare. "Father and mother take care of the administration of the house."

"When we are old enough to learn how to read and write, our mother and father take us to a school and register our names in the school notebook." Sometimes they make many sacrifices in order to buy your books and notebooks and send you to big schools.” Although such expressions are included in the textbook, the place and tasks reveal that the basic role of women is based on motherhood.

**Table 7: Women's role-characteristics-behavior and place table in the New Homeland Information (1929)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Tasks -Behaviours</th>
<th>Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Compassion, devotion</td>
<td>Nourish, grow</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Devoted</td>
<td>Feeding, working day and night</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother-Housewife</td>
<td>Ordering</td>
<td>Cleaning, growing, cooking</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peasant Woman-Wife-Mother</td>
<td>Peasant</td>
<td>Taking care of children, working in the field, helping her husband, bringing water, cooking, doing housework</td>
<td>Field, home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peasant Woman</td>
<td>Helper</td>
<td>Helping the village man with the work in the village.</td>
<td>Village-Field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housewife, Spouse, Urban</td>
<td>Clever, decent, educated, good housekeeping, frugal, Source of happiness</td>
<td>To please her man by managing the house properly</td>
<td>Home-Town</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The basic characteristics of a woman living in a limited space are taken from the textbook as compassionate, selfless, altruistic, helpful, orderly, peasant, townsperson, trained to make her home and husband happy. In places where there is an emphasis on peasant women; It is stated that the woman living in the village is a producer and working woman. In addition to taking care of children, the woman appears as the person who "helps" in the production phase:
“Peasant women do both household chores, take care of their children, and help their husbands by working in the fields ..... The peasants' fields are sometimes half an hour or an hour away from their homes. Women either take the lunch they have prepared to the field themselves or send it with small children. " (66); The peasant expects his life and happiness from the soil. Every morning he gets up before the sun rises and goes to his field. He does the work he will do according to the time and the season. Plowing, preparing the field, sowing seeds, hoeing some crops such as corn, broad beans, then harvesting and threshing, selling the remaining part after separating the seed and its own supplies; Making yoghurt, butter, cream and cheese whenever the time and opportunity are available... The villagers work every day from morning to night for all these works. In the villages, women and children often participate in this work " (82-83).

The textbook that presents villager and village women models includes the following expressions for the town (urban) woman:

"The need in the towns is more and diverse than the village. In order to meet these needs, men work outside; the woman arranges and manages her house. Woman; with her clever, beautiful management brings joy and happiness to the home ... A man who works from morning to night does not feel tired if he is satisfied with his life at home, he feels pleasure thinking that he is working for the happiness of his family. An educated woman knows how to make her home a home of happiness. Doesn't deceived in shopping; does not spend a lot of money; it does not allow the family members to fall into waste. " (103-104).

The woman in the town is a woman who lives in the "house", who makes every sacrifice for the happiness of her family, and who is also a "wife". The education and all kinds of characteristics (intelligence, frugality, good housekeeping) of the woman are for the happiness of the family. The woman here has not been shown in as many places as the peasant woman; The role of housewife living in town was given directly to the woman, and the woman was imprisoned in the house, and the roles of mother and wife were given to the woman due to her position in the house. The woman was left "alone" in the house in which she was depicted, and no one was shown acting with the woman. The peasant woman, on the other hand, was shown as a member of a collective consciousness and community acting together with all the men and children to be included in the concept of "peasant".

Table 8: Village and urban woman in the New Homeland Information (1929)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Town (Urban) Woman</th>
<th>Village Woman</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Place</td>
<td>Home</td>
<td>Home, Field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characteristics</td>
<td>Educated, intelligent, thrifty, altruistic, good housekeeping, shrewd, lonely</td>
<td>Hardworking, helpful, productive, strong, acting together</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roles</td>
<td>Mother, Wife</td>
<td>Mother, Wife, Producer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Man:

Offered roles for men in the textbook; father, spouse, farmer-villager, towner (head of the family).

The expressions used for the male in the father role are: ".... His father works outside to bring him what he needs." (21), "... how much we love our father, who goes to his job every day and always strives for us, to support us comfortably." (32), "The father earns the money he needs to meet the needs of the house. He goes to work every day. He works and spends the money from his bread for his house" (34).

The man who was given the role of "father" was assigned to work. The main reason for working is to meet the needs of the family. Man; also has the characteristics of working and producing in the roles of husband and family head, peasant man, village man.

Table 9: Male role-characteristics-behavior and place in New Homeland Information (1929)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Tasks - Behaviours</th>
<th>Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>Hardworking, meeting the needs</td>
<td>Working outside. To meet (the child’s) the necessary things.</td>
<td>Outside the house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>Self-sacrificing, Hardworking</td>
<td>Go to work every day.</td>
<td>Out of home-Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>Hardworking, Self-sacrificing</td>
<td>Making money, spending money for home</td>
<td>Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Husband</td>
<td>Villager, Producer</td>
<td>Working in field</td>
<td>Field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farmer-Peasant</td>
<td>Villager, Producer</td>
<td>Working in the field, blending, making crops</td>
<td>Village-Field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head of Family, Husband, Town man</td>
<td>Various business owners. Farmer, tailor, shoemaker, blacksmith, grocer, herbalist, draper, officer, teacher, doctor, engineer</td>
<td>Working on the job, making money</td>
<td>Town - out</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The place where the man is depicted is presented as "outside". Here, "outside" means "outside of the house." In this context, the place where the man belongs can be anywhere outside the house and the man is actually freed in terms of place. The places where men are depicted together in the textbook are: outside the house, work, field, village, town.

The expressions used for the villager male in the spatial distinction, which
provides the opportunity to distinguish between men as peasants and men from a town (urban), are as follows:

“The peasant expects his whole life and happiness from the soil. Every morning he gets up before the sun rises and goes to his field. He does the work he will do according to the time and the season. Plowing, preparing the field, sowing seeds, hoeing some crops such as corn, broad beans, then harvesting and threshing, selling the remaining part after separating the seed and its own supplies; Making yoghurt, butter, cream and cheese whenever the time and opportunity are available... The villagers work every day from morning to night for all these works. In the villages, women and children often participate in this work " (82-83).

Peasant men are spouses (husbands); works in the field, farms and produces. The descriptions for urban men working and earning money are as follows:

“There are more knowledgeable families in towns. Heads of family have all kinds of jobs. There are artisans such as farmers, tailors, shoemakers, blacksmiths, grocery stores, herbalists, and drafters, as well as civil servants, officers, teachers, doctors and engineers. The need in the towns is more and more diverse than the village. To meet these needs, the man works outside at his job ... A man who works from morning to night does not feel tired if he is satisfied with his life at home, he feels pleasure thinking that he is working for the happiness of his family. " (103-104), " .... to sum up, the duty of the man is to earn the money the family needs." (105).

The urban man is described as the "head of the family". Men who can do many professions have to earn money for their family.

Table 10: Urban and village men in the New Homeland Information (1929)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Town (Urban) Man</th>
<th>Village Man</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Roles</strong></td>
<td>Family head, husband</td>
<td>Husband</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Characteristics</strong></td>
<td>Head of the family, employee, earner,</td>
<td>Producer, worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Occupations</strong></td>
<td>Farmer, tailor, shoemaker, blacksmith, grocer, draper, officer, police, teacher, doctor, engineer.</td>
<td>Farmer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another result that can be deduced from the characterization of urban men and peasant men is that although urban men can do many professions, peasant men can only farm. This 1929 textbook also shows the idea that the peasant can only remain as a peasant contrary to the equality of opportunity brought by the values of the republic.

**Child:**

In the 1929 Homeland Knowledge textbook, it is possible to create the child's roles, characteristics, duties and place table in line with the expressions in the book:
Table 11: The child's role-characteristics-behavior and place in the New Homeland Information (1929)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Roles</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Tasks -Behaviours</th>
<th>Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Member of society</td>
<td>In need of protection, growing, developing, learning</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Community-street-house-steamboat-school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family member</td>
<td>Growing, loving and respecting parents and family members, Aware of what his parents are doing for him</td>
<td>Going to school, eating, working (studying?), Loving parents, working to make parents happy, loving siblings very much, loving family members</td>
<td>Home-school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Hardworking, aware of his responsibilities</td>
<td>Studying, passing class every year</td>
<td>School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peasant boy</td>
<td>Working from the age of 4-5, responsible,</td>
<td>Caring for chickens, being a shepherd, carrying water, carrying food to the field.</td>
<td>Village-field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peasant boy</td>
<td>Hardworking</td>
<td>Helping family in rural affairs</td>
<td>Village</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In line with the roles in the book, the child is presented as a community member, family member, student and peasant child. The main feature of the child who is a "member of society" in the textbook is the characteristics that come to mind when the word "child" is expressed:

"Now let's view the life of a newborn child until he grows up. As soon as a child is born, he finds himself in a beautiful house made by other people. The day he first came to the world, he was dressed in clothes sewn from cloths woven by other people. His mother feeds and raises him. His father works outside to bring him what he needs. The child thus begins to grow up; All the things he eats and wears have been prepared by other people. Days, months, years pass. The child grows up and goes out into the street. He walks through the beautifully appointed, clean, orderly streets. He gets on ferries and trams, lights are lit on the street in front of his house at night, if he is sick, he comes to see a doctor, goes to the school when he is six or seven, and learns many things from his teachers. That is to say, every day, every minute, he receives a favor and help from other people. All these things are the benefits that the community gives to him. " (20-22)

According to the above statements, the characteristics of the child can be listed as in need of protection, growing, developing, needing help to grow and develop, and learner depending on development and growth. In these statements, the child is...
The child, who is a member of the family, the smallest unit of the society, can easily see his duties in the family in this textbook:

"We spend an important part of our lives at home. We are born and grow there. When we start going to school, we return home in the evening, eat and work. We sit with our family, talk, and then go to bed ... Considering how much goodness we receive from our family and how difficult they have to sustain us and make us better, we realize that our duties towards the family are also a great debt. We have elders, mothers, fathers and siblings in our house. All of them are very dear to us ... How much we love our mother, who feeds us with her milk for months, works day and night so that we do not see the biggest pain in our life, our father, who always works for us and to support us comfortably. It is our primary duty to listen to all their words and try to bring about a little joy in the eyes that always look at us with fondness. Our brothers are also very dear to us. A little grief touches them, they always want to help us. If we are sick, they will not leave our bedside like our mother, they will please us with smiling faces and nice words. It is our debt to love them and to show respect to them. " (31-33)

The child, for whom how to live in the family is emphasized; should get along well with family members, be aware of all the sacrifices his parents have made for him, fulfill his duties, be loyal and obedient. In the child's portrait drawn as a family member, the values that should be in the child are loyalty, obedience and respect. In these expressions where the words family and home are intertwined, the house where the child lives, protected and spends most of his life is also his family. The house is actually the place where the family - family members are.

The places where the child is depicted are streets, houses, ferries, schools, fields and villages. It is possible to see the villager children living in the village and their characteristics in the places where the expression village child is used:

".... When the peasant children reach the age of four or five, they start doing light work such as taking care of chickens, grazing sheep and cows, bringing water from the fountain with small jugs and bakers. The peasants' fields are sometimes half an hour or an hour away from their homes. Women either take the lunch they have prepared to the field themselves or send it with small children. (66-67) "; "... Plowing the field, harnessing it, preparing it, hoeing some crops such as sowing seeds, corn and broad bean, then harvesting and threshing... For all these works, the villagers work every day from morning to evening. In the villages, women and children often participate in this work ... "(82-83)

While it is stated that the village child supports the parents in production from a young age, the child has changed from the need of protection from the age of four to five to the position of working, albeit lightly, to help production. There is no expression in the textbook about the urban child versus the village child.

"When we start going to school, we return home in the evening, eat and work. We sit, talk, and then go to bed with our family... "(31), ".... An important part of our life is our childhood; The sweetest time of our youth is in school. Schools are
very valuable places that teach us a lot of information and show us the ways to live comfortably. When we reach an age to learn to read and write, our mother and father take us to a school and register our names in the school notebook. Now we become students of that school. School is a community place. Just as our home is a community place where a family gathers, the school is a big family made up of children and teachers .... "(54-55), “... Then how much trouble your mother and father go to your education: your books, Sometimes they make many sacrifices to get your notebooks and send you to the big schools. A child who does not study and does not succeed in passing classes every year would not be able to do his duty against his mother and father ... "(59)

Instead of a small town (urban) child, the schoolboy spends the most important period of his life in the school. The child, who is aware of the sacrifices that his family has made to educate him, goes to school to learn new information and to live comfortably in the future. The only aim of the child is to pass his class by studying. Based on the children's table, the characteristics of the children are listed by creating a table of children who go to school instead of the urban child:

Table 12: Village and schoolboy in the New Homeland Information (1929)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Village Boy</th>
<th>Town (Urban) boy</th>
<th>School Boy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Village-Field</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>School</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characteristics</td>
<td>Helping production,</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>Hardworking, responsible, hardworking,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>producing, responsible, hardworking,</td>
<td>?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roles</td>
<td>Village boy</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>Student</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

New Homeland Information (1929) textbook presented the woman as a peasant and a village (urban) woman, depicting the only place of woman in the house, and using the female model only in the field as outside the house. Men are also represented in this book as "outside / (from) outside the house" and the work of the peasant and town (urban) man is included in the textbook as his main duty. In this textbook, comparison of village and town (urban) children is expected according to the fiction about the child depending on the place, but instead, the roles of village and school children appear. The separation of the child as a village and a school actually suggests that the low reading rates in the villages and the problems of school attendance of the village children are reflected in the fiction of the book when the textbook was prepared.

3. Homeland Information Lessons, 4th Year, 1940

Written by Tarik Emin Rona, the 4th grade textbook on Homeland Lessons was taught between 1939-1942. The examined book was printed in 1940. The roles of women, men and children can be clearly defined in the book.


**Woman:**

The main role assigned to women in the textbook is motherhood. It is possible to find the statements in the book that also make depictions of urban modern women:

*Table 13: Women's role-characteristics-behavior and place in the Homeland Information Lessons (1940)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Behaviours (Responsibilities)</th>
<th>Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Full of love and affection, altruistic</td>
<td>Feeding the child, raising</td>
<td>Family Hearth = home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Doing housework, cooking, washing clothes, sewing, cleaning</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Loving, native language tutor.</td>
<td>Singing lullabies</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woman Urban woman</td>
<td>Caring, modern woman, Educated woman</td>
<td>Doing housework, working in jobs such as civil servant, teacher.</td>
<td>Home/City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Warm</td>
<td>Raising children</td>
<td>Family Hearth = home</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the expressions in the book for "motherhood", which is the main role assigned to women, the general characteristics of the mother are love, affectionate, and altruistic:

"... The smallest human community is the family hearth. As soon as we open our eyes to the world, we see our mother in front of us. Our beloved mother will breastfeed us for months. Nights when we get sick or not sleep wait by our bedside until morning. She tries to comfort us and make us sleep. How much trouble will our mother, who gave birth to us, suffer until she grows up? (6) ","... Our mother does all the work of the house: she cooks our meals, washes our clothes, sews our rips, and does our cleaning. "(6-7), "... We love our mother who grew up in her warm embrace and our father who works for her nest. . Our family hearth is the warmest home that makes us forget our every worries. "(15)

The mother was identified with the family hearth and was expressed as the first person the child saw as soon as she was born. While expressing the difficulties that the mother suffered while raising her child, the affection and patience shown by the mother in doing these and the labor she gave were also expressed. The mother takes care of all the housework and raises her children in her caring embrace. A different feature of the mother is highlighted in the book:

"... The sweet lullabies that our mother sang when we were very young are still in our ears. How beautiful his words were like a water streaming, right? The language that embraces these beautiful words is Turkish, which is the language of
all of us. We, who live in the Turkish homeland, always talk and get along with this beautiful language. We always share our endless joy and deep mourning with this language. Oh, what a sweet, lovable language our Turkish is! .. "(13)

The mother who sings lullabies to the child when she is younger is also a mother language teacher. The child starts his mother tongue learning with the lullabies s/he heard from her/his mother. The loving mother was given the task of teaching as well as doing household chores and taking care of the child. Throughout the textbook, apart from the motherhood role, there is also the expression "urban woman":

“.... The woman takes care of all the internal affairs of the house: raising her children, cooking, cleaning, shopping at the market. In addition, many women in the cities work as civil servants, lawyers, doctors, judges and teachers like men. " (51)

Women mentioned above, may work as a civil servant, lawyer, doctor, judge and teacher etc. can do professions like men. Considering that this textbook was published in 1940, the character of an urban woman began to emerge alongside the woman who assumed the role of motherhood in the traditional female character, cared for and raised her child, and lived in the house. It is stated here that women can perform different professions in city life "like men", that is, on an equal basis with men. From this point of view, it can be thought that the types of women can be divided into urban and rural women.

Man:

The roles given to men in the 4th grade textbook of Lessons of Homeland, published in 1940, are listed as follows: father, grandfather, sibling, ancestors, head of family.

Table 14: Male role-characteristics-behavior and place in the Homeland Information Lessons (1940)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Behaviours</th>
<th>Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father, grandfather, brother</td>
<td>Devoted, who loves his homeland, protector of his homeland</td>
<td>To protect the homeland, to shed blood to protect it from the enemy, to gift the homeland of future generations</td>
<td>Homeland (Turkey)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elders, ancestors</td>
<td>That sustain the life of the next generation</td>
<td>Keeping the next generation alive</td>
<td>Homeland-village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>Devoted</td>
<td>Working for the child to grow up and be useful in the homeland, working day and night,</td>
<td>Work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>Wise, consulted</td>
<td>Giving advice</td>
<td>Family hearth-Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>Head of the family,</td>
<td>Managing the family,</td>
<td>Field - Work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Although the basic duty assigned to the man is seen as a father, it is actually the basic member of the male homeland defense. When it comes to homeland defense, it is men that come to mind.

".... Our elders who came before us lived for hundreds of years on this beautiful land, which has no equal on earth. My grandfathers, my father and my brothers gladly shed all their blood to win this land and protect it from enemies. This beautiful homeland that I love as much as my life is to me; it is the gift of the blood they spilled, the life they gave! ... "(2), "... My elders who died lovingly to keep me alive! Today, I live very comfortably on these lands, every strand of which is covered with your clean blood. I sit in my nest in my village and plow my field and breed my cattle in my emerald meadows. I remember how you fought with the enemies to bring me to this comfort as I return from the field in the evening and sing the song of my village by the water. " (3)

In the above statements, it is stated that their grandfathers, fathers and brothers shed their blood for their homeland. It states that the homeland is sacred to him. The child is aware of this and remembers his elders who shed blood in defense of their homeland. As it can be understood from the statements, the child who is a peasant says that his elders (the past) were sacrificed for his (future) survival.

Apart from the defense of the homeland, the main role of the man is "fatherhood". The primary duty of the man in the family, in the village or the city, was declared to be work. Here the father's most distinctive feature is that he is altruistic and works non-stop:

".... What about our father? Will he try hard until he makes us grow and benefit the country? He pours his sweat day and night, tirelessly, measurelessly. Even if he is hungry, he makes us feed the bite he earned. All his wish is to raise us comfortably, to raise us as a good son for the country. This is how our parents love us so much, they protect us more from their eyes. " (6) "... Our father is the head of our family. He brings home what he earned with his hard work in his field and work. " (6) ".... We love our mother, who we grew up in her warm embrace, and our father who works non-stop for his home. Our family hearth is the warmest home that makes us forget our every worries. " (15) ".... The head of the family hearths in the town is also the man of the house. By dealing with his job outside, he earns what his offspring needs to live on and brings them home. " (51)

While the men living in the village are farmers, the men living in the city do
different professions, which are listed in the textbook as tradesman, civil servant, doctor, lawyer, craftsman:

“... Although almost all of the families in the village are engaged in farming, there are fewer families in towns and cities who live on this business. The people around here deal more with jobs such as commerce, civil service, doctor, lawyer, and craftsmanship." (51)

The common feature of men living in the village and city is that they are the head of the family and work for their family. Male place is shown as "outside". By "outside" is meant outside the home, workplace or field.

**Child:**

It is possible to come across many descriptions about the child in the 4th grade textbook of the Lessons in Homeland, written by Tarık Emin Rona and taught between 1939-1943. The table of roles, characteristics, behaviors and places is created by examining the descriptions primarily about the family and then the child in the textbook, as follows:

*Table 15: The child's role-characteristics-behavior and place in the Homeland Information Lessons (1940)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Behaviours</th>
<th>Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homeland child</td>
<td>Who loves his homeland, the country's child</td>
<td>Loving his homeland very much</td>
<td>Homeland-Turkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homeland child</td>
<td>Does not forget, remembers the sacrifices of ancestors</td>
<td>Continuing life in the village, doing village work, not forgetting the sacrifices of their ancestors</td>
<td>Homeland-Village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homeland child, member of society, family member</td>
<td>Adaptable, capable of living together</td>
<td>Living together in the community</td>
<td>Home, school, homeland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family member</td>
<td>In need of nourishment and care</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Family hearth, home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family member</td>
<td>Loyal, loving his parents</td>
<td>Taking care of parents in their old age Pledge</td>
<td>Family-home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family member</td>
<td>Subservient</td>
<td>Talking sweetly to family members, listening to your father's advice</td>
<td>Family-home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family member, student</td>
<td>Working and helping production</td>
<td>Go to school, help thresh, herd graze</td>
<td>School, village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Employee, cooperating</td>
<td>Doing cooperative work, looking at the aid fund</td>
<td>Home-School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Responsible</td>
<td>Protecting school equipment, planting seedlings in the school garden, watering flowers, taking care of animals</td>
<td>School-schoolyard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turk child</td>
<td>Loving school, obeying school administrators</td>
<td>Loving your school like home, obeying the rules of the school administration</td>
<td>School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family member, student</td>
<td>Have great affection for family members and friends</td>
<td>Loving parents, siblings and friends very much</td>
<td>Home-school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homeland child</td>
<td>Loving all citizens</td>
<td>Loving all homeland people</td>
<td>Village-family-homeland-school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homeland child</td>
<td>Loving Turkish language very much</td>
<td>Speaking Turkish</td>
<td>Homeland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family member</td>
<td>Loving his family</td>
<td>Loving his parents very much</td>
<td>Family hearth-home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Loving his friends</td>
<td>Loving schoolmates</td>
<td>School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homeland child</td>
<td>Loving the Turkish homeland and nation very much</td>
<td>To love the Turkish homeland and nation more than their parents</td>
<td>Homeland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homeland child</td>
<td>Loving his homeland and nation very much</td>
<td>To love the Turkish homeland and nation more than their parents</td>
<td>Homeland-Turkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village boy</td>
<td>Keeping his environment clean</td>
<td>Keeping his house and village clean</td>
<td>Home-Village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village boy</td>
<td>Clean, keeping the environment clean</td>
<td>Doing own individual cleaning, keeping the village clean</td>
<td>Home-street-village</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 15 is examined, the child not only assumes the role of a family member, but also the roles of student, village child, homeland child, and Turkish child. A family member is a child in need of nourishment and shelter, loyal, loving his parents, and obeying the elders of the family:

“..... The smallest human community is a family home. As soon as we open our eyes to the world, we see our mother in front of us. Our beloved mother will breastfeed us for months. Nights when we get sick or not sleep wait by our bedside
until morning. She tries to comfort us and make us sleep. How much trouble will our mother, who gave birth to us, suffer until she grows up? "(6)" ..... We are devoted to them as well. It is our only wish to make them live well in their old age by embracing us. "(6)"... We live together under one roof as our parents and siblings. They call this community our family and our home the Family Hearth. How we like it to gather at our hearth in the evenings and talk sweetly and listen to our father's advice. "(6)" .... We little ones also go to school. During the holidays we help threshing, graze our herds along the stream, and water our animals. "(7)" .... We love our mother, father and brothers as much as we do. All the friends in our school; We are connected to each other with all our hearts. But are these the only ones that we love so dearly, that we are so devoted to? "(12)" .... We love our mother, who we grew up in her warm embrace, and our father who works non-stop for his home. Our family hearth is our warmest home that makes us forget our every worries"(15).

When the expressions are examined, it seems that the child in the family primarily needs protection and nutrition. This child knows very well the troubles that his family suffered while raising him, loves his family members, obeys the advice given by his father, goes to school, and helps family when the school is on holiday.

Family member child is also a student. At school, as well as at home, he works in line with the words of his teachers. The child, who protects school belongings and takes care of his school, also carries out various activities in the school yard:

"... There are many things to be accomplished in our school as well as at home. Just as we share the work of our house among the family, we do the work at school by sharing between us: Some friends pursue the cooperative business on the path of our teachers and some of us look after the aid box. "(10)" ... We consider the school our home and the school belongings our property. For this, many of us make sure that the school equipment is not broken or lost. In our free time, we plant saplings in the school garden. We water the flowers that we grow ourselves. What about our chickens? How much we like to look at them, if you know ... Those who pass by the school look at all this with envy. "(10)" ... Our friends with whom we read all day, play and grow together are also the dearest wives of our hearts. The school is like a mother's arms that makes us live together, makes us useful citizens, it is our souls. "(15)

The school is likened to the mother's arms and is described as a warm home that meets all the needs of the child like a mother. Here, children are raised as good citizens. Children take responsibility and fulfill their assigned duties at school.

This textbook contains information for the peasant boy. The topic of health and cleanliness in keeping the environment clean within emphasizes that the village is kept clean, like the houses of the village:

"... See, is there any garbage or one dirt among those houses? We keep our village clean like our own home, as we know that microbes that breed in dirty places make us sick. "(20)" ... Apart from cleaning our bodies, we also have to keep our village clean. Millions of microbes grow in the dirt and rubbish in our homes and streets. We breathe these into our lungs and therefore we can suffer from terrible
Another striking child role in the book is the "homeland child". Here the child is a member of the society in which he lives. The child lives in a Turkish homeland. This homeland is unique on earth. Those who live here love each other like siblings, they are all homeland children. The language they speak is Turkish. Homeland child knows the sacrifices his ancestors made for him. Remembers them gratefully. He can make sacrifices for his homeland just like his ancestors:

"... Our elders who came before us lived for hundreds of years on these beautiful lands that have no equal on earth. My grandfathers, my father and my brothers gladly shed all their blood to win this land and protect it from enemies. This beautiful homeland that I love as much as my life it is the gift of the blood they spilled, the life they gave! ... "(2) "... My elders who fondly died to keep me alive! Today, I live very comfortably on these lands, every strand of which has been covered with your clean blood. I sit in my nest in my village and plow my fields and breed my cattle in my emerald meadows. I remember how you fought with the enemies to bring me to this comfort as I returned from the field and sang the song of my village by the water. "(3) "... Look: You live together with your parents and siblings in your home. Many friends at school, you study together. Many family hearths like yours have gathered and established your village or city, and you live there collectively. If they leave you today in a cave at the top of the mountain, could you live alone? "(5) "... We have hundreds of family hearths and hundreds of neighbors in our village. Hundreds of thousands of homeland children are studying at thousands of schools in every corner of the homeland. Thousands of villages are established on our lush plains like ours. We all love each other as true children and siblings. "(12) "... The sweet lullabies that our mother sang when we were very young are still in our ears. Those words of his were like a streaming water, how beautiful flowed one by one, right? The language that embraces these beautiful words is Turkish, which is the language of all of us. We, who live in the Turkish homeland, always talk and get along with this beautiful language. We always share our endless joy and deep mourning with this language. Oh, what a sweet, lovable language, our Turkish is! the only being is our homeland. "(15) "... If we love our unique country and our unique nation more than our mother and soul, then is it not the place? This love, which is the highest of all the love and emotions in the world, is called the national feeling. Our hearts tremble as people say. We will gladly give our lives to protect him from the slightest danger. "(16)

The term "Turkish child" in the book also draws attention. The child promises here and loves his school as much as his family. In addition, he obeys the wishes of the school administration, just as he obeys his father's advice:

"... I am a Turkish child: My school is my beloved home as much as my family home. He loves him as much as my home, and I obey the wishes of the school administration like my father's advice. "(11)

The places where the child is animated are listed as home, village, school, school garden and homeland in the textbook. Based on the descriptions throughout the book, it is possible to talk about the villager and the child going to school.
However, there is no information about the urban boy. In addition, no examples such as boys or girls are given in the book. However, since the child can "sacrifice his life for the homeland" and the defense of the homeland is given to men as a task in the book, it is possible to see the child here as a boy.

4. Homeland Information Courses, Grade 4, 1948

Homeland Information Lessons 4th Grade textbook taught between 1943-1950 was written by Bedia Ermat and Kemal Ermat. The family is described in the book under the title "Family Home":

“.... When the school is off, we run to our house. Because our house is our home. Birds make nests; they live in a nest and raise their young. People’s nests are their houses. We have our mother, father and siblings in our house. Our mother and father raise, feed and raise us. We call this home where our mother, father and siblings gather "Family home". We love each other, take care of each other and help each other in the family home. We live as friends in good days and bad days. At home, we share our joys and share in each other's sorrows. " (2) “... If your mother gets sick, if your sister gets into an accident, the whole household will be upset and hurt. If a burglar breaks into our house, the whole household will always protect against it. When you pass your class, your whole family will rejoice and feast with you. When your father comes home with happy news, you will all be happy. The whole family shares the joy and grief of the family. Nation also means a family. Like the family members, the people of the nation are also interdependent. We are all happy with the kindness that will come to our nation. Like the joys and sorrows of the family, the nation is shared as well. " (14)

The existing members of the family are described in the book, and it is stated that the child goes home with all willingness when the school ends. It is said that family members love each other very much in the family, and they share joy and sorrow together. At the same time, "nation" is likened to "family" and it is stated that the individuals who make up the nation share the joy and sorrow together as well as in the family. The book also describes the "society" in which the child lives:

“... Let's take a look around: we are at school now. There are many big and small children here. These are the students of the school. Our male and female teachers are also with us every day. The school is a community of people. When the school is off, we are spread to our homes. There, our mother, father and siblings are waiting for us. We also call the community of people at home (Family). There is closeness and loyalty among families. Thus, larger populations of people than families are formed. The farm, village, factory town and city are a community of people. Large groups of people from these are called (Nation). Humanity is also the largest community that includes all people living on earth. " (1-2)

In the above statements, the authors of the book make definitions starting from the smallest unit of the society. First, the definition of "family" was made, then it was explained that the community in the school was also a group, and "nation" was expressed as the largest human community. However, in the continuation of this fiction, although the nationality of the reader (student) of the book is expected, it is explained on the eighth page of this textbook.
Woman:

In the 4th Grade Homeland Information Courses (1948) textbook, the main role of women was again "mother". Apart from that, the roles of teacher, village girl, young girl, village woman, urban woman and grandmother were also included in the book. In this textbook, women's roles, characteristics, expected behaviors and spatial features are as follows:

Table 16: Women's role-characteristics-behavior and place in Homeland Information Courses (1948)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Behaviours</th>
<th>Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>A member of the school community</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>A member of the family community</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Nourishing, growing</td>
<td>Feeding / raising the child,</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Self-sacrificing, toiling, collecting</td>
<td>Raising children as good sons for the country</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Loving, affectionate, altruistic,</td>
<td>Raising a child, looking after the child when he is sick,</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Hardworking-productive</td>
<td>Extracting bulgur stone</td>
<td>Village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grandmother</td>
<td>Hardworking-productive</td>
<td>Twisting rope</td>
<td>Village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young girl</td>
<td>Hardworking-productive</td>
<td>Weaving cloth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Caring, nurturing, helper</td>
<td>Taking care of the children, cooking, keeping the house clean and tidy, helping her husband</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girl child</td>
<td>Helpful, productive, caregiver,</td>
<td>Milking, cooking, looking after siblings, sewing, knitting socks</td>
<td>Home - Village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Villager woman</td>
<td>Cleaner</td>
<td>Wash the clothes</td>
<td>Village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban woman</td>
<td>Hardworking, productive, professional</td>
<td>Working in different professions and earning a living.</td>
<td>City - Home</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The woman in the mother role is one of the family members. The only aim of the mother and father, who works for their children and who "toil" for them, is to raise their children as a good child. Aware of what her mother has done for her, the child promises to her mother. Mothers living in the Turkish homeland are good. The mother who cares for her child, cooks, sews, and cleans at home also helps her man:
“.... When the school is off, we are dispersed to our homes. There, our mother, father and siblings are waiting for us. We also call the community of people at home (Family). " (1), “.. We have our mother, father and siblings in our house. Our mother and father raise, feed and raise us. We call this home where our mother, father and siblings gather "Family home". We love each other, take care of each other and help each other in the family home. We live as friends in good days and bad days. At home, we share our joys and share in each other's sorrows. " (2), “.... we gather around our mother, who struggles from morning to night to raise us. Our mother and father always work for us. Our parents strive to raise us as a good and good person in the country ... We are very happy when we help our parents. " (3), “... my dear mother! Did you try hard to breastfeed me, to raise me, to make a man? When I was sick, she would never sleep in her eyes. You wouldn't take your loving eyes off me. How many times at night would you wake up and cover it so that my quilt would not open and fall off, and my sleep would not be disturbed. My mom! I cannot pay your right .. ”(3),” ... There are well-built people, robust children, good mothers and clean-hearted fathers in the Turkish homeland. (8), “... Mothers: He takes care of the children at home. He grows them, trains them, manages them. He prepares the food and clothing for the house. Cleans and tidy the house. He rushes to help his man. " (21), “... In the village, the mothers sort the stones of the bulghur under the hanging gazebo, the grandmothers spin yarn on the spinning wheel, young girls weave cloth on the loom. (20)

In this textbook, where the division of labor of the woman in the role of a mother is clearly separated, the mother also extracts bulghur under the hanging arbor. Apart from this mother living in the village, other women have also been divided into jobs. According to this, while grandmothers make ropes, young girls weave these threads. The women introduced here are the profiles of women who work and contribute to production. There is also a description in the book as a girl. This girl lives in the village and has various village jobs:

“... Girls milk cows just like their mothers. They cook food for their parents who work in the field. They take care of their younger siblings who stay at home, make them sleep, feed them. They sew and knit socks. ” (21).

Since the book, as its main feature, clearly express the division of labor for these girls, the title of woman is also given to girl. According to the description in the book, this girl who tries to do all the work her mother does according to her ability and age works just like an "adult woman".

Apart from the mother role, it is possible to see the profiles of village and urban women in the textbook. Although the textbook, which gives village women the task of washing clothes, states that the primary duty of the urban woman is to work at home, in addition to this statement, it also states that professions such as teacher, engineer, lawyer, doctor can be performed by women, but as it can be understood from the statement, these women work due to obligations and according to the conditions:

“.... Here the village women wash their clothes. Village laundry is open to everyone. Laundry is kept ready on certain days of the week. This is a clean place.
Every woman easily washes her clothes." (22), "...Everyone has a separate job in family life in towns and cities. The father works outside, the mother in the house. Children help their mothers and fathers outside of school hours. Not all city and town women do housework. Some of them work as a worker, salesman, clerk, lawyer, doctor, teacher, engineer just like men; they earn their lives on their own, taking care of their homes, their children, and the poor in their families." (44)

Based on the above statements, the comparison of village and urban women is as follows:

**Table 17: Village and urban woman in Homeland Information Courses (1948)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Village Woman</th>
<th>Urban Woman</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Home, pergola</td>
<td>School, hospital, court, public building, home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characteristics</td>
<td>Nurturing, growing, producing, helping, clean, altruistic, toiling, tidying up</td>
<td>Feeding, growing, hardworking, producing, doing different professions,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statements about women being able to teach are mentioned in the first pages of the book:

"...Let's take a look around: we are at school now. There are many big and small children here. These are the students of the school. Our male and female teachers are also with us every day. School is a community of people." (1-2)

While introducing the reader (student) to his environment, witnesses in his immediate surroundings were shown and the teachers at the school were expressed as male and female teachers. For the first time in all the homeland books examined, the teaching profession was expressed as "male and female teachers".

The book mentions women in many places such as house, field, under gazebo, village, town, city and school. This is important in terms of presenting the woman to the reader (student) in places other than home, even if it is limited.

**Man:**

In the 4th grade Homeland Knowledge Lessons textbook, there are expressions of roles, characteristics, behaviors and places that clearly separate the basic work divisions in men as well as in women:

The primary role that the book attributes to men is "fatherhood". The father, who is a member of the family, comes home tired at nightfall and works to raise his children as beneficial individuals for the country. The father, a member of the Turkish homeland, is a pure-hearted person. Aware of these sacrifices of the father, who works outside from morning to night and works for his family, the child takes his father as a role model and dreams of becoming someone like him in the future.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Behaviours</th>
<th>Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>A member of the school community</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>Member of the family community</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>Caretaker and nurturer</td>
<td>Taking care of children, raising them</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>Employee, altruistic</td>
<td>Working all day, raising children as a good person to the country</td>
<td>Work-home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>Self-sacrificing, hardworking, good person</td>
<td>Working for their children, enduring difficulties</td>
<td>Outside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>Clear hearted</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Turkish homeland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boy</td>
<td>Hardworking, responsible</td>
<td>Taking care of the animals</td>
<td>Village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Villager man</td>
<td>Hardworking, producing</td>
<td>Working in field</td>
<td>Village-field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>Head of the family, productive, hardworking, strong, protective, warrior</td>
<td>To earn a living for his family, to deal with land work, to protect the country</td>
<td>Village-homeland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Villager boy</td>
<td>Productive, hardworking, responsible</td>
<td>Working in the field, helping parents, waiting for threshing, taking care of animals</td>
<td>Village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban man</td>
<td>Urban father, hardworking</td>
<td>Working</td>
<td>Town-outside of city</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“*When the school is off, we are dispersed to our homes. There, our mother, father and siblings are waiting for us.* " (2), “*... We have our mother, father and siblings in our house. Our mother and father raise, feed and raise us. We call this home where our mother, father and siblings gather "Family home". "* (2), “*... In the evening, we gather around our mother, who worked all day and came back tired and tired, to raise us from morning to evening. Our mother and father always work for us. Our parents strive to raise us as a good and good person in the country ..... We are very happy when we help our parents. How happy are those who live in this home full of love! "* (3), “*... dear daddy! You also worked a lot to raise me and make me a beneficial person for the country. Outside, you worked with your sweat from*”
morning to night. You brought us all your profits. I know what difficulties he went through to feed us, to raise us. I will try to be a good person like you." (3), "... There are well-built people, robust children, good mothers and clean-hearted fathers in the Turkish homeland." (8), "... Fathers both take care of their families and deal with land works. Your father's job is very heavy. The first duty of the father is to settle the family's livelihood and keep the family alive. Not that much alone; In their turn, fathers go to war to protect the country and fight valiantly." (21), "... Everyone has a separate job in family life in towns and cities. The father works outside, mother in the house." (44)

The primary task of the father role presented in the book is to provide for the family and to meet their needs. However, when the time came, the duty of defense of the homeland was also given to the father. We can even say that this duty of homeland defense is given to the village men, based on the expressions. It is possible to see the roles of village and urban men in this textbook:

"... Men work in the field under the blazing sun." (20), "... Everyone has a separate job in family life in towns and cities. The father works outside, mother in the house." (44)

Looking at the above statements, the distinction between village men and urban men is actually made over professions. The profession that the peasant man will do is farming. However, men living in the city can do one of different professions. Here, the authors of the book used the expression "outside" for the urban man, while pointing to "field" as the working place for the villager man instead of mentioning these professions.

Teaching is given as an example of the profession men do. The expression used in the book takes place as "male and female teachers". (1-2) Based on the clear distinction between male and female roles in the book, the role of the boy is also included in the content:

"... The boys of the village wash the foal's mane and their feet by the water. The little ones also graze the lambs." (20), "... Children in the village are helpers of their fathers and mothers. Boys start working when they are only five or six years old. Village children are the ornament of the village house. It is these robust puppies that ring and cheer the village houses. Older people deal with more difficult tasks; They work in the fields and threshing floors, bringing food to their mothers and fathers. They help carry a handle. In the summer nights, they are buried in the stems and wait for the threshing and take the animals to water." (21)

These boys living in the village do village work just like adult village men. In these sentences where the expression "robust" is used as the physical characteristic of village children, these children are described as the ornament of the village house.

Child:

In this textbook, the primary role of the child is to be a family member. The table about the roles of the child in the book is as follows:
Table 19: The child's role-characteristics-behavior and place table in the Homeland Information Courses (1948)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Behaviours</th>
<th>Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Member of the school community</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family member, child</td>
<td>Member of the family community</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family member</td>
<td>In need of nutrition and care,</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family member</td>
<td>In need of nutrition and care,</td>
<td>Loving parents, trying not to upset parents, helping parents, remembering what parents did when they grow up, looking after them</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girl child</td>
<td>Helpful, productive, caregiver,</td>
<td>Milking, cooking, looking after siblings, sewing, knitting socks</td>
<td>Home - Village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young girl</td>
<td>Hardworking-productive</td>
<td>Weaving cloth</td>
<td>Village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peasant boy</td>
<td>Hardworking, responsible</td>
<td>Taking care of the animals</td>
<td>Village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peasant boy</td>
<td>Productive, hardworking, responsible</td>
<td>Working in the field, helping parents, waiting for threshing, taking care of animals</td>
<td>Village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City boy</td>
<td>Helping parents</td>
<td>Helping parents outside of school hours</td>
<td>City</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The child, emphasized as a family member in the book, is presented as in need of nourishment and care. After school ends, the child who comes home is aware of what his parents are doing for him at home and works to make them happy:

"... When the school is off, we are dispersed to our homes. There, our mother, father and siblings are waiting for us. We also call the community of people at home (Family). " (1-2), "... We have our mothers, fathers and siblings in our house .... We love each other, look after each other, help each other in the family home. We live as friends in good days and bad days. At home, we share our joys and share in each other's sorrows. " (2), ".... We love and count them (parents) very much. When we think about what they endure for us, we like them more. We try not to upset them. We are very happy when we help our parents. How happy are those who live in this loving home! When we grow up and have a workforce, we will not hesitate to live humanely like our mother; then we will not forget our parents. We will do our best to keep these good people who once worked for us, raised us and made us a man, in their old age. We will never forget this assignment, which is honorable for us. " (3), "... There are well-built people, robust children, good mothers and clean-hearted
fathers in the Turkish homeland." (8)

The children who take care of their mothers and fathers when they grow up state that they will work like their mothers and fathers and set up a home like them. The children of the Turkish homeland are robust (healthy).

In the textbook, the work distribution of the village children who were described as “village house ornament” (21) was made according to their gender. According to this, girls like adult peasant women do things for women, milk, cook, care for their younger siblings, sew and knit (21). Boys, on the other hand, work in the field and in the harvest and look after animals (21). Based on the book, it is possible to give the characteristics of village and city children:

Table 20: Village and urban child in Homeland Information Courses (1948)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Village Child</th>
<th>Urban Child</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Place</td>
<td>Village, field, harvest, house</td>
<td>City and town, school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characteristics</td>
<td>Robust, hardworking, productive, taking responsibility at an early age, helping his family, &quot;little adult&quot;</td>
<td>Student helping his family</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The information given in the textbook for the urban child is that he goes to school and helps his parents outside of school hours (44). Another statement about studentship is the statements on the first pages of the book:

"... Let's take a look around: we are at school now. There are many big and small children here. These are the students of the school." (1-2)

In the fiction of the book, the peasant child was mostly focused on, and the content of the book was created as if his life was told. This textbook, which clearly divides the child into "girl child" and "boy" depending on gender, presented gender roles to the reader (student) quite sharply compared to other books.

5. Homeland Information, Grade 5, 1927

The Homeland Information textbook written by Muallim Abdülbaki (Gölpınarlı) was taught for the fifth graders of primary school between 1927-1930. The textbook consists of different stories, poems and information on the old-new comparison. Sometimes the child is made to speak himself, and sometimes third-person narrator language is used.

There are no roles such as family, mother and father in the book. However, under the heading "Institutions Enlightening Our People: Press, Newspapers, Magazines, Books", Cevat and his father had conversations at home about the benefits of newspapers (154-158). Cevat, the protagonist of the story, learns from his father the importance of daily newspaper reading. In this story, where the relationship between father and son is exhibited, Cevat's father's characteristics are listed as follows: Urban male, literate, giving importance to newspaper reading, having the ability to communicate with his child.
Child:

The book, which fictionalizes the child in different ways in the textbook, displays a child fiction outside the family. The child roles presented in the book are as follows:

*Table 21: The child's role-characteristics-behavior and place in the Homeland Information (1927)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Behaviours</th>
<th>Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Turk</td>
<td>Turkish, lives in Turkey, talks Turkish, patriotic, protective</td>
<td>lives in Turkey, Turkish speaking, protects the country if enemy attacks</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turk</td>
<td>Nation lover, patriot, proud to be Turkish, self-sacrificing</td>
<td>To give his life for his country, to love his nation, to be proud of his nation</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turk</td>
<td>Free, law-abiding</td>
<td>To obey the law</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soldier boy / Student</td>
<td>Warrior, prepared for the enemy</td>
<td>Being prepared for country defense</td>
<td>School/High School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Submissive</td>
<td>Complying with the rules of the school administration</td>
<td>School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little and forlorn boy</td>
<td>In need of protection and care</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Child Protection Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Healthy</td>
<td>Engaged in sports</td>
<td>School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkish boy</td>
<td>Civilized, good manners, clean, hard-working, thoughtful, kind-hearted, honorable, gentle, decent, respectful, superstitious, republican, working for his nation, self-confident</td>
<td>To obey the rules, to keep your clothes clean, not to spit on the streets, to respect and obey your elders, to respect and obey their elders, not to drink and smoke, to do sports, to salute women, to respect women, to behave in good manners, to include in public transport, not to believe in superstitions, To work to rise your nation</td>
<td>Home, school, street, classroom, tram, train, ferry</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be understood from the table, the primary identity of the child, his "Turkishness", stands out in this book. We are living in Turkey and Turkish-speaking children don’t hesitate to give their lives for the country and love their nation very much:

".... I am Turkish, my homeland is the land where Turks live. Diyarbakır, Van, Erzurum and Kars are my homeland just as Ankara, İstanbul, İzmir are my
homeland. Because Turks live there too, Turkish is spoken; With the interests of my brothers there, my interests are one, our feelings are one, our desires are one ... If an enemy attacked there, I would stretch my chest to the enemy with them. If an enemy attacks my country, they stretch their breasts along with me. " (12) "..... Now my state" Republic of Turkey ", my homeland country to be governed by the laws of the republic," Turkey ". I love my nation very much. When I say "I'm a Turk" my head rises and my chest swells. I do not hesitate to lose my life for my state. " (13), "..... I am a Turk, my thought and action are free. After obeying the laws of the state, nobody can say anything to me. I travel as I want, have fun and live as I want. All of the individuals living in Turkey is free like me. But this freedom is because my nation has a free state. Although the Republic of Turkey, I would find this freedom. Individuals of nations that do not have a free, independent state cannot be free either. " (21)

The child who is proud of his Turkishness is free. It obeys the laws of the state. Obeying the law is the first condition of his freedom. Immediately after being Turkish, the qualities of the Turkish child are listed under the title of "Conclusion" in the last pages of the book:

"... Turkish children are civilized. It obeys the rules of civilization, his dress is clean. He does not greet his guests at home with an entari like a robe. When he is not wearing his school uniform, he does not go out without tying his neck tie. Her hair is always combed, her nails are clean. The Turkish child does not spit on the streets, does not throw anything, keeps his classroom clean. Turkish child is obedient. He respects his mother, father, teachers and elders, loves them, and does not go out of his words. Turkish children are hardworking, thoughtful, kindhearted. He does not do evil, he does not suit bad people. He does not drink, smoke, likes physical education. He prepares for great sports and to protect his homeland. Turkish children does not let his enemies break their honor. He is kind, does not insult anyone. He greets his teachers and friends by taking off his hat. It shows respect to women. Turkish child is well-mannered. It does not disturb anyone in crowded places. He becomes a battalion when you buy a ticket, take the tram, leave the classroom. He stands behind anyone who came before him. He does not push it. He waits for his turn. He leaves its place in the trams, trains, and ferries to women and elders. When he walks the road with a lady or someone older than him, he takes her to his right. It doesn't go anywhere uninvited. It preserves its seasoning in meals. The Turkish child is free-minded. He does not believe in superstitions. He is not afraid of jinn and witches. He laughs at amulets and murmurs. His auxiliary skills are; his idea, his strength, his power. The Turkish boy is a republican. He loves his homeland, depends on his nation. He does not give up on anything. The Turkish child is sworn to raise his nation and to dominate the future. He trusts his strength " (188-190).

Based on the above statements, it is possible to list the characteristics of the Turkish child as civilized, good mannered, clean, hardworking, thoughtful, kindhearted, honorable, gentle, decent, respectful, non-superstitious, republican, working for his nation, self-confident, and unwavering in the face of difficulties. The
behaviors expected from a child with these qualities are to obey the rules, to keep his
clothes clean, not to spit on the streets, to keep his surroundings clean, to respect and
obey his elders, not to drink and smoke, to play sports, to salute, to respect women,
to behave with good manners, to leave seats in public transportation, not to believe
in superstitions, to work for the promotion of your nation.

The child also appears in the role of a student in the table. It is stated that it is
necessary to be trained in order to protect the homeland, so it is stated that military
training are made in high schools.

".... Preparation for military service starts in high schools even before that. The
student receives military training at school. If we pay attention to these, when there
is a war, we will face the enemy, ready for military service, knowing the exercises
and orders. (102)

The student also obeys the rules of the school administration and engages in
sports:

"... Our principals and teachers lead us in our school. The greatest
administrator at home is our father, then our mother. People everywhere have
chosen men like this to manage themselves. ” (107), “... It is necessary to make
breathing movements after the lessons, to pull the pure air into their lungs strongly
and throw the dirty air. Especially, this movement should be done before meals.
These are the duties that every child is obliged to do both for his own life, for his
nation and homeland. Children who will become athletes should never play ball with
their feet until the age of eighteen. Football and other ball games with feet make kids
skinny, with crooked legs. It injures their hearts, lungs, and cracks their groin.”
(186)

It was emphasized that the child should do breathing exercises after lessons,
both for himself and his nation; Children who will become athletes are required not
to play football and similar sports until the age of eighteen.

Small and orphan children were also mentioned in the book, and it was
explained that they were cared for by the Child Protection Agency (128-129).

6. Homeland Information, Grade 5, 1930

The Homeland Information textbook written by Ali Seydi for 5th graders was
taught between 1928-1930. The roles of mother, father and child are not clearly
presented in the book which is written in the language of “us”. Based on the content,
the only role related to the child is that he is "Turk":

".... We belong to the noble "Turkish" nation and are subject to the glorious
"Turkish" state. The oldest and most famous nation in the world, the "Turks"; They
are very intelligent, very hardworking, very brave and generous, very clean-hearted,
very loyal, very honest. We are proud to be a member of such a nation. The Turks;
not only in military service, not only in battlefields; they have also demonstrated and
continue to demonstrate great ability in administrative and government affairs. "
(11-12), ".... our state has taken every precaution to protect our dear country, Turkey
and the Turks who lived here to recover from the evil and the rape of the enemy, and
the Turk is ready for shedding his blood in order to maintain and defend our
homeland. Because we grew up in this homeland where we were born. The graves
of our ancestors and grandfathers are in this land. Every inch of land of our country; washed with the blood of our grandfathers. Therefore, our country Turkey is very dear and very holy to us. No Turk is willing to let any enemy step there." (13)

The above statements indicate the characteristics of the Turkish nation to which the child belongs. It was stated that the Turks were very intelligent, hardworking, brave, generous, pure-hearted and honest, and they were proud to belong to such a nation. Turks who are ready to sacrifice their lives to protect Turkey and recover the lands are sacred.

7. Homeland Information, Grade 5, 1933

In this book prepared by the Ministry of Education, there are no expressions defining the concept of family and related roles and characteristics. Throughout the book, in fact, information is given to the reader (student) in areas such as government, state institutions and administration. Even though the term “child” is used in some places, these expressions do not provide information about the characteristics or duties of the child.

8. Homeland Information Lessons, Grade 5, 1939

Written by Tarık Emin Rona, the Homeland Information Lessons was taught between 1939-1942. The headings created according to the concepts using the expressions of women, men, children and family are listed as home / family center, mother-father and child:

House / Family Hearth are intertwined concepts in the textbook. The statements in the book are:

"... When we return to our house in the evening and close our door, we can spend the whole night in a comfortable sleep and without fear, right? Nobody can harm us. Nobody can lend a hand to our lives, our honor and our property... "(28), "... No matter how comfortable we are in our family home, we look for ways to talk to our neighbors and get along with them sweetly, right? The better we get along with them, the more we mingle with each other, the better and joyful our life will be... "(66)

With the "we" language used; the content is presented as if the child's own world is described. House, in the above statements, is a safe and child-protecting place. Gate, became a border with the outside world and provides peace and security when the doors were closed. The family hearth is also expressed as being intertwined with the house; it is used to mean the place where there is comfort.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Home</td>
<td>Safe, protective, comfortable place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Hearth</td>
<td>Relaxed and peaceful place</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Woman and Man:**

The roles of men and women are not presented separately in the coursebook of the Homeland Information Lessons, but only the roles of mother and father are included in the textbook:

"... Children! Until they bring you to this school age, you know what difficulties and difficulties your parents have gone through, right? You also have some debts against them who do their best to raise and grow you. It is your duty to obey their advice for your goodness, to take care of them in their old age and to protect them from every evil... "(30), "... we must have some such debts against. " (30)

In expressions, men and women are side by side in the roles of mother and father. It has been stated that the mother and father raised their children (that is, the reader addressed by the book) by making sacrifices and enduring all difficulties. In addition, it was emphasized that the mother and father who show compassion and embrace are similar to the state and that they are strong like the state. In addition, this connection with the state also makes us think about the concepts of mother, father and authority.

**Table 23: Parental roles-characteristics-behavior in the Homeland Information Lessons (1939)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Roles</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother- Father</td>
<td>Enduring hardships for their children, devoted</td>
<td>To send children to school, to do whatever they can to raise children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother- Father</td>
<td>Loving their children, strong like the state, authoritarian and gathering</td>
<td>To show affection, to embrace with love, to protect, (By comparing the state, there is an emphasis that parents are the authorities)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Child:**

The roles of the child in the family are also included in the coursebook of Homeland Information Lessons. Obedience is what is expected of the child in this book:

"Children! Until they bring you to this school age, you know what difficulties and difficulties your parents have gone through, right? You also have some debts against them who do their best to raise and grow you. It is your duty to obey their counsel for your goodness, take care of them in their old age, and protect them from all evil. "30

Based on the statement, the duties expected from the child in the family are also listed. Accordingly, the child should know what his parents have done for him. Aware of all the sacrifices that parents have made for the child's own development; as a result of his gratitude to them, he will take care of them and protect them when he is old.
9. Homeland Information Courses, Grade 5, 1949

The 1949 edition of 5th Grade Homeland Information Courses were written by Bedia Ermat and Kemal Ermat and were taught as a textbook between 1943-1949. The house where the child lives is presented as a “safe” place in the textbook during the examination of the roles of women, men and children. This safe place is guaranteed by law and protected by these laws:

“.... We sleep well in our house: we have no fear of thieves. We roam freely in the countryside; we have no fear of thugs. Nor do we worry that anyone will do us harm. (29), .... Everyone owns their own house. Nobody can enter our house and nobody can be searched except for the procedures and conditions determined by law. (31) ..”

In the textbook, the duties of the mother and father are sometimes given jointly and sometimes separately:

Table 24: Parent's role-characteristics-behavior and place in Homeland Information Courses (1949)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Behaviours</th>
<th>Place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>Turk, hardworking, winner with the sweat of his forehead</td>
<td>Works for own and family needs</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Taking responsibility for the education of the child</td>
<td>Sending the kids to school</td>
<td>School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>Hardworking, not greedy, traditionalist obedient</td>
<td>Working in the garden, accepting what happened</td>
<td>Field, garden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>Do what his children want</td>
<td>Meeting the wishes of the children</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 24 is analyzed, it is seen that father and mother-father roles are presented; it seems that the mother is not presented as a separate role. The common duty of the parents is to send the child to school: "Every parent is obliged to send their children to primary school." (62)

It is mentioned in the statement that the child must be sent to school. In this case, we understand that one of the common duties of parents is to "send the child to school". In addition, the responsibility for sending the child to school was made equal for the mother (female) and father (male).

The first of the expressions in the roles in which the man is presented as the "father" is as follows: “... Every Turk needs many things for himself and his family. He gets them by earning them, and these goods earned by sweat and labor belong to his owner.” (32)
A generalization is made by using the word "every Turk" in this sentence. It is understood that expressions such as himself and his family, earning, and sweat used in the sentence are used for “father”, although the term “father” is not mentioned in this expression, which is included in the subtitle of “the power of possessing property” within the subject of “masculinity”. This father is also a person who works, sheds sweat and labor.

“... Everyone worked in his fields and gardens as he saw from his father, but could not see the success of this work. When a disease came to their trees, crops, and animals, they would say, "It came from Allah, what shall we do?" (70)

These expressions in the course of the "Ministry of Agriculture" in the textbook, compares the agricultural activities of the old period (Ottoman period) and the new period, it is mentioned that the farmers were engaged in traditional agriculture as they saw their fathers before. The father figure used in the expression actually evokes the old concepts, representing tradition:

Father \( \Rightarrow \) old, tradition

“... Your father promises you to buy a radio. You spend that day joyfully. Because from now on, you will listen to good words, hear beautiful voices, and receive curious news at the beginning of your radio. In the evening, you meet your father at the door, ask about the radio. He replies: ‘He has not left customs yet; so I couldn't get it tonight. It'll be out in three days, then I'll be able to buy it. ’” (76)

While explaining the subject of "Ministry of Customs", the concept of customs was tried to be explained to the child by giving examples from his own life. He says that the radio, the father promised to buy the child, based on the relationship between the child and the father, was stuck at the customs. The father model here is shown as a person who has the power to give something to the child, who engages in dialogue with the child, works according to what he comes from outside, is strong, and communicates with his child, albeit on a promised scale.

**Child:**

In the textbook, where there are no clear role descriptions about the child, it is mentioned that the child who is a "family member" lives peacefully in his home:

“... We sleep comfortably in our house; we have no fear of thieves. We roam freely in the countryside; we have no fear of thugs. We have no worries that anyone will do us harm." (25)

The place where the child in need of protection will be safe is presented to the reader (student) as his home.

Home \( \rightarrow \) a place that inspires and protects

**CONCLUSION**

It is seen in the analyzed textbooks that, the textbooks prepared for the 3rd and 4th grades deal with the "family" issue as a separate title. The 3rd grade textbook is a book on the life of the peasant child and reveals the roles of women, men and children. For the first time in this book, the toy was focused on and the word toy was not found in other books other than this book.

In the 4th grade textbooks, models such as family, mother, father, children,
urban and rural men and women are given with detailed features. Basically, the woman was kept at home, the man was met with the notion of being out. With the textbook written by Tarık Emin Rona, expressions such as “homeland child, Turkish child” appeared. The exact division of labor between genders takes place in the Homeland Information Courses textbook written by Bedia Ermat-Kemal Ermat. So much so that in the textbook, even "boy" and "girl" distinctions are made. In this book, women were also taken out of the house and practiced different professions.

When we look generally in the textbooks prepared for 5th graders, it is seen that information about the state, state institutions, laws, rights and duties are presented. Nevertheless, the qualities of the "Turkish child" are listed in the books of the late 1920s. Here, no information was given about the gender of the child, it was presented as a genderless child.

In the textbooks examined in the study, it is seen that the values brought by the new system are added according to time. The general dominance in the textbooks is that there is not much difference in the structure of thinking about women, depicting women at home rather than social life, and the motherhood role coming to mind when women are mentioned. It is seen in the textbook of the 4th grade Homeland Information Courses that has been taught since 1943 that it has made urban women into women doing different professions by detaching them from their homes. The emphasis on peasant women is striking in all the books examined. The peasant woman is both at home and in the field. On the one hand, it fulfills all the duties traditionally assigned to women, on the other hand, it contributes to production by working in the field.

Despite the emphasis on the motherhood feature of women, it is not possible to see the relationship between mother and child in the books. Unfortunately, it is not possible to find information about how the mother speaks to her children and what she talks to her. The woman continues to live as an altruistic, loving, affectionate, domestic person.

In all the books examined, the man is a person who works for his family, makes effort and sacrifices. The father, who is the head of the family, does not only sacrifice for his family. At the same time, he makes sacrifices for his homeland. In addition to being the father / head of the family, the man who has duties in the defense of the homeland. This draws attention with his emphasis on the urban and peasant men, as well. He is the head of the family in both places, but the urban man can also do different professions.

The people who communicate with the child in the books are fathers. Here, a contradiction arises in the fiction of the books. In the books included in the study, mothers are presented / depicted with characteristics such as loving, affectionate and warm. In this case, the child is expected to communicate with the mother, ask questions and learn something from the mother. But it is the fathers who communicate with the child in the books. It is the fathers or men who give information to the child. The fact that father and child dialogues are father-son dialogues does not give the woman the opportunity to talk to the child here.

Looking at the roles and behaviors children will learn in relation to the
textbooks in the Homeland Studies textbooks between 1923-1950, and according to the roles of the depicted children, it was thought that the readers of these textbooks (students) were male. Although it is possible to see the characteristics of peasant and urban children, the general structure in the analyzed books are based on the peasant child. In addition to the characteristics of a child in need of care, growing and learning, the idea of a game or toy that comes to mind when it comes to children is only available in the 1934 New Homeland Information textbook.

Peasant children are almost little adults who were thrown early in life. The child helping his family also contributes to production. The people he communicates with are his father or teacher. In addition to being a village child, we see the roles of "homeland child" and "Turkish child" in the textbook of the Homeland Information Lessons (1939). The general structure of the book is that there is a collective consciousness and accordingly there is a consciousness to act together with the feeling of "us", not individual. It is seen that the roles of women, men and children presented in the books, the changes brought by the Republic were gradually presented, and the feeling of "us" was emphasized more in the textbooks after 1940. The child is depicted in all kinds of places. All the actors around him were presented and introduced to the child.

The inability to determine the relationship of the child with the mother originated from the idea that the child belongs to the country, not a family, but a member of the society and the nation and the future.

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Chapter 21

Mizan Newspaper: Letters from Paris and Geneva Publications (1896-1897)

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INTRODUCTION

Political Portrait of the Era

The Ottoman State officially initiated reforms in the field of westernization, first the Gulhane Edict and then the Reform Edict of 1856, with a more specific dimension, were issued in line with these purposes. As these practices granted indirect privileges to the Western States over the Ottoman State, they also triggered Russia to take action. While Britain and France were in search of gainings from the Ottoman State by assuming the protection of non-Muslims, Russia also started to work. The results of the Crimean War of 1854-1856 and the Ottoman-Russian War of 1877-1878 also formed the basis of the wars that would appear in the 1900s. The Ottoman State suffered great political and military losses with the Treaty of Berlin (1878) signed at the end of the 1877-1878 Ottoman-Russian War. Based on the articles of this treaty, Britain, France, Russia, Greece, Bulgaria and other Balkan states took action. The Treaty of Berlin was imposed on the Ottoman Empire as the Crete problem, the Armenian problem, and the Macedonian problem. These consecutive events forced the Ottoman State into an even more difficult situation when it came to 1896-1897.

In this crisis period, political solution proposals rather than military solutions were considered more appropriate for the Ottoman State, and the westernization policy was accelerated. In addition to Abdülhamit II’s Islamism policy, the Westernisation, which already continued for a long time, was also in progress with the Committee of Union and Progress (ITC), who were the continuation of the Young Turks.

It is possible to start the politicization of westernization policy and the real liberalism movement with the New Ottomans Society established in 1865. Names such as Ali Suavi, Ziya Pasha, Prince Mustafa Fazil Pasha of Egypt and Mithat Pasha joined the society, where Namık Kemal was among the founders. Veliahd Murat Efendi (Murat V.) and Şehzade Abdülhamit Efendi (Abdülhamit II) were closely interested in the society (Armaoğlu, 1997:592). The aim of the society was to
transform the form of government into constitutionalism, a monarchy regime with a
creation (Gencer and Özel, 2005: 24; Armaoğlu, 1997: 592). The association was
financed by the Prince Mustafa Fazıl Pasha of Egypt. During its activities in Europe,
the Society called themselves "Young Ottomans", "Young Turks", that is, Jön Turks
("Jeuns Turcs") (Akşin, 2009: 35; Armaoğlu, 1997: 592). The society could not
establish a consensus, so it dissolved in 1872 and the members of the society returned
to Istanbul (Armaoğlu, 1997: 592).

The only view that the members of the association were united was the
destruction of the tyranny. For this reason, it is possible to evaluate the declaration
of the First Constitutional Monarchy on 23 December 1876 and the opening of the
Parliament on 19 March 1877, that is, the opening of the first Turkish Parliament as
the achievements of the New Ottomans (Gencer and Özel, 2005: 24; Armaoğlu,
1997: 594. ). However, Abdulhamit II. closed the Parliament on February 13, 1878,
citing the troubles caused by the 1877-1878 Ottoman-Russian War. Thus, the
Constitutional Monarchy came to an end, and the Ottoman State returned to the old
system. Abdulhamit II's initiative of the period of tyranny brought along a new
organization. In May 1889, five students from the Military Medical School in
Istanbul, namely İbrahim Temo from Ohrid, Arapkirli Abdullah Cevdet, İshak Sükütü from Diyarbakır, Mehmet Reşit from the Caucasus, and Bakülü Hüseyin Zade
Ali Bey, founded a society called Committee of the Ottoman Union (Armaoğlu,

Later, the Society contacted Ahmet Rıza Bey, who was in Paris and published
the Mesveret Newspaper there, and they chose Ahmet Rıza Bey as the European
representative. However, Ahmet Rıza Bey suggested the name of the society as
"Ordre et Progres", that is, "Nizam ve Terakki", and the youth changed this name to
"İttihat ve Terakki" and accepted it. The society was established to protect the
interests of the society and to bring constitutionalism in order to save the society

The Society opened a branch in Paris, Geneva and Cairo, and quickly gained
support among students of Medicine, Warfare and Mekteb-i Mülkiye in Istanbul.
Mizancı Murat, who was a history teacher, was among the names that influenced the
students of the Civil School (Lewis, 1998: 191; Malkoç, 2007b: 115). By 1896,
Ahmet Rıza Bey was the President of the Paris branch as the European
representative. The arrival of Mizancı Murat to Paris, the spread of the society to
Romania, Bulgaria and Rumelia thanks to Dr. Ibrahim Temo's efforts and the policy
change (Turkism) after communication with other Muslim states caused the change
of the European representative. The main reason for the distance among the society
members that emerged against Ahmet Rıza Bey was his willingness to unite the
Committee of Union and Progress with the Paris Positivist Committee (Malkoç,
2017: 34).

Mizancı Murat's pan-islamist ideas ended up with gathering more supporters
and his being appointed as the president of the ITC in 1896 (Malkoç, 2007a: 102;
Mizancı Murat continued to serve as president until August 1897, when he returned
to Istanbul. The Ottoman-Greek War (1897) and the Ottoman victory that took place in these dates provided prestige to the authority of Abdülhamit II. Mizancı Murat returned to Istanbul, responding positively to Abdulhamit's pardon offer. ITC revived with Prince Sabahattin in later period (Akşin, 2009: 49).

The problems of the Ottoman Empire in the international arena during the period in which Mizan newspaper published in Paris and Geneva were the Crete Issue, the Armenian problem and the Macedonian problem. In 1897, the Ottoman Empire was dealing with both problems. The origin of the problems was that Britain was putting heavy pressure on the Ottoman Empire. The experience with Greece, Bulgaria's taking Eastern Rumelia and extending its borders to Macedonia has set Greece in motion (Armaoğlu, 1997: 556), Greece wants to annex the lands of Crete, Epirus and Macedonia. Britain was trying to stop Greece, while the supporters of Greece were France, Germany and Austria. Although the new Prime Minister Trikoupis accepted disarmament and ended the crisis in accordance with the ultimatum given in June 1886, Greece was waiting for the opportunity and continuing its initiatives. In particular, the Ethnic (Eterya) Society was trying to add Epirus, Macedonia and Crete to Greece. Based on the Berlin Agreement, Greece continued to provoke the Greeks in Crete. In 1896, the Aleppo Agreement was reinstated in Crete. In February 1897, clashes broke out between Muslims and Greeks in Chania. A Greek fleet under the command of Prince Yorgi went to Crete on 10 February 1897 to prevent Turkish ships bringing reinforcements to Crete. Meanwhile, the Greeks of Crete declared that they annexed the island to Greece. In April 1897, when the voluntary Greek troops under the command of Greek officers attacked the borders of the Ottoman Empire in order to revolt Macedonia, the Ottoman State declared war on Greece on April 18, 1897. This war has been named as “313 Battle” in Ottoman history (Armaoğlu, 1997: 561-562). With the pressure of Britain, the Ottoman Empire ended the war and signed the Istanbul Agreement with Greece on 4 December 1897. Although the Ottomans were victorious in the war, Greece gained as a winner in this war (Armaoğlu, 1997: 562). In September 1898, clashes took place between the British soldiers and the Muslim population when the disturbances broke out in Chania (Heraklion). Thereupon, the island was left to the joint occupation of Britain, France, Italy and Russia. The Ottoman State had to evacuate the island (For detailed information, Armaoğlu, 1997: 555-563).

Another issue that the Ottoman State was dealing with during these years was the Armenian problem. Britain's attitude towards the Ottoman State had changed especially after the Berlin Congress (Armaoğlu, 1997: 565). The British provoked and supported the Armenians to revolt in these regions in order to achieve their goals. From time to time, Armenians wanted to attract the attention of European states by causing uprisings within the State, especially in Istanbul (For details, see Armaoğlu, 1997: 564-580). With the establishment of the Hinchak and Dashnak Committees, larger, more frequent and more organised Armenian uprisings began with European support.

Another problem experienced after the Berlin Congress was the Rumelia Issue. Rumelia (Macedonia) was causing struggles between Bulgaria, Serbia and Greece.
By 1897, Macedonia was thoroughly in chaos, as the Komitadji formed here started all kinds of vandalism such as looting, robbery and kidnapping. The Ottoman State, dealing with Crete and Armenian problems, also started to deal with the Macedonian problem. England was the main source of pressure in all three problems. Pressures of England worried Germany, Austria, Russia and even France (Armaoğlu, 1997: 580-592).

As a result of the strict management decisions and prohibitions taken in the Ottoman State, where such turmoil was experienced, many intellectuals lived abroad. One of them was Mizancı Murat, who was also a man of action.

**Mizancı Murat**

Mizancı Murat, one of the important figures of the constitutional period and whose name became synonymous with the Mizan Newspaper, which he started publishing in 1886, is described by Turkish Press historian Ahmet Emin (Yalman) as "the leading figure of the press of the time" and "the temple of the intellectual classes" (Lewis, 1998: 191). Murad Bey fought for the declaration of constitutionalism and opposed the Committee of Union and Progress after the declaration of constitutionalism. In general, he argued that the official ideology of the state should be Ottomanism and its cultural ideology should be Islam unity (Berkes, 2019: 393-394).

Mizancı Murat, whose real name is Mehmed Murad, was born in Dagestan. His father served as judge and mufti. Mehmed Murad took religious knowledge from an early age and learned Arabic. He went to Russia voluntarily and graduated from Moscow University Faculty of Law in 1866 (Tansel, 1952: 69-71). After his arrival in Istanbul, he focused on Kanun-i Esasi and the discussions around this issue. Murad Bey grew in line with his works during the reign of Abdulhamid and became a well-known writer and administrator among the intellectuals. He came to Istanbul in 1873, and served in high-level positions including the Ministry of Foreign Affairs Press Counselor and Duyun-i General Commissary. Some corruption in the state administration led Murad Bey to stay away from his civil service life (Tansel, 1952: 72). Mehmed Murad Bey, who knows Russian and French languages at an advanced level, taught at Mekteb-i Mülkiyye and Dârülmuallimîn-i Aliye and gave history lessons in Mekteb-i Hukuk in addition to his duty as a manager there (Tansel, 1952: 74-75).

Murad Bey, who has not enjoyed his civil service life for a long time, wrote articles on foreign policy in Vakit and İttihad newspapers between 1876-1877, and since 1886 he published the Mizan Newspaper in different places and on different dates. Originally published as a weekly magazine, Mizan newspaper included news on domestic and foreign policy, including literature and culture, taking into account the public's need for news. He received the compliment of Abdülhamid in the early years of the publication of Mizan Newspaper. One of the reasons was, as a result of his mutual talks with Abdülhamid, Murad Bey was convinced that he was a good person and thought that the administrative problems were caused by the Babiali (Tansel, 1952: 78). Another reason was Murad Bey's idea of establishing a great Muslim constitutional regime by uniting the whole Islamic world around
Abdulhamid's caliphate (Berkes, 2019: 395).

Due to these ideas, Murad Bey had ideological and political conflicts with Ahmet Rıza, one of the leading intellectuals of the period (Berkes, 2019: 395). Ahmet Rıza, who saw Mizancı Murad as his rival, caused the Young Turk group to dissolve, in a way, due to his criticisms (Malkoç, 2012: 117). During this period, Ahmet Rıza claimed that the public should be fed with political ideology, while Prince Sabahattin wanted the Ottoman peoples to be strengthened with the idea of nationalism. Mizancı Murad wanted the people to unite around the idea of sharia (Berkes, 2012: 393-401). However, it is seen that this thought of Murad Bey is different from the idea of sharia under the rule of Abdülhamid. As a matter of fact, the Mizan newspaper was censored and eventually closed due to its criticism of the sultanate and caliphate during the process.

Realizing that he could not publish in Istanbul, Murad Bey first went to Cairo and then to Europe. Publishing the second term Mizan newspaper in Cairo, Murad Bey focused on Abdulhäm and the executives in his close circle during this period. In this period, articles were written to inform the public about capitulations, foreign insurance and lottery companies, the Reji Administration and the Düyûn-ı Umûmiyye, the railway issue, economy, finance, education, press, Bâbıâli and civil servant salaries. In addition to these news, various topics such as failures on postal services, banks, fires in the city, religious days were also reflected in the contents of the newspaper.

During his stay in Europe, Murad Bey presided the Committee of Union and Progress for about a year. According to Berkes (2019), there are two concepts, emphasized by Namik Kemal, at the center of the discussions that took place at the beginning of the 20th century: İttihat ve Terakki. The first points to the Ottoman unity and the second to the contemporary civilization. İttihad proposes that all nations in the Ottoman State to reconcile and Terakki proposes the elimination of the causes of backwardness. The Committee of Union and Progress was established in this context and initiated the declaration of the Constitutional Monarchy in Ottoman State. The organization, which was initially established as a secret society aiming to bring the state to a constitutional order, became a political party that controls the government after the adoption of the constitution and the proclamation of the Second Constitutional Monarchy. Since the Committee of Union and Progress was Ottomanist, it had to consider the program of uniting the nation parts of the state as a "nationality" problem, within the framework of a constitutional regime with a constitution and political parties. İttihat ve Terakki is regarded as the name of a period and a generation as well as a political movement. The Unionists are seen as the continuation of the Young Turks generation that preceded them. However, the expression "Young Turks" includes not only the Unionists but also other dissident groups of the period. Berkes criticizes this generalization and draws attention to the necessity of addressing the source, purpose, thought and ideological differences of each group separately. Mizancı Murad emerges as an intellectual who needs to be worked on with this feature of the group he leads.

Murad Bey, as an intellectual who defends his principles to the end, decided to
leave the leadership of the Young Turks in Europe and return to the country due to the unrest and disagreements within the Committee of Union and Progress. With his return to Istanbul in 1897, the publication of the Mizan newspaper in Europe came to an end. In this decision of Murad Bey, the general amnesty declared by Abdülhamid II for his victory in the Turkish-Greek War of 1897 was also effective (Uçman, 2005). He was kept under custody until 1908 due to the failure to provide the freedom of thought he demanded, and after the Second Constitutional Monarchy, he started publishing Mizan newspaper again. After the March 31 rebellion, his newspaper was closed, he was taken into custody, tried and exiled from Istanbul. After that, his life passed with exile and amnesty orders until his death in 1917. During this period, he wrote many works. He published his memoirs in 1908 under the name “Mücahede-i Milliye”. His work named "Turfanda mı Turfa mı?" has autobiographical features and includes details about his life.

Mizancı Murad is one of the leading figures of the period he lived in, and one of the important intellectuals who shed light on the political, cultural and philosophical understanding of the period. His work is not limited to the press, but also sets an example for the intellectual potential of the teacher role model of the period. Mizancı Murad passed away on April 15, 1917 in his home in Anadoluhisarı.

Mizan Newspaper: Paris and Geneva Era

The Mizan newspaper started its publication life in Istanbul in 1886 and continued during the reign of Abdülhamit II. Mizan newspaper had periods of Cairo, Paris and Geneva in its publishing life, due to continuous cencorship, and returned again to Istanbul with the declaration of the second Constitutional Monarchy. It is possible to examine Mizan newspaper, whose name is integrated with Murat Bey, in 3 periods, in terms of the publishing places and the changes in the policy of the newspaper:

First period; August 21, 1886 - December 2, 1890 (nr. 1-159); in Istanbul,
Second period; January 21, 1896 - July 8, 1896 (nr. 159-184), in Cairo; December 14, 1896 - May 3, 1897 (nr. 1-18) in Paris; May 10, 1897 - July 19, 1897 (nr. 19-28) in Geneva,
Third period; It was released in Istanbul on July 25, 1908 - May 14, 1909 (nr. 1-135) (Emil, 1979; 231)

The paper's heading varies according to the periods presented above. First period Mizan newspaper's epigraphs are generally in the following form: “It is published only on Thursdays. It is a Turkish newspaper.” This heading has changed from time to time. For example issues from 58 to 77 and from 96 to 159 writes: It is a Turkish newspaper published once a week”. However, there are no headings in issues from 78 to 95. The second period Mizan newspaper, published in Cairo, has the heading presented to the reader is as follows: "It is the cry of honor and dignity. published once a week. Our chapters are open for the purpose and endeavors of the state." On the other hand, the Paris-Geneva heading is "the publication of the document of the Ottoman Union and Progress Association, security and justice, consultation method, dominance of nation, duty and proficiency". In the third period's Mizan newspaper, there are the following statements: "Our pages are open
for the Ottomans, who strived to serve the country and the nation, with happiness and peace.”

In this study, the Paris-Geneva period of the Mizan newspaper, which has a long-term and interesting road map in our press history, is examined. The most important factor in the study of this period is that the newspaper served as the official publication of the Committee of Union and Progress. The first issue of Mizan newspaper of the Paris-Geneva period was published on Monday, December 14, 1896. Even though the newspaper has the phrase "you can have a meeting once a week", there is a two-week interval between the first and the second issue. The reason for this is that the printing house is closed for three days due to the local holiday of the Swiss. Another similar delay is a 3-week delay between the 6th and 7th issues. There is also a two-week lag in issues 27 and 28. However, the reasons for both delays were not disclosed in the newspaper. 28 issues were published for this period. Regarding the period it was published in Paris and Geneva, Mizan newspaper was generally published as four pages, but the 2nd, 8th, 12th and 18th issues are 6 pages each. All issues start on the first page and the Gregorian and Hijri dates are given together in the newspaper. The name of the newspaper is written in kufi calligraphy. The left part of the heading is in French and the right part is in Ottoman Turkish. Although the printing house of the newspaper is not written, the address of the newspaper is in the French part. Addresses and other information in the issues 1 to 18 are as follows: “Address: Mizan Administration, 14. Rue des Ecoles –Paris”. "Annual subscription is one Ottoman lira (23 francs), the copy is two kurus (50 centimeters) (including annexes).” The address and information in issues from 19 to 28 are as follows: “Address: Mizan Administration, 49, Rue du Rhone, Geneve (Suisse) ”. Subscription and price information are the same. On the newspaper's heading, there is a stripe under the logo of "Mizan" reading "It is the media publication of the Ottoman Union and Progress Association". The following principles are read just below: "union and progress, security and justice, consultation method, dominance of nation, duty and proficiency". There are three columns on each page. In every issue, there is a contents ("Mündericat") section. In the newspaper, the term "اوغورسزلر - evil ones" is used to address Sultan Abdülhamid II and his officers. The editorial board is responsible for the publication of the newspaper and most of the articles have been published without signature. The writers of the Paris-Geneva period are as follows: Mehmed Murad, A Kurd (Abdullah Cevdet), An Albanian, a Dervish, Durâni, Hasbi, Hemrâz, Semian from İlmiye, Keçecizâde Hikmet, Keçecizâde Mehmet Fuad Pasha, Küçük Mektepli, M., Murad, Napier (the name on the photographs), Razi, Sefik, from our informant Bâlâ, Tarsusizâde Münif, Tunalı Hilmi.
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<td>1</td>
<td>14 December 1896</td>
<td>Karilere İhtar-ı Mahsûs- İfade-i Mahsûsa-Tebligat- Mekatib ve Edebiyat, Evrak-ı Havadis (Hakikat)- Mızan Tefrikası: Vasiyetname-i Siyasiye</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>28 December 1896</td>
<td>İtizar- Tebrik-i İyid-i Milli-Cümle-i Siyasiye-Ciddi Bir İhtar- Makale-ıyi Mahsûsa- Evrak-ı Havadis (Girit) - Mekatib ve Edebiyat (İstanbul'dan-Edirne'den-İsviçre'den)- Vatandan Havadis – Açık Muhabere – Mızan Tefrikası: Vasiyetname-i Siyasiye</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>4 January 1897</td>
<td>İslid-i Milli- Makale-ı Mahsûsa (Umîd-i İstikbal) Bend-ı Mahsûs (Kanun-i Esasi)- Evrak-ı Havadis (Kanun-i Esasi) – Vatandan Havadis</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>11 January 1897</td>
<td>Yüz ve Astar-Şahane Bir Söz- İzahat- Vatandan Havadis- İlan</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>18 January 1897</td>
<td>Mithat Paşa- Hep Mûshereliktir- Kanun-i Esasi (Mabud)- Evrak-ı Havadis – Rica-ıyî Mahsûs- İlan</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>15 February 1897</td>
<td>Açık Muhabere- İhtar-ı Mahsûs- Akıbet- İzaha Muhtac Bir Sual- Teşhir- Resmi ve Manidar Bir İttifak Kusur- Tabaka-ı Bâlâ Muhbirimizden-Vatandan Havadis- Mıralay Mazhar Bey</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>1 March 1897</td>
<td>Girit Umûru- Nihayetin Bedayeti ve Mahir Mahkûmuyet- Tabaka-ı Bâlâ Muhbirimizden-İhtar- İlan- Vasiyetname-i Siyasi</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>8 March 1897</td>
<td>İslid-i Fatr- İzhâr-ı Hakikat- Girit Facayi’i ve Almanyâ İmparatoru- Girit'ten Mektup- Times Muhbirile Bir Mülakat- Münir Bey- İlimi Ahlâk ve Adab Erbabından Bir İstihzah- Sultan Hamid’in Fransızlarla Akrabalığı- İlan</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>15 March 1897</td>
<td>Şükran- Yine Kırk Anbar- Garip Bir Dua- Tabaka-ı Bâlâ Muhbirimizden- Evlat Katli- Havadis-i</td>
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<tr>
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<td>14</td>
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<td>Teşekkür-İhtar- Vükelamız Hakkında Ecnebilerin Fikri- Çocuğum Ceys, Ölmüse Rahmet- Yanlış Mütalaa- İstanbul Muhbirimizden- Asar-ı Müfide- Havadis</td>
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<td>15</td>
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<td>Mustafa Fazıl Paşa-Tabaka-i Bâlâ Muhbirimizden- İstanbul’dan Mektup- Havadis- Tashih- İlán</td>
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<td>16</td>
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<td>Vazife ve Mesuliyet- Tabaka-i Bâlâ Muhbirimizden- A Sultanım Geç Değil Mi?- Havadis-Neler Olacak</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>26 April 1897</td>
<td>Mehmet Namık Kemal- Cümle-i Siyasiye- Tabaka-i Bâlâ Muhbirimizden- Havadis- Açık Muhabere- Muharebe Havadisi</td>
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Table 2: Content of the issues at Geneve period

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<td>20</td>
<td>17 May 1897</td>
<td>Bayram Tebrîğı- Mizan Gazetesine- Yine Ahmet Mithat Efendi- Tabaka-i Bâlâ Muhbirimizden- İlet Yeni Değildir- Açık Muhabere</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>24 May 1897</td>
<td>Teşekkür- Cümle-yi Siyasiye- İlân-ı Mahsûs- Islah Kabul Etmiyor- Mektup- Hanya Hamidiye Filolari</td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>31 May 1897</td>
<td>Ne Çare- Anasma Bak Kızımı Al- Aynen-Mazbata- İlana Mahsûs- Girit’ten Mektup- Tabaka-i Bâlâ Muhbirimizden- Londra Matbuatı- Beyan-ı Hakikat- Suriye’den Mektup- Mesail-i Hazire- İtizar</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>7 June 1897</td>
<td>Ciddi Bir Tavsif- Demir Yollarımız- Girit-</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>No</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>21 June 1897</td>
<td>Londra Matbuatı- El Cezire Mektupları- İzah-ı Hakikat-Hürriyetten Aynen- İstanbul’dan</td>
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<td>26</td>
<td>28 June 1897</td>
<td>Ali Suavi Merhum- İkinci Bastıl- Kuru Sıkı-Malumat- Telgraflar- İhtar- Tashih</td>
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<td>27</td>
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<td>Londra’dan- İhtar-ı Halis- Golç Paşa- Yusuf Ziya Paşa- Girit’ten- İstanbul’dan- Avrupa Gazeteleri</td>
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<td>28</td>
<td>19 July 1897</td>
<td>Daha Ne Yapmalı- Abdülhamid’in En Büyük Cinayeti- İstanbul’dan- Londra Matbuatı- Casûs Bi-Namûs Nedir?</td>
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**FINDINGS**


The first issue of Mizan, which was published as the official media organ of the Committee of Union and Progress along with Meşveret during the Paris-Geneva period, had a “Kârilere İhtar-ı Mahsûs (Special Warning-Statement for Readers)” heading on the cover page, as follows:

"ITC, which aims and wants to save the homeladen from the internal and external enemies, has published the Mesveret in French against the outside world and requested to publish the Mizan in Turkish. Every decision of the ITC is sacred to its members. Therefore, Mizan, which will be published in Egypt or Istanbul, will be managed by an editorial board determined by the society. Murat Bey stated that this did not mean he could not write on Mizan, and declared Mizan is now the official media organ of the ITC." (14 December 1896, 1, p.1).

In the article written by Murat Bey addressing the readers, he states that he allocated the Mizan newspaper to the Committee of Union and Progress to be used as an official media organ. In the article titled "İfade-i Mahsûsa- Special Statement" written by the newspaper's writing staff immediately after, it is stated that Mizan newspaper will be published in Turkish once a week and Meşveret newspaper will be published in French every two weeks. In addition, it is stated that articles can be sent to Mizan newspaper from all over the country. These articles should be describing the situation / realities of the country rather than being literary articles, and the language should be used in a way that “even a villager can understand” (14 December 1896, 1, p.1). Ahmet Rıza Bey, in the 23rd issue of "Mesveret Newspaper" dated December 3, 1896 stated that, "Mizan has its reputation in our country and its right over Meşveret. Mizan will be released as of this month instead of Meşrevet in Turkish language. The Meşveret in French will continue" (Malkoç, 2017: 34).
During these days, ITC members in Paris were Ahmet Rıza, Mehmet Murat, İshak Sukuti, Çürüksulu Ahmet, Dr. Nazım and Şerafettin Mağmumi. Over time, disagreements between the members of the society began to become visible in the Mizan newspaper as well. In the tenth issue of the Mizan newspaper, it is seen that there were disagreements between Mizancı Murat and Ahmet Rıza Bey (“İzhar-ı Hakikat” Emergence of Reality, 8 March 1897, 10, p.1-2). Mehmet Murat, with his letter to Ahmet Rıza in the 22nd issue of the Mizan newspaper, that started to be published in Geneva as of the 19th issue, could not succeed in this (“Azizim Ahmet Beyefendiye” To Dear Ahmet Beyefendi 31 May 1897, 22, p.2.). Upon the departure of Ahmet Rıza and consequently the Meşveret from the ITC, Murat Bey took over the society and the media organ became the Mizan newspaper (“İlan-ı Mahsus” Special Statement, 31 May 1897, 22, p.2.).

Looking at the Paris-Geneva content of the Mizan newspaper, there are generally articles criticizing the sultan and the bureaucracy. In these writings, expressions such as "Yıldız (Palace) slugs", "ominous ones" and "vermin" are used for the managers of the term. Midhat Pasha, Ali Suavi, Mustafa Fazıl Pasha, Namık Kemal from the First Constitutional Monarchy group were remembered with respect. Many disasters were affiliated with the Sultan's regime and the Sultan, Arab Izzet of Damascus, Faruk Ismail Pasha, Çaşús-ı Bi-namûs Nadir and the Minister of the Navy were criticized in the newspaper. In addition, the newspaper includes poems, letters and polemics ("Veba-yi Osmani", 22 February 1897, 8, p.1-2; "Yine Kırk Anbar", 15 March 1897, 11, p. 1-2; “İlan-ı Mahsûs: Ahmet Mithat’ın Tekzibi “, 24 May 1897, 21, p. 2). Another striking writing series in the Parisian period is the article written by deceased Keçecizade Mehmet Fuat Pasha, one of the former Ottoman grand viziers, to Sultan Abdülaziz. This article was published as 5 issues in Mizan newspaper with the title "Vasiyetname-i Siyasi" (Political Testament). The period of publication of the newspaper coincides with the events of the Crete Revolt of 1896 and the entry of Greek soldiers into Crete in 1897 and The Ottoman-Greek War which resulted with an Ottoman victory (17 April 1897).

Mizan Newspaper: Letters

The Mizan newspaper includes letters sent by the public in every period and in every issue. This also shows that the newspaper has a mission of being "open to the public" and "the voice of the people". Sometimes the newspaper addressed the reader under the Open Communication “Açık Muhabere" heading and with the following words: “(v.t.) We have received your letters. Thank you for your service. And we wait for your important information." In the Paris-Geneva period, although the majority of the articles should be regarded as news collected by letters and the writings of the Mizan team, the number of articles whose type is clearly known as letters is 20. Three of these letters belong to Mizancı Murat. A letter of Razi, a letter of Semian from İlmiye, and an Albanian's letter were published in this period, where other letters were unsigned. Some of the letters were criticizing Abdulhamit and his administration. The letters and tags of Mizan published in the newspaper during the Paris Geneva period are presented below:
Letters criticizing Abdülhamit and his administration

It was published in the newspaper under the signature "An Albanian" and the heading "From Rumelia" in the first issue published on 14 December 1896. In the letter, Abdülhamit's administration is heavily criticized. It is stated in the letter that this 20-year reign weakened the holy homeland and caused great wounds. The article, which depicts the group around Abdulhamit as vermin, speaks to the public and asks to throw the weight on them. According to the letter, the homeland is burning in the fire of despotism. The homeland is passing away. The nation is asked to get rid of tyranny and ensure the future of the country: “Sultan Hamid inflicted great wounds on the body of his homeland with evil teeth, and those around him,
consisting of some insects, have been growing this wound for 20 years as the germs of that wound.” (14 December 1896, 1, p.3-4).

Figure 1: Bir Arnavud (An Albanian), “Rumeliden” (From Rumelia), 14 December 1896.

In the second issue of the Mizan, the letter titled “From Edirne” (28 December 1896, 2, p.4-5) states that the Unionists were illegally arrested. According to this unsigned letter, it is stated that 2 teachers, 2 doctors, 3 officers, 2 soldiers and 3 civil servants were arrested in Edirne last year as ITC supporters. According to the letter, it is stated that, Yıldız (Palace) supporter Arif Pasha became the deputy governor of Edirne when the current governor Abdurrahman Pasha was transferred to the Ministry of Justice, and went on the hunt for the Unionists in order to convert this mandate to the primary. Due to this hunt, many people in Edirne were detained for various reasons, taken to court and arrested on different charges. Here, it was emphasized that the accusations were unfounded, citing an example of the allegation that the ... sign in a letter was a code.

In the article published in the sixth issue of the newspaper with the title “From a letter from Central Administration”, (25 January 1897, 6, p.4), the Sultan
Abdülhәmit was called "the fool at Yıldız". It is stated that Abdülhamit tried to attack the Mizan and therefore the ITC supporters, but he could not go beyond firing a bullet into the darkness. It is stated in the letter that Abdülhamid's eyes were darkened, he was unable to lift his head, had no power left so how he could take over the ITC center. In the letter, while explaining the rule of Abdülhamit and the oppressions, it is explained that the people and their families were under serious pressure and it was inevitable that one day a storm would break out in front of the Yıldız Palace by these people and their families.

In the eighth issue of the Mizan, the title “A letter from Thessaloniki”, (22 February 1897, 8, p.5) states that the soldiers around Yenipazar have not been paid for eight months. It is stated that despite the complaints of the soldiers, the situation remained uninterested. Although the winter is very harsh, the inadequacy of the soldiers' clothes and the lack of attention to the army was stated in the letter with the following statements: "The winter season is very severe here. The great damage that occurred in Fezzan is not as much as Sultan Hamid's betrayal to our army. Our poor soldiers, our poor third army, are in a position to sacrifice their lives the defense of Rumelia against the attacks of the Balkan governments." (22 February 1897, 8, p.5). It is stated in the letter that the third army was in misery, the situation of the third army with 64 battalions was notified to Yıldız Palace, but there was no result, and Abdülhamit was responsible for the misery of the army.

In the same issue, the article published under the title "in a letter from İstanbul" criticizes that the visit of Hırka-i Saadet, which is made on the 15th day of every Ramadan month, is the agenda of Istanbul instead of all this crisis. (22 February 1897, 8, p.5-6).

In the 15th issue of Mizan, a letter from İstanbul was published on 22 March 1313 with the title "Letter". In the letter, the pressure on the students of Mekteb-i Mülkiye is expressed. The pressure is extremely heavy in the school: "Traveling in one place with three people, sitting in coffee houses, meeting with other school students" has become a bigger crime than murder for Mekteb-i Mülkiye students, who were known to be pro-ITCs. On the other hand, the lectures read were shortened, limited, and adjusted. Teachers were warned, students' pockets and lockers were searched every day (April 12, 1897, 15, p.3). The letter mentions pressures made to
students, journalists and complaints about Abdülhamit, and contains insults to the sultan such as "Yezid-i cedid (new Yazid), murderer tâc-dar (killer sultan), cani-i âzâm (the greatest criminal), red sultan" (12 April 1897, 15, p. 3).

This time, in the 24th issue of Mizan, a letter titled "From the Letter of Aziziye" (14 June 1897, 24, p.3.) describes how the administrators did not respond to an irregularity experienced, and how the public accepted the situation without seeking other ways. At the end of the letter it is stated: “We are confused from whom or to whom to complain. What shall we do!” (14 June 1897, 24, p.3.).

Articles about Crete

In the thirteenth issue of Mizan newspaper, dated March 29, 1897 (25 Shawwal 1314), an article was written in response to the letter sent from Crete, which was in rebellion. The author advises the letter owner, who mentions that they are considering to leave the Crete on what happened in the island, and states that Crete will be transformed into an autonomy under the guarantorship of European states and suggests that they can even have a say in the administration if they continue to stay there. At this point, again, the author continues his criticism of Sultan Abdülhamit and claims that even if they have to live under the administration of another state, it is better than living under tyranny:

"They will give autonomy to Crete. The givers, "Düvel-i Muazzama" are the great states (the states of the period: France, England, Russia). Since this result is realized according to the Greek, the Rums (those with Turkish nationality) will remain under the rule of the European states for a long time, not the Greek influence. By that time, it will be clear whether it will be a state. If cannot be saved for good from the hands of the ominous (Abdulhamid is meant), it is beyond doubt that the state and the caliphate will go down in history, and then Crete will be captured by the great powers, for example France. If it is rescued from the Yildz (Palace) administration, the successor administration will be permanent and the Balkan Union to be formed "to secure the East under the responsibility of the Easterners". Even then, the Cretan people do not need to be under the protection of the others. "(Open Communication, 29 March 1897, 13, p. 2).

The grave situation in Crete is described in the 18th issue of the Mizan in "The Cretan Letter" written by Razi (3 May 1897, 18, p.3-5). The letter, titled “Chania in Crete ” has been published in the 22nd issue of the Mizan. In the letter, the atrocities inflicted on the Muslim people in Crete and the deaths experienced are described. On one hand, the Muslim people are attacked by the Christians, on the other hand they are attacked by the bandits. The situation in Crete, where children and the elderly began to die, is only watched by Europeans (31 May 1897, 22, p.3).
Figure 3: “An Girid Hanya” (Chania in Crete), 31 May 1897.

The correction for the Cretan letter is published in the 26th issue (Tashih from the Cretan Letter), 26 June 1897, 26, p. 4): “Some inaccuracies in one of our issues, based on the information received from Crete, were corrected: First, there is no revolutionary committee of Muslims in Crete. Second - Halim Efendi, director of Hakikat newspaper, did not die. Third - There is no problem of misuse of aids.” In the letter titled "From Syria", written by Semian from İlimye in the same issue, it is stated that the course of the Ottoman-Greek war is good as it is and after explaining
what could happen if the Ottoman wins, it is mentioned that Abdülhamit cannot be trusted even if the war is won. The letter continues as follows: "I think that even in this work, Sultan Hamid has secrets. The issues of Eastern Rumelia and Egypt have not been forgotten yet. The Caliph of the Rumi Land (Abdülhamid) wanted to liken the problem of the Yunan to them, that is, by providing clauses (treaty clauses) that would benefit the Greek, and end this confusion without war through his spies. " (31 May 1897, 22, p.4)

**Views on European States**

In the unsigned letter published under the title "From Istanbul" (14 December 1897, 1, p.3) in the first issue of Mizan, attention is drawn to the warnings of deceased Midhat Pasha. Midhat Pasha states that Russia and European states had bad intentions on the Ottoman Empire with the following words: “The states that do not want Russia to invade, now want the opposite. And they are working region by region to make this request of Russia successful soon”. Accordingly, the former grand vizier Midhat Pasha, who said that a threat of independence was faced as a result of mismanagement, points to the occupation of European states as the approaching threat.

*Figure 4: “İstanbul’dan” (From İstanbul), 14 December 1897.*

In the 27th issue of the Mizan newspaper, dated 5 July 1897, approximately two pages were allocated to the views of a member of the Society. The author of the letter, who is understood to be a member of the association when the letter content is read, comments about the conflict between Ahmet Rıza and Murat Bey, and shares his criticism of the society. The letter, which is unsigned, starts with the editorial about Ali Suavi in issue 26. The article about the dispute between ITC and Ahmet Rıza in La Patrie newspaper in Paris is told under the title "From London". In the letter, bad intentions of Europe against the Ottomans, as seen from England, is drawn attention and the opinions of the leaders of the Young Turks and the situation of the Ottoman State are also expressed. According to the newspaper, the reason for this
controversy is that while some want law and freedom for Christians, some only want Islam. Patri newspaper also included Ahmet Bey’s statement:

“... According to the statements of the “Patri” newspaper, Ahmet Rıza Bey says: “We have neither parliament, no law, nor justice for Christians”... But is it appropriate to forget about Islam because we will protect Christians? Do any of the various newspapers such as Armenian and Rum defend us! If there is no parliament, no law, no justice for Christians, then there is nothing for Muslims, they have many guardians of the same sect in Europe... Europe wants to gouge our eyes as soon as possible. We want equality in our homeland, Muslim and non-Muslim should be equal. But we will never accept an attack on our religion, nationality or sovereignty. The Ottoman State is an Islamic state. Europe's aim is to crush the Muslim community on our property, to throw it out. We take pride in being part of this society. We must defend this sacred as well as freedom and general equality. ” (5 June 1897, 27, p.1).

In the letter, which stated that it would not be possible to trust Europe, it was asked who the Muslims in Turkey would trust against the European danger. In the letter, it is recommended that Europe should not be trusted in any way and that the society should work for religion, honor and homeland. In the entire article, emphasis is placed on Turkishness and Islam.

Serious criticism and warnings about the aims of the Europe on Ottoman State, which was carried from the past to the future, is included in the letter. Developments in Europe were also examined: “Treat fairly. Didn't the greatest French writers, even the adherents of the law, attempt an endless preaching of international rules? Did they not say? "A country that has passed from the yoke of the crescent to the hilt of the cross, moved out of the Ottoman property, joined a Christian state, no matter what happens, the world cannot recourse to its original"? It is understood from this that all Christians are against us, history is already a repetition. Aforementioned, crusader attacks continue as usual with various disguises. ” (5 June 1897, 27, p.1-2).

The letter brutally criticizes the conflict within the Society. The part about Ahmet Rıza is also remarkable. The author of the letter mentions the interview he gave to the British newspaper: “I can never accept that only Muslims should be given privileges. I have written this many times. This is the reason for the dispute you hear. In fact, many New Ottomans say that the tendencies and wishes against the civilized Christianity should not be opposed. But even if I fall from the eyes of the society, I insist on expressing with a loud voice that the peace of the sects is the only way to glorify the Ottoman State. ” (5 June 1897, 27, p.2), and makes his criticism as follows (5 June 1897, p.2):

“If only such lines contrary to the right and truth would not come out of our own pen. Be fair, is there a tendency against Christianity these days or is it against Islam? Is the Muslim Ottoman State thinking of plundering the European Christian states, or are these European states eager to smash and engulf us? What harm do poor Islam and poor Muslims do to whom, at the same time, they are threatened by a Muslim pen... For God's sake, avoid such situations. At this moment, Christians in Ottoman countries are a thousand times more distinguished than muslims. There are
treaties of foreigners that almost make us captive in our homeland, putting them as masters. Christians have a spiritual assembly, a material assembly, patriarchs, popes, Catholic, Orthodox, Protestant protectors like France and Russia and England? Don't they? ... Big civilized Europe!

In the letter, the writer makes criticism of Abdülhamit by saying: "Isn't this person the spirit and source of this evil!" and says that he played a role in the bad course of the Ottoman State: “On the one hand, does not France, the secret partner who loves humanity, protect it! Don't Germany and others want that way? I wonder if this person was not there, would these killings occur? Never, we all agree on this. Even the Europeans... So, isn't this the sole responsible for the killings in the Christian states for the benefit of (the sultan), who is the source of these evils and murders? "

In the rest of the letter, criticisms from Mizan’s editorial board are directed in response to Ahmet Rıza's statement to the French newspaper La Patrie. Ahmet Rıza's statements: "I cannot accept that only Muslims are given privileges and Christians are prevented from enjoying them." I always claim this and this is the reason for my disagreement with the Young Turks in Geneva. Most of them are of the opinion not to oppose the tendency against Christians” received severe accusations in response: “If such a statement was made by Rıza Bey Efendi, it is not only a lie, it is the most vulgar hypocrisy. Because, those in Geneva or Istanbul did not have any idea or purpose to exempt Christians from privileges." (5 June 1897, 27, p.2).
Figure 5: Mizancı Murat, “Açık Muhabere: Şevketlii Efendimiz Hazretleri” (Open Communication: His Holiness), 15 February 1897.
Letters signed by Murat Bey

Mehmet Murat Bey's first letter bears the name "Open Communication: His Holiness" in the seventh issue of Mizan. This letter is written in a sarcastic language. Murat Bey, who spoke to Abdülhamit, said "his imperial majesty", "his respectful majesty", "his conscientious majesty" in his speeches and cynically told that Abdülhamit regretted what he had done, and what he did would not work. In the last part of the letter, he asks him to invite and open the Parliament and to give the assurance that he will act in accordance with the law and sharia for the survival of the state, his own salvation and dignity: “With this, twenty years of general and special damage will be repaired and the future will be secured. Otherwise, if you refuse the sincere acceptance and implementation of the proposal and progress which will not harm the national sovereignty and the integrity of the country, you will throw the nation and the caliphate into the grave of disaster and misery in your personal disaster." (15 February 1897, 7, p.2) At the end of the letter, it was stated that this warning was made for the third and last time. He said Surah al-Fatihah to be read, if the request is not fulfilled, and signed the letter as "Murat, your servant " (15 February 1897, 7, p.2).

A letter on 21st issue from one of Sultan Hamid's loyal persons (24 May 1897, 21, p.3-4) addresses Mizancı Murat. The writer telling about the events of 20 years also states how the people took the Sultan for granted. A letter written by Mizancı Murat in response with the title "Respond" starts with thanks and states that the Ottomans and therefore the Turks are a noble tribe. Expressing that such a nation cannot be easily formed, Murat Bey continues as follows: "Such a nation cannot be formed in a short time. God's justice and the immutable law of nature protect this people from extinction." (May 24, 1897, 21, p.4.). In the continuation of the letter, Murat Bey promises, "I will not hesitate to sacrifice everything I can earn from now on to my country, my nation, my religion, my faith, my honor." (24 May 1897, 21, p.4.). He states that he will make all kinds of sacrifices for the country and the nation and says that the Sultan is accepted as the father in the Eastern societies and any questioning of him is accepted as rudeness. Murat Bey continues his words as follows: "Be sure that no matter how many people live in the capital or in the provinces, all of them accept and prefer evil by not knowing, or understanding. On the day when they see the inside of the current administration, learn the nature, degree and content of what they imagine as a wisdom of government, the cruelty will be given an end. Ah! If a legitimate and reasonable government seizes it by accident, there will be no end of time for the Turkish people!." (May 24, 1897, 21, p.4.). Mizancı Murat ends his words as follows: "Let's be hopeful brother, the happiness of the morning is near! ..." (24 May 1897, 21, p.4.).

In the 22nd issue of Mizan, Murat Bey tried to find the middle way with Ahmet Rıza Bey and return him to the Society in his letter. Ahmet Rıza Bey and Meşveret newspaper became independent from the Society, and their ways were separated from the association. Mehmet Murat used a temperate language in the letter that started as “To Dear Ahmet Beyefendi”. In the last part of the letter, which is quite short compared to the letters published in the newspaper, Murat Bey states that he
will only deal with the publication works (31 May 1897, 22, p. 2).

Figure 6: Mizancı Murat, “Azîzim Ahmet Bey Efendi” (To Dear Ahmet Beyefendi), 31 May 1897.

Various letters

In the 8th issue of Mizan, the letter dated 15 March 1897 was written to one of the Polish nobles of the Committee of Union and Progress. In the letter “we shed our blood for Poland before we shed tears for our homeland. We protested the 1772 murder before anyone else.” (22 March 1897, 8, p.3). The letter is full of good wishes.

In the 25th issue, the letter titled “Al-Jazeera Letters” first stated how bad was the state of the State, and then the letter writer describes his visit to the Bitlis province in order to illustrate this situation. In the incident that took place in the Siirt sanjak of Bitlis province, the author’s visit was thought as the tax officers were coming to the village, and the men from the villagers fled to the mountain, while the women retreated to their caves (houses). An old woman asked why they came and told that a few weeks ago, the tax officers had arrived and when they could not find anything to take in the village, they took the food containers. Thus, attention was drawn to the
CONCLUSION

The changes experienced after the Tanzimat Edict, an official document of the westernization policy of the Ottoman State, were the efforts to keep the state alive. These efforts, which continued as a state policy in the official sense, started to be prevented by the state channel for a period.

The changes in the internal and external events of the state were effective in creating these barriers. While the struggles of interests of the great states caused great wounds on the State, and the measures taken reached a limiting extent of freedom. Intellectuals rather than the people were affected by the restriction of freedoms.

People of thought, who lived with their ideas and were looking for ways to save the country from the crisis, started to leave the country in the face of the situation that threatened and restricted their freedoms and their right to life. Most of the intellectuals started to live abroad, in various cities of Europe, where they found the medium to produce ideas, write and discuss comfortably. They were trying to enlighten their countries and to produce solutions for salvation, even from a distance, with the activities they carried out in these regions.

One of these intellectuals, Mizancı Murat Bey, as a member of a number of formations like his other contemporaries, worked abroad to produce solutions for salvation limited to the possibilities of the period. While in Paris, he became the head of the party as the European representative of the ITC, moved the headquarters of the association to Geneva and made the newspaper Mizan, which he published there, the media organ of the association. During his presidency, which lasted for a year, he continued to report on the activities of the association and the agenda of the country with the 28 issues of Mizan, which he published.

The news came through letters written from various parts of the State to the newspaper printed in Paris and then Geneva. Military and political events were mostly mentioned, complaints were made to the administration and ruler of the country through criticism in these letters. The Cretan problem, the Armenian problem and the Macedonian problem were the main external problems of the State in the years 1896-1897, and letters were written to the newspaper on these issues.

Mizancı Murat Bey was not able to secure a consensus among the ITC, which was created and based in Paris and Geneva. The only idea that the members of the Society had in common was to save the Ottoman State from the domination of tyranny. Calls on this issue and efforts to restore the country to a parliamentary structure were slightly suspended with the victory over Greece in 1897. This situation caused a positive attitude towards prestiged Abdülhamit albeit for a short time. Even ITC President Mizancı Murat Bey did not ignore this situation and returned to Istanbul with a call for amnesty granted to him and ended his work in Europe. The struggles for the parliamentary structure would end in 1908.
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Chapter 22

An Assessment on Historical Background and Education of The Course on Republic of Turkey History of Revolution and Principles of Ataturk

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INTRODUCTION

The approach of humanity to the history has changed throughout the history. The change in the humanity’s approach towards and meaning attached to the history has resulted from the political, social, economical, religious, etc. conditions of the period in question. In parallel, it has impacted the perspectives of societies towards the education of history directly or indirectly. In this regard, societies have handled and regulated the education of history under the circumstances of the period they live (Demircioğlu, 2012, p.115). This perspective emerged in the final period of Ottoman Empire and the foundation of the Republic in the same manner. The understanding of the nation-state started to spread upon the French Revolution of 1789, also influenced the Ottoman Empire. In the Ottoman Empire, various policies were developed in line with several intellectual trends such as Westernism, Ottomanism and Islamism in order to keep the society together. Since the impacts of such trends were limited, the Turkism trend was led to emerge which has a nationalist foundation. On the other hand, the Republic of Turkey which was established over the legacy of Ottoman Empire upon its disintegration after World War First, and the victory of War of Independence was formed on the basis of the nation-state concept (Hanoğlu, 1985, p. 40; Şıvgın, 2009, p.42). The purposes of history education were shaped in the context of national identity formation, cultural transfer and loyalty to the state after starting to use the history courses effectively in raising individuals who are loyal to their country and nation, who adopt and glorify their culture and values, especially in the 19th century when nation states began to be formed (Demircioğlu, 2014, p.1177). This understanding in the education points out to the impacts of the understanding of nationalism, national identity and national culture emerged and became widespread upon the influence of French Revolution. The founding persons of the Republic tried to ensure the foundation of a standardized education in the

2This study has been produced from the doctoral thesis of Yakup AYAYDIN which is titled “The Assessment of Educational Program and Application of the Course of Republic of Turkey History of Revolution and Principles of Ataturk for Secondary Education”. 
entire country based on the understanding that the most significant way to form national identity and loyalty to the republic would be ensured through the education (Şimşek, Küçük ve Topkaya, 2012, p.2820). In line with this educational understanding, educational policies started to be applied and education of history was shaped to form national identity based on nationalist approach during the first years of the Republic. In this regard, the History of Revolution courses emerged in line with the understanding of ensuring the society to adopt and the future generations to learn the nation-state understanding, that is, the structure of the new state, its founding philosophy (Aybars, 1985, s.76; Aybars, 1987, p.70; Ateş, 1990, p.3; Aslan, 2015, p. 295; Akgün, 2004, p.23; Baydur,1997, p.97; Dönmez and Yazıcı, 2008, p.10; Hatipoğlu, 2004, p.21; Yılmaz, 2005, p.26). When considered in line with this understanding, it is seen that the course of History of Revolution serves as a regime course which ensures to protect and keep the national integrity alive, and to gain a positive attitude towards the principles of Atatürk (Eser, 2004, p.10; Erdaş, 2006, p.10; Ertan, 2004; p.177; Güneş, 2004, p.168; Safran, 2004a, p.112; Toprak, 1997, p.17; Yavuz, 2004, p. 183). Besides, the course of History of Revolution is considered as the security of the country’s future and protection of the Republic of Turkey. (Akgün, 2004, p.23; Eser, 2004, p.193). The course of Revolution of History is considered as a propaganda instrument and used in this sense in order to adopt, internalize and popularize the revolutions. (Erdaş, 2006, p.10; Karlıklı, 1997, p.42; Yüzbaşıoğlu, 1997, p.106). This understanding was integrated with the perspective of the ruling party of the period in question and tried to be obtained through the education by being named as “Kemalism” (Aybars, 1985, p.76; Baydur, 1997, p.98; Copeaux, 2016, p.61; Şimşek and Guler, 2013, p.545; Türkmen, 2015; p.11). Furthermore, it was shaped in line with the understanding that “The most effective way to design a new “future” for the society is to construct new “past” (Şimşek and Yazıcı, 2013, p.18) in order to ensure that the regime of Republic and its practices to be adopted in the society. It demonstrated an orientation in the context of creating its own history, denial and rejection of the past experiences (Öztürk, 2011. p.112) Through the understanding resulted from the denial and rejection of the past experiences, the courses of History of Revolution were handled through an understanding against the Ottoman Empire in time (Arslan, 2005. p.69). When considered through this aspect, the course of History of Revolution emerged as an instrument to transfer the nation-state understanding and fundamental philosophy of the Republic to the future generations was used in the denial and discrediting the past from time to time. Even if using the courses of History of Revolution as an instrument for denial and rejection of the past has been weakened, it has not disappeared completely yet.

It is obvious that education and culture policies are of crucial importance in ensuring the formation of nations and continuation of states (Arslan, 2005. p.65). Reconstruction of state can be realized by ensuring the social transformation in many fields, and having the most important transformation in the education and culture means raising individuals with national identity and national culture. This understanding laid the foundation of the educational understanding of the period of
Republic. Founding persons of the Republic of Turkey benefited from history in introducing Turkish identity and Turkish culture to the republican generation in the context of creating a national identity (Aslan, 2012, p.333; Demircioğlu, 2014, p.1177; Metin, 2006, p.48; Öztas, 2009, p.104; Şıvgın, 2009, p.42). To create and gain Turkish identity and culture have been discussed in the context of Turkish History Thesis. Besides, Kemalist ideology was formed and applied during the years when single-party government prevailed in the country from the foundation of the Republic to 1946 (Ersanlı, 2015, s.103). In this period, it is seen that Turkish History Thesis has been reflected to the history programs. In line with the political and ideological understanding of the period in question, it is seen that the understanding of breaking the ties of the newly established state with the past and creating a new identity comes to the forefront and courses of history have been used in this direction (Keskin, 2012. p.123). In this regard, another mainstay of the course of History of Revolution is to adopt the national culture and create national identity (Akbulut, 2005, p.19; Arslan, 2005, p.65; Akbaba, 2007, p.350; Emiroğlu, 2006, p.98; Pamuk, 2004, p.26; Safran, 2006a, p.101). Forming a new identity has been integrated with the understanding of raising reasonable citizens (complying with the regime) by the state (Akman, 2011, p.84; Gürses, 2010, p.233). Besides, courses of history of revolution were used as an instrument of citizenship education in the republic period. It shows that another mainstay of courses of History of Revolution is citizenship education (Akbaba, 2007, p.350; Dönmez and Yazıcı, 2008, p.10; Safran; 2006b, p.101; Yılmaz, 2006, p.3). Since the Turkish national identity created in parallel with a new understanding of identity has resulted in ignoring the different ethnic groups living in Turkey through the extreme nationalist policies applied in time, it has not been possible to raise regime-compliant and loyal citizens within the context of History of Revolution Course within different ethnic groups at all. The profile of a country which is globalized and where different ethnic groups are more prominent should not be ignored.

When the political, social, economical developments of the period in question are taken into consideration, the main mainstay of the course of History of Revolution consists of the political developments experienced in Europe. In this regard, it is seen that the course of History of Revolution emerged with the aim of preventing the youth from being affected by the increasing regimes in the Europe (Fascism, Nazism, Bolshevism) (Arslan, 2005, p.66; Bolat, 2012, p.262; Hatipoğlu, 2004, p.20; İnan, 2012, p.54; Şimşek, 2002, p.5; Şimşek and Güler, 2013, p. 545; Toprak, 1997, p.16). On the other hand, another mainstay of the course is the understanding of discussing Turkish Revolution in comparison with the revolutions and political trends of other nations (Aslan, 2015, p.296; Safran, 2006a, p.102). In a globalized and multi-polar world today, it is not possible to state that the courses of History of Revolution fulfill their functions in terms of both citizenship education and political perspective. At this point, it is necessary to discuss and assess the mainstays of courses of History of Revolution in the context of circumstances of the today’s world.
HISTORY OF THE HISTORY OF REVOLUTION COURSES

The foundations of the course which has been named as Turkish History of Revolution, Revolutionary History, Principles of Ataturk and History of Revolution, T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism in time dates back to 1925. The course of “History of Mutinies” started to be taught in the Faculty of Law in Ankara University which is the first higher education institution of the Republic in 1925 constituted the foundation of the course of Turkish History of Revolution started to be taught in the context of the idea of comparing the mutinies in the world to Turkish revolution (Doğaner, 2005a, p.281; Mumcu, 1985, p.45; Sezer, 2003, p.1; Yılmaz, 2005, p.26). The starting point of the course of History of Revolution was the idea of teaching it in the universities to celebrate the tenth anniversary of the foundation of the Republic, by D.R Reşit Galip, the T.R Minister of National Education in 1932. (İzgi, 1985, p.18; Toprak, 1997, p.17). Therefore, the first lesson of History of Revolution was given by Yusuf Hikmet Bayur, the Minister of National Education at the Institute of Revolution History opened at Istanbul University in 1934. The speakers of the lessons given as conference speeches between the years of 1934-1942 were Yusuf Hikmet Bayur, Mahmut Esat Bozkurt, Yusuf Kemal Tengirşen, Recep Peker, the leading names of the period who had participated in the War of Independence and took important roles in the revolutions. These persons discussed the different subjects of the History of Revolution. Yusuf Hikmet Bayur talked about mostly the subjects of political history while Mahmut Esat Bozkurt talked about the legal aspect of the regime, Yusuf Kemal Tengirşen talked about economical aspect and Recep Peker talked about the political and military aspect of the regime. These conferences were carried out as a live dialog between the those who did the revolutions and who lived them. (Dönmez and Yazıcı, 2008, p.17-18; İzgi, 1985, p.18; Şimşek, 2002, p.4; Toprak, 1997, p.18-19; Yılmaz, 2005, p.26). The courses of History of Revolution started to be taught in universities and colleges regularly since 1934 and in compliance with the Law no. 4204 since 1942. History of Turkish Revolution Institute was established in the Faculty of Language - History and Geography in Ankara University under the Law, and the name of the course changed into “History of Revolution and Regime of Republic of Turkey”, and a legal basis was ensured for teaching of the course in the final years of the universities. This course taught in the final years of the universities and colleges was planned as a course to be achieved. Even though the courses were planned to be given in line with the programs prepared by the Ministry of National Education, any program in this nature had not been carried out until 1946. However, after 1946, teaching the course was left to the responsibility of the universities. It continued to be taught under different names after this date (Ağaldağ, 1990, p.1; Dönmez and Yazıcı, 2008, p.19-20; Doğaner, 2005b, p.589-590; İzgi, 1985, p.19; İnan, 2012, p.52-53; Toprak , 1997, p.18-19). Even though the name of the course had been changed from 1946 to 1980, it is obvious that the content was not changed dramatically. The name and expected outcome of the course went through a change in connection with the political events and understanding. The course started to be taught for two terms in all faculties and colleges under the name of “History of Turkish Revolution and Regime of Republic
of Turkey” changed into the name of “History of Turkish Reform” in 1968. The most significant turning point in the courses of “History of Revolution” or in other words, “History of Reform” was the September 12, 1980 Coup d’Etat. The content and purposes of courses of “History of Revolution” or in other words, “History of Reform” went through a transformation after the constitution was placed on Ataturkist basis in its entirety upon the September 12, 1980 Coup d’Etat, and the emphasis on Ataturkism came to the forefront in the content and purposes of the course. The course which was named as “Principles of Ataturk and History of Revolution” since 1981 named as “Republic of Turkey History of Revolution and Ataturkism”. The course has been taught in secondary school and high schools with the name of “Republic of Turkey History of Revolution and Ataturkism” and in universities, with the name of “Principles of Ataturk and History of Revolution” as compulsory. The course has maintained its nature as a compulsory course since 1981. (Aslan, 2015, p. 300; Doğaner, 2005b, p. 589-590; İnан, 2012, p.52-53; Mumcu, 1985, p.45-46; Öüzüçetin and Nadar, 2010, p.474; Lightning and Güler, 2013, p. 545-546). There has been no significant change in the content and teaching objectives of the course since 1981; however, the method of teaching the course was changed in 2006 and tried to be based on the constructivist teaching approach. Lastly, the curriculum was changed in 2018 and the teaching of the course continues in the context of this curriculum. The courses of History of Revolution continue to be taught in line with the understanding emerged after 1981.

OBJECTIVES OF COURSES OF HISTORY OF REVOLUTION

Curriculum of education of history in Turkey have been shaped by political and social developments. It is possible to see the impacts of understandings such as Turkish-History Thesis, Humanism, Turkish-Islam Synthesis, Kemalism and Globalization emerged depending on the political and social developments of the period in question on the curriculums of history education from the foundation of the Republic to today’s world. The course objectives were shaped not only by the events of the period when emerged but also by the impacts of political and social developments taking place since the foundation of the Republic. On the other hand, it is seen that the impacts of Turkish-History Thesis, Humanism, Turkish-Islam Synthesis, Kemalism and Globalization which have an effective role in shaping the curriculum of History of Revolution courses are limited and the main philosophy of the course is shaped in the context of adopting and protecting the regime of Republic. And, it is seen that this understanding maintains its existence in today’s world. As emphasized earlier in the context of the main foundations of the courses of History of Revolution, the main objectives of the course have been based on adopting the understanding of the nation-state, that is, the structure of the new state and its founding philosophy and teaching it to the future generations (Aydıns, 1985, p.76; Aybars, 1987, p.70; Ateş, 1989, p.3; Aslan, 2015, p.295; Akgün, 2004, p.23; Baydur, 1997, p.97; Hatipoğlu, 2004, p.21; Yılmaz, 2005, p.26), gaining national values and culture and creating national identity, namely Turkish identity (Akbulut, 2005, p.19; Arslan, 2005, p.65; Akbaba, 2007, p.350; Emiroğlu, 2006, p.98; Pamuk, 2004, p.26; Safran, 2006a, p.101; Yel, 2005, p.109), protecting and keeping the integrity of
the country alive, providing a positive attitude towards the principles of Ataturk and reforms (Eser, 2004, p.10; Erdaş, 2006, p.10; Ertan, 2004; p.177; Güneş, 2004, p.168; Safran, 2004a, p.112; Toprak, 1997, p.17; Yavuz, 2004; p.183) raising individuals for the benefit of the state (Şimşek, Küçük and Topkaya, 2012, p.2819), raising reasonable-regime citizens (Akman, 2011, p.84), teaching the recent history to young generations ( Dönmez and Yazıcı, 2013, p. 245), ensuring the adoption of the understanding that emerged with the regime by the public (Aslan, 2015, p.295; Bolat, 2012, p.262;) During the first lesson of History of Revolution, with the statements of “The objective of these courses is to ensure young Turkish generations who will take part in the national working life to internalize the warmth and excitement, the strongest elements of forward movement in the spirit of the people who experienced and prepared the Period of Revolution, and to raise them with the principles of revolution that we have gone through to prepare them for the duty.”, Recep Peker. (İzgi, 1985.p. 18), stated that the objective of the History of Revolution is to ensure the new generations to internalize the revolutions and regime. In this line, one of the most significant objectives of the course of History of Revolution is to raise new generations loyal to the republican regime and capable of comprehending and adopting the principles and reforms of Ataturk by ensuring them to comprehend the founding philosophy of the Republic (Arslan, 2005, p.65; Ateş, 1989, p.3; Ezer, Ulukaya and Kaçar, 2016, p.73; Eraslan and Kaşkaya, 2011, p.327; Safran, 2006a, p.101; Sezer, 2003, p.4) This situation Safran (2004a, p.112); and he explained this situation by the expression of “It is aimed by the course of the Principles of Ataturk and History of Revolution is to ensure youth to gain a positive attitude towards the basic philosophy of the Turkish revolution, the Republican regime and principles and reforms of Ataturk”, and emphasized that the course objective is to raise generations with positive attitudes towards the regime of Republic and the basic philosophy of the Turkish revolution. Besides, the course of History of Revolution aims to ensure students to comprehend the conditions under which the republic was founded (Aslan, 2004, p.106; Ağaldağ, 1990, p.1; Sezer, 2003, p.4; Şimşek and Güler, 2013, p.545) and why the revolutions are necessary, (Çelikel, 1997, p.47), and which is explained by Ağaldağ (1990. p.1) with the expression of “The objective of the course of History of Turkish Revolution is to explain under which conditions the Republic was founded, to promote its value and to ensure national unity.” The way to ensure national unity and unite people around an ideal is to create your own nation and a national identity. In this sense, one of the most important objectives of the course of History of Revolution is to create the nation of the newly established republic, to ensure national unity by creating a national identity (Aybars, 2004a, p.34; Akgün, 2005, p.118; Baydur, 1997, p.97; Şimşek, Küçük and Topkaya, 2012, p.2820). Akgün (2005; p. 118) explained it by “The aim when starting to teach the history of Republic of Turkey is to gain an identity to the Republic established on the legacy of Ottoman Empire which had been collapsed.” while Baydur (1997, p.97) explained that the course was shaped in the context of creating a new identity with the Republic by “We can consider the courses of History of Revolution as the efforts of the state established to create its own
nation.” The course started to be taught in order to teach and adopt the history of the revolution and Kemalism, which systematizes it, to bring the youth and society together in an ideal unity, to build a modern society. (Aybars, 1985, p. 76). Another objective of the course of History of Revolution which aims to provide national unity and solidarity to the new generations by creating their own nation and giving a national identity is to raise Turkish youth around Ataturkist thinking system (Akgün, 2005, p.121; Cihan, 1985, p.25; Ezer, Ulukaya and Kaçar, 2016, p.73; Safran, 2004a, p.108; Saray, 2005, p.101; Sezer, 2003, p. 4).

The courses of History of Revolution have also aimed to gain the basic philosophy of the republic, to create a national identity, to ensure national unity and solidarity, to ensure the adoption of reforms by future generations, to raise Ataturkist persons, and to teach future generations the modernization steps of Turkey and the historical events of the recent period. (Aybars, 1985, p.76; Dönmez and Yazıcı, 2013, p.245; Eraslan and Kaşkaya, 2011, p.327; Hatipoğlu, 2004, p.18). Of the most significant and underlying objectives of these courses is the will of ensuring the future generations to adopt particular discourses, undoubtedly (Köstüklü, 2005, p.43; Keskin, 2012, p.123). Political governments have made several interventions towards the content of the course in various periods (Bolat, 2012, p. 262). It gained a new dimension when the course started to be taught as compulsory after the 1980 Coup d’Etat, and it was based on teaching students’ certain discourses, ideas and behaviors on the basis of Ataturkism (Keskin, 2012, p.120). In line with all assessments and explanations made, it can be said that course of History of Revolution has been taught in order to establish a national unity and solidarity around a national identity, to raise generations with the thinking manner of Ataturkist who will comprehend the conditions under which the republic was established and adopt the republic and the reforms and to teach the recent history and to ensure that the understanding emerged with the regime has been adopted. Various changes were made in the curriculum of T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism course taught compulsorily in the eighth grade and eleventh grade in time upon the impact of political government; however, many changes were not made in terms of course objective (Kaya, 2016, p. 139).

In addition to the course objectives, another important point to consider is the level of meeting such objectives. In other words, since the objectives of these courses have not met in adequate level, individuals who are not committed to the reforms and regime of Ataturk have been raised (Çelikel, 1997, p. 46). The coup attempt experienced in the recent period has also shown that the students successfully graduated from the courses of History of Revolution have not raised in line with the objectives of the course. Another point to consider is that the course has been taught in order to ensure Ataturkist thinking to be adopted; however, this objective has not met sufficiently (Akgün, 2005, p.125). It is also very difficult to state that the course fulfills its purpose in the context of citizenship education, on what requirements the New Turkish State emerged, and in the context of political attitude and value transfer (Doğaner, 2005b, p. 606). In this regard, it is obvious that several problems were experienced in meeting the objectives of the course (Aslan, 2004, p. 106). It is seen
to be necessary to discuss the course objectives in this context. Especially, the course objectives should be shaped in the context of creating a positive attitude in students and in the context of gaining national values at the primary education level, and also in a way to develop students' cognitive, affective and psycho-motor characteristics (Dönmez, 2006, p. 170; Emiroğlu, 2005, p.157; Safran, 2006a, p.109). Apart from the course objectives, there are many reasons behind not meeting the course objectives in the intended level and the most striking points can be said to be the teaching of the course, its content, the people who teach the course, teaching materials, political concerns, and students' attitudes towards the course (Akbaba, 2009, p.35; Dönmez, 2006, p.170-172; Eraslan and Kaşkaya, 2011, p.328). It is necessary to discuss the course and solve the problems encountered in teaching the course in order to meet the course objectives (Akgün, 2005, p.126; Eraslan and Kaşkaya, 2011, p.329).

**ASSESSMENTS ON THE NAME OF COURSES OF HISTORY OF REVOLUTION**

The course emerged in the years following the foundation of Republic, of which foundation was based on the course of “History of Mutinies” and taught under different names such as “History of Revolution”, “History of Revolution and Republic of Turkey Regime”, “History of Turkish Revolution”, “History of Turkish Reform” in time depending on the political developments experienced in the country is taught in the eighth and twelfth grades at the schools under the name of “T.R History of Revolution and Atatuskism” and “The Principles of Ataturk and History of Revolution” at the universities (Aksoy, 2006, p.64; Dönmez and Yazıç, 2008, p.17-19; Doğaner, 2005b, p.589-590; İnan, 2012, p.54; Şimşek and Güler, 2013, p.546; Öüzçetin and Nadar, 2010, p.474; Yılmaz, 2006, p.24-25). The discussions regarding naming the course taught under different names so far have not come to an end. When the countries governed by democracy, it is seen that there is no George Washington Principles and American History in the USA or Napoleon's Principles and French History in France or Cromwell Principles and British History in England (Baydur, 1997, p.98). On the other hand, naming the course as History of Revolution, Principles of Ataturk and History of Revolution or T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism narrows the scope of the course. It is necessary to take into consideration the background of the Ottoman Empire to evaluate the developments of Republic period. However, it is difficult to discuss the developments experienced after the Republic period under these names. In this regard, the course name is very narrow and does not reflect the content (Toprak, 1997, p.20-21; Yüzbaşoğlu, 1997, p.107). Experts in this field have explained with their reasons that the name of the course should be changed (Aslan, 2015, p.310; Arslan, 2005, p.271; Emiroğlu, 2005, p.161; Ertan, 2004, p.178; Çelik, 2004, p. 42; Metin, 2006, p.54; Öztürk, 2006, p. 208). In this regard, Öztürk (2006, p. 208) said that: “I think the name of this course should also be changed. I think it is necessary to carry out a new name, a new restructuring to include founding philosophy of the Republic of Turkey, the Turkish revolution, and processes after the Turkish revolution.” and he stated that the course name can be more comprehensive. Emiroğlu, (2005, p.161): “By protecting the main
framework of the nature of the course T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism taught in the second grade of primary education. A new name such as “Modern Turkish History” or “20th Century Turkish History” can be given” by underlying these names. In this line Ertan (2004, p. 178) stated that the course name can be “Ataturk and Contemporary Turkey” with the statements that: “I would like to make a tangible suggestion about the course name which can be Ataturk and Contemporary Turkey”. Çelik (2004, s.42) using the expression that: “I would like to mention about the change in the course name which is “History of Revolution. “My friend mentioned about it to me. I am against to teach the course under the name of Principles of Ataturk and History of Revolution. I think it is more comprehensible to name the course as “History of Turkish Revolution”, and underlined that the course name should be “History of Turkish Revolution”. Assessments and suggestions regarding the course name show that the discussions are still ongoing. On the other hand, it is seen that the contents of the courses taught under different names in the past years are very similar. This situation shows that the content of the course should be evaluated and reconsidered as well as its name (Güneş, 2004, p.164; Şimşek, 2002, p.9; Yalçın, 2004, p.50). In this context, while evaluating the name of the course, the content and the name of the course should be considered as a whole and re-evaluated.

ASSESSMENTS ON THE CONTENT OF COURSES OF HISTORY OF REVOLUTION

In the assessments regarding the course content, it is seen that chronological boundaries of the course from primary education to higher education level, scope of the subjects, the connection with the present, the density of the content, the way the topics discussed, and the support of the content with primary sources come to the fore. The content of the course of History of Revolution and Ataturkism should be discussed in line with the understanding of yesterday-today-tomorrow, connection should be established between past and present experience (Arslan, 2005, p.272; Eraslan and Kaşkaya, 2011, p.349-350). To create the understanding of yesterday-today-tomorrow is possible to provide the historical events effectively. Therefore, the content of the course should be formed without ignoring that the foundation of the Republic was laid during the Ottoman Empire period and that those people who declared the republic were raised in the Ottoman Empire. Students who could not fully comprehend the history of the 19th century and the efforts of democratization and innovation in the Ottoman state since this period will have difficulty in understanding and embracing the republic and the reforms of the republic (Ertan, 2004, p.177; Pamuk, 2004, p. 28-29). Turkish revolution was shaped in line with the movements of nationalism, secularism, and national sovereignty emerged as a result of political developments in the 19th century (Mumcu, 1985, p. 51). If any content is created based on the foundations of Turkish revolution in 19th century, the course will be based on solid foundations (Azrak, 1997, p.85). The foundations of the course should be created by taking into consideration the events experienced during the Tanzimat Period started in 1839 and Constitutional Monarchy I and II. In order to fully comprehend the Republic and the reforms, it is necessary to examine the period
of the Ottoman Empire, when the foundations of the Republic were laid. In other words, those who realized the Turkish Revolution were inspired by Tanzimat and the basis of the modernization of the Republic period was laid by the Ottoman westernization (Arslan, 2005, p.271; Aksoy, 2006, p.69; Baydur, 1997, p.99; Ekinci, 2004, p.46; Mumcu, 1985, p.51; Toprak, 1997, p. 20; Yüzbchart, 1997, p.107). Including the developments experienced in the final period of Ottoman Empire into the course content will make positive contributions to reflecting Turkey’s democratization efforts of society, the understanding of the foundations of the republic, and raising individuals to embrace the Republic (Aslan, 2015, p.306; Ertan, 2004, p.177; Pamuk, 2004, p. 25). Discussing the course independent from the developments in the Ottoman period will result in teaching the events regardless of their political and social background, and decrease in the interest towards the subjects (Çelikel, 1997, p.48) In this regard, the course content should include the developments experienced in the Ottoman period as an infrastructure, and the reflections and effects of the developments in the final period of the Ottoman Empire to the republic period should be taken into account (Akgün, 2004, p.31; Arslan, 2005, p.271; Aksoy, 2006, p.65; Delen, 2007, p.95; Demirel, 2005, p.258; Kılıç and Şam, 2012, p.167; Yılmaz, 1997, p.73; Yılmaz, 2005, p. 29).

Of the most significant points to ensure students to establish connections between the past and present is to include the political, social and economical developments experienced in the recent period into the course content, undoubtedly. In this regard, while forming the course content, the World War II and the post-war developments should be discussed, Turkey’s existing political problems should be considered and connections should be established with the political, social and economical developments in Turkey and world (Aybars, 2004, p.38; Aslan, 2004, p.108; Arslan, 2005, p.272; Alperen, 2008, p.115; Akbaba, 2009, p.51; Aksoy, 2006, p.69; Baydur, 1997, p.99; Berktay, 1997, p.26; Cihan, 1985, p.27; Doğaner, 2005b, p.603; Demirel, 2005, p.258; Delen, 2007, p.93; Eraslan and Kaşkaya, 2011, p.348; Fırat, 2005, p.175; Kılıç and Şam, 2011, p.166; Öztürk, 2005, p.57; Pamuk, 2004, p.28-29; Saray, 2005, p.105 ; Toprak, 1997, p.20; Yılmaz, 2006, p.28; Yılmaz, 2005, p.37). To ensure the students o make comparisons between the past and the present, to produce solutions to the problems in Turkey and to make predictions for the future of Turkey will be possible by discussing the developments experienced in the recent period (Akgün, 2004, p.30; Ertan, 2004, p.177; Pamuk, 2004, p.28) -29) It is extremely difficult and challenging to deal with recent developments in the content of the course. Because for an event to have a historical nature, it should be enlightened in all aspects and a certain time must pass over it (Akbulut, 2005, p.23).

In this regard, as in all subjects, political, social and economic developments in the recent period should be included in the course with positive and negative aspects by allowing the opposing views to be discussed, and students should be able to evaluate the events from different angles (Emiroğlu, 2005, p.158; Yılmaz, 2005, p.38-39).

In addition to the start and end points of the course content, it is of great importance how the content will be presented attaching importance to the basic criteria. In this line, it is necessary to take into consideration the political, social and
economical conditions prevailed in the period when the Republic of Turkey was founded and to reflect such points to the course content so that the Republic of Turkey can be understood well and completely (Aybars, 1985, p.73; Dönmez and Yazıcı, 2008, p.42). The course subjects should be provided by considering the economic conditions of the period. Because many victories or defeats we have experienced in history are closely related to our economic situation (Güneş, 2004, p.77; Tokgöz, 2004, p.78). Besides, basing the content around Atatürk and reflecting him as an inaccessible character poses an important problem (Arslan, 2005, p.67). In this regard, heroic stories of people from different regions and groups who took part in the War of Independence and foundation of Republic should be included more in the content of the course (Arslan, 2005, p.70; Alperen, 2008, p.115; Saray, 2005, p.102). These heroisms can be discussed in the context of local and verbal history on the basis of the National Struggle (Dilek, 2005, p. 88). And it will enable children to associate historical events with their immediate surroundings and unifying aspects of the War of Independence to emerge (Arslan, 2005, p.70; Emiroğlu, 2005, p. 159). Another point in the content of the course is the question of how to connect the issues from the Ottoman Empire to the foundation of the Republic. When getting to the eighth grade, the student can have difficulties due to the difference of the perspective on the Ottoman Empire. This transition should be handled in a way that does not lead to hostility towards the Ottoman Empire, without staining the past, by including different perspectives on contested issues (Arslan, 2005, p.69-70; Demirel, 2005, p.260; Emiroğlu, 2005, p.158; Saray, 2005, p.103). Besides, including both winners and losers in the course content will enable students to look through different perspectives (Dönmez and Yazıcı, 2013, p.258). When creating the course content, the subjects can be taught in the context of themes such as social history and political history in a chronological integrity by taking a thematic approach into consideration (Alperen, 2008, p. 116; Dilek, 2005, p. .90; Emiroğlu, 2005, p.158; Öztürk, 2005, p.57), instead of memorizing them chronologically (Eraslan, 2005, p.98).

Of the most important points regarding the course content is the subject density, undoubtedly (Öner and Öner, 2014, p.393; Sertkaya, 2005, p.263; Şimşek and Güler, 2013, p.567). It is obvious to be of great importance to increase the time allocated to the lesson or to decrease the density of the subjects, especially considering that the subjects should be brought up to the present and starting from the historical events that were effective in the formation of the republic that emerged in the Ottoman Empire (Demirel, 2005, p.258; Eraslan and Kaşkaya, 2011, p.349; Saray, 2005, p.107; Tangülü, Tosun and Kocabıyık, 2014, p.243). On the other hand, it should be taken into consideration that increasing the lesson hours may result in decrease in motivation or in weariness (Arslan, 2005, S, 271). In this context, while creating the course content, the subject scope, intensity and the way the subjects are given should be well designed. The subjects in the course content should be made interesting and supported with primary sources, and historical characters that can set an example should be included (Alperen, 2008, p.116; Cihan, 1985, p.26; Doyran and Doyran, 2013, p.174; Dönmez and Yazıcı, 2008, p.42; Dönmez and Yazıcı, 2013, p.258; Hanioğlu, 1985, p. 42). In the context of assessments regarding the course content,
it is necessary to discuss the course content within the scope of past and future, local historical elements should be taken into consideration, different perspectives should be provided for the matters in dispute, it should be created with a thematic approach, taking into account the political, social and economic conditions of the period when the Republic was founded, density of the subject should be reduced, the topics should be made interesting and primary sources should be included in the course materials related to the topics covered in the content.

**ASSESSMENTS ON THE TEACHING AND LEARNING SITUATIONS OF COURSES OF HISTORY OF REVOLUTION**

The reason behind not achieving the intended objectives of History of Revolution and Ataturkism should be looked for approaches, materials and teaching methods, techniques and strategies used in teaching the course (Dönmez and Yazıcı, 2008, p.45). Uniform methods used by teachers in the lesson weaken the effectiveness of the lesson (Yel, 2005, p. 111). It was detected that teachers prefer teacher-centered methods (teaching by direct lectures, presentation) in the lesson and the lesson is teacher and book-centered before the T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism curriculum is prepared in accordance with the constructivist approach, according to the researches (Dönmez, 2006, p.172; Emiroğlu, 2005, p.156; Köstüklü, 2005, p.48; Metin, 2006, p.54; Öztürk, 2005, p.55; Öztas, 2006, p.134; Yılma, 2005, p.41; Yılma, 2006, p.27). Student’s being passive during the class causes learning not to be at the desired level (Köstüklü, 2005, p.50). However, teaching these lessons in this way causes the youth of the 21st century to not acquire the skills they should have (Dönmez, 2006, p.172). This situation shows that it is necessary to make the student active in the teaching of the lesson. (Aksoy, 2006, p.70; Birişik, 2006, p.83; Emiroğlu, 2006, p.117; Eraslan and Kaşkaya, 2011, p.328; Yılma, 2006, p.27). It is necessary to design the course program and materials, methods and techniques in compliance with contemporary methods and techniques in order to ensure the success of the course and the realization of its goals at a high level.

The philosophical infrastructure of the course should be changed and organized according to the student-centered understanding (progressive-constructivist) in order to ensure that students have an active role in teaching the course (Ata, 2005, p.74; Dönmez, 2006, p.178; Öztürk, 2005, p.57). To ensure that students have an active participation in the course of T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism will contribute to achieving the expected efficiency from the lesson (Cihan, 1985. p.26). The efficiency of the lesson will increase as long as the active participation of the student in the lesson is ensured (Arslan, 2005, p.272). In this way, the teacher will have an understanding that guides and directs the student, not transmitting information in accordance with classical methods in the T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism course (Yılmaz, 2005, p. 41). So, methods and techniques such as question and answer, case study, group work, simulation, discussion, collaborative learning, brainstorming, problem solving, discovery learning, drama, empathy, research, resource review, educational games where the students will have an active role should be included in the course (Demirel, 2005, p.258-259; Dilek, 2005, p.90; Emiroğlu, 2005, p.159; Köstüklü, 2005, S, 48; Koca, 2005, p.179; Saray, 2005,
However, excursion-observation-based activities should be included in the course, trips to historical sites should be organized and the course should be supported with visual elements so that students can concretize the subjects (Arslan, 2005, p.275; Dönmez, 2006, p.177; Dilek, 2005, p.90; Demirel, 2005, p.260; Eraslan, 2005, p.98; Emiroğlu, 2005, p.156-157; Eraslan and Kaşkaya, 2011, p.328; Koca, 2005, p.180; Yel, 2005, p.113; Safran, 2006b, p.123).

Another way for students to embody the learned points is to use educational technologies in a way that enables students to participate in lessons (Acun, 2006, p.153; Demirel, 2005, p.258; Dönmez, 2006, p.177; Yılmaz, 2006, p.27). Besides, local and oral history practices should be included in the teaching of the course so that students can comprehend historical events or places more effectively (Arslan, 2005, p.275; Dilek, 2005, p.88; Eraslan and Kaşkaya, 2011, p.328). All these methods and techniques should be included; however, at the same time, students' critical thinking, analysis and evaluation skills should be developed, the topics in the content should be compared and different opinions should be included (Arslan, 2005, p.272; Safran, 2006b, p.123; Tokgöz, 2004, p.95; Yediyıldız, 2004, p.159; Yılmaz, 2005, p.38-41). In the context of these assessments, it is seen that T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism in the Secondary Education was prepared based on the constructivist approach in 2006. After the curriculum had been implemented as a pilot in 2008-2009, it was implemented until the 2018-2019 academic year upon several amendments made in 2010. In the curriculum started to be implemented in 2010, student-centered methods were included and the importance of such methods were underlined and some recommendations were made for teachers (MEB, 2018).

In this process gone through, the subjects of T.R History of Revolution and Ataturksim are taught in the same manner and through the same perspective in all educational levels (Arslan, 2005, p.70; Dönmez and Yazıcı, 2008, p. 37). In this context, in the studies conducted at different educational levels, it was determined that the teachers and lecturers mainly used classical methods in History of Revolution courses and could not carry out the the course in line with the constructivist approach. (Akbaba, 2008, p.191; Akbaba, 2009, p.51; Akbaba et al., 2014, p.222; Göç, 2009, p.179; Bayram, 2016, p. 130-131; Kahramanoğlu, 2014, p.125; Sever, 2017, p. 91). These studies show that the use of classical methods continue to be used in History of Revolution courses despite of the curriculum prepared based on constructivist approach. And it points out that even if the curriculum was prepared based on constructivist approach, it could not be achieved in practice at all (Karademir, 2015, p.74-75). On the other hand, teachers stated that the reasons behind inability to use constructivist method and techniques during the lessons were the content of the program, the intensity of the lesson, the insufficiency of resources and equipment, and the assessment-evaluation system. (Bayram, 2016, p.131; Karademir, 2015, p.70-72; Kaya, 2008, p.168; Sever, 2017, p.91; Şimşek and Güler, 2013, p. 569-570; Tangülü, Tosun, and Kocabıyık, 2014, p.241-242). The dense content of the course, insufficient lesson time, the national measurement and evaluation limit the use of student-centered methods and techniques for teachers.

The studies conducted for the teaching of the lesson show that using
constructivist and contemporary methods and techniques in teaching the subjects of T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism is effective in achieving the goals of the lesson, increasing learning, developing a positive attitude towards the lesson, performing an effective and efficient teaching (Altıkulaç and Akhan, 2010, p.241; Birişik, 2006, p.79-81; Demirezen and Akhan, 2011, p.22; Demirezen, 2014, p.76-77; Kaya, 2012, p.79; 2008, p.166-167; Yekrek, 2006, p.83). In other words, it is of great importance to determine the methods and techniques to be used in T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism courses and how to apply such methods and techniques. Apart from including student-centered methods and techniques in the curriculum, it is of important to determine how to use such methods and techniques during the teaching of the course. So, it is necessary to consider and evaluate the teaching circumstances of the course along with the other elements of the curriculum once again.

ASSESSMENTS ON THE MATERIALS USED IN THE COURSE OF HISTORY OF REVOLUTION

Of the most fundamental problems encountered in the course of T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism is the course book and materials used in the course, undoubtedly. Course books are one of the most important instruments that teachers use in teaching the course. Course book are of efficiency in achieving the aim of the course and increasing its effectiveness. It is seen that most of the books written for the History of Revolution course include the same texts with slight differences from primary education to university education (Kalaycıoğlu, 1985, p. 36). However, it is seen that other resources are not used adequately (Hanioğlu, 1985, p. 42). According to a research conducted in 2006, when the course books from past to present are reviewed, it is seen that there is not much changes apart from several additions (Dönmec, 2006, p. 170). According to another research conducted in 2012, it is seen that the most significant changes in the course books are the addition or removal of several subjects and addition of several maps and images and changing the titles (Yurteri, 2012, s.56). These researches show that the problems about the course books of History of Turkish Revolution and Ataturkism have maintained their existence for a long time. The reason behind this situation is not only about a course book or course book authors, but also about the curriculum (Yılmaz, 2006, p.28). Because course books are prepared in line with the curriculum. However, in 2006 it is seen that the traces of the old approach maintains their existence in the course books Despite of the change in the curriculum of the History of T.R Revolution and Ataturkism course (Camkıran, 2011, p.229; Kaya, 2016, p. 146) Researches conducted and experiences gained throughout the history have revealed significant outcomes regarding how History of T.R Revolution and Ataturkism course should be. In this context, the course books of T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism should include primary and secondary sources for the period of the topics, historical documents, literary works and works of art, visual elements should be used more often and books should not be information-based at this level (Ata, 2006, p.126; Alperen, 2008, p.119; Emiroğlu, 2006, p.117). In this way, both the course will be multidimensional and diverse (Emiroğlu, 2006, p.117). Besides, the course books do
not have adequate level of visual elements (Yel, 2005, p. 110) Therefore, Visuals, graphics and tables should be included in the course books more often and it should not be ignored that a visual element can be more effective than tens of pages sometimes (Ata, 2006, p.126, Alperen, 2008, p.119). Besides, poetry and literature and historical evidence should be included in course books and activities (Doğan, 2008, p.208; Emiroğlu, 2005, p.160; Safran, 2006b, p.118). Including poems and historical evidences in the course enhances students' questioning abilities and interpretation skills, improves their creativity and activates their feelings (Çencen and Berk, 2014, p.19; Doğan, 2008, p.202; Emiroğlu, 2005, p.160). Course books should not only focused on providing information and memorization, instead, should enable students to develop different skills by relating historical events (Ata, 2006, p.126; Dönmez and Yazıcı, 2008, p.41; Emiroğlu, 2006, p.117; Saray, 2005, p.108), they should be prepared in accordance with the age and level of students (Saray, 2005, p.108), and ensure students can experience the enthusiasm and excitement of historical events (Safran, 2006b, p.119). Additionally, the use of different historical sources should also be included in the course no matter how much course book has been prepared in accordance with its objectives and effectively (Aksoy, 2006, p.70; Dönmez and Altıkulaç, 2014, p.939; Hanioğlu, 1985, p.42).

Apart from course books, the tools and materials used in the course are of importance in achieving the course objectives and ensuring the efficiency of the course. The studies conducted show that auxiliary materials are not used sufficiently in the course of T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism (Dönmez, 2006, p.172; Öztürk, 2005, p.55; Sertkaya, 2005, p.265; Tangülü, Tosun and Kocabıyık, 2014, p.242; Yılmaz, 2006, p.5). The reason behind this situation is considered to be the material deficiency in schools (Akbaba et al., 2014, p. 222; Şimşek and Güler, 2013, p.568; Tangülü, Tosun and Kocabıyık, 2014, p.242). Improving the course in terms of tools and materials and using historical documents, photographs, videos, virtual trips, films, documentaries and audio materials to be prepared in accordance with the developing technology might embody the subjects of T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism course (Acun, 2006, p.153; Dönmez, 2006, p.177; Eraslan, 2005, p.98). The technological equipment in schools should be developed in this sense (Eraslan, 2005, p.98; Öztürk, 2005, p. 57). Upon the development of technological equipment, products of computer technologies can be used effectively in the teaching of the course (Dilek, 2005, p.90). In many researches, it is detected that the courses carried out by using different materials are effective. It is seen that teaching by using visual and auditory materials has increased the academic success level and information-remembering level of students in the course of T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism (Arslan, 2008, p. 107). It is seen to be necessary to use visual elements in order to ensure that information learned in the course of T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism will be permanent and enjoyable (Aslan and Şeker, 2013, s.40). Also, it has been seen that discussing on visual elements with students have provided the students’ development of interpretation skills and the permanence of the learned (Demirezen and Akhan, 2011, p.20-21). On the other hand, It is seen that using documentary films in teaching of T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism is
effective in embodying the learned and ensuring its permanence (Türker and Arslan, 2008, p. 101). It has been detected that students feel comfortable, have fun and can express their thoughts clearly, in teaching environments with cartoon material, and their perspective towards the course has changed accordingly (Palaz, 2010, p.66). It has been determined that similarly, the teaching with newspapers positively changed the attitude of students towards the course and was effective in increasing their success (Tangülü, 2013, p. 785).

ASSESSMENTS ON THE PERSPECTIVE TOWARDS THE COURSES OF HISTORY OF REVOLUTION

In the researchers conducted, the courses of History of Revolution are considered as regime courses (Akgün, 2004a, p.23; Aybars, 2004b, p.172; Güneş, 2004, p.168, Toprak, 1997, p.17). It has resulted in the course to have a political nature (Yavuz, 2004; p.183). The political nature of the course has led political governments to intervene in the curricula of the courses and their attempts to benefit from this course (Bolat, 2012, p. 262). The political nature of the course and other problems experienced in teaching the course resulted in failure to achieve the course objectives (Akgün, 2005, p.125). When it comes to the world-wide practices, it is seen that ideological inculcation lessons take place in America, England and France. However, the main point here is the extent and basis of ideological highlight in the courses of History of Revolution (Safran, 2004b, p.158). There have been many changes in the world since the 1930s when this lesson emerged (Toprak, 1997, p.120). On the other hand, the courses of History of Revolution which has been taught under different names at different educational levels since 1930s started to be taught compulsorily in the primary education level after 1981 under the name of T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism, and the course aimed to ensure students gain certain discourses, ideas and behaviors (Keskin, 2012, p.119-120). When this understanding is considered through the compulsory nature and basic philosophy behind the course, it can be said to maintain its existence today. In this regard, the course should be adapted into the present day by leaving the understanding of directing to certain discourses (Toprak, 1997, p. 120). In the researchers conducted, It has been stated that the scientific aspect of the T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism course is weak (Özcan, 1997, p.104), and its political aspect is more prominent than its scientific aspect (Akgün, 2005, p.125). If the course was handled in terms of scientific context, it would not have turned into a propaganda instrument by directing to certain principle or reform (Karlıklı, 1997, p.45). On the other hand, teaching the course through a one directional perspective can cause students to reach in the following years (Çelikel, 1997, p.46-47). In today’s world, students have the opportunity to reach many sources outside the school regarding the events in the course content within the framework of freedom of press and broadcasting (Yel, 2005, p.115). In other words, students show a hidden or explicit reaction to what is taught at school with the information they get from different sources regardless of they are true or false, and create a different understanding of history (Arslan, 2005, p.70; Emiroğlu, 2006, p.100). Therefore, it is of necessary that the information in the History of Revolution books is handled more carefully based on primary sources
(Arslan, 2005, p. 70). Besides, it is necessary to handle the subjects away from ideological and political approaches (Saray, 2005, p.104). If there is any mistake in Kemalist revolution, students can have the right to criticize and question such mistakes (Tanör, 1997, p.58). It is clear that the course cannot be ensured to be comprehended by students through a curriculum that consists of compulsion and births and stuck with patterns (Pamuk, 2004, p.54). Accordingly, curriculum, course books and teachers presenting Ataturkism as a dogmatic ideology reduces the effects of the course (Öztürk, 2005, p.54). As a matter of fact, Ataturkism taught in a guiding way causes the opponents of Ataturkism to emerge in time (Akarsu, 1997, p.72). So, it is necessary to consider that Ataturkist thought is a non-dogmatic modernization ideology (Öztürk, 2005, p.57), and humanitarian characteristics of Atatürk should be taught (Uslu, 2004, p.90). When teaching Atatürk, it is necessary to describe Atatürk as the leader of the liberation struggle, rather than using stereotypes as a taboo (Saray, 2005, p.103; Saray, 2005, p.107). Within the framework of these assessments, It is of necessity to raise the youth who will carry Turkey to to the future in 21st century through the course of History of Revolution and Ataturkism prepared away from certain discourses and political influences.

ASSESSMENTS ON THE MEASUREMENT-EVALUATION ASPECT OF THE COURSE OF HISTORY OF REVOLUTION

Of the most important problems in T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism is undoubtedly the measurement-evaluation approach in curriculum and the reflection of this approach to the measurement and evaluation practices in the class. The current evaluation practices in T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism aims to identify what students learn from what teachers tell and can memorize from books. Basically, it seems that there is no product-oriented evaluation (Öztürk, 2005, p.56). Multiple-choice, closed-ended questions and fill-in-the-blank questions used in this evaluation method prevent the development and creativity of analysis-synthesis skills because of directing students to memorize (Yel, 2005, p.110). The measurement-evaluation process should not based on memorizing the historical information and measuring these memorized information (Yılmaz, 2006, p.29). Measurement and evaluation of the course of T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism should be designed as process oriented, and not only the knowledge level but also the attitudes and skills of students should be evaluated within the process (Öztürk, 2005, s.57). Besides, measurement-evaluation methods should be handled to evaluate the high-level cognitive skills and affective domain skills. (Emiroğlu, 2005, p.160). Measurement-evaluation should be diversified by using different measurement-evaluation instruments (Kaya, 2016, p.148). Using different evaluation instruments when measuring the knowledge, skill and attitudes of students will reduce the errors in the evaluation to be made as a result of the measurement process (Dönmez and Yazıcı, 2008, p.326). In this regard, classical measurement and evaluation instruments should be included in the measurement and evaluation process for the development of students' thinking, taking lessons and lessons from events, interpreting, making sentences, expressing power and skills (Arslan, 2005. p.273) On the other hand, article, composition, museum and so on.
The measurement and evaluation of the lesson should be diversified with trip-observation studies (Dilek, 2005, p.90). Another variation in assessment and evaluation is multiple choice evaluation. Since the central examination practice applied in Turkey for transition from primary education to high school education and high school education to university education causes student to be conditioned to multiple-choice questions. These questions should be prepared above the knowledge level and in a way to improve the analysis and synthesis skills of the students (Safran, 2006b, p.120). In line with such evaluations, curriculum of T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism was prepared based on constructivist approach in 2006. The curriculum was based on process-oriented measurement and evaluation, and various process and outcome-oriented measurement and evaluation instruments were recommended to the teachers (MEB, 2006). Although the curriculum was prepared based on constructivist approach, the measurement and evaluation process is still carried out via traditional measurement and evaluation instruments. Learning is not evaluated based on process, but based on result (Kaya, 2016, p.148). The most frequently used measurement and evaluation instruments used by teachers were detected to be written examination, multiple choice and true-false tests, filling the blank practices (Çelebi, 2014, p.144). There are many reasons why the practices different even though the curriculum has been prepared according to constructivist approach. However, the relationship between the elements of the curriculum is the main determinant in this regard. Because it is not possible to evaluate a student-centered and non-product-based teaching through the process-oriented measurement and evaluation instruments. In addition to conducting an evaluation for the entire curriculum, another evaluation should be conducted for the understanding and instruments of measurement and evaluation.

RESULT

The most significant factor in human life has been education throughout the history. Education is shaped by the political, social, economical, religious conditions in the period in question. Developments in the world have directly or indirectly affected the educational activities of the countries. At this point, upon the emergence of nation-state understanding resulted from the political, social, economical developments of 19th century, countries underwent political transformations, empires were dissolved and nation states emerged. Nation-states have aimed to raise individuals who will embrace the nation-state and adopt the identity of the nation-state in achieving their political objectives. This understanding has led nation states to plan their education systems in this direction. Accordingly, the nation states have shaped their language, history and citizenship education, specifically for creating a new identity.

One of the states mostly affected by the developments of 19th century in the world is Ottoman Empire. The most important factor that played a role in Ottoman Empire’s being affected by the nation-state understanding is its multinational structure. Even though Ottoman Empire developed different policies such as Westernism, Ottomanism and Islamism in order to protect it from the negative effects of the nationalism movement, it could not avoid the impacts of nationalism
movement at all. Nationalism movement had influenced Ottoman Empire since the first moment it emerged; however, its most destructive effects were experienced in the First World War, which caused Ottoman Empire to dissolve and Anatolian lands were occupied by the imperialist states. All-out fight against the occupying forces in Anatolia resulted in the foundation of Republic of Turkey. Republic of Turkey was constructed as a nation state in line with the Turkish movement emerged in the final period of Ottoman Empire.

The fields which Republic of Turkey shaped as nation state used in constructing nation and creating a new identity were education, language and culture. The foundations of Republic of Turkey were laid upon the reforms in education, language and culture upon the foundation of Republic. The reforms in education were also reflected in the courses taught in educational institutions. The most significant field used in nation construction and new identity creation has been history education. History education has been the most significant field used to ensure individuals to comprehend the foundations of the newly established state and its struggles during the foundation process. In this regard, the education of History of Revolution comes to the forefront. The foundations of the course which has been named as Turkish History of Revolution, Revolutionary History, Principles of Ataturk and History of Revolution, T.R History of Revolution and Ataturkism in time dates back to “History of Mutinies” started to be taught in the Faculty of Law in Ankara University in 1925. These courses taught under different names throughout the history have been based on transferring the understanding of the nation-state and the basic philosophy of the republic to the next generations, gaining the Turkish national identity created in line with a new understanding of identity, preventing the country, especially the youth from being affected by the emerging regimes in Europe (Fascism, Nazism, Bolshevism) in negative direction. The main pillars of the course resulted in the emergence of different mainstays upon the impacts of political powers in time. At this point, the course of History of Revolution emerged as an instrument to transfer the nation-state understanding and fundamental philosophy of the Republic to the future generations was used in the denial and discrediting the past from time to time. Even if using the courses of History of Revolution as an instrument for denial and rejection of the past has been weakened, it has not disappeared completely yet. Since the Turkish national identity created in parallel with a new understanding of identity has resulted in ignoring the different ethnic groups living in Turkey through the extreme nationalist policies applied in time, it has not been possible to raise regime-compliant and loyal citizens within the context of History of Revolution Course within different ethnic groups at all. History of Revolution courses have been taught to transfer the founding philosophy of the republic, the struggle for its foundation and the reforms made with the republic to future generations. The course objectives have not changed so far since the foundation of Republic. On the other hand, interventions of political governments have caused the emergence of different courses in the course from time to time in line with the understanding of raising citizens complying with the regime.

In Turkey which has been globalized and had a more democratic life style, it is
of great importance to review the courses of History of Revolution. The discussions on the name of the History of Revolution Courses are still ongoing. It is considered to be necessary to change the course name as Modern Turkish History or History of Republic to be more comprehensive. On the other hand, teaching the course under the same name at different education levels results in decrease in interest in the course. The content of the History of Revolution course has been shaped in a way to ensure future generations to comprehend the foundation of the Republic and revolutions and reforms. It is seen that the content of the course does not ensure the establishment of the association between the Period of Ottoman Empire and today’s Turkey. Especially teaching current topics has not been considered within the scope of the course. Therefore, the course does not make adequate level of contribution to the development of students’ skills to connect the past with the present. Since the subjects included in the course are related to political and military fields, there can be some limitations in understanding the social and economic conditions. The content of the course is refreshed with new additions from time to time with several amendments in curriculum; however, it is necessary to review the content thoroughly. In addition to the course content, it is observed that several problems are experienced in learning and teaching processes. It is seen that mostly using the traditional methods in the course, the dense content of the course, insufficient lesson time, the national measurement and evaluation limit the use of student-centered methods and techniques for teachers. Teaching through mostly traditional methods leads to shape the measurement-evaluation processes in this direction. Because it is not possible to evaluate a student-centered and non-product-based teaching through the process-oriented measurement and evaluation instruments. As a result, it is necessary to review the History of Revolution courses through the conditions born by our era, content and teaching-learning processes of the course, and problems encountered in measurement-evaluation processes.

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Chapter 23

Place-Based Education and Its Role in Early Childhood Education

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"No one will protect what they don't care about; and no one will care about what they have never experienced."

(David Attenborough [Broadcaster and natural historian])

This study includes conceptual and theoretical information about place-based education and place-based education in early childhood education. In the introduction of the study, the 21st Century Skills and the educational system transformed in the process of acquiring these skills were discussed. In the first part of the study, the definition of the place concept and the place-based education concept, the aim, characteristics, and dimensions of the place-based education were included. Place-based education has various benefits for students, teachers, and the community. These benefits were presented under the topic of the benefits of place-based education. In the second part of the study, the prominent findings of some place-based education research studies conducted in Turkey and other countries were included. In the third part, the information on place-based education in early childhood education was presented. And finally, the conclusion part is an overall summary of the study. It is considered that this study, in which the literature data on place-based education was compiled, will contribute to various applications, studies on this subject, and the researchers studying on this subject within the conceptual and theoretical framework.

INTRODUCTION

The world changes and transforms day by day. A natural result of this change and transformation is that individuals should be equipped with various information and skills. The need to adapt to the current age and its requirements is essential for individuals. Education plays an active role in this adaptation.

There are some characteristics, making education in the 21st Century different from education in the 20th Century. Bolstad et al. (2012) have discussed these characteristics under seven topics: (1) personalizing learning, (2) equity, diversity, and inclusivity, (3) use knowledge to develop learning capacity, (4) rethinking learners' and teachers' roles-student centered, (5) a culture of continuous learning for teachers and educational leaders, (6) new kinds of partnerships and relationships, (7) new technologies and collaborative practices. The education systems with these
characteristics also aim to acquire the 21st Century Skills.

P21's Frameworks for 21st Century Learning has been defined by the Partnership for 21st Century Learning (P21), an organization that aims to have each child experience 21st Century education without exception (Battelle for Kids, n.d.). This framework explains the information, skills, and specialty that students have to be professional at to succeed in their lives and their business lives (Figure 1) (Battelle for Kids, 2019a).

![Figure 1. P21's Framework for 21st Century Learning (Battelle for Kids, 2019a)](image)

In this framework, life & career skills include flexibility and adaptability, initiative and self-direction, social and cross-cultural skills, productivity and accountability, leadership and responsibility; learning & innovation skills, creativity and innovation, critical thinking and problem solving, communication, collaboration; information, media & technology skills information literacy, media literacy, ICT [information, communications, and technology] literacy skills (Battelle for Kids, 2019b). Also, global awareness, financial, economic, business, and entrepreneurial literacy, civic literacy, health literacy, and environmental literacy have been discussed as the main disciplines (Battelle for Kids, 2019a). The multidimensional structure of the 21st Century Skills forces the current education systems towards an inevitable transformation.

The digital literacy world transforms the learners into the producer of information and the educators into the learning processes' facilitators. Students can reach information through the Internet and explore various cultures (Madden, 2016). In the 21st Century, although individuals have the skills to get information and have related opportunities, some negative consequences should be predicted. According to Madden (2016), as societies become globally connected, the risk of missing the ones which can be learned locally increases. At this point, it may be mentioned that place-based education applications have gained importance.
1. PLACE-BASED EDUCATION

1.1. What is the place?

Places are the most important but mostly ignored works of the human cultures, and they may be defined as the windows for understanding both social and cultural and democracy practices (Gruenewald et al., 2007). The place is a complex phenomenon, and it may be far or near. For example, his/her house, school, school garden are places for a child. Also, a street, a city, country, or continent are places. So a place is more than a physical environment (Dolan, 2016). Places are important because they are both physical locations and locations with meanings attributed to them by a person or a group of people (Joyce, 2011, p. 29). In other words, places have significance with the people's experiences in that place (Semken, 2005). Sense of place is among the essential subjects related to the place.

Sense of place includes exploring what places are like, where they are and how they contact each other (Dolan, 2016). But it is not easy to improve the sense of place in the classroom environment for students. Activities may be performed with many materials (videos, books, worksheets, etc.) in a classroom, but one should go out and interact with plants, animals, and other people to know and love a place. Assimilating a place, that is, one's community is essential for forming the sense of place, which is the core of place-based education (Seydel, 2017). So, what is place-based education? Let's seek the answer to another question before answering this question: Where is the school or which places are considered schools?

Teacher Mahmut, the idealistic teacher of a famous Turkish movie "Hababam Class is on Vacation" defined school to his students as follows: "School is not a place surrounded by walls and with a roof on it. School is everywhere. Sometimes a forest, sometimes a mountain top... School is everywhere where knowledge and learning are. (In this school) you learn to live, struggle, fight with nature, be knowledgeable, and above all being respectful towards yourself. If these are not in a school, there is only rubble there” (Eğilmez, 1978). Teacher Mahmut emphasized that a classroom/school is beyond the walls and its importance. Accordingly, school is everywhere, and anyplace is a school. This definition can be reconciled with the essence of place-based education. Now we can make the definition of place-based education.

1.2. What is place-based education?

Place-based education uses the local environment as an education context (Russell-Ciardi, 2006). Place-based education is not a new phenomenon (Smith, 2002). This educational approach has been used since the early 18th Century, and its marks have been observed in the writings of many education figures such as Rousseau, Comenius, Pestalozzi, Froebel, etc. (Elfer, 2011a; Ewans & Kılınç, 2013). John Dewey, Colonel Francis Wayland Parker, and a number of educational progressives outlined similar approaches nearly a century earlier (Elfer, 2011a, p. 1).

When examined as a concept, place-based education draws attention as the name given to the pedagogical model developed by Laurie Lane-Zucker and Dr. John Elder from Middlebury College in the research conducted in the early 1990s with
the fund provided by the Geraldine R. Dodge Foundation in the Orion Society (Lane-Zucker, 2016). The Orion Society is an organization where multidisciplinary environmental education models are developed, and environment-related research is conducted (Lane-Zucker & Sahn, 1998). Through the cooperation between the Orion Society and Middlebury College, place-based education has been named as a learning and teaching approach (Elfer, 2011a). Also, the approaches called with the names in the literature such as place-consciousness education, community-based education, outdoor education, rural education, ecological education, environmental education and bioregional education, experiential learning, contextual learning, problem-based learning, democratic education, multicultural education, service learning, workplace education define the similar views with the place-based education (Elfer, 2011b; Gruenewald, 2003; Knapp, 2005; Smith, 2007; Smith & Sobel, 2010; Woodhouse & Knapp, 2000). Zandvliet (2014) has stated that place-based learning does not have its theoretical tradition; it is an assimilation of experiential learning, contextual learning, constructivism, indigenous education, environmental education, and the other approaches emphasizing the importance of learning from one's community.

The studies related to place-based education have been developed further by David Sobel Director of the Orion Society and Antioch University Education Department Teacher Certification Programs and Center for Place-Based Education (Barnett, 2009). Lane Zucker (2019) has stated that they have published the place-based education studies in the book by David Sobel named Place-based Education: Connecting Classrooms and Communities and defined place-based education in the preface of the book as "the pedagogy of the community, the integration of the individual into his/her own house and reestablishment of the basic links between a person and his/her place." According to Sobel (2004), "place-based education is the process of using the local community and the environment as a starting point to teach concepts in language arts, mathematics, social studies, science and other subjects across the curriculum" (p. 7). Knapp (2005) has defined place-based learning as "the education approach designed to help students learn their immediate surroundings by using their experiences". According to Knapp, place-based education is a revised version of an old opinion (educational field trips), and the school trips have been made under various names throughout modern history. The concept of "field trip" entered the literature in 1926 with Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary and defined in the dictionary as "first-hand observation visits by teachers and students to places such as factories, farms, museums" (Knapp, 2005). Sarah K. Anderson (2018), the coordinator of the place-based education and fieldwork in Cottonwood School of Civics and Science in the Oregon State of the United States of America and the writer of the book Bringing School to Life: Place-Based Education Across the Curriculum has stated field trips as a small adding generally made to the end of a unit and stated that fieldwork is important in the place-based education studies. Anderson has defined fieldwork as a data collection way and stated that students approach fieldwork as a focus or series of questions that they want to answer and fieldwork includes surveys, observations, interviews, or data collection. Teton
Science School, which has been defined as a national leader in place-based education by McClennen, has also made the definition of place-based education. According to this definition, place-based education is an approach combining society and students to support learning outcomes, affect communities and encourage people to understand the world around us (Teton Science Schools, n.d.a).

Although place-based education activities are not familiar, both formal and informal educators' interest increases with the efforts of the defenders and implementers of this education. Because practical place-based education activities exemplify the vision of environmental and civic education. (Smith, 2007). Also, place-based education is considered an alternative to current education implementations that emphasize global standardization (Semken, 2005).

1.3. Aim of place-based education

Place-based education aims to base learning on the local phenomena and students' experiences (Smith, 2002). According to Russell-Ciardi (2006), the primary aim of place-based education is to encourage students to deal with their local communities and have them take action to establish a better future for their communities. According to Kösker and Karabağ (2019), there are three primary aims of place-based education: (1) to have students acquire knowledge and skills, (2) to provide nature and community awareness, (3) provide place attachment. These three primary aims have a crucial role in providing natural, cultural, and social responsibility awareness to individuals. According to Fly (n.d.), place-based education aims to provide opportunities for students to think independently, collect data, analyze data, synthesize, think critically, evaluate social problems, improve their communication skills, produce information and innovative ideas.

The aims of place-based education have been stated as follows in the "Promise of Place" project conducted by The Center for Place-based Learning and Community Engagement with the contributions of Place-based Education and Evaluation Collaborative (PEEC) (Promise of Place, n.d.):

a) Increasing student achievement: Place-based education increases student participation, achievement, and personal competency feeling.

b) Community social and economic vitality: Place-based education establishes strong ties between local social institutions and environmental institutions and students and, therefore, helps the quality of life and economic vitality improve.

c) Ecological integrity: Place-based education has a tangible contribution to students in solving local problems and protecting local environmental quality.

As a result, the sustainable future of places depends on the people who understand, take care of, and appreciate them (Burrenbeo Trust, n.d.). The aim of place-based education is precisely to provide that.

1.4. What are the characteristics of place-based education?

Place-based education is an approach, including the cultural, social, and economic condition of a place, benefiting from people's strong connection with their societies (Clark, 2012). The characteristics of place-based education are as follows (Clark, 2012; Fly, n.d.; Getting Smart, n.d.; Lieberman & Seydel, 2019; Promise of
Place, n.d.; Powers, 2004; Preddy, 2015; Rote et al., 2015; Semken, 2005; Smith, 2002; Smith & Sobel, 2010; Wanich, 2006; Woodhouse & Knapp, 2000):

- It is focused on the geological and the other natural characteristics of a place.
- The content is specific to the geography, ecology, sociology, policy, and the other dynamics of that place.
- It may be everywhere (in villages, cities, parks, schools, etc.) It carries the classroom beyond the classroom walls.
  - It makes the wall between school and community transparent.
  - Community is a part of a classroom.
  - It is from local to global. It forms the basis of understanding the regional and international problems and contributing to these problems' solutions.
- It integrates the meaning of a place for students, teachers, and community.
- Continuum is important. As the implementations deepen, the system evolves to a learner-centered approach from a teacher-centered one (Figure 2).

![Figure 2. The continuum in place-based education (Teton Science Schools, n.d.b.)](image)

- It is suitable for a student's learning style.
- It is project-based and investigation-focused.
- It is associated with the development needs and concerns of students. Students' questions and concerns have an essential role in determining what to study.
- It includes learning experiences that allow students to be creators of knowledge, not knowledge consumers.
- It gives importance to improve the sense of place and knowledge of place in students and teachers.
- It is based on experience.
- It provides hands-on learning.
- Teachers have the role of guide, co-learner, and facilitator.
● It has a multi-generational and multicultural structure.
● It is multidisciplinary by its nature.
● It is based on cooperation (Figure 3). Teachers, managers, students, and all the community individuals have an active role and responsibility. It is supported by the local state institutions and private organizations' partnerships.
● Multi-reflection and assessment techniques are used before, during, and after learning.

Some schools use place-based education as part of their curriculum, making it a mission principle (Malcolm, 2016).

1.5. What are the dimensions of place-based education?

The most crucial power of place-based education is flexibility; in other words, it is adjustable to a place's characteristics (Wanich, 2006). Smith (2002) has mentioned about five thematic dimensions to adjust place-based education to different situations: (1) cultural studies, (2) nature studies, (3) real-world problem solving, (4) internships and entrepreneurial opportunities, (5) induction into community processes.

- Cultural studies: These studies aim to provide students with knowledge about the historical and cultural characteristics of societies (Wanich, 2006). Verbal and local history studies, the studies such as reference people, museum trips, etc. are that kind of studies (Köşker & Karabağ, 2019; Üztemur et al., 2018). The Foxfire Project conducted in Georgia in the 1970s may be an example for cultural studies (Smith, 2002).

- Nature studies: These studies aim to research the nature of a place and its natural phenomena. The curriculum focuses on the subjects like rivers, forests, and mountains, and these subjects are integrated into the traditional fields such as science, mathematics, and language as local phenomena (Wanich, 2006). Interaction with the natural world is the most effective way of research processes. The experiences formed with this interaction allow children to understand life cycles and seasons, make estimations and understand various relationships (Torquati et al., 2010). In the schools of rural areas, cultural studies and nature studies may focus on the curriculum (Wanich, 2006). In the 1990s, The Environmental Middle School studies in Portland may be an example for natural studies (Smith, 2002).

- Real-world problem solving: Real-world problem solving requires flexibility, durability, skillfulness, and creativity, and it includes interaction with the environment during the problem-solving process (Sarathy, 2018). It is an approach
encouraging students to research the community's problems and play an active role in solutions. To facilitate this process and associate it with the curriculum is teachers' responsibility (Smith, 2002; Wanich, 2006).

- Internships and entrepreneurial opportunities: This approach encourages students to form their economic opportunities in their community instead of looking for a job in other places (Smith, 2002; Wanich, 2006).
- Induction into community processes: It aims to transform schools and young people to real available intellectual resources. This approach is the most common type of place-based education (Smith, 2002).

1.6. What are the benefits of place-based education?

1.6.1. Benefits for students

The benefits of place-based education for students may be listed as follows (Barnett, 2009; Bhat, 2016; Boivin, 2020; Burrenbeo Trust, n.d.; Chawla & Escalante, 2007; Chin, 2001; Clark, 2012; Fly, 2010; Getting Smart, n.d.; Gruenewald, 2003; Howard, 2017; Howley et al., 2011; Lieberman & Hoody, 1998; Lieberman & Seydel, 2019; Marckini-Polk et al., 2016; McInerney et al., 2011; PEEC, 2010; Powers, 2004; Prastiyo, 2018; Preddy, 2015; Rote et al., 2015):

- It helps them understand where they live and know the world.
- It allows them to understand the culture of their community.
- It strengthens the ties of students with a place.
- It helps students learn better.
- It increases a student's achievement and motivation for success.
- It increases learning motivation.
- It allows students to learn actively and by having fun.
- It increases physical activity.
- It contributes to cognitive development.
- It helps improve the standardized test scores.
- It affects social-emotional development positively.
- It decreases diabetes and vitamin D deficiency.
- It decreases attention deficit disorder and attention deficit hyperactivity disorder symptoms.
- It increases the participation of disabled students in the learning processes.
- It increases school attendance.
- It decreases behavioral problems.
- It improves critical thinking skills.
- It increases self-esteem. It increases self-control and decision-making skills.
- It strengthens communication skills.
- It develops knowledge of nature.
- It allows students to be aware of the multi-generational and multicultural resources of the social environment.
- It increases community participation and community attachment.
- It develops a sense of place.
- It develops environmental sensitivity.
● Students learn 21st Century Skills such as cooperation, communication, problem-solving, and improvement.
● It brings life skills.
● It encourages students to be active citizens.
● It allows students to understand the local environment’s effect on global sustainability.
● It increases students’ interest in local issues and problems and encourages them to produce real solutions to problems.

1.6.2. Benefits for teachers

The benefits of place-based education for teachers may be listed as follows (Chawla & Escalante, 2007; Fly, n.d.; Lieberman & Hoody, 1998; Marckini-Polk et al., 2016; PEEC, 2010; Powers, 2004; Rote et al., 2015; Semken, 2005):
● It encourages teachers to use school gardens, community, state, and private areas as a learning resource.
● It gives energy to teachers.
● It increases the curriculum planning skills of teachers and provides professional improvement.
● It prevents teachers from being the dictators of knowledge and eliminates the artificial barrier between teachers and students. So, it encourages a more authentic relationship between teachers and students.
● It makes class management easier.
● It allows teachers to cooperate with the individuals in the community and students. It increases cooperation with other teachers.
● It provides qualitative and quantitative evaluation opportunities.
● Teachers have the opportunity to develop themselves and their skills.
● It allows teachers to take place in processes as learners.
● It develops a sense of place.

Although it has many benefits for teachers and students, it may not be easy for teachers to internalize place-based learning applications. Traditional methods may be more accessible for them. Teachers should be aware that place-based education applications are not adding to the curriculum, but they are the curriculum, which is also a process. It also takes time for teachers to develop relationships with community and community partners, and for that reason, it is essential to be patient (Anderson, 2018).

1.6.3. Benefits for community

The benefits of place-based education for the community may be listed as follows (Barratt & Barratt-Hacking, 2011; Deringer, 2017; Fly, n.d.; Marckini-Polk et al., 2016):
● The awareness for the conditions, needs, and efforts of schools increases in societies.
● It increases the interaction between the institutions and individuals in a community.
● It is an opportunity for a humanistic and productive community.
- It encourages protecting local inheritance and doing something about the future.
- It develops a sense of place.
- It increases environmental awareness.
- As it decreases the rate of dropping out of school, the problems related to dropping out of school also decrease.

2. RESEARCH STUDIES ABOUT PLACE-BASED EDUCATION

It is observed that there are research studies in the literature related to place-based education at various education levels. Some of them and their prominent findings are as follows:

- In the study of Glassner and Eran-Zoran (2016), the graduate students have participated in the place-based learning workshop. During the study, the students have developed a plan for the contribution of the places such as parks, state buildings, etc., and they have conducted these plans. The findings at the end of the studies have demonstrated that the students tend to cooperate with their peers, and they are more tolerant towards uncertainty.
- Adams et al. (2014) have determined that the place-based learning and teacher experiences have provided elementary preservice teachers to love science and teach the content related to STEM. The preservice teachers have developed positive attitudes towards designing and applying place-based STEM activities.
- Best et al. (2017) have determined that the place-based learning experiences in higher education allow design and technologies preservice teachers to understand the needs of people and places and the relationship between design process and products. Also, place-based learning has been an essential pedagogical approach that benefits preservice teachers.
- Bird (2017) has examined the point of view of the primary school teachers in Ireland towards place-based pedagogy. Accordingly, teachers are generally positive about place-based pedagogy. Teachers think that the approach has robust features, it has many benefits for children, and a local focus is necessary for curriculum. However, teachers believe that there are some barriers to place-based applications. The main barriers are time, inconvenience, resources, and children's security problems.
- Akkaya-Yılmaz and Karakuş (2018) have examined the effect of place-based teaching methods on student success in social studies lessons. At the end of this 6-week experimental research conducted in Turkey and included children at the age of 12-13, it has been determined that the place-based teaching method is effective in social studies education.
- Çakmak and Akbaş (2019) have conducted project studies based on the place-based education approach with 7th-grade students. According to the research result, the students have learned by having fun, developed different views towards their immediate surroundings, and their attitude towards social studies lessons is affected positively.
- According to the research conducted by Kalafat (2018), place-based educational activities affected the 5th-grade students and their academic
achievement and attitudes towards science lessons.

- Sesigür and Edeer (2021) have revealed that place-based visual art studies have allowed children at the age of 7-11 to be aware of the aesthetic. The children have established a bond with nature and established a nature-art relationship.

- Christiansen et al. (2018) have determined that there is an increase in the number of preschool programs held in the natural open area (shrubbery, beach, etc.) in Victoria (Australia), these place-based nature kindergartens give importance to care about local conditions instead of imitating imported applications.

3. PLACE-BASED EDUCATION IN EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Place-based education can and should be applied anywhere (Fly, n.d.). Indeed, early childhood education is one of the education levels in which place-based education applications should be included. Place-based education includes significant opportunities for little children regarding both its aim and characteristics.

In early childhood, in which children make an effort to explore, know, understand and learn the world, everything in the "place" in which children live is new for them, and their interest in that place and the things in that place is natural (Uludağ & Erkan, in press). This curiosity may be considered as a matchless opportunity for place-based education applications. But Fly (n.d.) has stated that faculty members have indicated that university students have difficulties researching a subject, developing a methodological approach, analyzing and interpreting data, and presenting results. This question is inevitable by looking at this statement: "What happens to cause the mentioned difficulties to happen while the curious little children who are willing to research and learn are growing up?". It will not be wrong to seek the answer to this question in the education system applications.

Early childhood is the period between birth and the age of 8. This period is considered a critical opportunity for the development of children. Because brain development in this period is quietly fast (UNESCO & UNICEF, 2012). And the general aim of early childhood education is to contribute to children's well-being and development (Schweinhart, 2017). A good-quality early childhood education includes significant acquisitions for children and the support needed by families and societies to support children's healthy development (UNESCO & UNICEF, 2012).

However, the early childhood period is much more than primary school preparation. Because early childhood education aims for the holistic development of the social, emotional, cognitive, and physical needs and plays a role in raising future citizens. Therefore, early childhood education is one of the best investments to be performed by a country (UNESCO, n.d.).

The National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) has determined ten early childhood program standards. According to these standards, high-quality programs (NAEYC, n.d.).

1) Encourage the sense of belonging of each child as part of a community and improve each child's contribution skill as a responsible community member.

2) Support the social, emotional, physical, language, and cognitive development of children.
3) Use suitable and appropriate education approaches in development, culture, and language.

4) Evaluates children's development with sensitivity to the communication with the family and the cultural contexts in which the children develop.

5) Are healthy and secure.

6) Have competent teachers.

7) Give importance to cooperation with families.

8) Give importance to the communication with the institutions in a community.

9) Have a suitable inner and outer environment.

10) Apply policies and procedures effectively and give importance to the leadership.

When these standards are considered within the context of pace-based education, it is observed that the quality early childhood programs give importance to the community, the relationships with the institutions in a community, culture, and learning environments. In other words, it is possible to state that the characteristics of place-based education are suitable and applicable for early childhood education.

It is observed that the characteristics and content of place-based education are included in the prominent early childhood approaches and curriculum. For example;

- According to Bank Street Approach, the world is a classroom, and the classroom is the world (Bank Street School for Children, n.d.). In the schools where this approach is applied, social studies are included. These studies aim to provide children to understand the relationship between themselves, their families, and the community (Aktan-Acar & Çetin, 2017). This approach gives importance to children's interaction with their environment and supports children to be lifelong learners (Park & Lit, 2015). Social justice, advocacy, and establishing a comprehensive community are the base of the approach, and education is considered an opportunity to develop a better community (Bank Street College of Education, n.d.).

- According to Reggio Emilia approach, schools are the spaces where culture is built and presented to city culture. With this characteristic, school is considered a cultural meeting point. In the cities where Reggio Emilia schools are located, municipalities provide financial support for the schools, and the schools support the city culture. Also, they exhibit children's works in the city squares (Kayran, 2012). The child, family, teacher, and community cooperation are important. The teacher is a resource, guide, and researcher in processes. And the environment is the third teacher (Cadwell, 2003). Long-term projects are important parts of the curriculum (New, 2007). Place-based education also emphasizes combining students with their societies through long-term projects (Hahn, 2017).

- Active learning and problem-solving are essential HighScope Approaches (Hohmann & Weikart, 1995). Outdoor learning is a crucial part of HighScope (HighScope, n.d.). Observing people, places, things, cooperation, communication, and coping with social conflicts are among the key experiences of the HighScope (Hohmann & Weikart, 1995).

- In Waldorf pedagogy, developing a sense of community is an important
target. In the approach in which play and imitation are adopted to create this sense, play is emphasized as a social interaction opportunity (Husek & Johnson, 2012). Hawthorne Valley Waldorf School (New York) established in 1972, is one of the first implementers of place-based education. This school, located on a 500-acre farm, provides place-based opportunities for students (Malcolm, 2016). The school also provides education for the age groups of 0-3 and 3-6. It aims to improve cooperation and communication skills and sustainable and innovative life skills, serve the community and the world, and multicultural interaction (Hawthorne Valley Association, n.d.).

Besides, it may be mentioned that the Preschool Education Program applied since 2013 in Turkey is also suitable for place-based education applications in terms of its characteristics. This Republic of Turkey Ministry of National Education-MoNE (2013) program aims to provide healthy development of the children having preschool education, have the highest level of their development, acquire self-care skills, and be prepared for elementary school. It is a sophisticated program. It is balanced, spiral, eclectic, it gives priority to learning by discovery, and it encourages the use of daily life experiences and immediate surrounding opportunities for education. In a program in which cultural and universal values are also considered, the evaluation process is multidimensional (MoNE, 2013). In the research of Çetin and Çetin (2021), it has been determined that this program has an essential potential for acquiring the 21st Century Skills. Therefore, it may be mentioned that the program has the characteristic to include place-based education applications also in terms of developing 21st Century Skills. An evaluation may be made not only in terms of the preschool education program in Turkey but also in higher education programs educating preschool teachers.

In Turkey, a regulation has been made in 2018 higher education, undergraduate programs educating preschool teachers. With this regulation, providing "Environment Education in Early Childhood" compulsory course for field education, "Out-of-school learning environments" elective course for vocational development, and "Turkish Culture Geography" elective course for general knowledge have been suggested. "Community Service Practices" compulsory courses have the aims such as determining the current social problems, preparing project-producing problems for solving those problems, and participating in institutions' social responsibility projects (The Council of Higher Education, 2018). When discussed from this respect, it has been observed recently that it has been aimed that preschool teachers know alternative approaches during their professional education, the approaches such as out-of-school learning, environmental education, place-based learning gain importance. It is essential in the education before service that preserves teachers have experience in the issues such as using the opportunities of immediate surroundings, knowing the culture, using the out of school environments. This also forms a basis for teachers for place-based education. Whitmore (2014) has stated that place-based education is perceived as extra work, but any teacher using place-based education will say, "It was worth it." So it is crucial to prepare preservice teachers for these positive experiences.
Many places-based applications may be revised based on children's age groups in early childhood and their developmental characteristics (Clark, 2012). Weigand (2011) has revealed that critical place-based learning in kindergarten is possible and stated that children have found the opportunity to observe the same trees, flowers in different periods of a year, and they have observed the change, their questions and ideas have matured in a few months and their empathy skills have developed. Hahn (2017) has indicated that school gardens are perfect environments in place-based education. School gardens embrace local climate, crops, and ecology, and it is also a good opportunity for local partnerships.

Place-based applications are frequently applied in kindergarten of Crellin Elementary School in Oakland. Principal Dana McCauley has stated that using their places makes everything real for children, and they learn by experience. According to McCauley, it is not necessary to have a river or forest near the school; there are also lots of things to do and learn in the middle of a city: for example, the history of a historical building. According to Crellin educators and staff, everyone has something to teach to others and, for this reason, it is vital to ask for help from learning partners. The Scent Stations project planned for kindergarten students in Crellin is aimed to capture the reactions of animals against smells such as fox urine or the smell of skunk by placing a camera in a suitable place around the school. Children are the observers of this process; they collect data about which animals they saw and how many times they saw them, how many times it snowed, why animals come/didn't come there, and many other issues talk about them. Math and graphics are also included in the project. Within the process, children's skills, such as problem-solving, making observations, and critical thinking development. At the end of the year, a book is formed, including the photos taken by children, the information and findings obtained from them, and the project ends. Children may take a copy of the book to their home to show it to their parents (Edutopia, 2015). All these activities are fun and informative, but it may not be easy to take a class beyond the walls through place-based education. According to Franz (n.d.), weather conditions, access to outdoors, foreigners, or security concerns related to outdoor and the difference of teachers' comfort in nature and the classroom may cause problems. In the study by Twum (2014) conducted with a teachers group, including place-based field and preschool teachers, it has been determined that the most important difficulties experienced by the teachers in place-based activities are management and convincing students about the benefits of these activities and supporting students to become active from being passive. In the research of Uludağ (2021), preschool teachers have stated that out-of-school learning environments have advantages and disadvantages for children, they have also experienced environment-based, parent-based, teacher-based problems, and they have had security problems. Franz (n.d.) has stated that teachers may find an opportunity for education despite all its difficulties, and effort and patience are essential for this.

By both the aims of early childhood education and the adopted approaches, place-based education applications should be considered as an opportunity by teachers and school managers for little children. In Turkey, no research study directly
related to place-based education in the early childhood period has been conducted. It may be recommended to conduct studies to raise the awareness of teachers in this issue, to include place-based applications in the curriculum, to cooperate with parents and institutions in the community. Also, conducting studies on place-based education in early childhood education can increase awareness of place-based education activities.

CONCLUSION

Knowing about his/her place has been a priority issue for everybody, even for a newborn. For this reason, it is critical to interact with the place and deal with place-based education applications from the early years of life. Burrenbeo Trust (n.d.), which is a non-profit landscape institution conducting place-based activities, defines place-based education as follows: "Place-based education involves people learning in, about and through the place." It may be said that this is quite a brief definition. From past to present, place-based education applications applied in different forms provide various opportunities with their aim and characteristics as an alternative approach. It is observed that place-based education applications, which have many benefits for students, teachers, and community, are applied in many countries, from kindergartens to undergraduate education and even adult education. When evaluated specific to early childhood education, it is observed that place-based applications are adjustable, applicable, and valuable for little children who have a natural curiosity. Many early childhood programs also have the quality of providing opportunities for place-based activities in terms of their nature, philosophy, and functioning. For this reason, the importance, in both local and global terms, of including place-based education in early childhood education and the other levels, allocate time for these activities in the curriculum, informing/training teachers about this approach, conducting and encouraging studies for increasing the awareness and cooperation of school managements and other staff, parents, the other individuals, institutions about these applications should be kept in mind.

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Chapter 24

Orienteering as A Means to Improve Spatial Perception Skills in Social Studies Course

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INTRODUCTION

Immediately after birth, human beings’ set out for their journey to make sense of the things, environment and the universe they are born in. Either observing or mentally visualizing a series of physical, humane, and abstract spaces in their immediate environment, humans complete the definition and identification of their worlds via several questions such as what, how, and where owing to the fact that human body, as a matter, is also a spatial object. Therefore, space is critical for the existence of human beings, and it is of essential significance to get to know this space closely (Yilmaz, 2010).

Studying the existence of space, its development in the mind, and its mere definition, Piaget also investigated the evolution of space in a child’s mind. Based on his studies, it is stated that the emergence of spatial perception dates back to the first year of life when a child figures out that the invisible objects still maintain their existence, which is termed as object permanence by Piaget (Altman and Chemers, 1980). According to the renowned psychologist, object permanence is a critical prerequisite for transition from preoperational stage to concrete operational stage, and it is definitive over either the existence or the absence of thought during the operational stage (Capri and Celikkaleli, 2005).

Spatial thinking skills are needed to get to know and understand the environment we are situated in since these skills manifest as a person moves from one point to another or gives directions to a particular place within day-to-day activities. Despite breathtaking advances in technology, skills such as map reading, spatial perception, and location analysis are still valuable to effectively use a compass, other tools such as maps, or relevant mobile applications. Settings, programs, and contents of teaching-learning process should be developed, designed, and harmonized holistically so that skills such as location analysis and spatial perception can be internalized throughout life. In this regard, Social Studies stands as one of the major courses for the development of environmental perception of a child during primary education. Updated in 2018, The Instructional Program for Social Studies Course mandates that students in Turkey be taught skills such as “spatial perception, location analysis, and map literacy”. Thus, designing activities that are appropriate for children is considered as the foundation of teaching these
skills to students. Offering opportunities to make observations regarding the life outside school and to put theory into practice, fieldwork is also effective in terms of consolidating what is studied in the classroom (Mullens, Bristow and Cuper, 2012). Orienteering poses as one of the possible activities to be considered for such a goal. Orienteering, as a sport, focuses on improving skills such as location analysis, map reading, spotting a place and its directions by using a map and a compass and by observing, problem-solving, and spatial thinking either out in the nature or indoors (International Orienteering Federation, 2021). A closer examination of the curriculum content for Social Studies course reveals an overlap between the course and orienteering in terms of a wide range of skills, concepts, topics, and information. Accordingly, orienteering activities designed and developed for Social Studies course could potentially be effective over the improvement of geographical skills such as spatial perception, map skills, giving directions, and location analysis.

Review of relevant literature yields some research studies conducted on enhancing spatial skills, map literacy, spatial visualization, and problem solving skills through orienteering or other games requiring physical activities (Arikan and Aladag, 2019; Ayuldes, 2020; Danacioglu, 2018; Eroglu and Eroglu, 2016; Gonzalez, Gutierrez, Dominguez, Hernanperez, and Carrodeguas, 2013; Guzmán, Pablos, and Pablos, 2008; Ozcan, 2007; Özdemir, Gures, and Gunes, 2012; Sezgin, 2020; Uttal, Miller, and Newcombe, 2013; Uzuner, 2019; Yigit, 2020; Zach, Inglis, Fox, Berger, and Stahl, 2015). The sum of research findings points out that activities stimulating mental and physical efforts simultaneously may be influential in terms of improving students’ spatial thinking skills, map-literacy, spatial visualization, and problem solving skills. It is also determined that students’ motivation, interest, attention, will to learn, sense of trust, communication skills, and nature awareness are improved in classes applying orienteering activities (Atakurt, Şahan and Erman, 2017; Ozcan, 2006; Sezgin, 2020). It is clear that classes with orienteering activities are effective over learning by both entertaining and doing. Therewith, the current study provides a sample lesson plan of how to conduct orienteering activities in social studies course to teach spatial perception skills.

Spatial Perception in Children

Since the primeval era, philosophers like Aristoteles and Descartes have focused on the concept of space and tried to explain it with different theories. On the other hand, Kant, Berkeley, Cassirer, Werner and Piaget focused on the foundation of spatial knowledge and its development within the human mind (Koksuzer, 2013). There are scores of studies on the being of space, what it is, how the spatial perception process takes place and its development in human mind.

The first observational research regarding children’s environmental perception was conducted by the geographer Gulliver (1908). In the study, it was unraveled that early school-age children were not able to use cardinal directions to navigate themselves; instead, they employed their own body positions to locate their directions (Koksuzer, 2013).

Spatial skill is a product of human mind and was first defined by Thorndike
Spatial perception skill can be defined as processes comprising skills such as specifying one’s own location in the immediate environment, finding and giving directions by envisaging spatial information (Kosker, 2012). Spatial perception, in some studies, is identified as the skill to use one’s own body orientation to interact with the environment, thereby with spatial orientation (González, Gutierrez, Dominguez and Carrodeguas, 2016). On the whole, spatial perception skill is one’s ability to produce a meaningful entity in his/her mind by noticing oneself, the environment, and the world. In this respect, the development of spatial perception and spatial thinking is of great value within education. It has been emphasized by the National Research Council [NRC] that spatial perception and spatial thinking can both be taught and learned, and thus bear an educational value (Lee and Bednarz, 2011).

As for Piaget and Inhelder (1967), who carried out major research studies on spatial perception development in children, spatial perception development in children follows the stages of sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete operational, and formal operational as they grow, and this order holds true universally for all children (Canakcioglu, 2012). According to Piaget (1967), children between 0-to-2 do not have permanence in spatial perception; those between 2-to-7 have a broad perception of their environment without paying attention to the details; and children between 7-to-12 start building mental schemes while perceiving the environment (Akarsu, 1984). In his studies, Piaget examined children’s drawings and noted three types of relations in spatial perception in the following order; topological, projective, and Euclidean (metric) relations. Piaget and Inhelder (1967) described this order pointing the relation between space and mind as “topological primacy thesis” (Clements and Batista, 1992).

Topological relations serve as the supporting ground for the concept of space while projective and Euclidean structures are built on topological structures (Akarsu, 1984). In topological relations, children reflect their environment in their drawings by straight and parallel lines (Canakcioglu, 2012). In projective relations, children position the space within a perspective (Piaget and Inhelder, 1967). In Euclidean relations, on the other hand, children drift totally away from egocentrism, and pick up reference points other than themselves. Apart from this spatial perception theory that considers a child’s developmental stages and characteristics, there are also various other theories.

For instance, visual perception matters significantly in Gestalt Theory, which emphasizes how the eye perceives and organizes visual experiences, and which requires wholes to their parts for perception (Beyoglu, 2016). On the other hand, Lynch (1960) explains spatial relations in children via environmental factors. He noted that perception is affected by environmental factors and people living in the same environment construct similar cognitive maps (Canakcioglu, 2002).

**Spatial Perception Skill in Social Studies Course**

Designed to include the history, present, and future of contemporary societies, Social Studies course has a significant place in the instructional programs of Turkey.
and many other countries (Ozturk, 2011). The course is designed in accordance with cooperative learning approach; in other words, disciplines that social studies stand on are integrated around the scope of a specific topic, theme, concept, skill, or problem. One of these disciplines is geography, which deals with human and space relations. Besides, the social, economic, historical, cultural and physical aspects of space can be addressed in a multi-dimensional way within Social Studies course. In this respect, Wade (2007) denoted Social Studies as a course that enriches primary education curriculum as it bears both the answers and solutions to many questions regarding our life. Apart from these, the relations between people and space are also a major component of this course.

Social Studies course includes skills and contents reflecting spatial relations that facilitate an individual’s adaptation to life, one of which is the spatial perception skills. Recently, spatial perception and spatial thinking skills have been a field of interest among cognitive and behavioral psychologists, pedagogues, and geographers. As for the educational aspect, its role in the instructional programs and K-12 education has been emphasized (Shin, Milson, and Smith, 2016).

Spatial perception skill is of significance considering many of our daily activities. For a majority of actions in our day-to-day lives, spatial perception holds a crucial value. For instance, while going home from work we generally prefer the shortest cut, and thus, we need the knowledge of directions and mental representations. This issue can easily be solved with mobile applications such as navigation thanks to the technology of the 21st century. Nevertheless, in order to be able to use such mobile applications, skills like map reading and spatial perception should be improved.

Social Studies Course has a definitive role over how children understand the world and environment they live in since senses for the environment are systematically bettered together with spatial perception. Thus, the physical and humane differences and similarities across the world are comprehended better by basing them on spatial events or phenomena (Demircioğlu and Akengin, 2011). Among the aims within Social Studies instructional program designed by The Turkish Ministry of National Education for the 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th graders are to familiarize individuals with the general geographical characteristics of both the world and their immediate environment; to explain the interaction between human and the environment; and to improve spatial perception and spatial thinking skills (MEB, 2018). In order to fulfil these aims and to make an individual understand proximodistal environmental relations, the program includes the learning domain of “People, Places, and Environments” and educational outcomes reflecting spatial perception and spatial thinking. Therefore, it is important for the texts, activities, and questions to be used during the course be designed to improve these skills. Instead of mechanical content and activities including drill-like questions such as “What is the capital city of Turkey?” or “Which is the longest river in Turkey?”, it would be more meaningful to use activities that improve students’ spatial perception (Ocal, 2007). For that purpose, spatial areas need to be used. In this regard, orienteering – known as a nature sport – stands as a significant educational aid since individuals
have the chance to learn by doing within their immediate environment through orienteering.

**Orienteering**

In orienteering, players find specific targets in the nature or in any space/place with the help of a map and compass by using cognitive and physical skills. It is based on the competitors’ ability to set their route/course, find the control points marked on the map, and complete the track within the shortest time by using a map and a compass (Zhang and Liu, 2020). Participants try to navigate in an unfamiliar or a less known track and find the targets that are pre-located in the track and marked on the map through a map and a compass (Karaca, 2008). Today, there are many orienteering types such as running, skiing, mountaineering biking, and trail orienteering. The most common ones are foot orienteering, banner orienteering, ski orienteering, night orienteering, 100 m. orienteering, special route orienteering and 5-day orienteering (Zhang and Liu, 2020). Though it is mainly carried out in nature, orienteering can also be performed in cultural and urban spaces, museums, school surroundings, and even in virtual spaces through the computer.

Since there is a time limitation in orienteering, a player may not visit all the control points. Therefore, in order to be successful, the players try to make the best decisions within the shortest time by considering the characteristics of themselves, the other players, and the space (Tanrikulu, 2011). That is, the participants reach the control points via the fastest route to get the highest points (Chao, Golden and Wasil, 1996).

Orienteering is practiced in both primary and secondary level programs in many countries due to its physical, individual, and social benefits (Ozcan, 2006) since this sport enables an individual to use his/her cognitive, affective, and psychomotor skills in nature. This contributes to the development of conscious individuals who can communicate socially, make effective decisions, choose a healthy life and who are conscientious about nature (Guler, 2008).

Some orienteering equipment is crucial for both the participants and the organization of the track, namely map, banner (flag), electronic control system or stapler, target control card, and compass. Maps are the most important tools in orienteering. First thing to do is to design a map of the activity area. By analyzing the contour lines on an orienteering map, students learn landforms such as pass, slope, crest, hill, graben, cape, cliff, gulley, hillock, bar, lake, stream, swamp, path, and cave (Tas, 2010). Participants should know the meaning of colors and symbols on an orienteering map beforehand. On such a map, black refers to rocky surface, roads, and man-made structures; brown refers to hillocks and soil grounds; blue represents seas, rivers, lakes, swamps; yellow refers to farm fields; and a spectrum from green towards white represents turfs. The participant’s own course/route is marked with a red marker on the map before s/he sets out on the track (Ozcan, 2008).

The next indispensable equipment for orienteering is a compass, which is used to position the map towards the right direction and to move faster once players master their skills (Ozcan, 2008). The goal is to interpret the map correctly.
Another piece of material necessary on an orienteering track is target banners. Before the activity begins, banners are placed on the map to mark start, target, and finish points. The symbol to mark the targets on an orienteering map is - O - . The banners to be placed in the track are prismatic white and orange square clothes by 30cm. The player’s goal is to locate these banners in the specified order by using a map and a compass.

ECS (Electronic Control System) or stapler bearing a control code are left next to the target banners in order to record whether players attained the specific targets or not. The player reaching these points uses the stapler or scans the electronic control card or SI rings (electronic ring) to mark the control card.

The players have to present the target control card as proof of attaining relevant targets. These cards bear their names, grades, start-finish times, and control boxes in the order of the targets they are supposed to attain. Once a player reaches the correct target, s/he uses the stapler to mark the numbered box.

Orienteering activities can be conducted only after target points are pinned on the map and the track. To do so, the orienteering track has to be prepared. The simplest orienteering tracks include start, target/control, and finish points (Karaca, 2008). When setting up orienteering tracks for primary education students, teachers have to consider students’ developmental stages. The track should not be too long or effortful for children. The primary goal for children is to have fun and to improve spatial perception skills in such an activity. The difficulty level should be determined in accordance with the poorest performance among children so that everybody can complete the track. Target points to be attained should be placed in the open area to be clearly seen even from a distance. In addition, the track should be designed with the start point indicating the north (Guler, 2008). Figure 1 displays a simple-minded sample of a track that could be used with primary education students.

![Figure 1. Orienteering track](image)

As depicted in Figure 1, the start point on an orienteering track has to be marked with a triangle on both the map and the track. On the other hand, the target/control points (varies in number) to be attained in a specified order have to be represented with a circle. Lastly, the finish point has to be shown with two nested circles both on the map and the track (Tanrikulu, 2011).
How to play Orienteering

Orienteering activities are based on map reading, compass skills, and envisaging. To be able to do the activities, some skills and information need to be acquired beforehand. Among the basic information and skills are knowledge of direction (cardinal and intercardinal points), rotating or holding the map in line with the track, perceiving the spatial location of a point on the map, following the specifications for the map lines (road, fence, or waterways) and envisaging the current spot on the map. In addition, knowing what the symbols and colors on the map indicate, using the compass together with the map, finding one’s own current spot on the map, and choosing a route should also be known by the players (Bradford, 1977; http-1). These skills and information can be taught through designing activity-based games within the scope of orienteering.

Either the ground plan or the map of the orienteering field should be prepared beforehand, too. Next, the target points to be achieved should be specified. These target points are also marked on the map together with start, target, and finish points of the track.

Following the preparation of the track, the players aim to reach the target points (control points) on the map in the specified order and as quickly as possible. All players are lined at the start point and are given 1 minute to examine the track map before start so that they can formulate their route/course. The players are to decide where they are on the map by using the compass. Then, the players set out following the referee’s mark. Generally, the players take off one by one at certain intervals (mostly with 1/5-minute intervals) (Karaca, 2008). The way to prove access to a target point is to use the stapler next to the banner to mark the target control card. Staplers next to each target leave a different mark on the card, and this provides a monitor to see if the targets are completed in the specified order or not. In some competitions, ECS (Electronic Control System) and SI rings are used instead of staplers and target control cards.

The player decides which way to follow between two target points. Here what matters is to perceive the space and solve the problem as it needs to be completed as quickly as possible. Those who cannot attain all the targets are generally disqualified (Tanrikulu, 2011). At the finish point, the referee checks if the players attained all the targets on the map by either checking the target control cards or scanning the SI rings. After all the participants complete the track, the player who attained all the target points in the specified order and within the shortest time wins the game.

Orienteering activities to teach spatial perception skill in Social Studies Course

Social Studies Course is a primary education course that is designed in accordance with cooperative learning approach and that hosts multiple disciplines such as geography, economy, history, sociology, anthropology, and politics. This course offers students opportunities to acquire information regarding space and especially social life (Prastya and Maharani, 2018). Since it includes ample amount of life-related verbal information, it is of paramount significance to select
instructional activities that are compatible with real life. In this regard, orienteering may stand as an effective instructional tool. Based on spatial exploration in the nature, orienteering may facilitate teaching a number of skills in Social Studies course such as spatial perception, map reading, and observation.

Social Studies Instructional Program of 2018 developed in Turkey includes a variety of outcomes aiming to improve spatial perception skills for students of all grades via especially the learning domain of “People, Places, and the Environment” (MEB, 2018). The content of this learning domain provides information concerning spatial characteristics such as directions, distinction between natural and humane aspects, spaces in daily life, immediate environment, and landforms within the surroundings. Searching or acquiring a good command of knowledge about humane and physical topics that form the backbone of geography entails conducting various studies and activities in real life, in other words fieldwork (Panelli and Welsh, 2005; Hupy, 2011). Thus, teachers can easily plan orienteering activities within the learning domain of “People, Places, and the Environment” in order to equip their students with spatial perception skills. Table 1 displays some sample outcomes around which orienteering activities can be designed for different grades.

Table 1: Outcomes in The Learning Domain of People, Places, and The Environment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Makes educated guesses about the location of something within his/her immediate environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Gives a broad explanation about the landforms where s/he lives and in the environment on a map.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Analyzes physical geography of Turkey in terms of fundamental landforms, climate characteristics, and fauna on relevant maps.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 1, outcomes in Social Studies course involve recognition and interpretation of spatial characteristics on a map. First thing teachers should do is to determine the target outcomes to be taught via orienteering. At the same time, the type of orienteering activity should also be specified. During the planning stage, a space/place compatible with the outcome should be located. This space can vary from an open field in the nature to a museum, school periphery, or an exhibition area. Then, a ground plan or a map should be prepared specifically for the chosen place. Next, the track is developed through marking the targets students will achieve on both the map and the real space. The perception and mental visualization of nearby and far away spaces together with analysis on a map offers students opportunities to learn both physical and humane spaces designed in the nature.

Prior to orienteering activities, students should be monitored for some prerequisite knowledge and skills. Accordingly, during the first step, it should be confirmed beforehand that students can navigate between locations and directions within the space, can analyze their locations, can hold the map in the right direction within the space and can rotate it, can read the colors on a map, can recognize
landforms, and can use a compass along with the map. In the second step, students should be taught how to play the orienteering activity and the ground rules. Before the activity starts, teachers should prepare the track and students should physically warm-up. Below is a sample activity plan that could be employed in Social Studies course.

**ACTIVITY PLAN**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course Name</th>
<th>Social Studies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>5th grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic / Name of the Activity</td>
<td>People, Places, and the Environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duration</td>
<td>40 mins.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcome:</td>
<td>SS.5.3.1. Gives a broad explanation about the landforms where s/he lives and in the environment on a map, Spatial perception, Map reading, Location analysis, Navigating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills</td>
<td>Orienteering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method-Technique</td>
<td>The ground plan (or the map) of the school, Banner (Flag), Markers, Question cards, Stopwatch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tools &amp; Materials</td>
<td>Landforms, map, location-direction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concepts</td>
<td>School garden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Observation form, answer sheet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Preparation Step**

Before starting the orienteering activity, a ground plan for the school and its garden is prepared. Targets to be achieved by students are numbered and marked on this plan. Word boxes for answers are placed at the bottom of this plan as many as the number of targets. The goal is to answer each question card located at the target points and to write the answer to these boxes. This way, the evaluation will be based on both following the correct order and recognizing landforms. The targets marked on the ground plan are also placed in the school garden to design the track (target points, start & finish points). Each target on the track should have a banner (flag), a number indicating the order of the target point, a marker (pen/pencil), and a question card (visual-question card) related with the landforms within the scope of Social Studies course. Following the completion of the track, the ground plan is duplicated and handed to the students during the activity step.

**Activity Step**

Students should warm-up and stretch before the activity starts, which increases motivation and eases preparation. Students are lined at the start point, and they study the ground plan for a couple of minutes before they set out to the track one by one. This helps students build a mental route in their minds. On the referee’s mark one of the students starts on the track. Students set out one by one at certain intervals (generally with 1/5-minute intervals). Start and finish times of each student are
recorded by the referee to determine the duration of the track for each student.

The first student to reach the first target point reads the question card, and writes his/her answer onto the ground plan, and moves on to the next target. What matters here is that students should reach the target points in the correct order and should jot down their answers in the same order. Then, all the targets are attained in the specified order, and students hand the ground plans with the answers to the referee as they complete the track. Referee records the time of completion for each student, and checks their answers on the plan. Those who finish the track earlier with the highest number of correct answers are considered successful.

**Evaluation**

After checking the answers written on the plans, the number of correct answers is noted. Besides, an observation form with various sections such as spatial perception, navigation, and location analysis is filled out in order to assess students’ relevant skills.

**CONCLUSION**

People have been eager and excited to explore and get to know the immediate surroundings, the universe, and unknown spaces/places since the primeval age. This desire has surfaced in both Piri Reis’ map and other maps drawn in different historical periods (Akturk, 2012). Similarly, spatial thinking has always been a focus of interest throughout the history, and its design within educational endeavors has constantly been scrutinized. In this sense, how to improve spatial thinking and spatial perception skills by way of the courses in primary education stands as a fundamental question. This study provides a sample practice as regards the use of orienteering in Social Studies course.

The principle of “appropriateness for children” is among the primary principles complied with when designing educational settings within primary education. Due to the fact that children’s perception, thinking, and cognitive development are mainly concrete-oriented during this period, offering concrete and experiential (by doing and living) learning opportunities to children in educational settings dramatically enhances the effectiveness of learning. The focus of study should be released from abstractness and transferred into a concrete form as much as possible in order to accomplish permanent learning in Social Studies course. Orienteering may be the medium to immerse students into a concrete learning experience when teaching life on earth, landforms, climate, and fauna reflecting humans’ mutual interaction with nature within the learning domain of “People, Places, and the Environment”. In the same vein, relevant literature hosts quite many studies underlying the importance of fieldwork when teaching geography (Panelli and Welsh, 2005; Fuller, 2006; Hupy, 2011).

Spatial perception skills are necessary in order to easily grasp geographical concepts and spatial relations among entities, to explain causality in these relations, and to draw and interpret maps, plans, ground plans, graphics, and diagrams (MEB, 2005). Therefore, spatial perception is actually a basic life skill. Orienteering as a
sport entails activating various mental skills such as decision making and problem-solving together with spatial perception and recognition. In addition, this activity is mostly organized outdoors, and requires use of several geographical skills such as map reading and location analysis. It may, thus, be suggested to design an effective orienteering activity plan in order to improve spatial perception skills within the scope of Social Studies course.

Principally, orienteering activities to be designed for Social Studies course have to be developmentally appropriate for students. Children’s perception, way of thinking and physical qualities vary as they move along the developmental stages. That is why the difficulty level and the distance of the track should be compatible with the principle of appropriateness. Children should internalize the geographical aspects in their immediate environments and should be able to retrieve them when necessary (Ocal, 2007). In this regard, spatial perception skills can be taught by living and doing via orienteering in a lot of spaces/places, which enables students to put what they learn into practice by way of experiencing.

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Chapter 25

Some Advantages and Disadvantages of Learning and Teaching English Language Online for Adults of Non-native English Speakers

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Introduction

Learning and teaching English language online for adults of non-native English speakers has become more and more noticeable in recent years. One reason can be the increasing need for qualified and experienced English teachers around the world and in the settings in which physical study for English adults of non-native English speakers is not easily realised.

Some English teachers intend to get involved in the online teaching which may provide more flexible and convenient working situations and they may have more control on their own teaching hours, time of teaching, and choosing the place of teaching.

In face-to-face classes, many teachers use a small group strategy to provide a more focused and profound discourse. In online courses, one of the methods to reduce information overload is to divide a big class into discussion subgroups (Qiu, 2010). This strategy is planned primarily to decrease the amount of information which is needed to be processed in large classes with the aim to encourage or promote the development of greater participation and contribution in subgroup discussions, to advance focused and deeper inquiry, to increase opportunities for online collaboration, to maintain appropriate participation, and to assist discussion theme or characteristic for development (Qiu, 2010; Qiu, Hewitt, and Brett, 2012).

Educationally speaking, it cannot be ignored that through the Information Age online education is one of the fastest growing teaching and learning methods in recent years. There exist various reasons and needs with their advantages such as Internet and saving both teachers’ and learners’ time and energy.

Some Effects of Online Learning on Language Learning

Apparently, one of the primary advantages of teaching and learning English language online for adults of non-native English speakers is that it can increase the engagement, attendance, as well as motivation of the students which are indispensable for teaching and learning in this context.

Through entering of Web and Internet in our life, English teaching and learning have experienced new ways and variations since Internet has its own language and logic and is not restricted to one culture. Indeed, teaching and learning English
language for adults of non-native English speakers via Internet / online has challenged traditional forms of teaching and learning English language for these students.

Now, Internet, as a tool, has an important role in this sense. These learners can become autonomous while utilising Internet and they can be independent from the text-books and teachers to some extent if using Internet is realised systematically, educationally, and purposefully. Some examples can be using chartrooms and mass media which may increase the oral English language proficiencies of the learners.

Also, the use of mass media such as books and manuscripts and Internet media (blogs, message boards, podcasts, and video sharing) are the other aspects of online teaching and learning English language for these students.

Despite the fact that applying mass media and Internet media seems to be challenging and time consuming, they might provide the teachers and students with creative and practical opinions.

**Some Advantages of Learning and Teaching English Language Online for Adults of Non-native English Speakers**

The following points are supposed to be significant in this aspect.

Regarding the issue of efficiency, it appears that online teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers has a number of different kinds of educational tools like videos, PDFs, podcasts, and the like. The teachers can apply all or some of these tools as part of their lesson plans. Actually, through extending the lesson plans beyond traditional textbooks, including online resources, the teachers can be considered as more efficient educators.

Another advantage of online teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers is accessibility of time and place which allows the students to attend the classes from any places they may wish. It is believed that it can also provide the opportunity for universities, schools, and educational institutes to reach out to a more extensive network of students, rather than being limited by geographical boundaries. Moreover, there is the possibility for online lectures / lessons of teaching English language for adults of non-native English speakers to be recorded, archived, and shared for future reference. Accordingly, this enables the teachers, students, and related educators / academicians to access the teaching and learning materials when needed.

As a result, online teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers provides the students with the accessibility of time and place in this education. It can also be true for the teachers, related educators, as well as academicians.

Another advantage of online learning can be thought as reduced financial costs or affordability. It appears that online education in general and online teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers in particular is far more affordable when compared to physical learning or face to face instruction. In this sense, some of the reasons might be that online teaching and learning eliminates the cost in terms of the student’s transportation, student’ meals, and real
Besides, almost the entire course or study materials are going to be available online and accordingly, having a paperless teaching and learning circumstance and setting, being more affordable, can be beneficial to the environment, too. Due to the fact that online classes for teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers can be taken from home or location of choice, there are not many cases reading missing the lessons for students and teachers and this can improve students’ attendance.

Another advantage is that it can suit a variety of learning styles. Educators and academicians dealing with teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers should be aware of the fact that the students have diversified learning backgrounds and styles. For instance, some of the students can be visual learners whereas some students are inclined to learn through audio. Similarly, some students can develop and improve themselves more educationally while the other students who get distracted by small or large groups can learn better alone.

Besides, online teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers system, considering its range of options as well as resources, can be personalized in different ways. It might be claimed that this way of teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers seems to be one of the best ways in order to create the most efficient teaching and learning setting and environment which can satisfy the needs of individual learner in this context.

It is claimed that online teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers is learner-centred teaching process and the role of the teacher can be described as being a guide or facilitator within this teaching process. In addition, in this manner online teaching and learning English language can be convenient for these students to access regardless of time and place.

Also, this can be a kind of cooperative teaching and learning English language. Besides, online teaching and learning English language for these students can be fast and dynamic and reduces the amount of expenses such as travel time and travel costs for them and the teachers.

Moreover, self-paced learning English language in online teaching and learning English language can be fostered in the manner by which these students are able to learn English at the preferable rate.

It is claimed that online teaching of English language can foster interaction among students and instructors. Furthermore, comprehensive learning is said to be realised to some extent. In other words, it contains many instructional sources and tools namely virtual classes and simulations. Some activities and tasks like enrolment, supervision, and submitting assignments can be carried out online.

There is the possibility that English lessons get prepared by different English teachers from different places and diverse groups. These learners’ motivation can be positively affected through accessing most of the essential elements of English language learning such as input (the knowledge
that learner is exposed to it for the first time), bridging new materials to previous learned ones and output (what learner produces by utilising two previous items).

Flexibility, convenience and the ability to work at student pace can be of high level.

**Some Disadvantages of Learning and Teaching English Language Online for Adults of Non-native English Speakers**

The following points are important in this context.

Inability to focus on screens is a crucial disadvantage. Seemingly, one of the biggest challenges of online learning for some students is the issue of focusing on the screen for long periods of time. Additionally, there is greater chance for the students to be easily distracted by social media or other sites in online teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers.

Thus, it is imperative for the teachers to plan and conduct their online classes in motivating, educative, interactive, efficient, and productive manners as well as engaging them to the related activities, and to help the students stay focused on the lessons as much as possible.

Regarding technology issues, it can be said that one of the key challenges in terms of teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers of online classes is Internet availability, connectivity, and speed.

In this sense, a consistent connection with an acceptable standard speed might be a problem. Not having a consistent internet connection for the students and/or teachers may lead to a lack of continuity in teaching and learning in this context.

Undoubtedly, having a consistent internet connection for the students and/or teachers is a desirable situation for the education process in general and for teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers specifically.

Concerning the sense of isolation, it is a fact that students can learn a lot when they are with their peers. However, in an online education setting, there can exist little or almost no physical interactions between/among students and teachers. This is a crucial point in English language learning for adults of non-native English speakers since this process needs interaction to a great extent.

When there is not real, authentic, sensible, and efficient interaction in this context, this often results in a sense of isolation for the students. In this circumstance, it is required that the schools provide some other ways of communication between/among the students, peers, and teachers. To exemplify, this can encompass online messages, emails, video conferencing, projects, presentations and the like. Accordingly, it may reduce the sense of isolation to some extent.

In terms of teacher training in the context of online teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers, it can be verbalised that the teachers are required to have a basic perception of using digital forms of teaching and learning English language for these learners. In some cases, the teachers have a very basic understanding of technology. Also, they might not even have the essential resources and tools for conducting online classes.

To overcome this, it is imperative that the schools to plan and invest in training
the teachers with the latest technology updates. If it is realised, the teachers can perform their online classes more efficiently.

For managing screen time, it is probable that some people, families, students, teachers, and parents are concerned regarding the hazards in terms of health of spending so much time staring at a screen. This increase in screen time might be one of the important concerns and disadvantages of online teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers.

Medically and anatomically speaking, the students may develop inappropriate posture and other physical problems owing to staying hunched in front of a screen. Having different breaks from the screen at regular intervals can help to refresh the students’ and teachers’ minds and their bodies.

Online teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers can decrease social relations among these students. It is possible that some learners may not have adequate knowledge about using Internet and computer and accordingly they are not able to work with them efficiently as expected.

Online teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers may reduce the number of face-to-face meetings and amount of the teachers’ supervision on these students. Indeed, some teachers have less experience and acquaintance with online teaching and learning English language to these students. There exist lingual /cultural differences. Technical limitations should be considered here. Lack of face-to-face interaction with a teacher can affect this kind of teaching and learning English language process for these learners negatively.

Some Advantages and Disadvantages of Learning and Teaching English Language Online for Adults of Non-native English Speakers in Brief

Jonassen and Kwon (2001) explained that research has shown that when group problem solving is computer mediated, communications get more task oriented through clearer role expectations, whereas face-to-face communications are more cohesive and personal.

To create learning settings that provide functions similar to face-to-face ones, some researchers applied multimedia and synchronous media. Van der Kleij, Schraagen, De Dreu, and Werkhoven (2009) mentioned lower levels of perceived satisfaction with group processes and outcomes in video-teleconferencing groups when compared to face-to-face groups. They figured out that the interaction process in video conferencing groups was more formal lecture-like with long turns. No performance differences between face-to-face and video-teleconferencing groups have were uncovered by them.

Han (2008) highlighted that with the notable development of computers and Internet, more and more second language practitioners are using computers for foreign language teaching and learning now. Although the use of online teaching and learning English language for adults of
non-native English speakers has a positive impact on the achievement levels of these language learners, there are still some barriers to the wide implementation of it.

It should be noted that language specialists are to recognize both the benefits and limitations of utilizing online teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers so that they can do their best to overcome the barriers and get the maximum technology effectiveness for developing this type of English language teaching and learning for these students.

Riasati, Allahyar, and Tan (2012) claimed that technology, especially e-learning technology, is being increasingly applied in instruction for enhancing teaching and learning.

In fact, with the entering of the Internet and the associated technologies, it is understood that English language becomes a remarkable significant tool for international communication. Accordingly, this is going to lead to unquestionable cultural interaction among different nations in the world.

Ravichandran (2000) and Bollin (2003) argued that language teachers can be more convenient with traditional textbooks due to the fact that it is what they are used to do, and there is the idea that the utilization of computers may threaten traditional literacy skills as they are heavily dependent on books. They also claimed that this circumstance can be observed partially since there exists indispensable generation gap between teachers who are not quite familiar with computers and students who are quite familiar with computers.

Indeed, the teachers who are not technologically competent may believe that computers are worthless whereas the teachers who are technologically competent may believe that computers can facilitate language learning.

In terms of the advantage of learning and teaching English language online for adults of non-native English speakers, some points can be highlighted.

Regarding flexible time, it can be said that compared to traditional teaching styles, there might not be time limitation in this sense. Having flexible time here can facilitate the circumstances of learning and teaching English language online for adults of non-native English speakers.

Not having region limitation can be another advantage. In offline English classes, teachers and students are supposed to be present in the same settings, places, and at the prespecified schedules. If this is not realized, both learning and teaching English language activities might not be carried out in the first place as planned.

Lower cost can be noticed as another advantage. It could be true for both training institutions and the learners.

As an example, for offline training institutions, they have to spend a lot of money on renting the places and relevant expenditures for having English language classrooms ready. These expenditures, generally, are shared among the students’ tuition payments.

It seems that learner-centered issue is affected positively through learning and teaching English language online for adults of non-native English speakers.

The offline English language teaching is centered on training institutions. The training institution can specify which class and which teacher these learners should
be assigned to. However, there can be the possibilities for these students to choose classes with various topics according to their own interests. Choosing the teachers and their teaching styles based on the students’ preference appears to have an important role in these students’ autonomous learning.

The disadvantages of learning and teaching English language online for adults of non-native English speakers cannot be ignored.

Offline English classes for adults of non-native English speakers can have a great opportunity to create more effective interactions between students and teachers.

On the condition that an online class keeps lacking productive interactions as planned between the students and teachers, the learning effect seems to become greatly reduced.

In addition, it is likely that the students do not receive direct feedback from online teachers about the students’ performances, assignments, other educational / language practice or activates following the class. Hence, the teachers may not have the appropriate opportunities to help the students for reviewing, practicing, and enhancing what they have learned.

Furthermore, if the teachers are not able to successfully attract the students’ attention, the students may easily get distracted by different things or events around them such as their cell phones.

As with different learning and teaching methods, online learning and teaching ones can have its own set of positive and negative aspects. Decoding and perceiving the pros and cons of learning and teaching methods are going to help English language program developers in creating strategies for delivering more efficient English language instruction.

New ways of teaching and learning in general and teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers in particular through online platform have emerged due to the COVID-19 pandemic in the world.

Globally speaking, most educational institutions are using online learning platforms to carry on educating students to the possible extent. Actually, digital teaching and learning has emerged as an essential resource for students and schools globally. It appears that for some educational institutes, this way of teaching and learning is a new way of education quite different compared to the face to face and class instruction. That is why adaptation might no be as easy as imagined.

In fact, online teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers is currently applicable to provide these learners with different extracurricular activities as well.

In general, it is difficult to claim that the advantages of learning and teaching English language online for adults of non-native English speakers outweigh the disadvantages or vice versa. There is a need of comprehensive research in different settings and diversified groups of students and teachers and the experts from different disciplines.
Conclusions

Online education will continue to affect and shape the manners in which some people learn in the 21st century (Wuensch, Aziz, Ozan, Kishore, and Tabrizi, 2008). In spite of the fact that online learning has been developing fast, there still exist some debates to be noticed and some problems to be solved for achieving a real stimulating and realistic learning experience (Monahan, McArdle, and Bertolotto, 2008; Qiu, 2010).

Technology is now used in almost every aspect of our life. Online teaching and learning with having various pedagogical features has been applied in teaching and learning English language around the world. It has some impacts on the way we view teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers.

Noemi (2007) claimed that although computers may never replace teachers, they can provide excellent and fairly inexpensive supplementary materials for improving classroom instruction. Besides, computers can enhance visual, verbal and kinesthetic learning, higher-level thinking, as well as problem solving (Turnbull and Lawrence, 2002). Also, providing immediate feedback, hands-on learning, and collaborative instruction can be realised.

Blended learning is increasingly applied for characterizing the methodology that combines online learning, traditional learning and individual student work. It means both the utilization of modern interactive technologies added to the traditional ones; however, a qualitatively new approach to learning that enhances a certain transformation in learning, termed as a flipped classroom.

The Internet sources seem to be useful in terms of teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers since these students can utilize authentic texts, communicate online with the native speakers via the Internet if needed, and practice English online with anyone, when possible, in different countries around the world. Taking this into account, many institutions and universities have initiated to apply online teaching and learning English language for adults of non-native English speakers together with face-to-face one.

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Chapter 26

Science Education in Pandemic Process: Ankara Children's University in the Distance Education Process

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INTRODUCTION

Science Education

Children are very curious at their very early ages, and their curiosity is even likened to that of scientists. At their early ages, children are programmed to constantly inquire, examine and explore. Science education will support the children's curiosity and enable them to acquire new information and experiences in line with their inquiries and interests. Introducing children to various studies related to science in this process will also encourage them to develop a positive attitude toward science. (Ayvacı & Yurt, 2016).

However, considering the education programs in effect, it is seen that these programs are inadequate to prepare children for the new world order in terms of science education (Roth et al. 2006). According to Çepni (2009), science is not static, and it is a constantly changing, improving complex process that includes uncertainties. In this regard, due to the presence of many question marks over the contents of the existing curriculum, it would not be right to expect a proper science education to be provided to children. For this reason, it is seen that alternative methods are of great importance for children to benefit from science education. Science centers and children's universities are the first among these alternative methods.

Science centers are institutions that were first established as science museums in the early 1900s and their names changed to science centers after including applications and practices in their process and include the environment, specialists, and materials that are suitable for us to acquire the experiences which will enable us to look at our everyday lives from a scientific point of view (URL 1).

Children's Universities, on the other hand, is a system that has been on the agenda since the 2000s, which encourages university-society cooperation. Children’s Universities are places where children have the opportunity to access information and experiences that they have no access to with the equipment available in their homes and
schools. In this way, children have the opportunity to experience scientific knowledge, they have the opportunity to discuss and freely express themselves (URL 2).

Children's Universities facilitate dialogue between children and scientists to access information about our world. Sometimes children, sometimes families, and sometimes teachers are included in this process. However, one of the main goals is to convey the importance of always respecting and accepting different perspectives, as well as critical questioning (URL 3). Children's universities do not have a single formula, children's universities can reach children in many different ways and patterns. Presentations in lecture halls, applied lectures, workshops, summer science camps are examples of such practices (URL 2, URL 3).

According to the studies conducted, it is seen that children transfer their knowledge to real life more easily through a science education they received using real materials or through various simulators or a science education that utilizes real materials (Bilek 2010).

In this context, Ankara Children's University is an institution in service for nearly 12 years, with a mission and vision in line with these goals. The information regarding the details of this structure is summarized below.

**Ankara Children's University**

Ankara Children's University is Turkey's first children's university, which started to serve within the body of Ankara University in 2009. However, the foundations of this structure were laid in 2007 with the support of the TUBITAK Science and Society Department, after the conceptualization of certain programs and the initialization of the community service practices. These education programs, which started with the Soil Science School and Creative Ideas programs, started to multiply rapidly with the addition of the Life Sciences program from the department of anthropology. In 2009, these programs were gathered under one roof and supported by the Innovative Science Education Methods: Children's University project with the support of the Ankara University Scientific Research Projects (SRP) Coordination Unit and opened its doors for children as of May.

In this direction, this institution, which has been serving children uninterruptedly since May 2009, continues to bring children and universities together with 18 active science schools. These education programs are;

- Is There Anyone Among You Who Doesn't Like Math?
- I'm a Veterinarian
- Brain and Learning School
- My Information Source Books Science School
- Insect Festival School
- Values Education Science School
- Who Shakes Our World?
- Thinking Owls
- The Magic of Photography Science School
- School of Astronomy
- Kid Gardeners
- School of Architecture
My Little Friends Insects Science School
Water School
Soil Science School
Let's Solve Our Body's Riddle
Life Sciences
Life's Code DNA

All of the programs within the body of Ankara Children's University are carried out under the steer of a team constituted by the academic staff at the university. All of the program leaders are faculty members who have at least a doctorate in their respective fields. In general, Ankara Children's University headquarters is the place where education program sessions are held, but it is important to provide special environments specific to the programs to carry out certain practices more properly. In this context, School of Astronomy education program sessions are held in the observatory in Incek Campus, The Magic of Photography Science School education program sessions are held in the dark room within the Faculty of Communication, Soil Science School and Kid Gardeners Programs are held in the Faculty of Agriculture.

Each education program has its own time interval, specific target audience, specific contents, and materials. Although Ankara Children's University serves children between the ages of 5-15, the age ranges that each program specifically targets are different from each other.

Since the day it was founded, Ankara Children's University has continued to provide education uninterruptedly, reaching first children, followed by teachers and parents. So much so that when we look at the education programs provided in face-to-face format over the 12-year period, a total of 37,396 children and 439 teachers were trained. At the same time, the university has had the opportunity to touch thousands of children with the science festivals it held on its own every year, and with the contributions of different institutions to these festivals. In this context, the institution, which uninterruptedly served the public until the pandemic, did not cease its operations during the pandemic and continued to work actively for both children and teachers. In this context, detailed information about the education programs provided by Ankara Children's University during the pandemic is given below.

**Ankara Children's University in the Distance Education Process**

Since 2009, Ankara Children's University has provided education to children in many different programs and many different platforms, both as individual and as group education. However, with the start of the pandemic, unfortunately, these education programs, which were all in a face-to-face format, had to be suspended for a while. In this direction, since the moment the pandemic first emerged in Turkey, previously planned activities were canceled one by one and the groups were informed that they will be reorganized in the future. After this, a curious wait started in Ankara Children's University, as in everyone else. Researches have been carried out on which route to follow regarding the process in the context of pandemic and its effects, and a brainstorming process was initiated on possible ways to continue. In line with this, the
waiting process has yielded to the process of finding a solution. As evaluated in all contexts, with the idea that both education should not be interrupted and that continuity is essential according to the mission and vision of the children's university, work on what type of process should be followed was initiated. In this context, meetings have started to be held both as the management and with the education program leaders. Within the scope of these meetings, discussions were held on how to reach children, and a consensus was reached that science education could be provided to children in the form of distance education through online platforms. However, the details have been clarified after the brainstorms carried out by the teams responsible for each program. In this context, each program leader evaluated their own program and held meetings with their colleagues about how they could make changes in their education programs. The education programs were revised for distance education, their teaching materials were reviewed, changes were made to the materials, and additions and omissions were made to the education workshops. However, only six of the 18 programs actively providing education within Ankara Children's University were able to adapt to this process. The reason for this is that it is not possible to adapt the contents and applications of the education program to the distance learning process. The fact that the realization of the programs needed space, the workshops cannot be performed in distance education format, the program manager and the team have second thoughts about the efficiency are among the reasons why the education programs cannot be adapted to the distance education process. In this context, the programs that can adapt their sessions to the process include:

- Is There Anyone Among You Who Doesn't Like Math?
- I'm a Veterinarian
- Brain and Learning School
- Insect Festival School
- Values Education Science School
- The Magic of Photography Science School

Before the commencement of these programs, new materials were prepared, test broadcasts were made and these programs were then presented to children. The week of April 23 was chosen as the commencement week and the children's holiday was celebrated with science education.

The answer to the question of how children were reached within the distance education process includes several different methods. First, announcements were made on the webpage of Ankara Children's University, the applications through the webpage were evaluated and distance learning appointments were made for these children. In addition, the schools that have previously applied for and participated in the programs were contacted and the program was announced in these schools. Finally, various district national education directorates were contacted and both teachers and families were reached. In this direction, applications to Ankara Children's University were recorded, children were enrolled in programs suitable for their age and interests, and their families were contacted to share the links to distance education via e-mail, and relevant education program sessions were held. This protocol was also followed in individual applications. However, due to the increased participation and increased number of group applications over time, education programs for individuals were replaced with group education.
programs. In this context, appointments were made for the applications made by each teacher for their own class, and the distance education science education was conducted with the students in the appointment class. The greatest advantage of this was that it facilitated the process. Since the organization of the education became easier, the time spent on organization was shorter, and the time spent on education became longer. In the case of individual applications, the high number of individuals contacted, the need for reaching a certain number of children one by one, contacting each family was making the organization process much longer. On the other hand, in the case of group applications, organizing with the teacher and determining the suitable time interval was sufficient for the organization process. Since it was the teacher who communicated with the students, the process was much faster. In this context, as time progressed, it was possible to reach more children. However, during this time, a certain bottleneck was experienced especially during the summer months, as the participation rate and motivation of children decreased as the school term was over, the children were not disciplined and were bored of the distance learning process. On the other hand, with the start of the new term and the definitive decision that distance learning will continue, as well as the motivation of teachers to establish a more quality distance learning process, the children's interest in participation was back to its previous level.

With the widespread use of the distance science learning process, there has been an increase in the recognition of the distance learning program of Ankara University Children's University, and applications were received from different provinces and different institutions. In this context, the opportunity arose to provide science education to children who are contacted by other institutions other than schools affiliated with the Ministry of National Education, such as youth centers and non-governmental organizations. Applications from many provinces such as Edirne, Istanbul, Hatay, Bursa, Kırıkkale, Konya, etc. were evaluated and the children were reached regardless of the physical distance.

Another education method implemented in the distance education process was teacher education programs. Teacher education is an education method that is considered important by Ankara Children's University and is believed to make an important contribution in terms of reaching children and larger masses, and instead of just benefiting from one-off education, allow children to continue their education at their school with more attention to science education. However, it is only limited to certain groups due to the reasons such as the presence of working hours in the distance education process and that the teachers cannot participate in the education programs during their face-to-face classes. With the introduction of distance education, it became possible to organize teacher education programs, and the sessions were held accordingly.

With the increased awareness regarding teacher education, the Turkish Education Association has proposed to collaborate with Ankara Children's University within the scope of a project they have been carrying out. The project, titled Our Teachers: The Guarantee of Education, involves education provided to female teachers assigned to villages in the first years of their profession to ensure their self-improvement and to provide academic and social support. Within the scope of the project, teacher education was carried out in the form of a module on Ankara Children's University Science
Education Programs. In this direction, 150 teachers within the scope of the project received education from:

- Insect Festival School
- School of Astronomy
- Water School
- Thinking Owls
- Stand Up Stay Fit
- Soil Science School
- Life's Code DNA
- Kid Gardeners

The education programs organized in this context are different from those given to children both in terms of program titles and content. The reason for this is that the education given to children must be richer in terms of material. A significant level of infrastructure and a significant number of materials are needed to ensure that children receive science education on screen without being distracted and with enjoyment. For teachers, this process rather starts with theoretical and academic knowledge and continues with examples of practice. For this reason, it was easier to reach teachers than children.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

At Ankara Children's University, the concept of distance education brought into our lives with the pandemic has been used together with all systems in order to keep up with the process, and the part of our science education programs that are suitable has been integrated into the system and thereby reached children. In this context, since April 2020, our science education programs have reached 2339 children and 488 teachers through the standard education process. In addition, training was provided to 150 teachers as a module of 7 programs and 18 sessions.

The experiences acquired during the process show that there is no method and technique that can replace the face-to-face format in education. The contribution of face-to-face education to the child or the adult is not limited to academic knowledge or practices. However, difficult times call for immediate solutions. For this reason, science education using the distance education method is a useful and short-term solution in order to minimize the loss of knowledge in children, not to waste time, and be accessible to children under any circumstance. In addition, the education programs that could not be delivered to children in face-to-face format can be delivered through distance education regardless of the physical distance, offering us the chance to influence children miles away. At the same time, experience proves that distance education is an alternative and effective method that can be used in education program sessions with time- or space-related problems (e.g. teacher education).

It is certain that distance education, which is brought into our lives with the pandemic, will not end when the pandemic is over. The benefits of face-to-face education cannot be denied, but whenever required, it would be the right approach to integrate
distance education that will long be in our lives after the pandemic is over to the system and to use it in the long term for more children to easily take advantage of the opportunities the children's university provides. In order to influence more children, the goals of children's universities should include revision of the contents when needed during the process, and enriching the content by adding new programs and materials to become more integrated into distance learning.

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