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Dear WJEIS Readers,

WJEIS appears on your screen now as Volume 5, Number 3. In this issue it publishes 9 articles.

Colleagues that are in editorial board worked hard to determine the articles of this issue. There are also some articles that were presented in “6th International Conference on New Trends in Education and Their Implications - ICONTE, 24-26 April, 2015” with the contribution of 22 countries. Articles are evaluated by the referees that are either in editorial board or outside the board.

Although WJEIS is a new journal, it has been welcomed with interest. A lot of journals from various universities are in the evaluation process. We would like to thank cordially our colleagues who work hard in editorial board to evaluate the articles, writers who contribute to our journal and all readers.

1st August, 2015

Best regards

Prof. Dr. Zeki Kaya
Prof. Dr. Ugur Demiray
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Murat Hismanoglu
TEACHERS’ PERCEPTIONS OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT ORIENTATIONS IN TURKISH AND LATVIA Contexts: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

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Abstract
The purpose of this study is to explore teachers' classroom management orientations in the Turkey and Latvia. The data in the study was collected through 294 Turkish teachers and 44 Latvian teachers. Data in this study were collected using the attitudes and beliefs on classroom control ideology (ABCC) developed by Martin et al. (1998). Mean, standard deviation, and Mann Whitney U-test were used in analysis of the data. In this study, it was found that there was no significant differences between Turkish and Latvian teachers’ instructional management, whereas significant differences between Turkish and Latvian teachers’ people management and behavior management.

Key Words: Classroom management, classroom management orientation, teacher, Turkey, Latvia.

INTRODUCTION

Researchers argued that teachers’ classroom management skills have an effect on the success of students and the quality of teaching (Yılmaz & Çavaş, 2008). Classroom management is defined as the range of teacher efforts to oversee classroom activities, including learning, social interaction, and student behavior (Iverson, 2003). According to Tal (2010), “classroom management is perceived as a cyclical process that includes advanced planning, implementation, assessment during implementation, and final evaluation that takes into account factors related to children and their environment, intended to bring about progress in the activities carried out for the learning and emotional well-being of the children in the class” (p.144). Classroom management is defined as the formation and implementation of classroom routines, and procedures for participation in teaching activities, shaping cooperative learning teams, accomplishing class work (Sterling, 2009). As can be seen this definitions, it is suggested that classroom management is a factor directly affecting the quality of education because it is the concept including a broad teachers’ actions from are required to perform teaching to managing students’ behaviors. Eventually, studies examining factors affecting students’ learning revealed that classroom management is an important factor for students’ learning (Shin & Koh, 2007). However, teachers report that one of the most widespread challenges in the classroom is classroom management (Goyette, Dore, & Dion, 2000). This may indicate that classroom management is an important factor to ensure the quality of education.

One of the factors shaping teachers’ actions related to classroom management is classroom management orientations. Although teachers may choose different classroom management orientations to make teaching activities, they tend to be widely adopted only style. Therefore, teachers adopting classroom management
orientations may had an important effect on determining their reactions toward students' behaviors and teaching activities. Classroom management strategies are a crucial part of teacher’s success in creating a safe and effective learning environment for student’s quality education (Osakwe, 2014). Thus, in order to determine teacher using classroom management orientations, it may contribute to appropriate or desired teaching activities in class. In this respect, it is important examining teachers’ adopting classroom management orientations.

Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) conceptualized teacher’s classroom management orientations which commonly used in the literature. They classified beliefs toward discipline on a continuum of control that reflects the extent to which teachers want to exercise control over students. The continuum ranges from interventionists at one extreme to non-interventionists at the other, with interactionalists midway between them (Martin et.al. 1998). This conceptualization has been used to some studies examining teachers’ classroom management orientations (Chambers, 2003; Martin, Yin & Baldwin, 1998a). This study utilized the classroom management framework conceptualized by Glickman and Tamashiro to explore teachers’ classroom management orientations.

Interventionists emphasize the external environment and what this does to the human organism to cause it to develop in its particular way (Unal & Uludag, 2008). Interventionists believe that students learn appropriate behaviors primarily when their behaviors are reinforced by teacher-generated rewards and punishments, and they assert that teachers should exercise a high degree of control over classroom activities (Martin et.al., 1998). The goal of the interventionist orientation is to maintain an orderly and efficient classroom that promotes quality of education (Osakwe, 2014). Teachers who approve the interventionist orientation may tend to take control of the situation by implementing immediate disciplinary strategies to control their students’ behaviors (Witcher, Onwuegbuzie, Collins, Witcher, Minor & James, 2002). According to the interventionist orientation, the teacher’s role in the classroom is to conduct rules and procedures, convey these to students and implement appropriate rewards and punishment for compliance or non-compliance respectively (Osakwe, 2014). “At the other extreme, non-interventionists believe that students have an inner drive that needs to find its expression in the real world” (Martin et.al. 1998, p. 6). To accomplish this, the teacher’s role should create a close, strong, trusting relationship with children and helping them develop their problem solving abilities (Osakwe, 2014). Non-interventionists suggest that students should be allowed to exert significant influence in the classroom and that teachers should be less involved in modifying student behaviors (Martin et al. 1998a). Teachers who endorse to the non-interventionist approach may tend to student-oriented and favor to employ strategies using minimal teacher power (Witcher et. al. 2002). Non-interventionist teacher’s goal is to demonstrate empathy toward students and to find a compromise in an effort to provide opportunities for students to self-correct the inappropriate behaviors and learn to manage their own behaviors (Unal & Uludag, 2008). The goal of the non-interventionist approach is to increase the personal growth and autonomy of the student in the teaching-learning process (Osakwe, 2014). “Midway between these two extremes, interactionalists focus on what the individual does to modify the external environment, as well as what the environment does to shape the individual” (Martin et al., 1998, p.7). Interactionalists believe that students learn desired behaviors as a result of encountering the outside world of people and objects (Martin et al. 1998). Interactionalists suggest that students and teachers should share responsibility for classroom management (Martin et al., 1998). Interactionalists endeavor to find solutions satisfactory to both teacher and students, adopting some of the same strategies as interventionists and non-interventionists. Interactionalist teachers may use both directive and non-directive strategies (Unal & Uludag, 2008). The interactionist teacher’s role is to understand student’s behavior and to help students understand their own behavior and its consequences (Osakwe, 2014). The emphasis of this orientation is how the established rules and regulations can be obeyed by the students concerned (Osakwe, 2014).

Because of the importance of classroom management, it is important to know factors influencing teachers’ classroom management orientations. In literature, it is suggested that culture has an important effect on teachers’ attitudes and behaviors. Cultural values may shape teachers’ perceives toward students, teaching and learning (Osborn, 1999). Cultural values play crucial a role to evaluation and interpretation classroom management, classroom environment and teacher-student relationships (Holmes, 2005; Mceachron, Baker, & Bracken, 2003; Romi, Lewis & Katz, 2009; Zhang, 2007). In Eastern culture, teachers are authorities and
knowledge transmitter (Zhang, 2007). The level of interaction between teachers and students is low, and students’ silence is an statement of respect to the teacher (Holmes, 2005). Eastern education prefers a more authoritarian, antisocial, and dialectic approach, which is often test-oriented, information-packed, verbatim, and conformity (Holmes, 2005; Zhang, 2006). In Western culture, teacher’s roles are facilitator, mentor, and organizer (Zhang, 2007). Western education tends to a more humanistic, prosocial, and dialogic approach, which is often experiential, inquiry-based, problem-solving, and critical thinking (Holmes, 2005). People from collectivistic cultures favored more dispositional strategies to maintain interpersonal relationship conformity, whereas people from individualistic cultures favored more contingency strategies to promote freedom (Lee, Levine, & Cambra, 1997; Zhang, Zhang & Castellucci, 2011). The results of the study examining teachers’ behavior alteration techniques in U.S. and China with different cultural values revealed that U.S. teachers generally focus on student autonomy and teacher-student equality so that they use reward-based, prosocial, compliance-gaining strategies, while Chinese teachers emphasize authority and inequality so that they tend to punishment-based and antisocial techniques (Lu, 1997). Hence, differences between West and East cultures play an important role shaping teachers’ pedagogical beliefs and practices including classroom management styles (Zhou & Li, 2015). The results of study examining students’ responsibility in Australia, China and Israel with different cultural characteristics indicated that Chinese students have levels of responsibility in class than those in Australia and Israel, and that Australian and Chinese teachers conceive more their students’ responsibility than Israeli teachers (Romi et al., 2009).

In literature, conducted studies related to classroom management revealed that teachers in countries with different cultural values favored different classroom management orientations (Shin & Koh, 2007). Shin and Koh (2007) found that there were significant differences in perceives of West (America) and Asia (Korea) teachers regarding their classroom management strategies, and American teachers tend to favor more interventionist orientation on people management and behavior management than Korean teachers. Asian teachers preferred to use more behavioral strategies (Cheng, 2014). Cultural values such as valuing collective interest over individualism and the hierarchical nature of teacher-student relationships play a important role in shaping Chinese teachers’ classroom management orientations (Zhou & Li, 2015). Also, the hierarchical teacher-student relationships had effect on Chinese teachers’ classroom management orientations (Hofstede, 1986).

This study explored whether a difference in classroom management orientation of Turkish and Latvian teachers who have different culturel values. Turkey is a collectivist, high power distance, and high uncertainty avoidance society, whereas Latvia is an individualistic, low power distance and low uncertainty avoidance society (Aycan & Kanungo, 2000; Huettinger, 2008). Turkish teachers more spend their time maintaining order in the class than Latvian teachers (OECD, 2009, 2014). In terms of the teacher-student relationship including having mutual respect, empathy, and social skills, in Turkey, positive teacher-student relationships scores lower than Latvia (OECD, 2009, 2014). Latvian teachers believe that the teacher-student relationships are developed, students’ thoughts are valued, and students should be allowed to think of solutions to problems (OECD, 2014).In light of this knowledge, it is suggested that Latvian teachers may tend to noninterventionist or interactionist classroom management orientations.

Turkey is a collectivist, high power distance, and paternalistic society. Individuals in a high power distance value one’s status, title, and position (Aycan & Kanungo, 2000), accept centralized power, and rely on manager for direction (Rodrigues, 1988). In such societies, teachers are expected to transmit knowledge for students (Kirildçoğ & Ağaoğlu, 2004). In collectivistic societies students are usually expected to respect and obey their teachers (Zhou & Li, 2015). In paternalistic countries managers’ duty is protection, direction, and guidance, employees unquestioning obedience as a means of reciprocation (Aycan & Kanungo, 2000). According to this, in societis with such a culture such as Turkey, teachers may believe that they should make decisions relating what teaching activities to do and how student act in classroom. Considering teachers’ role in interventionist classroom management is that their determined rules transmit students, and give reward or punishment whether students comply with rules, teachers may favored interventionist classroom management orientation allowing them to be authority and dominant in the class.
Conversely, individuals in low power distance societies do not endure centralized power, and expect to get their opinions about decisions and participate in the decision-making process (Rodrigues, 1988; Aycan & Kanungo, 2000). In such societies, students can easily say their ideas and criticize their teachers (Erdoğan, Yaman, Şentürk & Kalyoncu, 2008). According to this, in societies with such a culture such as Latvia, Teachers value students’ thoughts about in-class activities, make decisions together, and share responsibilities. Non-interventionist teachers allow students to be active and free, and help students to solve problems. Interactionist teachers share responsibilities. Based on this knowledge, it is suggested that Latvian teachers may favor non-interventionist or interactionist classroom management orientations.

Although studies were conducted exploring teachers’ classroom management orientations in a single country, studies comparing teachers’ classroom management orientations between countries are very few, specially comparative studies of classroom management orientations in countries with different cultural values. Consequently, very little is known about classroom management orientations in different cultural contexts. According to Zhau & Li (2015), understanding classroom management practices in different cultures may contribute to extend knowledge regarding this topic in order to examine teachers’ classroom management orientations in Turkey and Latvia with different cultural values. Therefore, it was the intent of this study to explore Turkish and Latvian teachers’ classroom management orientations.

**METHOD**

**Participants**

The study was carried out in elementary schools in Turkey. The participants for this study consisted of 294 Turkish teachers and Latvian teachers. Teachers in the Turkish sample were 62.58% female, and 37.41% male, teachers in the Latvian sample were 84% female, and 15.9% male. Turkish teachers had from 4 to 25 years teaching experiences, Latvian teachers had from 10 to 30. 18.70% of Turkish teachers had completed a 2-year program with higher schools of education, 61.56% of teachers had completed a 4-year program with college degree, and 19.72% of teachers had a master’s degree. 52.2% of Latvian teachers had bachelor’s degree, and 47.7% teachers had a master’s degree.

**Instrument**

To measure teachers’ interventionist, non-interventionist, and interactionist orientations, Martin et.al. (1998) developed the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control (ABCC) Inventory. The ABCC is extensively used to measure teachers’ classroom management orientations (e.g. Henson & Chambers, 2005; Martin, Yin, & Mayall, 2006; Shin and Koh, 2007). This instrument measures teachers’ beliefs and attitudes toward classroom management in three broad dimensions, instructional management (14 items), people management (8 items), and behavior management (4 items). Instructional Management includes activities such as establishing daily procedures, allocating materials, and monitoring student’s independent work. People management pertains to teachers’ beliefs about students as persons and what teachers do to enable them to develop. Behavior Management is any pre-planned intervention aimed to prevent student misbehavior. On a continuum of control each subscale assessed the degree of teacher power over students (Martin et al. 1998) ranging from interventionist to interactionist to non-interventionist. The ABCC is a four-point Likert scale which is scored as follows: Four points “describes me very well”, three points “describes me usually”, two points “describes me somewhat”, and one point “describes me not at all”. High scores on three subscales of the ABCC inventory reflect more interventionist management beliefs while low scores reflect less interventionist management beliefs.

As ABCC was adapted in Turkish Language, to confirm the construct validity of 26 items and the three factors structure of ABCC, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) performed on data for the Turkish sample of this study. To assess the model fit, it was used that multiple fit statistics including Chi-square, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), goodness of fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) and the comparative fit index (CFI). The results of CFA showed that fit index of the 26 items and the three factors structure of ABCC indicated a acceptable fit to the data ($X^2=324.889$ df=83, $X^2/df=3.91$, RMSEA=.07, AGFI=.91, GFI=.88, CFI=.94). In addition, load values of the items of the instructional management factor ranged from .65 to .91, that of
people management factor from .70 to .84, that of behavior management factor from .63 to .81. Consequently, it is revealed that three factors structure of ABCC is a valid structure.

The adaptation process of the ABCC inventory to Lettish included a validity and reliability study. ABCC was translated in Lettish by two translators. In this study, explanatory factor analysis was made for Lettish teachers by the use of principal components with varimax rotations in ABCC. The compliance of the data with the factor analysis was ascertained with KMO and Barlett Sphericity test. KMO was .793 and Barlett Sphericity test ($X^2$: 369.744; $p = 0.000$) was found to be meaningful. These results indicated that factor analysis was suitable for the sample. Factor analysis was performed to confirm underlying dimensions of the ABCC. The factor analysis revealed three factors of ABCC. Three factors of ABCC accounted for 77.84% of the variance in the respondents’ scores. In addition, load values of the items of the instructional management factor ranged from .65 to .83, that of people management factor from .48 to .80, that of behavior management factor from .57 to .88. In addition, CFA performed on data for the Latvia sample of this study. The results of CFA showed that fit index of the 26 items and the three factors structure of ABCC indicated a good fit to the data ($X^2 = 144.832$ df=74, $X^2$/df= 1.95, RMSEA=.04, AGFI= .92 CFI=.96, GFI=.95). Consequently, it is revealed that three factors structure of ABCC is a valid structure for Latvian teachers.

In order to assess the internal consistency of the ABCC inventory for Turkey and Latvia, Cronbach’s coefficient was utilized. Alpha coefficient for the instructional management was .83, and .79 for Turkey and Latvia, respectively. Alpha coefficient for the people management was .80, and .76 for Turkey and Latvia, respectively. Alpha coefficient for the behavioral management was .68, and .61 for Turkey and Latvia.

Data Analysis
The respondents’ scores on the ABCC scale were analyzed by utilizing mean and standard deviation. Mann Whitney U-test was conducted to determine differences between Turkish teachers and Latvian teachers’ classroom management orientations.

RESULTS
Mean and standard deviation values of Turkish and Latvian teachers’ classroom management orientations on instructional management, people management, and behavior management subscales of the ABCC are presented in Table 1. The mean score of Turkish teachers in instructional management was midpoint on the rating scale. This result revealed that Turkish teachers favored interactionist classroom management orientation on the instructional management. Mean scores of Turkish teachers in people management, and behavior management was above the midpoint. These findings showed that Turkish teachers were oriented interventionist classroom management style on people management, and behavior management.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>Turkish Teachers Mean</th>
<th>Turkish Teachers Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Latvian teachers Mean</th>
<th>Latvian teachers Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Total Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instructional management</td>
<td>32.78</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>29.88</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People management</td>
<td>24.78</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>17.56</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavior management</td>
<td>11.59</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>9.34</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 1, the mean score of Latvian teachers in instructional management was the midpoint. This result indicated that Latvian teachers favored interactionist classroom management orientation on the instructional management. Mean scores of Latvian teachers in people management, and behavior management was above the midpoint. These findings showed that Latvian teachers were oriented interventionist classroom management approach on people management, and behavior management.
Mann-Whitney U was conducted to determine differences between Turkish and Latvian teachers about classroom management orientations. The results of Mann-Whitney U revealed no statistically significant differences between Turkish and Latvian teachers’ instructional management, whereas significant differences between Turkish and Latvian teachers’ people management and behavior management. Turkish teachers’ attitudes toward the people management and behavior management had significantly higher scores than Latvian teachers. Turkish teachers tended to favor more interventionist orientation on people management and behavior management. Turkish teachers are able more a strict, control and directive approach in teacher-students relationship, giving directions, and commenting on behavior than Latvian teachers.

**DISCUSSION**

In this study, it was founded that there is no difference between Turkish and Latvian teachers’ classroom management on instructional management. Turkish and Latvian teachers tended to interactionist orientation on instructional management. Based on this result, it is said that Turkish and Latvian teachers have a tendency to act together with their students to determine behaviors toward performing teaching such as monitoring students’ work, establishing class procedures, and allocating teaching materials. This result may seem surprising, considering the two countries’ national cultural values. It can expected that teachers in Latvia with low power distance and uncertainty avoidance favor non-interventionist or interactionist classroom management orientations, whereas it can expected that teachers in Turkey with collectivist, high power distance and uncertainty avoidance tend to interventionist orientation. However, the result of this study revealed that teachers in both countries adopted interactionist classroom management orientation. This finding may result from curriculum reforms which have been in Turkey in 2005, and in Latvia since 1990s. Educational reforms in Latvia have stipulated to move democratic and learning-centred approach, and it based on constructivist model since 2006 (Zagla, Cernova & Kalnina, 2011). Curriculum reform in 2005 in Turkey such as Latvia are to move from behaviorist and teacher-centred approach to constructivist and student-centred approach. Turkish and Latvian teachers may have a similar thought because of these reforms in both countries which based on the same approach.

The results of this study revealed that there was a difference between Turkish and Latvian teachers’ classroom management on people management. Turkish tended to interventionist classroom management orientation on people management, whereas Latvian teachers favored interactionist orientation. The results of studies conducting countries with Western and Eastern cultural values are inconsistent. Consistent with this result, studies in Jordan and Iran which have similar cultural values, and Turkey have found that teachers adopted interventionist orientation on people management (Abu-Tineh, Khasawneh & Khalaiheh, 2011; Rahimi & Asadollahi, 2012; Yılmaz & Çavaş, 2008). This result is inconsistent with the findings of the study conducting Western cultural context such as Latvia. American teachers tend to more interventionist orientation than Korean teachers (Shin & Koh, 2007). In this study, Turkish teachers tend to be dominant to shape teacher-student relationships, while Latvian teachers show tendencies to shape teacher-student relationships with their students. The study conducted by OECD founded that most Latvian teachers are interested in their students’ thoughts, and believed that teacher-student relationships are good (OECD, 2014). In Turkey with collectivism, high power distance, and paternalism, teacher-students relationships are characterized by teachers’ authority and hierarchical relationship. Thus Turkish teachers may tend to interventionist orientation to classroom management. Conversely, the teacher-student relationships in the West such as Latvia tend to be more

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Orientation</th>
<th>Turkish Teachers</th>
<th>Latvian Teacher</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>Sum of Ranks</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instructional</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>194.19</td>
<td>66023.50</td>
<td>6906.500</td>
<td>.407</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>179.47</td>
<td>7896.50</td>
<td>1847.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>212.24</td>
<td>72162.50</td>
<td>767.500</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavior</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>39.94</td>
<td>1757.50</td>
<td>39.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>209.07</td>
<td>71083.00</td>
<td>2837.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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professional so that in Latvia, teacher-student relationship are characterized by equality and freedom (Zhang, 2006). Therefore, Latvian teachers may favored to interactionist classroom management style.

The result of this study revealed that there was a difference between Turkish and Latvian teachers’ classroom management on behavior management. Turkish tended to interventionist classroom management orientation on behavior management, whereas Latvian teachers favored interactionist orientation. Contrary to this result, the study comparing of teachers’ classroom management practices in U.S. with Western culture such as Latvia and Greece with Eastern culture such as Turkey revealed that American and Greek teachers believed that the class rules should be established by themselves (Akin-Little et al., 2007). Turkish teachers want to have control on behavior management including acts toward preventing of students’ undesirable behaviors through determining class rules. They do not tend to pay attention to students’ thoughts. Rules should be determined by the teacher and students must comply with it. This results corroborate the result of the study conducting Latvia indicated that teachers do not establishe any rules for classroom discipline, and believe that students are allowed much freedom (Daniela & Nimante, 2011). As in the collectivistic classroom, discipline and order are valued (Sun, 2015), collectivist teachers believe that students’ behaviors should be controlled, and strictness in setting up classroom rules for managing their behaviors. Thus Turkish teachers may favored to interventionist classroom management approach. Contrary, because in individualist classroom, teachers may provide students with opportunities to make choices and be responsible for their own behaviors, individualist teachers believe that students are allowed to express their thoughts freely, and have responsibility of establishing their own rules. Thus Latvian teachers tend to interactionist classroom management orientation.

IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study suggest some important implications for classroom management orientation. It is important to know factors affecting classroom management orientations because successfully managing a classroom is crucial to the success of students and the quality of instruction, and teachers’ classroom management orientations had effect on their classroom practices. In this study, it is revealed that teachers’ classroom management orientations vary in countries with different cultural values. Based on the results of this study, it is suggested that national culture is to be a factor considering to provide teachers manage their classrooms according to contemporary classroom management orientations. In addition, teachers in countries where were adopted constructivist and student-centred approach in instruction such as Turkey and Latvia should manage their classroom consistent with this approach. In order to shape teachers’ classroom management orientations policy makers and principals need to be aware of how teachers’ classroom management orientations has been affected by their cultural values.

Empirical evidence on classroom management orientations has been more confined to only the western world or only eastern world. This study extends this line of inquiry by examining teachers’ classroom management orientations in different cultural setting by taking Turkey and Latvia. This study adds to existing knowledge about teachers’ classroom management orientations across cultures. However, it is suggested that more research in the farklı kültürel değerlere sahip ülkelerde is needed in order to further confirm the results of this study.

REFERENCES


INVESTIGATING PREDICTIVE ROLE OF SELF-COMPASSION ON SOCIAL SELF-EFFICACY

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Abstract
The purpose of this study is to examine predictive role of self-compassion on social self-efficacy. Participants were 299 university students (151 women, 148 men; M age= 21.6 yr.). In this study, the Self-compassion Scale and the Social Self-efficacy Scale were used. The relationships between self-compassion and social self-efficacy were examined using correlation analysis and multiple regression analysis. In correlation analysis, self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness factors of self-compassion were found positively and self-judgment, isolation, and over-identification factors of self-compassion were found negatively related to social self-efficacy. According to regression results, social self-efficacy was predicted negatively by isolation and over-identification. Further self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness predicted social self-efficacy in a positive way. Self-compassion has explained 58% of the variance in social self-efficacy. The results were discussed in the light of the related literature and dependent recommendations to the area were given.

Key Words: Self-compassion, social self-efficacy, multiple regression analysis.

INTRODUCTION
Self-compassion, which is based on Buddhist philosophy and has an alternative conception of individual’s achieving functional attitudes toward himself, is described as being gentle towards oneself in the face of hardship or perceived inadequacy and entails acknowledging that suffering, failure, and inadequacies are part of the human condition and that all people, oneself included, are worthy of compassion (Neff, 2003b; Neff, Kirkpatrick, & Rude, 2007). In her inspiring articles Neff (2003a, b) conceptualized and developed a valid and reliable instrument to measure this concept. According to Neff (2003a) self-compassion contains three principal components: (a) Self-kindness refers to an attitude of kindness and understanding to one’s self as opposed to harsh judgment. Self-kindness stands in opposition to a self-critical approach in which one judges or blames oneself for general life difficulties, and instead involves actively soothing and comforting oneself in times of distress (Gilbert, Baldwin, Irons, Baccus, & Palmer, 2006). (b) An awareness of common humanity indicates perceiving one’s negative experiences as part of the larger human condition instead of feeling separate and isolated and involves recognizing that all people have problems, make mistakes, and feel inadequate in some way. And (c) Mindfulness defines being mindfully aware of painful experiences without over-identifying with them. This a state of balanced awareness that one’s feelings and thoughts are observed without avoiding or trying to change them, without exaggeration and prejudice (Gunaratana, 1993; Martin, 1997; Neff, 2003a; Nisker, 1998; Rosenberg, 1999). These three dimensions of self-compassion are conceptually are experienced differently at the phenomenological level, while they interact so as to mutually enhance and engender one another (Neff, 2003a; Neff, Hsieh, & Dejitterat, 2005).
Research on self-compassion has found that it is a powerful predictor of mental health. They proved that self-compassion is associated positively with life satisfaction, social relatedness (Neff, 2003b), reflective and affective wisdom, personal initiative, curiosity and exploration, optimism, positive affect, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness (Neff, Rude, & Kirkpatrick, 2007), self-deception (Akin & Abaci, 2009), psychological well-being (Akin, 2008a), social relationship, emotional intelligence, self-determination (Neff, 2003a), learning-approach goals (Akin, 2008b), social support (Akin, Kayiş, & Satıcı, 2011), and relational-interdependent self construal (Akin & Ergözü, 2013). The other studies have proved that self-compassion is negatively associated with depression, anxiety, rumination, thought suppression (Neff, 2003b), social anxiety, fear of negative evaluation (Werner et al., 2012), conscientiousness (Baker & McNulty, 2011), performance-approach/avoidance goals (Akin, 2008b), submissive behavior (Akin, 2009), interpersonal cognitive distortions (Akin, 2010a), loneliness (Akin, 2010b), internet addiction (Iskender & Akin, 2011), automatic thoughts (Akin, 2012), and neuroticism (Neff, Rude, & Kirkpatrick, 2007).

Social self-efficacy

Concept of social self-efficacy is based on Bandura’s (1977, 1997) self-efficacy theory and is defined as personality belief of individuals related to their abilities while interacting with others (Bandura, 1997). Social self-efficacy contains social boldness, friendly behaviors, to join in a social group or activity, and getting and giving help (Bilgin & Akkapulu, 2007; Connolly, 1989) and is considered as a process that happens through the interaction among physiological, cognitive, behavioral, and environmental variables. Social self-efficacy is influenced by past accomplishments, mastery experiences, social modeling and persuasion, and psychological or emotional states (Dinç, 2011; McAuley & Courneyea, 1993).

Social self-efficacy beliefs help students to transform their goals into actions establishing and maintaining real relationships in a social or an academic area (Dinç, 2011). These beliefs may also provide a more useful approach to psycho-social problems such as social anxiety and loneliness (Hermann & Betz, 2006). Therefore social self-efficacy is an important determinant in social relationships and interactions (Gresham, 1984). People with high social self-efficacy use more effective ways to solve problems and have self-confidence about their ability to overcome chaotic situations (Erozkan, 2013) than people with low social self-efficacy.

Previous studies have traditionally proved that social self-efficacy are positively related to self-esteem (Caprara & Steca, 2005; Connolly, 1989; Hermann & Betz, 2004, 2006; Smith & Betz, 2000, 2002), authentic living (Satıcı, Kayiş, & Akin, 2013), social confidence (Anderson & Betz, 2001; Fan & Mak, 1998; Matsushima & Shiomi, 2003; Smith & Betz, 2000), anger control (Esen & Çelikkaleli, 2008), problem solving skills (Bilgin & Akkapulu, 2007; Di Giunta et al., 2010; Matsushima & Shiomi, 2003), cognitive, affective, and behavioral communication skills (Erozkan, 2013), constructive problem solving skills, and persistent-persevering problem solving skills (Erozkan, 2013). In contrary higher levels of social self-efficacy was found associated negatively with depression (Anderson & Betz, 2001; Bandura, Pastorelli, Barbaranelli, & Caprara, 1999; Hermann & Betz, 2004, 2006; Smith & Betz, 2002), social anxiety (Connolly, 1989; Fan, Meng, Gao, Lopez, & Liu, 2010; Sherer & Adams, 1983; Smith & Betz, 2000), trait anger (Esen & Çelikkaleli, 2008), self-alienating (Satıcı et al., 2013), internet addiction (Iskender & Akin, 2010), game addiction (Jeong & Kim, 2011), approaching problems in a negative way, lack of self-confidence, and unwillingness to take responsibility problem solving skills (Erozkan, 2013), and shyness (Anderson & Betz, 2001; Hermann & Betz, 2004).

The present study

Because self-compassion buffers people against the negative social implications of their failures (Baker & McNulty, 2011; Leary, Tate, Adams, Allen & Hancock, 2007; Neff, Hsieh, & Dejitterat, 2005), most research has documented numerous interpersonal and social benefits of self-compassion such as; social relationship, self-determination (Neff, 2003a), extraversion (Neff, Rude, & Kirkpatrick, 2007), social relatedness (Neff, 2003b), and social support (Akin et al., 2011). Similarly, self-compassionate individuals are more likely to have fulfilled needs for relatedness (Neff, 2003a), suggesting that they may also be more likely to have positive relationship interactions. Also it was found that more self-compassionate people reported less negative self-feelings after imagining a stressful social event than did less self-compassionate people (Baker & McNulty, 2011; Leary et al., 2007). The current study aims to examine the predictive role of self-compassion on social self-efficacy. Self-compassion appears to enhance interpersonal well-being and therefore there may be a positive link between...
self-compassion and social self-efficacy. Based on the above relationships of self-compassion with social constructs it was hypothesized that self-kindness, common humanity, and mindfulness would be associated positively and self-judgment, isolation, and over-identification would be associated negatively with social self-efficacy.

**METHOD**

**Participants**

Participants were 299 university students (151 women, 148 men) enrolled in various undergraduate programs at Sakarya University Faculty of Education, Turkey. These programs were Turkish education \( n=70 \), mathematics education \( n=55 \), science education \( n=82 \), and computer and instructional technology education \( n=92 \). Of the participants, 73 were first-year students, 97 were second-year students, 60 were third-year students, and 69 were fourth-year student. Their ages ranged from 17 to 29 years old \( M = 21.6, SD = 1.05 \) and GPA scores ranged from 1.83 to 3.72.

**Measures**

**Self-compassion Scale.** Self-compassion was measured by using Self-compassion Scale (Neff, 2003b). Turkish adaptation of this scale had been done by Akın, Akın, and Abacı (2007). Self-compassion Scale is a 26-item self-report measurement and consists of six sub-scales; self-kindness, self-judgment, common humanity, isolation, mindfulness, and over-identification. Each item was rated on a 5-point Likert scale \( (1=\text{strongly disagree} \text{ to 5=} \text{strongly agree}) \). Language validity findings indicated that correlations between Turkish and English forms were .94, .94, .87, .89, .92, and .94 for six subscales, respectively. Results of confirmatory factor analysis indicated that the model was well fit. The goodness of fit index values of the model were RMSEA=.056, NFI=.95, CFI=.97, IFI=.97, RFI=.94, GFI=.91, and SRMR=.059. The internal consistency coefficients were .77, .72, .72, .80, .74, and .74 and the test-retest reliability coefficients were .69, .59, .66, .60 .69, and .56, for six subscales, respectively.

**Perceived Social Self-efficacy Scale (PSSE).** Social self-efficacy was measured using the Perceived Social Self-efficacy Scale (Smith & Betz, 2000). The scale contains 25 items (e.g., “Put yourself in a new and different social situation” and “Find someone to go to lunch with”) on a 5-point Likert-type scale \( (1 = \text{no confidence at all to 5 = complete confidence}) \). The scale items are related to making friends, social assertiveness, pursuing romantic relationships, performance in public situations, groups and parties, and receiving and giving help. Smith and Betz (2000) reported that the PSSE scale had a single-factor structure. A sum of all scores yields a total score that ranges from 25 to 125; higher scores indicate higher levels of social self-efficacy. A Turkish adaptation of this scale has been devised by Palanci (2004). The internal consistency coefficient of the adapted Turkish form was .89. For test–retest reliability, the scale was administered to 100 undergraduate students twice in 4 weeks. The Pearson correlation coefficient was .68. In the present study, Cronbach alpha coefficient was \( \alpha = .73 \).

**Procedure**

Permission for participation of students was obtained from related chief departments and students voluntarily participated in research. Completion of the scales was anonymous and there was a guarantee of confidentiality. The scales were administered to the students in groups in the classrooms. The measures were counterbalanced in administration. Prior to administration of measures, all participants were told about purposes of the study.

**Statistical Analysis**

In this research, hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis and Pearson correlation coefficient were used to investigate the relationships between self-compassion and social self-efficacy. The variables which were entered in multiple regression analysis were measured by summing the items of each scale. These analyses were carried out via SPSS 11.5.
FINDINGS

Descriptive data and inter-correlations
Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, inter-correlations, and internal consistency coefficients of the variables used.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics, Alphas, and Inter-correlations of the Variables

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<th>Variables</th>
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*p < .05, **p < .01

Table 1 shows descriptive statistics and correlations among the variables. Self-kindness (r = .61, p < .01), common humanity (r = .51, p < .01), and mindfulness (r = .65, p < .01) were found positively and self-judgment (r = .52, p < .01), isolation (r = .60, p < .01), and over-identification (r = .62, p < .01) were found negatively associated with social self-efficacy. There were also significant correlations between dimensions of self-compassion.

Multiple Regression Analysis
Before applying regression, assumptions of multiple regression were checked. In order to run parametric tests the data were examined for normality by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test indicated normality of distributions of test scores for all tests in the current study and therefore hierarchical multiple regression analysis has been conducted. Outliers are cases that have data values that are very different from the data values for the majority of cases in the data set. Outliers were investigated using Mahalanobis distance. A case is an outlier if the probability associated with its D² is .001 or less (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Based on this criterion, eleven data were labeled as outliers and they were deleted. Multicollinearity was checked and all the VIF values were less than 10 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001), tolerance values were above .20, and condition index values were smaller than 15. Hence, multicollinearity is unlikely to have had a significant influence on the results (O’Brien, 2007). Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed in which the dependent variable was flourishing and the independent variables were dimensions of self-compassion (Table 2).

According to the results of multiple regression analysis, summarized in Table 2, Mindfulness entered the equation first, accounting for 42% of the variance in predicting social self-efficacy (R² = .42, adjusted R² = .42, F(1, 297) = 214.997, p < .01). Over-identification entered secondly accounting for an additional 12% variance (R² = .54, ΔR² = .12, adjusted R² = .53, F(2, 296) = 171.211, p < .01). Isolation entered thirdly accounting for an additional 2% variance (R² = .56, ΔR² = .02, adjusted R² = .56, F(3, 295) = 125.017, p < .01). Self-kindness entered fourthly accounting for an additional 1% variance (R² = .57, ΔR² = .01, adjusted R² = .57, F(4, 294) = 98.063, p < .01). Common humanity entered last, accounting for an additional 1% variance (R² = .58, ΔR² = .01, adjusted R² = .57, F(5, 293) = 80.148, p < .01). Despite the initial regression design included mindfulness, common humanity, self-kindness, over-identification, isolation, and self-judgment as independent variables, the last regression models involved mindfulness, over-identification, isolation, self-kindness, and common humanity as predictors of social self-efficacy and accounted for 58% of the variance. The standardized beta coefficients indicated the relative influence of the variables in last model with mindfulness (β = .26, p < .01), over-identification (β = .22, p < .01), isolation (β = .21, p < .01), self-kindness (β = .14, p < .01), common humanity (β = .10, p < .01), and all significantly influencing social self-efficacy and mindfulness was strongest predictor.
Table 2: Summary of multiple regression analysis for variable predicting social self-efficacy

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<th>Variables</th>
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DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The aim of this research was to investigate the predictive role of self-compassion on social self-efficacy. Findings demonstrated that there are significant relationships between these two variables. As expected mindfulness, common humanity, and self-kindness - adaptive dimensions of self-compassion- predicted social self-efficacy positively. On the other hand isolation and over-identification -maladaptive dimensions of self-compassion- predicted social self-efficacy negatively. These results indicated that the sense of care, connectedness, and resilience provided by mindfulness, common humanity, and self-kindness, namely by self-compassion, both are associated with greater emotional well-being more generally (Neff, 2009) and well-being within the context of interpersonal relationships (Yarnell & Neff, 2012).

Neff and Beretvas’s (2012) study proved that the degree to which individuals are kind to themselves is linked to how kind they are to relationship partners, as assessed by partners’ perceptions of their behavior. To the extent that they were high in mindfulness, common humanity, and self-kindness, people were perceived by partners as being significantly more caring (i.e., affectionate, warm, and considerate). In contrary feeling isolated and ruminating on negative self-related emotions may lead to a type of self-absorption that blocks connection in social relationships and inhibits social self-efficacy. The results found in the present study also support past findings of significant positive relationships between self-compassion and markers of social adjustment such as extraversion (Neff, Rude, & Kirkpatrick, 2007), social relatedness (Neff, 2003b), social relationship, self-determination (Neff, 2003a), and social support (Akin et al., 2011).

Self-compassionate individuals were more likely to have greater social self-efficacy because they are less likely to concern about the impression they make on other people, a concern that can lead to shy and withdrawn behavior (Neff, Rude, & Kirkpatrick, 2007). Also because self-compassionate people accept themselves as imperfect human beings, they may be more tended to accept other’s limitations (Neff & Beretvas, 2012) and the kind, connected, and emotionally balanced stance of self-compassion may also associated with a greater ability to get along with others. Furthermore people with self-compassion do not meet the need for positive feelings by separating oneself from others but rather by incorporating appreciation of shared humanity into
self-attitudes and treating oneself as others deserve to be treated (Neff et al., 2005). Common humanity, mindfulness, and self-kindness decrease emotional turmoil when attempting to decide how to resolve relationship conflicts. When relationship problems arise, these feelings allow people to soothe and calm the density of their emotions, so that they can solve their problems in a more balanced manner (Kelly, Zuroff, & Shapira, 2009). And thus greater self-compassion may be linked to a greater sense of social self-efficacy within relationships (Yarnell & Neff, 2012).

There were several limitations of this study that should be taken into account when evaluating the findings. First, participants were university students and replication of this study for targeting other student populations should be made in order to generate a more solid relationship among the constructs examined in this study, because generalization of the results is somewhat limited. Second, as correlational statistics were utilized, no definitive statements can be made about causality. And last, the data reported here for self-compassion and social self-efficacy are limited to self-reported data and did not include any observations of behavior. Consequently, the present research provides important information about the predictors of social self-efficacy and therefore would further our understanding of the psychological process of social self-efficacy. An increment in self-compassion will increase social self-efficacy.

In closing, results suggest that self-compassion is associated with healthy relationship functioning. Thus, the benefits of self-compassion may not only be personal, but also interpersonal. For this reason, counselors who work with individuals experiencing relationship conflicts with family, friends, or romantic partners might consider encouraging self-compassion as a way to solve these interpersonal problems in a psychologically beneficial manner (Germer, 2009; Yarnell & Neff, 2012). Additionally, encouraging the development of self-compassion should be useful individuals by helping them to counter destructive self-critical tendencies and deal with their negative emotions with greater clarity and equanimity (Neff, 2003a). Also there are enough positive indicators from self-compassion studies to suggest that more research on self-compassion would be a worthwhile (Neff, Hsieh, & Dejitterat, 2005).

REFERENCES


READING STRATEGIES: PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS AND THEIR TEACHING PRACTICES

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Abstract
Reading is an important skill in language learning process and effective readers use strategies to cope with the text. While teaching reading, teachers should focus on and teach strategies to help learners cope with the text. Therefore, it is important to investigate prospective teacher behaviors in the classroom as they teach reading. The purpose of this study is to investigate reading strategy teaching practices of prospective teachers. It is important to determine which reading strategies the prospective English language teachers use themselves, therefore; in the first part of the study, the purpose is to investigate which strategies prospective teachers use while reading. In the second part, the purpose is to investigate what strategies prospective teachers focus on, and attempt to teach in order to improve their students’ reading skill as they teach reading. The results showed that prospective teachers mostly use strategies “infer”, “meaning” and “draw”. Second part of the study revealed that prospective teachers have only few attempts to teach strategies.

Key Words: Metacognitive reading strategies, cognitive reading strategies, prospective teachers, teaching reading.

INTRODUCTION
Reading is an important skill in foreign language learning and teaching process. It provides important linguistic input for foreign language learners; moreover, it helps for further development in listening, speaking, and writing. Since reading is an important skill in language teaching and learning process, it has been investigated from different perspectives and reading comprehension gained importance. The consensus among reading educators and experts is that reading is a complex, interactive process that involves features of readers, texts and tasks (Bernhardt and Kamil, 1995; Grabe & Stoller, 2005).

As there have been many variables in reading comprehension, researchers have always tried to find ways to overcome the difficulties readers have while reading. According to Santrock (2008) when reading, the learner decodes, visualises, conceptualizes, infers, predicts, imagines, rereads, paraphrases, classifies information, guesses from the context and clarifies words by looking them up in a dictionary. In addition, while reading, an effective reader uses certain metacognitive strategies which involve goal setting, selective attention, planning for organization, monitoring, self-assessing, and regulating. Thus, for an effective reading comprehension, a reader needs knowledge about strategies, knowledge about when, how and where to use these strategies (Paris, Cross, & Lipson, 1984).

Literature Review
Oxford and Crookall (1989) define strategies as learning techniques, behaviors, problem-solving or study skills which make learning more effective and efficient. Learning strategies are procedures that help to complete a learning task. Strategies are most often conscious and goal-driven procedures when learners are coping with an unfamiliar language task in the beginning stages. Once any learning strategy becomes familiar through repeated use, it may become automatic; however most learners will be able to call the strategy to conscious awareness if there is a need (Chamot, 2005: 112). In the same way, while reading effective readers use reading strategies. These strategies help readers manage to interact with written texts, they show how readers
comprehend a task, what textual cues readers use, how readers make sense of what they read and how they react when they do not understand (Block, 1986). The strategies involve mental manipulations of a text at word, sentence, paragraph, and text levels to enhance reading comprehension (Paris, Lipson, & Wixson, 1983).

Oxford’s (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) categorizes strategies into two types: (1) direct strategy, and (2) indirect strategy. Direct strategies consist of memory, cognitive and compensation strategies. Memory strategies help the learners store and retrieve new information, for example, applying images and sound to store and remember a new word a learner encounters while reading. Cognitive strategies, on the other hand, enable the learners to understand new language by different ways. Repeating words mentally to oneself to understand better if one is not sure about the meaning, use of dictionaries to look up for the meaning of a word are the examples for cognitive strategy use. Cognitive strategy involves using resources to find out the meaning of what is read in the new language, or to produce messages in the new language. The other strategy Oxford (1990) defines as direct strategy is compensation strategy. One example of compensation strategy is the learner’s guessing intelligently by using linguistic clues. The learners refer to previously gained knowledge by using linguistic clues and their previous knowledge of the target language can help them understand the meaning of what is read.

According to Oxford (1990) indirect strategies are strategies that support and manage reading without directly involving the target language. They are divided into metacognitive, affective and social strategies. Oxford (1990) notes that metacognitive strategy comprises of monitoring one’s own speed of reading, for example, when reading a text if readers finds the text difficult, they slow down their reading. Examples of social strategies are asking for clarification, correction and feedback and cooperating with peers and parents to understand the text better.

O’Malley and Chamot (1990), on the other hand, think that learning strategies are mental and social-affective processes, so they divide the learning strategies into three main categories: Metacognitive, cognitive and social-affective strategies.

**Cognitive Reading Strategies**

While reading a reader uses both cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Peacock, 2001; Rosenshine, 1997). According to Özek and Civelek (2006) cognitive strategies help to facilitate comprehension and improve learning. Cognitive strategies can be divided as the following elements: recognizing, using topics, guessing from the context, using a dictionary, writing down imagery, activating background information, summarizing, using linguistic clues, using text markers, skipping the difficult parts and repeating words or phrases. In short, cognitive strategies are related to integrating new material with background information and learners use cognitive strategies in order to acquire, learn, remember, recognize the material while reading.

O’Malley and Chamot (1990) define cognitive strategies as “operating directly on incoming information, manipulating it in ways that enhance learning.” The cognitive strategies that are involved in reading activities include relating new words to a word in memory or writing down the main idea; outlining key points or making a brief summary of the text in order to comprehend the text better. O’Malley and Chamot (1990: 40) propose that “cognitive strategies include these items: repetition, directed physical response, translation, grouping, note-taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key words, contextualization, elaboration, transfer and inference.

**Metacognitive Reading Strategies**

Metacognitive strategies include both the awareness and the conscious control of one’s leaning; (Schraw, 1998). Mokharti & Reichard (2002) argue that while reading, one of the most important factors that need to be emphasized is metacognitive reading strategy awareness because metacognitive reading strategy awareness facilitates reading comprehension and fosters EFL/ESL learning.

O’Malley and Chamot (1990) propose eight metacognitive strategies that are the most frequently used by students with a higher reading ability. These metacognitive strategies include planning, directed attention,
In order to measure the metacognitive reading strategy use of college students, Taraban, Rynearson, and Kerr (2004) developed the Metacognitive Reading Strategy Questionnaire (MRSQ). They categorized metacognitive reading strategies into two as analytic-cognitive and pragmatic-behavioural. Analytic-cognitive component aimed at reading comprehension, and pragmatic-behavioural component aimed at studying and academic performance. The analytic-cognitive component particularly assessed students’ efforts to comprehend a text. The strategies such as evaluating reading goals and inferring information were the examples of the analytic-cognitive components. The pragmatic-behavioural components involved the physical actions and included strategies such as underlining and highlighting. Taraban et al (2004) pointed out that the analytic-cognitive and pragmatic-behavioural were consistent with the existing literature and research on reading strategies.

Metacognitive Reading Strategy Questionnaire (MRSQ) developed by Taraban, Kerr, and Rynearson (2004) is as follows:

Metacognitive reading strategies that construct ‘Analytic cognition’ component of the MRSQ:
1. Evaluate. As I am reading, I evaluate the text to determine whether it contributes to my knowledge/understanding of the subject.
2. Anticipate. After I have read a text, I anticipate how I will use the knowledge that I have gained from reading the text.
3. Draw. I try to draw on my knowledge of the topic to help me understand what I am reading.
4. Back. While I am reading, I reconsider and revise my background knowledge about the topic, based on the text’s content.
5. Revise. While I am reading, I reconsider and revise my prior questions about the topic, based on the text’s content.
6. Consider. After I read a text, I consider other possible interpretations to determine whether I understood the text.
7. Distinguish. As I am reading, I distinguish between information that I already know and new information.
8. Infer. When information critical to my understanding of the text is not directly stated, I try to infer that information from the text.
9. Reading goals. I evaluate whether what I am reading is relevant to my reading goals.
10. Search. I search out information relevant to my reading goals.
11. Present later. I anticipate information that will be presented later in the text.
12. Meaning. While I am reading, I try to determine the meaning of unknown words that seem critical to the meaning of the text.
13. Current information. As I read along, I check whether I had anticipated the current information.
14. Strengths. While reading, I exploit my personal strengths in order to better understand the text. If I am a good reader, I focus on the text; if I am good with figures and diagrams, I focus on that information.
15. Visualize descriptions. While reading, I visualize descriptions in order to better understand the text.
16. Hard. I note how hard or easy a text is to read.

Metacognitive reading strategies that construct ‘Pragmatic Behaviours’ component of the MRSQ
17. Notes. I make notes when reading in order to remember the information.
18. Highlight. While reading, I underline and highlight important information in order to find it more easily later on.
19. Margin. While reading, I write questions and notes in the margin in order to better understand the text.
20. Underline. I try to underline when reading in order to remember the information.
21. Read more. I read material more than once in order to remember the information.
22. Re-read. When I am having difficulty comprehending a text, I re-read the text.

In the light of the classifications of reading strategies, the present study aims at investigating reading strategy teaching practices of teacher candidates. It is important to determine which reading strategies the prospective English language teachers use themselves, what they think of teaching reading strategies and which reading
strategies they focus on while teaching. Are these prospective teachers able to reflect and teach their used reading strategies in their classes?

The students studying in Anadolu University Education Faculty, English Language Teaching Department will become teachers of English. In an ideal world, they would be familiar with all the challenges that affect L2 reading proficiency, they would know how to cope with problems they encounter while reading. As teacher candidates they are educated to read effectively and to cope with reading problems they may encounter as they read; thus their training sessions end up with reading strategy training and they are expected to transfer their skill in reading effectively to their teaching in their practicum classes. Specifically, in the first part of the study, the purpose is to investigate which strategies prospective teachers use while reading. In the second part, the purpose is to investigate what strategies the teacher candidates focus on, and attempt to teach in order to improve their students’ reading skill as they teach reading in their practicum classes.

Metacognitive Reading Strategy Questionnaire (MRSQ) (Taraban, Kerr, and Rynearson; 2004) was developed for assessing college students’ use of the strategies for reading and reading strategies in the questionnaire are specific and detailed. Therefore; this study is based on the list of reading strategies proposed by Taraban, Kerr, and Rynearson (2004).

Specifically, the following research questions were asked in the present study:
1. Which reading strategies do prospective English language teachers use?
2. Which reading strategies do prospective English language teachers focus on in their classes while teaching reading?
3. What do prospective English language teachers think about teaching reading strategies?

METHODOLOGY

Participants
The participants of the first part of study were 60 fourth year students studying in Education Faculty, English Language Teaching Department. The participants were taking their practicum classes in the year the study was conducted, so they went to secondary schools 6 hours a week, taught an hour and observed their mentor teacher and their friends as they taught in the remaining five hours. The students gave consent to the use of their reading lesson plans and reflections for research purposes and agreed to answer questionnaires given by the researcher. In the second part of the study the participants were 12 prospective teacher that volunteered to take part in the second half of the study.

Instruments
First, to determine which reading strategies the prospective English language teachers use, Metacognitive Reading Strategy Questionnaire developed by Taraban, Kerr, and Rynearson (2004) was used. The participants were asked to respond to items using a 5-point Likert scale ranking “always use”, “often use”, “sometimes use”, “rarely use” and “never use”. In order to investigate which reading strategies the teacher candidates teach, lesson plans and reflections were analyzed, the classes were observed and videotaped and the teacher candidates were given a questionnaire at the end of the term asking about their opinions on teaching reading strategies.

Procedures
In the first part of the study, 60 prospective teachers were selected randomly and they were given Metacognitive Reading Strategy Questionnaire to find out which reading strategies they report use. After finding the scores, twelve prospective teachers that got the highest scores were selected to investigate how they teach reading strategies. The prospective teachers went to three different secondary schools to teach English within the framework of practicum class they were taking. Each teacher candidate taught at least one class each week during 12 weeks and each taught at least three reading classes during the term. They informed the researcher about the hours they would teach and the researcher went for observation on the days they taught reading. The classes were videotaped as well. After each class, the prospective teachers wrote a reflection stating what they did, what kind of activities they had and why they chose the activities they used.
The purpose of the reflection was to find out what information they would provide in terms of their reading strategy teaching. The classroom teaching observations were used to cross check whether the prospective teachers’ classroom application and lesson plan give the same reading strategy. If there was a different strategy taught or focused in the classroom, this was noted. Not to draw the participants’ attention on teaching reading strategies, they were not told that the researcher was conducting a study on their reading strategy practices. At the end of the term, each prospective teacher was given questions to determine their opinion about teaching reading strategies.

Data Analysis
In order to analyze data, the software package Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used. To answer the first research question, answers in the MRSQ, which was divided into two categories: metacognitive and cognitive, were analyzed to find out the means and standard deviations. Later, to determine which strategy each prospective teacher focuses in the class, their lesson plans and reflections were analyzed. For the third research question, student answers to questions were analyzed.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To answer the first research question “Which reading strategies do prospective English language teachers use?” the answers to the MRSQ were analyzed to find out the mean and standard deviations. The answers are given in Table 1.

Table 1: Mean (M) and standard deviations (sd) of analytic reading strategies used by prospective English language teachers while reading.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy Description</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>sd</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Evaluate: As I am reading, I evaluate the text to determine whether it contributes to my knowledge/understanding of the subject.</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Anticipate: After I have read a text, I anticipate how I will use the knowledge that I have gained from reading the text.</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Draw: I try to draw on my knowledge of the topic to help me understand what I am reading.</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Back: While I am reading, I reconsider and revise my background knowledge about the topic, based on the text’s content.</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Revise: While I am reading, I reconsider and revise my prior questions about the topic, based on the text’s content.</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Consider: After I read a text, I consider other possible interpretations to determine whether I understood the text.</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Distinguish: As I am reading, I distinguish between information that I already know and new information.</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Infer: When information critical to my understanding of the text is not directly stated, I try to infer that information from the text.</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Reading goals: I evaluate whether what I am reading is relevant to my reading goal</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Search: I search out information relevant to my reading goals.</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Present later: I anticipate information that will be presented later in the text.</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Meaning: While I am reading, I try to determine the meaning of unknown words that seem critical to the meaning of the text.</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Current information: As I read along, I check whether I had anticipated the current information.</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Strengths: While reading, I exploit my personal strengths in order to better understand the text. If I am a good reader, I focus on the text; if I am good with figures and diagrams, I focus on that information.</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Visualize descriptions: While reading, I visualize descriptions in order to better understand the text.</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The findings in Table 1 illustrate that the most frequently used analytic reading strategies are Infer (M: 3.96), Meaning (M: 3.88) and Draw (M: 3.78). The results show that most prospective teachers try to infer the information from the text (Infer), try to determine the meaning of unknown words that seem critical to the meaning of the text (Meaning) and draw on their knowledge of the topic to help them understand what they are reading (Draw) as they read. On the other hand, the results show that most prospective teachers rarely use strategies like Hard, Consider and Strengths to understand the text while reading.

Table 2 shows the means and standard deviations of how prospective teachers report they use pragmatic reading strategies.

Table 2: Mean (M) and standard deviations (sd) of pragmatic reading strategies used by prospective English language teachers while reading.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>sd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17. Notes: I make notes when reading in order to remember the information.</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Highlight: While reading, I underline and highlight important information in order to find it more easily later on.</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Margin: While reading, I write questions and notes in the margin in order to better understand the text.</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Underline: I try to underline when reading in order to remember the information.</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Read more: I read material more than once in order to remember the information.</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Re-read: When I am having difficulty comprehending a text, I re-read the text.</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the results, the most frequently used pragmatic reading strategies are Re-read, Underline and Highlight; the least frequently used strategies are Notes and Margin.

In the second part of the study, 12 prospective teachers volunteered. The lesson plans of the prospective teachers were analyzed and their attempts to focus on reading strategies were underlined and categorized. The attempts to teach strategies were in the form of phrases, full sentences or questions. The attempts to teach strategies were underlined and categorized by the researcher and these attempts and categories were given to a colleague who teaches practicum classes in the same department to check whether there is a problem with the category and whether the phrase, sentence or question is really an attempt to teach strategy. Inter-rater reliability was calculated by using a “point by point” method and it was calculated as .93. Recordings of classes were also analyzed and it was checked whether prospective teachers really apply what they wrote in their plans. Through decision making and student questions some lesson plans got different forms, the researcher identified strategy teaching in the classroom and these were added to the analyses of lesson plans.

The results of the analyses of lessons showed that prospective teachers have few attempts to teach metacognitive strategies which were categorized by Taraban, Kerr, and Rynearson (2004). When they attempted to teach strategies, most frequently focused strategy is “Infer: When information critical to your understanding of the text is not directly stated, try to infer that information from the text”. The examples of attempts to teach “Infer” are as follows in the videotapes of classes:

T1: (teacher): If this information is not given in the text, we can infer it, right?
T2: What can you infer from this sentence?
T3: What do we infer from this paragraph about the environment?
T4: This information is not given in the text but we can get it from what is said in the paragraph.
T5: The answer is not given directly in the paragraph but you can find the answer by reading the other sentences.

The other strategy that prospective teachers focused when teaching was “Meaning”. The following examples shows the attempts to teach meaning.
Prospective teachers reported in the MRSQ that they use strategies Infer (M: 3.96), Meaning (M: 3.88) and Draw (M: 3.78) most frequently. According to the analyses of the lessons, the prospective teachers tried to teach strategies “Infer” and “Meaning”. This result shows that prospective teachers try to teach what they use, what they are familiar with.

Moreover, prospective teachers did not have much attempt to teach strategies “Strengths”, “Consider”, “Evaluate” and “Visualize”. There are only a few instances that prospective teachers focused on these strategies. As for the “analytic” reading strategies, the results illustrated that prospective teachers preferred to focus on “highlight” as in the example.

The classroom observations and analyses of the lesson plans showed that prospective teachers focused on teaching some strategies that were not focused in the MRSQ. For example:

For the third research question “What do prospective English language teachers think about teaching reading strategies?” they were given the following questions at the end of the term.

Answers given to these questions show that most of the prospective teachers think their students acquired knowledge of reading strategies but not enough. Most of them think that lack of using reading strategies will inhibit students’ achievement in reading comprehension test greatly. This result shows that prospective teachers are aware of the importance of teaching reading strategies. Most of the prospective teachers think reading strategies teaching is important and very important. For the question “How often do you teach reading strategies in classroom?” most of the teachers answered “sometimes”. For the last questions most of the prospective teachers answered “yes, but not so much”. These results indicate that prospective teachers are aware of the importance of teaching reading strategies, but their applications in the classroom show that they do not focus on teaching strategies in the classroom so much.
CONCLUSION

The aim of this study was to find out how the prospective teachers use reading strategies themselves as they are reading, how frequently they focus on and try to teach strategies as they teach and what they think about teaching reading strategies.

The results of the study revealed that prospective teachers use some of the analytic strategies given by Taraban, Kerr, and Rynearson (2004) as they read. Among the analytic and pragmatic strategies, prospective teachers use “Infer”, “Meaning”, “Draw”, “Re-read” and “Underline”. Prospective teachers’ teaching practices reveal that they attempt to teach “Infer” and “Meaning”. This result indicates that prospective teachers try to teach what they already use themselves as readers. Moreover, their teaching practices show that prospective teachers do not deal with strategies like “Strengths”, “Consider”, “Evaluate” and “Visualize”. When they are asked about their practices about reading strategies, prospective teachers declare that teaching reading strategies is important and they sometimes attempt to teach strategies.

Prospective teachers studying in Education Faculty, ELT Department are educated to use metacognitive and cognitive strategies in their reading classes. As Block and Pressley (2002) note widespread agreement among scholars that students should be taught cognitive and metacognitive processes and that, regardless of the program used, instruction should include modeling, scaffolding, guided practice, and independent use of strategies so that students develop the ability to select and implement appropriate strategies independently and to monitor and regulate their use. Therefore, students are well aware of the importance of using strategies to help comprehension in the reading process. Moreover, in their third year at the faculty, they have a methodology class which aims at teaching prospective teachers how to teach reading. The main focus of this class is to help them learn the stages of teaching reading and learn how to prepare appropriate lesson plans.

The choice of strategies depends on the type of text being read. Depending on the nature of texts, strategies such as vocabulary strategies, activating background knowledge, inferencing, rereading, self-questioning, monitoring comprehension, identification of main ideas, drawing conclusions and summarising are likely to aid the understanding of the texts (Harvey and Goudvis, 2007). Students in secondary schools need to be taught how to read texts so that they can struggle when they attempt to read to learn. Strategy instruction could begin as early as possible. Therefore, it is suggested that teachers consider teaching strategy instruction to their students. For teachers to teach strategy instruction, they need to learn it themselves so as to interact with students at the appropriate time and place while reading a text with them (Zhang & Wu, 2009). In this case, teacher educators should help prospective teachers to become better reading teachers and help them learn how to teach reading strategies. Effective reading can be taught and in order to help prospective teachers achieve better teaching ways of reading it is suggested that how to teach reading strategies should be incorporated into teacher education program.

FUTURE RESEARCH

In order to help students become better language learners and better readers, we need to train better teachers. Therefore, it is necessary to conduct studies on how to teach reading strategies, for example, it could help teacher educators to teach strategies explicitly or implicitly.

REFERENCES


THE EPISTEMIC LINKS BETWEEN AESTHETIC KNOWLEDGE AND EXTRA-AESTHETIC VALUES AND EXPERIENCES: IMPLICATIONS FOR AESTHETIC LEARNING CURRICULA AND RATIONAL PEDAGOGY

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Abstract
The paper explored the linkages between aesthetic education and extra-aesthetic-moral, religious and civic values in schools’ and societies’ education programs. Should aesthetic materials be used to facilitate the teaching of other subjects and non-aesthetic concepts, subjects and values; and conversely using non-aesthetic concepts, values and subjects to teach aesthetic knowledge? The paper relied essentially on the philosophical and historical methodologies of: logical, language and analogical deductions and inferences; and documents’ inspection. It examined the basic concepts, issues and arguments involved in trying to fathom out the epistemic links between aesthetic learning experiences and other extra-aesthetic values in schools’ and societies’. As observed, from the varied views and perceptions, the issue is not only complex, but also controversial in the field of aesthetic education. It is recommended that teachers and school administrators need to be conscious as well as cautious in their approaches towards this aspect of aesthetic learning programs and encounters.

Key Words: aesthetic knowledge, extra-aesthetic ideas, rational pedagogy.

INTRODUCTION

The question of how aesthetic education should be linked with extra-aesthetic-moral, civic, religious values and vice-versa is a complex and one of the thorniest issues in the field of aesthetic education. This is because it raises a lot of arguments in its strides. First among these: is aesthetics a mode of knowing? What is the relationship between it and other modes of learning such as history, civics, religion, morals etc.? Any attempt to decipher the preceding questions would surely raise the controversial issue of the supervening and parasitic nature of other modes of learning on the aesthetic and vice-versa. Even within the aesthetic learning mode, it would be evident to any observer that the different arts that constitute aesthetic leaning are varied forms of other existing knowledge. These as could be found in the spatial, sound, morals and the super arts. This raises the crucial question: how should aesthetics and its constituents be categorized as a form of knowledge and knowing? Can artistic statements-visual, auditory, spatial etc. express knowledge truth about the world that can be said to be knowable? Can artistic statements be said to be equivalent to say scientific or mathematical statements and therefore some knowledge about the universe? These questions dovetail into the issue of other elements of knowledge–factual, emotional, mathematical etc. being enmeshed in aesthetics; but how do we sieve out these parasitic elements and be left solely with aesthetic knowledge?

These preceding issues arise essentially because of the way as observed by this writer in some other papers of how the aesthetic permeates almost all facets of human life and knowledge. (Aghaosa, 2014). They also raise questions about the purpose of aesthetic knowledge and knowing. Succinctly, what should be the epistemological agenda of aesthetic knowledge and learning? Which between literal and metaphorical interpretations of aesthetic symbols should be given prominence in aesthetic learning encounters? Which ever gets prominence it would definitely raise the issue of the futility of pursuing a universal aesthetic appeal and expressiveness in art learning. Another issue enmeshed in the forgoing arguments is that which presupposes
that aesthetic knowledge of the various arts are discernible in other learning disciplines such as engineering, religion, entertainment etc. How do the arts give and receive inspirations to and from other forms of knowledge? This question raises also other issues revolving on the maxim: should art be solely for art-sake; or art for symbolism?

So far these observed issues indicate that this is an interesting subject. It may also reveal by further analysis that they underpin many of the seemingly intractable issues concerned with schools’ aesthetic learning curricula and pedagogical strategies. What should be emphasized in schools’ aesthetic education programs? Given the multifarious issues which are heavily laden with diverse moral undertones, what should aesthetic learning imply to multiethnic societies like Nigeria? How should the various aspects of aesthetic learning be given fair consideration in school learning?

The problem of this paper therefore was to attempt to decipher what are aesthetic knowledge and extra-aesthetic knowledge, values and experiences. What are their linkages and implications for school learning? The purpose of this intellectual venture was to ascertain if there are linkages between aesthetic knowledge and extra-aesthetic values and experiences. This was to explore how these linkages could be properly harnessed to improve aesthetic learning curricula and transmitted to learners in pedagogically rational ways.

The significance of this paper would be derived from the extent it could help to clarify the basic concepts, issues and arguments involved in this seemingly controversial aspect of aesthetic education. It is very likely that insights gained from this exploration would go a long way in helping to improve curricula and pedagogical provisions for this area of learning. This would in the long run, be of immense benefits to learners as well as society.

Aesthetic Knowledge and Extra-aesthetic Values and Experiences.

To what extent should aesthetic education be linked to Extra-aesthetic- moral, religious and civic values? Should aesthetic materials be used to facilitate teaching of other subjects and vice-versa? This is a very complex and perhaps the thorniest issue in the field of aesthetic education. As posited in the various views of Hirst,(1973), Broudy(1975) and Reimer(1991), this issue raises the pertinent questions of modes of knowing and learning experiences: is aesthetics a mode of knowing and how? How does aesthetic knowledge relate to other modes of knowing and learning experiences etc? For Hirst(1973), art as in the case of morals, there is the fact that meaning is always parasitic or supervening on other forms of meaning. In his view, all the arts epistemologically, are arts of some other existing form of knowledge. The other inherently existing forms of knowledge identified by the writer are the knowledge of:

(i) Spatial relations – as implicated in the visual arts like painting, drawing, sculpture, etc;
(ii) Sound relation as seen in music, poetry, etc.
(iii) Moral relationship, as posited in plays, literary prose fiction, ‘faction’ follores etc; and
(iv) the Super art which explores the relationships between the spatial, sound and moral enumerated above – Drama and film-making are identified as the super arts since they employ other arts collectively to achieve their respective goals(P.152).

While acknowledging the above stated, Hirst is quick to point out that art per se has its own peculiar knowledge. It is that the visual, auditory and tactile representational works of art can be seen as making artistic statements expressing truths that can properly be said to know.(P.152) It is however pointed out that some times, the arts and what they convey are often seen as mere symbolic expressions with the original or second hand statements. This view is noted as not always valid. This is because artistic knowledge or statement can be seen to be equivalent to scientific statements and knowledge. To buttress this view, Hirst(1973) informs that other elements of knowledge i.e. the extra-aesthetic as they often supervene the artistic knowledge are also discernible in other forms of knowledge. As illustratively elaborated by Hirst: Just as elements of scientific knowledge may presuppose elements of mathematical knowledge, as moral knowledge presuppose scientific knowledge, so artistic knowledge may be possible on the basis of knowledge of other types. A novel may contain much truth about the physical world or of personal and social life (P.101).
From Hirst’s view above, what can be surmised is that aesthetic knowledge is often interlocked with other forms of knowledge—factual or emotional? However, the basic task is how aesthetic knowledge can be sieved out of other supervening forms of knowledge in any aesthetic epistemological analysis? This view is also implicit in Broudy’s(1975) observation on the issue. In his view, the aesthetic and arts permeate almost all aspects of the human endeavour. This bothers on the questionable role of the arts in the other modes of human experience, e.g. the intellectual, moral, religious and social life. This can be easily discerned in the celebrative and **originative** functions of aesthetics in society. The celebrative function of art tends to focus on projecting those values highly cherished by society vividly in many art forms ranging from the plastic, auditory and ceremonies of various sorts. In the social **originative** function of art, emphasis is placed on deciphering the sources of the predominant aesthetic media in society and the criteria for evaluating them.(Pp.98-99) This issue raises the fundamental questions of aesthetic judgment, which also dovetails into the problem of expressiveness as an approach in the cultivation of aesthetic knowledge. For as noted by Broudy(1975) there should be some caution about the pursuit of universal aesthetic effects or qualities, e.g. cheerfulness, sadness, depression etc, most aesthetic messages (images) are often metaphors of human feelings. This brings the limitation of literal interpretation to contrived (arts) phenomena. Incidentally, it is because of the above that art or aesthetic objects—in Broudy’s terminology, sensory images—tend to have multi-levels of meaning(P.98) This is specifically on the crucial question of the possibility of students being able to discuss the perceptual aspects of aesthetic objects in isolation of their expressive qualities.(P.99) Like other writers on the issue, Broudy also poses these questions: what makes an object to be experienced aesthetically apart from its other appeals e.g. religious, historical, and technical?(P.99) It may be necessary to recall the discussion on aesthetics and Engineering design(Aghaosa,2013)—noted in professional aesthetics. This is why apart from practical technical consideration, the architectural and engineering designs and structures-buildings, ramps, jetties, bridges, etc., the aesthetic appeals in terms of function and visual appeal are also taken into account. In another perspective, music especially those used in religious worships apart from the lyrics (if any) do sometimes convey some other extra-aesthetic qualities sometimes also different from the religious intentions e.g. veneration for the Almighty, do also act as a therapeutic balm for frayed human nerves. This is something perhaps not contemplated nor envisaged by the composer of the musical piece. This could explain why music is sometimes used to complement anaesthetics during some medical surgeries. The writer owes a lot of gratitude to Professor R.O.Ofoegbu, of the department of Surgery, School of Medicine, University of Benin, Benin City for this explanation. This is from an informal discussion with him about the soothing effects of solemn classical music on some patients.

The ‘Midaka’dance’ style and choreographic movement among the Urhobos and some other tribes of the Niger-Delta of Nigeria; the ‘Igbabonelim’ masquerade acrobatic dance among the Esans of Edo State; the ‘Swange’music and dance forms and theatre of the Tivs of Benue State; and other traditional forms of music and their accompanying dances apart from providing visual aesthetic satisfaction do also have kinaesthetic imports. These kinaesthetic imports do also afford participant-performers of these dances useful aerobic exercises. These also help explain why moon light games and entertainments were very popular in almost all Nigerian traditional societies. This particular issue is aptly portrayed in Achebe’s ‘Things Fall Apart’ and in many other African novels and play lets. In the current times, ‘Ball-rooms’ or ‘Club-houses’ (disco) ‘festivals’ and funeral dances are gradually replacing the traditional moon-lit entertainments. Proffering an explanation on this link between the aesthetic experience and other forms of human experiences, it is Broudy’s(1975) contention that:

If we agree that if aesthetic experience is not merely idle contemplation of purely formal arrangements of sensory materials, there must be some aesthetic objects that do express what is humanly relevant. That they express human import represent a meaning or a value as embodied in an image is what makes art a resource for human experience that is not identical with history, science, mathematics, philosophy or religion(P.102).

For Reimer(1991), the issue centres on the tension between ‘**formalism**’ and **refferentialism**(P.9) with respect to music and music education. It is acknowledged that it brings into focus, the role of extra-artistic matters as important determinants of the aesthetic meaning derivable from works of art. Reimer’s view apart, the issue recaps the earlier question: how is artistic knowledge inspired from aesthetic phenomena as well as other epistemological subjects and phenomena? Conversely too, how does artistic knowledge inspire other forms of knowledge and meaning? How could **Icarus** a Greek mythological tale in which the character-Icarus a
human- successfully flew like a bird by attaching bird feathers on his arm and transforming them into wings-
the inspiration to Leonardo Da Vinci’s technical drawings that provided subsequent inspirations for modern day flights and the airplanes? Two other sub-issues – the principles of: Art for art-sake – as discernible in Kant’s disinterested Pleasure in appreciation of the beautiful(Aghaosa,2013) and Suzanne Langer’s Art as symbolisim,(Hirst,1973) are perceived as derivates of the main issue. Explaining the problem from the perspectives of absolutism (formalism) and ‘referentialism’ in music Reimer (1991) notes that:

(i) The ‘absolutist’ or ‘formalist’ view sees music as essentially concentrating on sound structures, significance etc. with no extra-musical link or connotation. In effect this is music for music sake or “art for art sake” noted also as the ‘purist’s’ view of any piece of music which should be viewed as only music(P. %); this is as opposed to

(ii) The ‘Referentialists’ view, which concentrates more or less exclusively on associative or representational content in works of art as being the essential factor in how they achieve meaning.

With respect to the absolutist view, it entails that every piece of musical compositions be appreciated essentially as the composer intends it. Tchaikovsky’s “Swan Lake Opera” for example, should be seen only as the composer intended it to be. Any extra-aesthetic meaning alluded to this piece is either co- incidental or not even relevant. But the human psyche tends to function in unpredictable ways. This is in the sense that different people may appreciate same or different musical composition(s) in divergent ways – some even polemically opposed to the original ideas and intention of the artist. This absolutist opposition is what referentialism in music advocates. This particular issue brings to focus the controversies generated by Fela Anikulapo Kuti’s “Zombie”. This afro-beat musical composition in terms of lyrics and sound structure was intended as a radical protest and satirical lampooning of the excesses of military regimentation in the Nigerian society then. ‘Zombie’ triggered a backlash on Fela Anikulapo Kuti’s ‘Kalukuta Republic’ –music and dancing club- that was razed down by some commandeered irate soldiers. But ironically, as seen from some evidences of some soldiers at Justice Kalu Anya’s(1977) Panel of Investigation on Kalakuta Crises; and this researcher’s personal contacts with soldiers in their ‘watering holes’ in Lagos, Benin, and other Army formations then in Nigeria. “Zombie” was a very popular musical piece among soldiers who continually played it in their homes as well as in their alcohol drinking and hemp smoking joints essentially for listening pleasure. This observation is not intended to critique this piece of musical composition An acquaintance of this writer has averred that most Africans are latently usually absorbed by the rhythms, not the lyrics of musical renditions. That this may be what is implicitly illustrated by Zombie and its varying reactions-in this case by the soldiers, ambivalent.

It is only to bring out the instructive nature of how music and some other aesthetic phenomena can and do elicit certain emotions and knowledge far removed from the intention of the composer. Reimer (1991) while acknowledging that part of the problem emanates from the view of art as symbolic knowledge – a pre-occupation of Suzanne Langer’s theory, avers that it could explain why some non-formally trained artists sometimes tend to be more aptly expressive than their professionally (?) or formally trained counterparts. Expatiating on this view, Reimer declares:

... I have been much more heavily influenced to soften my absolutist bent by the rather persuasive set of arguments one confronts when dealing with thinkers whose home discipline, has not been music that is people trained in other arts. They tend, if I may be so bold as to generalize, to be much more suspicious of what they construe as “formalism” than those in music more easily seduced by “referentialism” but naturally quite convinced that neither can account as fully as is necessary for the range of meanings the arts can mediate.(P.8)

Explaining the need for this shift from the ‘absolutist’s’ ground, Reimer continues: I would argue that so called “extra-artistic matters can indeed be and often are important determinants of the aesthetic meaning available from works of arts, but that in every case a necessary transformation in their nature must take place in order for that meaning to qualify as aesthetic. That transformation of meaning and I mean the word in its literal sense as a change is formed “across” or “beyond” is caused by, and is a function of that quality or set of conditions which characterize arts as a genuine meaning domain(P.8).

It is further explained that the unique quality of aesthetics is based on its capacity to create intrinsically meaningful structures as well as able to transform whatsoever it chooses to incorporate, for example
normative symbols, moral precepts, political slogans, religious icons e.t.c in its working into aesthetically meaningful knowledge. Like Broudy,(1975) and also Hirst,(1973) Reimer holds that the aesthetic meaning if properly sieved and projected can be valid. That other extra-aesthetic meaning – intellectual, religious etc are parasitic or supervening on the aesthetic. In addition, these extra-aesthetic meaning can be tangential or coincidental. Explaining on this dimension, which it may be noted, has a strong affinity to Hirst’s,(1973) Reimer states:

The transformation of meaning through formed interrelationships occurs particularly and necessarily with emotions I would argue. Emotional states or moods, like any other incorporated materials can influence aesthetic expressiveness, but such expressiveness always transmutes, through the structures into which it is cast, any representation of an emotion as it might exist in experiences outside art(P.7).

In concluding, Reimer holds that the “beyondness” or “transcendence” achieved by intrinsically meaningful form is the essential characteristic of the aesthetic (P.7). It is further explained that transcendence is achieved in all arts of all cultures at all times in history. Thus, each culture achieves it in ways unique to it. This can be appreciated in the following ways:
(i) Western concert Halls music;
(ii) Balinese group ritual dances; and
(iii) African drums ensembles etc.

In essence, it is through the social context that art shapes and moulds, individuals and communal experiences into meaningful forms shareable by participants of that culture.

It is pertinent to note that the above assertions re-echo the institutional theory of art, which was noted in professional aesthetics. A crucially relevant point enunciated by Reimer (1991) worth stating here is the realization that art is not the property of any one particular culture such as that of Western Europe. This point must be recalled, formed one of the bedrocks of the writer’s advocacy for the ‘comprehensivesation’ of music or aesthetic education curricula in schools. Elaborating on the fall out of this, it is held:

This [realization] opened music education in the 1960s to all the music represented by our poly-cultural society. The long held, entrenched idea that music studied in schools should be “school music” began to be replaced by a far more liberal attitude towards what is musical. While a good deal of conservatism still remains in music education about this matter aesthetic education I think, has gone a long way towards helping music education become more comprehensive in what music it includes as well as more comprehensive in the ways it engages students with music (P.7).

There are elements of universalism in the above observations by Reimer. This can be seen as a logical outcome of globalization from the educational perspective. Taken to the level of nations, a country like Nigeria with a multiethnic composition and motley of cultures, the variety of aesthetic vehicles from this array of culture surely would pose serious but fruitful challenges for any comprehensive aesthetic curricula for formal school learning. Summarizing the essence of the above stated, it is Reimer’s view that an essential characteristic of aesthetic education is the ability to enhance students’ capacity to gain meaningful insights from culturally embedded expressive forms. As noted, almost everything in our world has such expressive potentials in yielding meaning that are aesthetically experienced (P.7).

It is also pertinent to remark that Reimer’s observation in the preceding apart from re-echoing the Institutional Theory of arts and everyday objects as art object debate- noted earlier, can also be extrapolated on the educational status of ‘academic art’(Aghaosa,2014) . This is as it affects other branches of aesthetic education for examples, painting, sculpture, poetry etc. It bothers on one of the haunches of this writer that much of the art – in all ramifications taught in aesthetic education programmes of public secondary schools particularly in Nigeria, tend to lay emphases on Western academic art. This is especially in content, form and styles. There is often, only salutary mention of other cultural aesthetic content and styles such as African, Asiatic art. This point it would be recalled is in the advocacy by Marchiano (2004) on the necessity for a robust view and application of aesthetics in present day scholarship of the field. This tendency to emphasize more on Western academic art at the expense of local traditional arts and crafts could perhaps be a principal factor for the apathy against this area of learning noticeable among some public secondary school students in Nigeria.
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This paper explored and appraised the epistemological nexus of aesthetic education and extra-aesthetic values—moral, religious, etc.; and how they can facilitate teaching and learning in their respective modes of knowledge. It examined the basic concepts, issues and arguments in this aspect of aesthetic education.

The exploration apart from clarifying the basic concepts and issues was able to conclude that there are veritable links between aesthetic knowledge and extra-aesthetic experiences. That in spite of being a very complex issue, both modes of knowledge and knowing have epistemological elements that supervene and also parasitic on each other in most learning encounters.

To make aesthetic learning more interesting and relevant in Nigerian secondary schools, the following are recommended.

1. Aesthetic learning educators and facilitators should endeavour to analyze epistemological issues in aesthetic curricula and seek relevant pedagogical skills to impart them.

2. Insights about the epistemological elements that undergird both modes of learning should guide the selection of materials for aesthetic curricula. There should be emphases on comprehensivisation to accommodate as much as possible, most if not all aspects of aesthetic experiences.

3. Aesthetic education teacher education programs should be geared to develop teachers with the varied skills available in their areas of specialization.

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ASSESSING TEACHER SELF-EFFICACY AND JOB SATISFACTION: MIDDLE SCHOOL TEACHERS

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Abstract
The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the self-efficacy and job satisfaction of middle school teachers. Teaching profession is one of the most difficult jobs in the world. Schools have experienced having shortages of quality teachers with strong skills in the areas of student engagement, instructional practices, and classroom management. The participants of the study included 208 middle school teachers in USA. The study employed a non-random sampling design. The data were collected by the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) and the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). The TSES included 24 items with three subscales including efficacy in student engagement, efficacy in instructional strategies, and efficacy in classroom management. The JSS included 36 items with 9 subscales including pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. The study results indicated non-significant and negative correlation between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction.

Key Words: Self-efficacy, job satisfaction, middle school teachers.

INTRODUCTION
An emerging body of research suggests that self-efficacy of teachers is associated with positive outcomes such as promoting student learning, motivation, and achievement. In addition, research indicates that there is a relationship between teachers’ self-efficacy and factors including job commitment and job satisfaction (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Borgogni, & Steca, 2003). Although there is evidence demonstrating an association between teachers’ self-efficacy and student and teacher outcomes, little is known about how self-efficacy is related to teachers’ job satisfaction. Teachers’ self-efficacy is considered to be one of the most important factors effecting teachers’ job satisfaction during their challenging teaching years (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007; Wolters & Daugherty, 2007). Such challenges may negatively influence teachers’ motivation and job satisfaction (Spickard, Gabbe, & Christensen, 2002).

Teachers’ Self-Efficacy
Teacher efficacy includes important implications in education. A teacher’s efficacy is the capability of bringing about the desired outcomes for student engagement and learning of both motivated and unmotivated ones (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy, can make instructional strategies more meaningful by engaging all students in learning activities. Researchers have indicated that teachers’ sense of self-efficacy is related to positive student outcomes such as achievement (Moore & Esselman, 1992). In addition, teachers’ self-efficacy has a relationship with students’ behavior in the classroom (Allinder, 1994). Research shows that self-efficacy has a lot of benefits for teachers. Teachers, who have high levels of self-efficacy are more open to new ideas, exhibit greater levels of planning and organization, tend to experiment new teaching strategies with their students, and have clear goals with higher levels of aspiration (Allinder, 1994; Guskey, 1988; Stein & Wang, 1988). Greater efficacy beliefs encourage teachers to have more resilience and be less critical of students, who make errors (Ashton & Webb, 1986). Teachers with greater self-efficacy have greater desires for teaching and are more likely to continue staying in teaching position (Soodak & Podell, 1993) as they would write less numbers of discipline referrals due to having successful classroom management (Demirdag, 2015). Although self-efficacy of teachers has many benefits in education, yet not much is known about its relationship with teachers’ job satisfaction.
Self-efficacy allows individuals to initiate their capabilities in order to successfully carry out a particular mission. People may be successful in education, health, business, and sports when they obtain high levels of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Teachers’ self-efficacy is not only a strong indicator of their capabilities, it also plays an important role in shaping behavior and achievement of students. Researchers suggest that self-efficacy has an effect on both students’ motivation and teachers’ teaching strategies (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Tschan nen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) and critical thinking (Demirdag, 2015). In addition, research shows that individuals with low levels of self-efficacy may have negative influences on both teachers’ teaching methods and students’ behaviors and engagement.

In his study, Betoret (2006) found that lower levels of self-efficacy of teachers may create greater difficulties in providing effective teaching strategies and higher levels of job-related problems (Klassen et al., 2009). Even though Bandura (1997) indicated that self-efficacy beliefs of teachers could remain in balance once established, some researchers claimed that such beliefs may change across stages of a career (Tschan nen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). Some research conducted on teachers’ self-efficacy exhibited mixed results between years of teaching experience and teachers’ self-efficacy. In a study, Ross, Cousins, and Gadalia (1996) found that years of being in teaching profession has both positive and negative effects on teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs. Ghaith and Yaghi (1997) claimed that there were negative correlations between years of experience and teacher self-efficacy. In their research, Woolfolk Hoy and Burke Spero (2005) conducted a study to find the effects of teaching experience on self-efficacy beliefs of teachers. In this longitudinal study, researchers found different results. First, results showed a significant increase in teachers’ self-efficacy during teacher training, then followed by a decline at the end of their first year of teaching profession. Another study, which included about 1,024 participants was conducted by Wolters and Daugherty (2007) to find the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs of teachers and their teaching experience in the job. They found that the experience of teachers had only a modest effect on their self-efficacy.

Albert Bandura (1997) claimed that people may re-structure or scale down their job related goals due to lower levels of self-efficacy beliefs. The environments of workplaces may have substantial impacts on self-efficacy beliefs of people. Indicators such as verbal persuasion and modeling of supervisor influence self-efficacy development of the workers (Bandura, 1997). In a study, Kooij, de Lange, Jansen, & Dikkers, (2008) suggested years of experience and psychological indicators may effect motivation and self-efficacy beliefs of teachers. In addition, Tschan nen-Moran et al. (1998) suggested that past experience; communication with principals, students, peers, and parents can mediate the development of self-efficacy of teachers. Research also shows that the sources of self-efficacy may change over the course of a particular time as such sources may have a positive or negative effect on teachers’ job satisfaction (Tschan nen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007).

**Job Satisfaction**

Reports have shown that many teachers exhibit dissatisfaction in their jobs due to job stress (Chaplain, 2008; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008). Job satisfaction is considered as a perception of fulfillment, which is associated with higher levels of job performance (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001). Job satisfaction is decisive, which contributes to teachers’ performance and attitudes. Research found that self-efficacy is an important contributor of job satisfaction (Caprara et al., 2003). Several indicators such as working with children, seeing students make progress, working with supportive colleagues, and overall school climate in the schools may create job satisfaction among teachers (Cockburn & Haydn, 2004). Teachers with low levels of self-efficacy tend to be dissatisfied with their jobs, thus leaving their teaching profession (Evans, 2001; Ingersoll, 2001). Poor working conditions and a heavy teaching workload may strongly influence job satisfaction of teachers (Liu & Ramsey, 2008). Such working environments even effect teachers’ classroom management, which may have a negative influence on student self-esteem and engagement in learning tasks (Demirdag, 2015).

Teaching environments may include both satisfaction and stress for teachers due to demands from administrators, colleagues, students, and parents compounded by work overload, student misbehavior, and a lack of recognition for accomplishments (Greenglass & Burke, 2003). Research shows that dissatisfaction due to job stress may have negative effects on teacher’s work (Kyriacou, 2001), self-efficacy (Betoret, 2006; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007), and teaching effectiveness (Abel & Sewell, 1999; Kokkins, 2007). Although, in some cases job stress creates job satisfaction for teachers, such satisfaction may be muted due
factors as low autonomy and self-efficacy (Greenglass & Burke, 2003). Teaching profession is considered as one of the most stressful jobs. Research suggests that heavy teaching work load and student attitudes contribute to teachers’ job stress resulting in negative health outcomes, emotional exhaustion, de-personalization, reduced personal accomplishment, and lower levels of self-efficacy (Betoret, 2006; Jepson & Forrest, 2006; Kyriacou, 2001).

**Theoretical Framework**

This study employed Bandura’s self-efficacy theory as a theoretical framework (Bandura, 1977). According to this theory, self-efficacy effects people’s behavior, thinking, and motivation. People with self-efficacy are successful in accomplishing certain tasks. Although some research indicated that knowledge and skills were required for success, Bandura (1997) suggested that having a low self-esteem could lower personal success as well. According to Bandura (1994), four main sources effect people’s self-efficacy: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social (verbal) persuasion, and somatic and emotional states in judging one’s capabilities (physiological arousal). Among these, mastery experiences are the most effective source of self-efficacy. Mastery experiences exist when people succeed at performing tasks. Vicarious experiences include modeling other people and their success. Social (verbal) persuasion, can influence people’s self-efficacy if it includes affirmative encouragement. Lastly, emotional states in judging one’s capabilities (physiological arousal) is about how one reacts to different situations such as health functioning, and coping with stressors, and physical accomplishments (Bandura, 1997). Relieved stress may increase self-efficacy, thus job satisfaction. Teaching profession is one of the most challenging jobs in the world. Although, researchers have made crucial contributions by finding results between the relationship of self-efficacy beliefs of teachers and the years that they have been in teaching profession, results are not clear. Therefore, understanding the current level of teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction among teachers is crucial.

**Purpose of the Study**

The aim of this quantitative study was to examine teachers’ self-efficacy and job satisfaction. As a result, major questions that arose from the review of literature were:

1. What are the beliefs of middle school teachers about their self-efficacy?
2. What are the beliefs of middle school teachers about their job satisfaction?
3. Is there a relationship between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction?

**METHOD**

A non-random selection of participants was used in this quantitative methodology. The researcher used such approach to measure objectives and facts such as self-efficacy and job satisfaction of middle school teachers. The study employed statistical methods, which included correlational designs to reduce bias and objectively present and generalize results (Cronbach, 1975; Powdermaker, 1966). It evaluated the various perspectives on self-efficacy and job satisfaction of middle school teachers in western part of the U.S.

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**Setting**

This research examined self-efficacy and job satisfaction of middle school teachers in six middle schools in the western part of the U.S. Each school had an average of 60 teachers. All of the schools were located in economically disadvantaged areas. The total student enrollment from six schools were about 5,980 students. Of this population, 75% of the students were Hispanic, 12% of the students were African American, 9% of the students were Caucasian, and about 4% of the students were from other ethnicities. Most of the students (about 84%) received free or reduced lunch.
Sample
The quantitative study sample included 208 middle school teachers from different grade levels. Female participants were %53 and the male participants were %47 in the study (see Table 1). The participants were given enough time to answer questions on two instruments: TSES and JSS. They had 1-28 years of teaching experience. The teaching fields of the participants included math, science, social studies, language, dance, and physical education.

Data Collection Tools
Two instruments were used in this study. Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) was developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001). The instrument had 24 items with three subscales including efficacy in student engagement, efficacy in instructional strategies, and efficacy in classroom management. Each subscale included eight items. The instrument was a 9-point Likert scale providing 9 possible responses (1 and 2 = nothing, 3 and 4 = very little, 5 and 6 = some influence, 7 and 8 = quite a bit, and 9 = a great deal). The reliability of the instrument and its subscales was measured. The coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951) indicated reliability as it was .94 for the instrument, .87 for efficacy in student engagement, .91 for efficacy in instructional strategies, and .90 for efficacy in classroom management. Before this study, the instrument was pilot tested with 105 middle school teachers and the coefficient alpha showed reliability as it was .87.

The second instrument used in the study was Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was developed by Spector (1985). It had 36 items with 9 subscales including pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. Each subscale included four items. The instrument was a six-point Likert scale providing six possible responses (1 = disagree very much, 2 = disagree moderately, 3 = disagree slightly, 4 = agree slightly, 5 = agree moderately, and 6 = agree strongly). The developer of the instrument suggested that a mean score of 4 or more represents satisfaction, 3 or less represents dissatisfaction, and between 3 and 4 represents ambivalence. The coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951) indicated reliability as it was .91 for the instrument, .75 for pay, .73 for promotion, .82 for supervision, .73 for fringe benefits, .76 for contingent rewards, .62 for operating, .60 for coworkers, .78 for nature of work, and .71 for communication. Prior to this study, the instrument was pilot tested with 105 middle school teachers and the coefficient alpha indicated reliability as it was .89.

Data Analysis
The participants in the study answered questions on two surveys. After data collections, the data set was imported to SPSS 20.0 for the analysis. The data were analyzed on the basis of means, standard deviations, the results of paired samples t-tests and Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Paired samples t-tests were used to examine the mean differences on self-efficacy and job satisfaction of middle school teachers. In addition, the relationship between teachers’ self-efficacy and job satisfaction was investigated by Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The results of the data analysis were then examined based on the self-efficacy and job satisfaction of middle school teachers.

FINDINGS
The results are presented according to self-efficacy and job satisfaction beliefs of middle school teachers. In addition, the relationship between middle school teachers’ self-efficacy and job satisfaction was analyzed based on the mean differences on JSS and TSES instruments.

The mean values on the subscales – pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication – of JSS instrument showed that most subscales had different mean scores (see Table 2). Teachers received the highest mean score on supervision (M = 4.38, SD = .59) and the lowest mean score on operating conditions (M = 3.47, SD = .57). They had same mean values on both coworkers (M = 3.85, SD = .54) and communication (M = 3.85, SD = .50). Middle school teachers scored higher on fringe benefits (M = 4.28, SD = .59), than rewards (M = 3.98, SD = .64), promotion (M = 3.61, SD = .56), nature of work (M = 3.60, SD = .50), and pay (M = 3.52, SD = .57).
Table 2: Summary of ranges, means, and standard deviations on dispositions of JSS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min-Max</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>2.00-5.00</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>1.75-5.25</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>1.75-5.50</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fringe Benefits</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>1.00-5.50</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rewards</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>2.00-5.75</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operating Conditions</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>1.50-5.00</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coworkers</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>2.25-5.50</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of Work</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>2.25-5.50</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>2.25-4.75</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. JSS = Job Satisfaction Survey.

Table 3: Summary of ranges, means, and standard deviations on dispositions of TSES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min-Max</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student Engagement</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>2.00-7.25</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional Strategies</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>2.50-8.87</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom Management</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>2.50-8.25</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. TSES = Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale.

Middle school teachers had similar mean values on student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management (see Table 3). They had the highest mean values on classroom management (M = 4.77, SD = 1.15). Teachers scored higher on instructional strategies (M = 4.61, SD = 1.02) than student engagement (M = 4.32, SD = 1.06).

Table 4: Paired samples t-test results on mean scores between JSS and TSES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>-12.46</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Efficacy</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. JSS = Job Satisfaction Survey. TSES = Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale.

After analyzing data on self-efficacy and job satisfaction beliefs of middle school teachers, paired samples t-test results showed significant results between two constructs (see Table 4). The results showed that teachers had higher mean scores on overall self-efficacy beliefs (M = 4.57, SD = .80) than the beliefs on overall job satisfaction (M = 3.84, SD = .24) with conditions, t(207) = -12.46, p < .01.

Table 5: Correlation matrix between job satisfaction and sense of self-efficacy of teachers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>13</th>
<th>14</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pay</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>.34**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.21**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fringe Benefits</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.24**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rewards</td>
<td>.18**</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.19**</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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The Pearson’s correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between middle school teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs and job satisfaction (see Table 5). The findings indicated a negative and a non-significant relationship between overall job satisfaction and overall self-efficacy beliefs ($r = -0.01$). The relationship between job satisfaction and student engagement ($r = 0.02$), instructional strategies ($r = 0.02$), and classroom management ($r = -0.03$) was non-significant. As a subscale of self-efficacy, student engagement had no relationship with any subscales of job satisfaction. However, there was a significant relationship between instructional strategies and operating conditions ($r = 0.18$). In addition, study findings indicated meaningful relationships between classroom management and operating conditions ($r = 0.17$). Lastly, a significant relationship between overall teacher self-efficacy and operating conditions ($r = .15$) was found. As a result, findings showed that there was no meaningful relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and job satisfaction of middle school teachers.

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

This study examined the sense of self-efficacy beliefs of middle school teachers and found that teachers’ beliefs were very little about their own student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management. In their study, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) found that self-efficacy influence instructional strategies of teachers. In similar studies, Tschannek-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) suggested that low levels of self-efficacy of teachers may have a negative effect on student engagement and behaviors. Based on the study results it is crucial for school leaders to take necessary actions in order to boost self-efficacy beliefs of teachers as such beliefs may make a substantial contribution to teachers’ classroom management and teaching strategies and students’ engagement in learning tasks.

Examining data results about job satisfaction indicated that middle school teachers demonstrated satisfaction on two subscales of job satisfaction: supervision and fringe benefits. Middle school teachers indicated dissatisfaction on pay, promotion, rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. Having dissatisfaction about their jobs, middle school teachers may perform lower while teaching (Judge et al., 2001). Chaplain (2008) suggested that many teachers have exhibited dissatisfaction in their jobs. In their study, Cockburn and Haydn (2004) found that working with children, seeing students make progress, working with supportive colleagues, and overall school climate in the schools are important factors, which could affect teachers’ job satisfaction. Administrators need to be aware of the factors that influence teachers’ job satisfaction because indicators such as poor working conditions and negative school climate may lower teachers’ performance and create job related stress (Liu & Ramsey, 2008). Parallel to these findings of Betoret (2006), the findings of this study suggested that there was a meaningful difference on mean scores between overall job satisfaction and overall sense of teacher efficacy of middle school teachers.
After examining the relationship between middle school teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and job satisfaction, the findings indicated that there was no relationship between overall job satisfaction and overall self-efficacy beliefs. In parallel findings, Ghaith and Yaghi (1997) found that there were negative correlations between years of experience and teacher self-efficacy. However, several studies found that sense of self-efficacy beliefs of teachers is one the most important factors effecting teachers' job satisfaction (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007; Wolters & Daugherty, 2007). The findings of this study suggested that the relationship between overall job satisfaction and overall self-efficacy beliefs was negative and non-significant. In addition, some researchers indicated that job stress aside from self-efficacy beliefs may be one of the main factors contributing to teachers' job dissatisfaction (Betoret, 2006; Jepson & Forrest, 2006; Kyriacou, 2001).

The conclusion of this empirical study showed that although most of the previous studies indicated a relationship between job satisfaction and self-efficacy of middle school teachers, the findings of this study suggested that there was no relationship between teachers' sense of self-efficacy beliefs and job satisfaction. The results concluded that teachers' beliefs about their self-efficacy were very little on all subscales: student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management. On the other hand, middle school teachers showed dissatisfaction about their jobs on most of the subscales of job satisfaction. Teachers showed satisfaction only on two of the subscales of job satisfaction: supervision and fringe benefits. Based on research findings, it is crucial for school leaders to consider taking certain steps in order to increase self-efficacy and job satisfaction of teachers as middle school teachers scored low on these measures. In line with previous research findings, teachers with lower levels of self-efficacy beliefs and job satisfaction tend to lose their motivation and fail to provide effective teaching approaches for student learning.

This research has important limitations and suggestions that must be considered in order to adequately interpret the findings. The study sample was small, which may not be generalized to entire population of teachers. In addition, the study may include researcher bias as the researcher was the only person collecting and analyzing data. The researcher double checked all the data to minimize researcher bias and strengthen validity of the study. As for the suggestions, the study could be conducted in different school settings with larger numbers of teachers so that the study findings could be generalized.

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**REFERENCES**


STUDENTS’ REASONS FOR ATTENDING PRIVATE COURSES AND THEIR VIEWS ON THEM: THE CASE OF TURKEY

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Abstract
Private courses, which were initially founded as a means of providing science, language, and art education and which were regarded as “private schools,” turned into refresher courses. Programs applied in private courses are prepared in parallel to regular school curriculums and run by the approval of the Ministry of Education. With the centralized exams becoming widespread, these courses have evolved, and their number has increased nationwide. The competitive atmosphere of the preparations for university entrance exam results in parents’ using every means available to support their children’s education by means of private courses and tutoring. Private courses and the education they provide have frequently found place in Turkey's agenda, and been a constant source of debate. This study investigated the views of 7711 students enrolled in 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th grades at various schools in Ankara regarding their reasons for attending private courses and their views on them. As a result of this study, it was determined that students mostly got supplementary education to their school courses and that they preferred private courses due to the fact that these courses provide placement tests on a regular basis. Students think that centralized exams make private courses a necessity, that they are complementary where regular schools fail short, and that they have become a part of their education. Moreover, students also indicate that private courses should not be closed down.

Key Words: Private courses, secondary school students, education system.
INTRODUCTION

Private courses in Turkey are institutions that were first established for science, language and art education and were thought of like “private schools” but then they were turned into private courses for supporting regular schools. Today, functioning as supporting institutions for preparation for high school and university entrance exams, have become educational institutions on which the focus of students and parents with future worries have centred upon. In Turkey, going to a private course is seen as an important determinative factor for being successful in university entrance exam. Students and their parents think that it is almost impossible to be successful in exams without going to private courses (Ayvaci & Er Nas, 2009; Dikici & Isik, 2001; Ozdemir, 2001; Turan & Alaz, 2007). Especially, the competition in university entrance exams is the leading factor that leads the students to go to private courses (Bray, 1999). The researches related with private schools show that the facts that going to a private course effects the success in university entrance exam positively, the course contents in the regular schools are not compatible with the content of the university entrance exam, and that the regular schools cannot prepare the students for the university entrance exam, are among the important factors for choosing the private courses (Temelli, Kurt & Kose, 2010). Private courses, especially in recent years, have often been on agenda in Turkey and a regular subject of debate. The study in question tried to determine the thoughts of high school students who are primarily affected by these debates. In this respect, via the help of a questionnaire which was prepared by the researchers, 7711 students from different high schools in Ankara were questioned for their reasons for going to private courses and thoughts about them.

METHOD

This is a quantitative research. Data were collected by using a questionnaire, developed by the researchers.

Sample of Research

The research has been carried out with 7711 students of 9th, 10th, 11th and 12th classes from different high schools in Ankara. %54.6 (4213) of the students participated in this research were boys and %45.4 (3498) of them were girls. %26.7 (2060) of the students were from the 9th class, %23.7 (1829) of them were from the 10th class, %23.9 (1841) of them were from the 11th class and %25.7 (1981) of them were from the 12th class. Besides, %97.5 of the students in this research was going to private courses.

Data Collection and Instrument

In this research a questionnaire with 11 clauses which was prepared by the researchers was used in order to collect data and determine the students’ reasons to go to private courses (6 clauses) and their thoughts about the private courses (5 clauses). The clauses in the questionnaire were graded according to Likert 5 type as; “totally agree = 5”, “agree = 4”, “partly agree = 3”, “do not agree = 2”, “absolutely do not agree = 1”, and graded from 1 to 5 in accordance with these choices.

Data Analysis

Average and standard deviation values were calculated according to each of the answers the students gave to the clauses; and moreover, by using the unrelated examples T- Test, variability of the students answers were analyzed to see if they changed according to sex variable, and whether the answers varied according to class difference or not was analyzed by using one directional ANOVA. In the effect rate calculation in the results, Cohen’s d formula (Cohen, 1988) was used. The d value that was reached after the calculations was evaluated as: .20- small effect rate, .50- medium while .80 is the large effect rate (Cohen, 1988).

FINDINGS

Average and standard deviation values, % and frequencies related to the reasons of the students’ for going to private courses were calculated and shown in Table 1.
Table 1: Defining Statistics in the Students’ Reasons for Going to Private Courses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Absolutely do not agree</th>
<th>Do not agree</th>
<th>Partly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Totally agree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>sd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am going to a private course because;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1. It provides numerous sources.</td>
<td>323</td>
<td>411</td>
<td>1556</td>
<td>2960</td>
<td>2461</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%4.2</td>
<td>%5.3</td>
<td>%20.2</td>
<td>%38</td>
<td>%31.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2. It supports my courses at school.</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>637</td>
<td>2360</td>
<td>4413</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%1.7</td>
<td>%2.2</td>
<td>%8.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>%57.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3. Without going to private courses it is very hard to be successful</td>
<td>783</td>
<td>1102</td>
<td>2230</td>
<td>1403</td>
<td>2193</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in the exams.</td>
<td>%10.2</td>
<td>%14.1</td>
<td>%29.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>%28.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4. Everybody goes to private schools.</td>
<td>1979</td>
<td>1662</td>
<td>1880</td>
<td>1220</td>
<td>970</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%25.2</td>
<td>%21.2</td>
<td>%24.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>%15.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5. It makes it easier to adapt to the social environment.</td>
<td>811</td>
<td>905</td>
<td>2032</td>
<td>1945</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%10.1</td>
<td>%11.2</td>
<td>%26.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>%25.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A6. The private courses do level detection exams on a regular basis.</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>2388</td>
<td>4229</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%2</td>
<td>%2.4</td>
<td>%9.7</td>
<td></td>
<td>%54.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Average and standard deviation values, % and frequencies related to the thoughts of the students about private courses were calculated and shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Defining Statistics about the Students’ Thoughts about Private Courses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thought</th>
<th>Absolutely do not agree</th>
<th>Do not agree</th>
<th>Partly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Totally agree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>sd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1. Private courses should be abolished.</td>
<td>4824</td>
<td>1039</td>
<td>623</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>876</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%62.6</td>
<td>%13.4</td>
<td>%8.1</td>
<td>%4.5</td>
<td>%11.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2. Private courses have become a part of the education system.</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>1117</td>
<td>2485</td>
<td>3527</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%3.7</td>
<td>%3.9</td>
<td>%14.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>%32.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3. Private courses compensate the lacks of regular schools.</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>1007</td>
<td>2094</td>
<td>4071</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%3.2</td>
<td>%3.7</td>
<td>%13.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>%27.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4. Private courses are established for teaching exam techniques before</td>
<td>456</td>
<td>534</td>
<td>1354</td>
<td>2382</td>
<td>2985</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anything else.</td>
<td>%5.9</td>
<td>%6.9</td>
<td>%17.6</td>
<td></td>
<td>%31.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5. The exams make the private courses a necessity.</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>1026</td>
<td>1591</td>
<td>4395</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%4.1</td>
<td>%5</td>
<td>%13.3</td>
<td>%20.7</td>
<td>%57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysis of students’ reasons for going to private courses and thoughts about these courses according to “sex” variable
The reasons of the female and male students for going to private schools were compared by T- Test and results were summarized in Table 3. While there were meaningful differences between the female and male students’
reasons for going to private schools, the explaining power (d= effect rate) of these differences with sex variable was found to be little.

Table 3: The T-Test results of the reasons of the students for going to private schools according to sex variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>sd</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3498</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>1.068</td>
<td>7344</td>
<td>2.873</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4213</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>1.029</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3498</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>.903</td>
<td>7133</td>
<td>6.601</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4213</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>.817</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3498</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.325</td>
<td>7709</td>
<td>5.316</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4213</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>1.283</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3498</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>1.348</td>
<td>7709</td>
<td>1.089</td>
<td>.276</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4213</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>1.336</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3498</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>1.295</td>
<td>7378</td>
<td>2.845</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4213</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.262</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A6</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3498</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>.931</td>
<td>7231</td>
<td>4.518</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4213</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>.867</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The thoughts of the female and male students about private schools were compared by T-Test and results were summarized in Table 4. When the table is analyzed, it can be concluded that there are meaningful differences between the female and male students’ thoughts about private schools but the explaining power of these differences with sex variable is of little value.

Table 4: The T-Test Results of the Thoughts of the Students about Private Schools According to Sex Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>sd</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3498</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>1.461</td>
<td>7045</td>
<td>8.503</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4213</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>1.292</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3498</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>1.119</td>
<td>6905</td>
<td>6.136</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4213</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>.955</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3498</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>1.103</td>
<td>6920</td>
<td>8.767</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4213</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>.944</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3498</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>1.166</td>
<td>7441</td>
<td>5.863</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4213</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1.163</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3498</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>1.166</td>
<td>7103</td>
<td>6.883</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>4213</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>1.047</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The effect of the “class” variable on the reasons of students’ for going to private courses and their thoughts about these courses, was analyzed by one directional ANOVA by taking one clause as a parameter for each that are thought to be determining clauses by the researchers. “A3. Without going to private courses it is very hard to be successful in the exams” and “B1. Private courses should be abolished” (Table 5).

The ANOVA results show that the clauses A3 and B1 show variety between the students according to class variable. When the averages are inspected, it is seen that as the class level increases the students’ belief to the effect of private courses on the success increases too (M9: 3.04; M10: 3.14; M11: 3.63; M12: 3.85), and that they do not want the private courses to be abolished (M9: 2.03; M10: 1.96; M11: 1.72; M12: 1.82). The explaining power of the differences between the class levels by the class level is changing between .10 and .65.
Table 5: ANOVA Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Sig. Difference</th>
<th>d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A3. Without going to private courses it is very hard to be successful in the exams.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>875.059</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>291.686</td>
<td>183.5</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>9-11 .47</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>12248.662</td>
<td>7707</td>
<td>1.589</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10-11 .38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13123.721</td>
<td>7710</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10-12 .56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1. Private courses should be abolished.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11-12 .17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>111.88</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37.296</td>
<td>19.80</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>9-11 .23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>14516.435</td>
<td>7707</td>
<td>1.884</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10-11 .18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14628.324</td>
<td>7710</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10-12 .10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

When the outcomes are inspected, it is revealed that the students choose private courses primarily because they support the courses at their school (M = 4.40) and because they do level detection exams on a regular basis (M = 4.355). The students think that the examination system makes the private courses a necessity (M = 4.22), private courses compensate the lacks of regular schools (M = 4.23) and they are a part of the education (M = 4.13). Besides, the average of the answers of the students to the statement “private courses should be abolished” is 1.89. This shows that the students do not favor the abolishment of the private schools and that they have a positive view about the private courses. These outcomes are similar to many others in the literature of the field (Ayvaci & Er Nas, 2009; Bray, 1999; Dikici & Isik, 2001; Ozdemir, 2001; Temelli, Kurt & Kose, 2010; Turan & Alaz, 2007). According to the results of the research, students and their parents think that it is almost impossible to be successful in exams without going to private courses. Temelli, Kurt and Kose (2010) have pointed out that private courses’ positive effect on the success in university entrance exams, the insufficiency of the course contents at schools for university entrance exams, and the inability of the schools in preparing the students for these exams are important reasons for choosing private courses. Moreover, it is known that the students who are preparing for the university entrance exam and going to private courses see going to private courses as a must in order to learn test techniques and they have the impression that the education they have at the private courses is more qualified than the one they have at school (Cenk, 2005; TED, 2005).

When the answers of the students are analyzed according to sex variable, it is seen that the female students attach more importance to the role of private courses in their education, and they believe the necessity of the private courses more than the male students. The previous studies in this subject also provided similar results. For example, Kilic, Celikkol and Soran (2010) have stated that high school students have a positive opinion of private courses and the female students have more positive attitude towards the private courses in their studies. When the answers are analyzed according to class variable, it is notable that as the class level increases the students see the private courses more necessary and they have a better belief that these courses will improve their success. This is thought to be a result of the approaching university entrance exams and therefore the increasing exam anxiety.

The results show that the students believe in the necessity of the private courses. Probably a result of the present education system, this situation should be evaluated correctly and after the required structural changes are done; the subject should be reconsidered in details. This study suggests that the reasons of the need for private courses should be investigated and there should be improvements in the education system accordingly.
WCEIS’s Note: Presented as a paper at V. European Conference on Social and Behavioral Sciences held at the Baltic Institute of Humanities in the Russia on September 11-14, 2014.

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REFERENCES


A SHORT REVIEW OF RESEARCH ON METACOGNITION TRAINING
WITH ELEMENTARY STUDENTS

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Abstract
Reading is an important skill to be mastered at a very early age. Apart from the awareness of print and phonological sensitivity, other factors like vocabulary knowledge, cognitive, and metacognitive skills gain importance through different levels of reading performance. Supporting comprehension, metacognitive strategies are recommended by many experts. This review, therefore, aimed to understand what experimental research on metacognitive strategy training has revealed about elementary students’ reading performance. Covering an analysis of six studies, this paper found out being explicitly trained with metacognitive strategies has a beneficial effect on reading comprehension. Children’s reading comprehension and performance improved significantly. Besides, teachers’ being knowledgeable about metacognition and how to teach metacognitive strategies, reading texts’ being familiar to students, and instructional methods which benefit from the concept of scaffolding can be related to effective metacognitive strategy trainings. Considering the limitations of the studies, some implications for future research were provided.

Key Words: Metacognition, metacognitive training, reading, comprehension, experimental research.

INTRODUCTION
Helping students widen their knowledge, communicate with others, and continue their studies (Royanto, 2012), reading is an important skill to be mastered at the very early ages. Defined by Myers and Paris (1978), reading is “a complex behavior that involves interactions among perceptual processes, cognitive skills and metacognitive knowledge” (p. 680) and skills (Boulware-Gooden et al., 2007). Mayer and Paris’s reading definition proposes that an awareness of print and phonological sensitivity are crucial factors (Boulware-Gooden, Carreker, Thornhill, & Joshi, 2007) for comprehension building. However, they are not enough. Other factors like vocabulary knowledge and metacognitive skills gain importance once students progress through different levels of reading comprehension. When either component is inadequate, comprehension can be impeded (Boulware-Gooden et al., 2007). In other words, students who possess decoding skills do not necessarily become fluent and competent readers. It is because, as Gray (as cited in Stauffer, 1969) highlighted for effective reading, the reader needs not only to decode the symbols and recognize important ideas presented in the text, but also s/he needs to monitor his/her understanding, evaluate the ideas presented in the text critically, discover the relationships among them, make decisions, reflect on, and synthesize what s/he reads while clarifying his/ her understanding of the ideas presented by the author (Bilgi & Özmen, 2014; Boulware-Gooden et al., 2007). All these are crucial and interacting components of comprehension, the main reason of reading (Boulware-Gooden et al., 2007).

Reading comprehension is a deliberate action, requiring self-invoked plans, cognitive skills, awareness and deliberate use of before, during and after-reading comprehension monitoring and regulation strategies (Myers & Paris, 1978; Bilgi & Özmen, 2014). For efficient reading, readers need to not only use cognitive strategies but also benefit from metacognitive strategies. While cognitive strategies are necessary to make meaning out of content and to gain contextual information, metacognitive strategies support comprehension monitoring and regulation of cognitive processes and strategies (Gredler, 2001; Bilgi & Özmen, 2014). Stated to be a good predictor of text comprehension in many studies (Artelt, Schiefele & Schneider, 2001), metacognition is defined
by Gresten, Fuchs, Williams and Baker (as cited in Bilgi & Özmen, 2014) as one’s ability to manage and control his/her cognitive activities and evaluate if s/he performs them well enough or successfully.

Asking what kind of instruction best promotes the development of reading comprehension and vocabulary (Boulware-Gooden et al., 2007), most of the researchers have pointed to explicit strategy trainings. And, it is well-emphasized as an important component of literacy education. Regarding metacognition, Cross and Paris stated that (1998) “children receiving metacognitive training show enhanced awareness and reading skills” (p. 132); thereby, this review, initially, aims to answer if explicit metacognitive trainings can improve students’ reading comprehension performance. In relation to this question, this paper also aims to identify characteristics of effective metacognitive strategy trainings leading to enhanced awareness, skills and reading performance. Therefore, by reviewing related literature and research, this paper aims to contribute to reading literature by categorizing common findings of metacognitive strategy trainings and gaps in the studies. So that, concerning the implications, this paper can provide some ideas for future studies.

METHOD

For this analysis of “metacognitive training and reading” work, the author, first of all, set the publication identification and selection criteria. In order to browse and choose studies, following criteria were utilized; participants’ age, explicit instruction, experimental research, and native language.

First of all, (a) the participants in all studies were young children older than 8. As Veenman et al. (2006) and Berk (2003) stated, metacognitive skills emerge at the age of 8 to 10, and children younger than 8 are less sensitive to metacognitive variables (Mayers & Paris, 1978). This review, thereby, covers studies whose participants are 3rd graders as the youngest. Also, (b) all studies in this review tested the impacts of explicit metacognitive strategies trainings. This is because, as stated beforehand explicit strategy instruction is an important component of literacy education (Boulware-Gooden et al., 2007). And, when children are instructed for metacognition, they become more aware of their own thinking while they are reading (Paris & Winograd, 1990). Regarding metacognitive trainings, Paris and Winograd (1990) stated that in order to promote such an awareness, children need to be informed about effective strategies and discuss cognitive characteristics of thinking. Similarly, Livingston (2003) emphasized that “providing the learner with both knowledge of cognitive processes and strategies (to be used as metacognitive knowledge), and experience or practice in using both cognitive and metacognitive strategies and evaluating the outcome of their efforts (develops metacognitive regulation)” (p. 5) is the most effective instructional approach. Because explicit metacognitive instruction transfers responsibility for monitoring learning from teachers to students themselves, “promotes positive self-perception, affect, and motivation among students…[and] fosters independent learning” (Paris & Winograd, 1990, p. 15), this review specifically focused on such interventions. Moreover, as one of the aims of this review is to understand the impacts of metacognitive strategy trainings on reading comprehension over any other educational practice, the third criteria is choosing (c) randomized- and quasi- experimental research designs. Randomized experimental research designs are the best available scientific tools for investigating which educational practices work best and for comparing the benefits of different educational practices (Cook & Sinha, 2006). Through random assignment to intervention and control groups, prior to the intervention participants in both are considered equivalent, and this “allows the effects to be attributed to the treatment” (Desimone & Le Floch, 2004). Moreover, like Towne (as cited in Desimone & Le Floch, 2004), Desimone and LeFloch (2004) argued that quasi-experimentation also reserve the characteristics of rigorous and scientific research by incorporating objectivity, systematicity, and peer-review. Finally, the scope of this review targets (d) reading comprehension in one’s native language. Apart from the importance of first language reading proficiency as mentioned beforehand, regarding Cummins’ (as cited in Muñiz-Swicegood, 1994) Interdependence Hypothesis, studies done in second/foreign language were not taken in the scope of this paper purposefully. Although there are abundant studies investigating the effects of metacognitive training on second/foreign language reading performance, the participants in most of such studies were generally young adults or adults. Therefore, it is anticipated that when a person is proficient in his primary language, cognitive, academic, and literacy skills transfer to the second language (Muñiz-Swicegood, 1994; Thonis, 1983). And, regarding reading experiences, prior knowledge, and cognitive development, second language young adult
learners and first language youngsters cannot share similar characteristics, so that they can reflect divergence in acquiring and utilizing metacognitive strategies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Background

Metacognition: The knowledge about and regulation of one’s cognitive activities within a learning process was defined as metacognition by Flavell and Brown (as cited in Veenman et al., 2006). While Veenman et al. (2006) defined metacognition as “a higher-order agent overlooking and governing the cognitive system, while simultaneously being part of it” (p.5), Jacobs and Paris (as cited in Michalsky, Mevarech, & Haibi, 2009) stated that metacognition “is the conscious self-awareness of one’s own knowledge of task, topic, and thinking, and the conscious self-management (executive control) of the related cognitive process” (p. 364).

Veenman et al. (2006) argued that if metacognition is a set of self-instructions to regulate task-performance, then cognition is the vehicle for these self-instructions (Veenman et al., 2006). In order to understand this two-way mental processing and to conceptualize metacognition better, Nelson’s (1996) Metacognitive Model of consciousness and cognition can be referred. Distinguishing “object-level” (cognitions concerning external objects) and “meta-level” (cognitions concerning cognitions of external objects) processes, Nelson’s Metacognitive Model highlighted that “any lower-level cognition can itself be the subject of a higher-level cognition” (p. 105). It is because

[t]wo general flows of information between both levels are postulated [simultaneously]. Information about the state of the object-level is conveyed to the meta-level through monitoring processes, while instructions from the meta-level are transmitted to the object-level through control processes [see Figure 1]. Thus, if errors occur on the object-level, monitoring processes will give notice of it to the meta-level and control processes will be activated to resolve the problem” (Veenman et al., 2006, p. 4).

Figure 1: Hierarchical Organization of Meta-Level and Object-Level, and Hypothesized Flow of Information: (Nelson, 1996, p. 105).

Nelson’s (1996) model, combining the common distinction of metacognition; metacognitive knowledge and skills (Veenman et al., 2006), illustrates three features schematically. First of all, information from the object-level to meta-level is called monitoring which informs the meta-level about the object-level. Second, information from the meta-level to the object-level is called control which informs the object-level about what to do next. And finally, meta-level, having goals and ways to support object-level activities, accomplishes predetermined goals by communicating back and forth with the object-level.
Components of metacognition: Metacognition, the knowledge and control of one’s own thinking and learning, includes two categories of mental activities: “self-appraised knowledge about cognition and self-management of one’s thinking” (Cross & Paris, 1988, p. 131).

Metacognitive knowledge about cognition includes the variables which influence thinking and the sensitivity to act accordingly (Flavell, 1979). Declarative knowledge, one’s understanding of what influences reading, refers to the interactive characteristics of person, task, and strategy variables (Veenman et al., 2006). This knowledge ensures (a) the awareness of personal enduring characteristics and temporary conditions influencing one’s performance; realistic appraisal of one’s potential to engage in appropriate skills, (b) the knowledge of task requirements, purposes and scope to attack the problem/task efficiently, and (c) the awareness of relevant strategies along with the recognition to apply them (Myers & Paris, 1978). Besides, procedural knowledge is about regulating problem-solving and learning activities (Veenman et al., 2006), and it is displayed in the form of heuristics and strategies (Schraw, 1998). Reflecting “an appreciation for how skills operate or are applied” (Cross & Paris, 1988, p. 131), procedural knowledge can host a large variety of strategies (Pressley, Borkowski, & Schneider, 1987). Also, as metacognitive skills are stated to have a feedback mechanism (Veenman et al., 2006), in time tasks can be performed more easily, efficiently and automatically. Finally, metacognition, serving as “an executive function of coordinating and directing the learner’s thinking and behavior” (Myers & Paris, 1978, p. 680), includes conditional knowledge referring to one’s knowing when and why to use declarative and procedural knowledge. In order to accommodate various conditions, conditional knowledge helps the individuals apply and adapt their strategies (Bilgi & Özmen, 2014) by allocating their resources.

Metacognition also includes self-management of cognition. It includes the skills which allow “the readers to adjust changing task demands as well as to successes and failures” (Jacobs & Paris, as cited in Michalsky et al., 2009, p. 364). These skills are generally categorized in three components: planning, regulation, and evaluation. In the context of reading, as readers’ metacognitive awareness and executive control orchestrates meaning construction, the reader, first of all, needs to plan his/ her reading activity. By selecting particular strategies, activating background knowledge, and generating hypotheses regarding the tasks’ and reading material’s characteristics, the reading activity is planned for the best potential comprehension. Moreover, the reader needs to regulate her/his reading activity by monitoring and redirecting her/ her activities and strategies to reach the desired goals. And finally, metacognitive evaluation, having a multifaceted nature, refers to a holistic analysis of not only task characteristics and personal abilities, but also the assessment of reading process and goal-fulfillment leading to the generalization of the satisfying behavior (Myers & Paris, 1978; Cross & Paris, 1988) for future performances. Hyde and Bizar (as cited in Muniz-Swcegood, 1994) defined these as “metacognitive processes… in which individual carefully considers thoughts in problem solving situations through the strategies of self-planning, self-monitoring, self-regulating, self-questioning, self-reflecting, and or self-reviewing” (p.83).

Metacognitive instruction: Veenman and his colleagues (2006) stated that children show considerable variations in their metacognitive adequacy. Some children may pick up metacognitive knowledge and skills from a more competent peer, their teachers, or parents while some may not be that much lucky to benefit from the ample opportunities of an environment with a metacognitive tutor. Some children can successfully make use of the scarce opportunities to acquire metacognitive knowledge and skills, whereas some other children cannot acquire a proper metacognitive repertoire. Either they may not have the opportunity to do so, or they may not see the relevance of building such a set of knowledge and strategies (Veenman et al., 2006). However, all students, still, need to monitor and regulate their own reading process (Michalsky et al., 2009) for better comprehension. It is because as Michalsky et al. (2009) emphasized reading is not merely limited to translating printed symbols into meaning. It is an interactive meaning making process between the text and the reader.

Because of the differences in students’ metacognitive knowledge and skills, it is always beneficial to know about the characteristics of target group to be trained. Veenman, Kenseboom, and Imthorn (2000) made a distinction between children who suffer from availability and production deficiency of metacognition. For the children with an availability deficiency, the metacognitive instruction should start from the very beginning. It is because such children do not possess sufficient metacognitive knowledge and skills. On the other hand,
children with a production deficiency fail to use their certain level of metacognitive knowledge and skills because of reasons such as test anxiety, task difficulty, lack of motivation, or not being able to relate their metacognitive repertoire to the particular task. As DeBoy (1991) stated metacognitive awareness does not necessarily end in metacognitive strategy use. Therefore, in such a case, Veenman, Kok and Blöte (as cited in Veenman et al., 2006) suggested that instruction can be limited to cueing metacognitive activities. So, when deciding how to and what to train children with, it is important to be aware of what they possess and what they need (Veenman et al., 2006).

Regarding metacognitive trainings, Veenman, Elshout, and Busato stated that “[m]etacognitive instruction appears to enhance metacognition and learning in a broad range of students” (as cited in Veenman et al., 2006, p. 9) because students are encouraged to think about how they comprehend a text and what they should do next (Quinn & Wilson, as cited in Michalsky et al., 2009) within the course of metacognitive trainings. For an effective metacognitive instruction, Veenman et al. (2006) stressed the importance of (a) ensuring connectivity by embedding metacognitive instruction in the content matter for connectivity, (b) informing children about the usefulness of metacognitive strategies and activities, and (c) guaranteeing the smooth and maintained application of metacognitive activity through prolonged trainings. These principles are maintained via WWW&H rule: What to do, When, Why, and How (Veenman, 1998). Students are basically modelled and guided for particular strategies presented through contextual examples supporting how and when to use them. While being modelled, students are also explained why a particular strategy is being handled in a particular case, and how useful it is for their reading comprehension. Explicit instruction is important for students’ rationalization of the effective procedures; therefore, they can recognize appropriate contexts for its use, develop criteria for evaluating their strategy use, and self-regulate themselves and their reading process (Hartman, 2001).

In addition to Veenman et al.’s (2006) suggestions for effective metacognitive strategy trainings, Schon (as cited in Michalsky et al., 2009) made a fundamental distinction between two kinds of metacognitive instruction: metacognition (a) on action and (b) in action. The first one refers to the reflection process taking after reading. It is when the students construct and evaluate the explicit information (or theories) of action to be used for task requirements. Such a process is activated when the reader encounters a problem which contains an element of uncertainty or a conflict, s/he, therefore, needs to consciously confront her/his tacit knowledge to deal with the requirements. On the other hand, metacognition in action is about the interaction with a live problem as it reveals. Seibert (as cited in Michalsky et al., 2009) stated that in-action metacognitive process is active when the task requirements does not include a sense of uncertainty or surprise; thereby, the reader tends to deal with it spontaneously on the basis of his/her tacit knowledge. Contributing metacognition literature by introducing the term premetacognition stage, Raelin (as cited Michalsky et al., 2009) focused on three opportunities for metacognition to be taken care during instructions: “(a) anticipatory metacognition, occurring prior to the experience (often at the planning stage); (b) contemporaneous metacognition, occurring at the moment (metacognition in action per Schon’s [1996] terminology); and (c) retrospective metacognition, looking back at the experience (metacognition on action)” (as cited in Michalsky et al., 2009, p. 364)

**ANALYSIS OF LITERATURE**

In this part of the review, a synthesis of empirical studies investigating the effects of metacognitive trainings on children’s first language reading comprehension is provided. Although there has been a common emphasis on integrating metacognitive strategies in literacy education (Royanto, 2012), it is still important to understand (a) if children can be taught metacognitive strategies, (b) if engaging in metacognitive strategies contributes to reading comprehension/achievement, and (c) some characteristics of effective metacognitive trainings. Because of the rigorous research-selection criteria, the content of this review has been developed in an interconnected method. Each consecutive research calls for the following one to enlighten the phenomenon more and to answer the research questions.

**Metacognitive Strategies Can Be Taught and They Benefit Reading Performance**

In the first metacognitive training study, carried out by Royanto (2012), the prediction of that “metacognitive strategies can be enhanced in classroom setting with an intervention program using reciprocal teaching, peer
tutoring and home reading” (Royanto, 2012, 1603) was tested through a nonrandomized pre-and post-test control group design. The participants, 3rd grade students with an average or above average intellectual ability, assigned to different programs. The experimental group, taught through the principles of reciprocal teaching and peer tutoring for 20 sessions within a 2 month-period, proved that metacognitive strategies can be learned in classroom. The findings also announced that experimental group over-performed the control group in asking explicit questions, verification, making right conclusions and right elaborations while post-test proved that the control group students used wrong conclusion and rereading more. Besides, it was stated that the experimental group gained new strategies; lagging of the problem, defining, and elaboration with expression after the treatment.

Taking the role of scaffolders, teachers or peers can help novice readers to reduce the zone of proximal development (Royanto, 2012) by providing cues, prompts, modeling, asking questions and discussing. As it is stated by Pea (as cited in Royanto, 2012), through discussions and dialogues, distributed cognition occurs in a dynamic and complex environment. Reciprocal teaching, helping students to build their comprehension with the help of interacting learning components, support novice readers to develop their metacognitive strategies and accommodate their needs simultaneously. Expressing themselves freely, students start to facilitate their own learning, develop their own learning tools, and direct their own thinking. The dialogue between the expert and the novice stimulates the transfer of intermental processes to intramental ones (Royanto, 2012).

Royanto’s (2012) contribution to metacognition and reading literature is important for highlighting that metacognitive strategies can be taught to young children in classrooms as long as teachers scaffold students and pay attention to their learning pace along with needs. However, in her study, the author fails to depict the intervention program well enough and assess students’ comprehension following the training despite of presenting increased use of metacognitive strategies. Grounded on the idea that reading comprehension does not naturally develop without any direct teaching of comprehension, Boulware-Gooden et al. ’s (2007) study has a potential to amplify the weak points in Royanto’s (2012) study.

Covering a detailed description of metacognitive strategy instruction, Boulware-Goodden et al. ’s (2007) experimental study was carried out to determine “the effectiveness of systematic direct instruction of multiple metacognitive strategies designed to assist students in comprehending text” (p.72, emphases added). The research took place in 6 third-grade classrooms. The experimental group was trained for metacognitive strategies directly for a period of five weeks following the pre-tests, which announced that control and experimental groups were not statistically different in reading comprehension and vocabulary.

Metacognitive strategies were instructed in a lesson composed of five parts. Introduction part was where the teacher hooked students’ attention and activated their background knowledge by asking a question, showing a visual, or by simply telling a joke or riddle. In this part, the purpose of the lesson was stated explicitly. In vocabulary part, the students were introduced new vocabulary items which were demonstrated by semantic webs. The semantic webs connected parts of speech, synonyms, antonyms and any other related words. The words with multiple meanings were webbed in multiple webs. In reading the story part, students read the story; but before reading, they reviewed their answers to the initial questions which the teacher had asked. Then, while reading, students were reminded to think aloud (if their predictions were right, students were expected to say “yes”. If they need correction, they said “oops”. And, when they learnt something new, they softly exclaimed “wow” or “aha”). To control individual differences in decoding, on the first week, the teacher read the passages. On the second and third weeks, students read the passages chorally, and 4th and 5th weeks were when the students read the materials silently on their own. In summary phase, the students were asked to identify the main idea, supporting ideas, and details in the reading materials. By using a card pyramid, the teacher wrote students’ responses on the board or on the overhead. On this pyramid, the main idea was the top card and the supporting ideas were juts placed under it. Similarly, the details were placed under each related supporting idea. Ordered and labeled numerically, these cards were to help students to summarize the reading passages orally. Following this activity, students were asked to write a summary containing a quarter of the words in the passage. Just like in the case of reading passages, the teacher initially was the scribe. Lastly, in questions part, teacher asked simple and complex questions for which the students had to use their background knowledge and integrate the main idea and supporting details, drawing conclusions from the
reading passages. They also had to clarify the details, and define the vocabulary in context (Boulware-Gooden et al., 2007). The authors compared pre-and post-test scores of experimental and control groups on a criterion-referenced vocabulary test and a standardized reading comprehension test. And, the experimental group was found to outperform the control group, taught via traditional literacy method, both in vocabulary and reading comprehension. They showed a 40% difference in vocabulary gains and a 20% difference in reading gains attributed to the metacognitive intervention (Boulware-Gooden et al., 2007).

Another study, producing some evidence for metacognitive strategy instructions’ effectiveness regarding compression outcomes, was carried out by Muniz-Swinegood (1994). Benefiting from the metacognitive strategies training research carried out with monolingual English-speaking children, Muniz-Swinegood (1994) investigated the effects of metacognitive strategy training on bilingual Spanish dominant children’s Spanish and English reading performance. Strengthening Cummins’ ‘Interdependence Hypothesis’ (ac cited in Muniz-Swinegood, 1994), which states that “an instructional focus on the development of dominant language literacy will have a positive impact on second language literacy” (p. 84), the results of this particular experimental study was noteworthy due to its evidence for metacognitive strategy’s transfer across languages and presenting similar findings as in previous studies. Of 95 third-grade bilingual Spanish students, who experience reading problems, forty-eight were randomly assigned into experimental group. Being trained to use metacognitive reading strategies (self-generated questioning) for 90 minutes each day during a six-week Spanish reading period, the whole class was, first, modelled by the teacher. Then, like in Boulware-Gooden et al.’s (2007) study, the students worked in groups whose size got smaller each week until they could work on their own. Control group students, on the other hand, were instructed with third grade Spanish basal readers. At the end of the intervention, while students in the experimental group could read a story/paragraph, formulate self-generated questions, and discuss these with the teacher and classmates, an analysis of the pre- and post-test scores showed some evidence for “significant improvements in the types and frequency of metacognitive strategies” (Muniz-Swinegood, 1994, p. 92). Moreover, the metacognitive intervention in Spanish was noted to have a direct positive effect on both Spanish and English reading performances in experimental group tested by The Burke Reading Inventory (for metacognitive reading strategies), Iowa Test of Basic Skills (for English reading performance), and the La Prueba Spanish Achievement test (for Spanish reading performance). It was actually an important finding for “the effects of metacognitive instruction on the overall improvement of dual language reading and biliteracy development” (Muniz-Swinegood, 1994, p. 94). Similarly, it was stated that students also transferred self-generated questioning strategy to other social and academic situations.

Some Characteristics of Metacognitive Strategy Trainings
The experimental studies have so far highlighted that (a) young children can be taught metacognitive strategies explicitly, (b) strategy trainings have advantageous contributions to children’s reading comprehension, and (c) once children internalize target strategies, they can transfer these to second language reading conditions or even to different academic and social settings. Apart from these studies, in literature there are some more studies depicting the interventions which produced meaningful findings; however, there is still a need for a clear portrayal of the essential groundings of metacognitive strategies training.

Gaultney (1995), developing her experimental study on the basis of the idea that “[e]xperts...are individuals with more elaborated knowledge base, or schemas, which allow them greater reasoning and memorial abilities” (p. 143) contributed to the understanding of essential characteristics of effective metacognitive strategy trainings with her research findings. Utilizing students’ domain of expertise for teaching a comprehension strategy, Gaultney’s (1995) idea was highly related to Bjorklund’s (1988) suggestion of that previous knowledge can facilitate the acquisition of new strategies. To be retained and generalized, the strategies are better to be accompanied with relevant declarative and procedural metacognitive knowledge (Kurtz & Weinert, 1989).

In her study, Gaultney (1995) examined if domain knowledge (prior knowledge of baseball) facilitates poor readers’ (N= 45) acquisition of self-questioning (asking why questions in response to the reading material). The choice of this specific strategy was done purposefully because it has been found to promote deeper processing of the material, the accuracy of text recall and self-monitoring, and the connections between prior knowledge and written material. And, the use of familiar content materials was rationalized regarding Kreutzner, Leonard,
and Flavell’s (as cited in Gaultney, 1995) study with kindergarteners. In Kreutzer, Leonard, and Flavell’s study it was assumed that “[f]amiliar material may also facilitate the effectiveness of monitoring” (Gaultney, 1995, p.144), which generally results in improved reading performance (Baker & Zimlin, 1989). So, the participants, 4th and 5th graders, were randomly assigned to one of the four training conditions varying on two dimensions: (a) strategy training and (b) domain of the training material. The study produced groups of training-baseball, training-nonbaseball, control condition-baseball, and control condition-nonbaseball. The participants in training groups were instructed for 2 days with the target strategy. Like in all previous studies, students were modelled and progressively handed over the strategy use. Being compared for their pre-and posttests, the participants in training condition reading baseball texts demonstrated greater acquisition and retention of the strategy than the other three groups. This is because “[t]he use of familiar materials allowed them to read and comprehend with more automaticity, leaving more capability available for strategy acquisition” (Gaultney, 1995, p. 157). Although the other training group reading non-expertise materials were instructed with the same strategy, they showed less strategy acquisition. On the other hand, the control groups seldom used strategy at all.

Contributing to the features of how to instruct children with metacognitive strategies partially, Gaultney’s (1995) findings had better to be combined with Michalsky et al.’s (2009) study, highlighting reading phase-dependent metacognitive instruction. As a traditional reading lesson is composed of three phases; pre-, while-, and post-reading, Michalsky et al. (2009) investigated the effects of metacognitive instruction (a) before, (b) during, and (c) immediately after reading scientific texts on students’ scientific literacy, domain specific knowledge, and metacognitive awareness. Within a quasi-experimental design, 108 4th-grade students, who studied in heterogeneous classes, randomly selected from four elementary schools. Four teachers were randomly chosen from a group of 10, volunteering to continue further training in teaching reading scientific texts after participating in-service training programs.

Studying a unit on animals and plants three times in a week for 12 weeks, the students in 4 science classrooms read the same scientific texts and completed the same scientific tasks in cooperative learning groups. For this particular study, cooperative learning was the standard instructional method. Each cooperative group had one high achiever, two middle achievers, and one lower achiever. On the other hand, the 4 teachers were randomly assigned to one of the research groups: 3 metacognitive instruction groups and one control group. Three of 4 teachers, who were trained for enhancing students’ scientific literacy and comprehension, were introduced to the rationale and techniques of the particular metacognitive guidance method which they would implement in their classrooms.

Examining the effects of metacognitive guidance provided (a) before (beMETA), (b) during (duMETA), and (c) immediately after (afMETA) reading a scientific text, Michalsky et al. (2009) took Mevarech and Kramarski’s (as cited in Michalsky et al., 2009) IMPROVE method as the model. Presenting metacognitive strategies through IMPROVE method included four self-assessed metacognitive questions aiming for comprehending the phenomenon in the text, connecting previous and new knowledge, solving problems with an appropriate use of inquiry strategies, and reflecting on the processes and the solution. Related sets of questions were printed and distributed to the students and teachers in 3 experimental groups. Regarding reading phases, the beMETA group utilized self-addressed metacognitive questions prior to reading each text. While the duMETA group were exposed to the same questions during their reading, the afMETA group received these questions immediately after they finished reading the text. In each group, students were reminded that these questions would help them understand and remember the text better. Depending on the metacognitive questions’ presentation time, students were allowed to discuss both metacognitive questions and task requirements (a) before, (b) during or (c) after reading the text in small groups. However, noMETA group read the text, discussed it in small groups, and engaged in the tasks after reading the text. They were not explicitly exposed to the metacognitive instruction.

Students were given domain specific test of science knowledge, test of scientific literacy, and metacognitive awareness questionnaire twice, at pre- and posttest intervals. And, the findings indicated no significant intergroup pre-test differences, but significant post-test differences on all variables. Reading scientific texts embedded in metacognitive instruction through IMPROVE was more effective in developing students’ scientific literacy and comprehension.
literacy than reading without any metacognitive instruction. Within group comparison showed that students in aMETA group significantly outperformed all other groups on all outcomes: domain specific scientific knowledge; scientific literacy and metacognitive awareness. While beMETA group outperformed duMETA, noMETA scored the lowest.

In all studies so far, metacognitive strategies have been taught explicitly. Although this is a technique aligning with what most in-field researchers recommend, there is still a need for solid evidence to carry out such explicit trainings. This is because instructing metacognitive strategies asks for considerable amount of time and effort. It is not only an issue asking teachers to be well-equipped and prepared; students also need to endeavor to succeed the target strategies by practicing well enough (Kraayenoord, & Schneider, 1999). Therefore, it is important to identify both effective and long-lasting educational practices, so that limited sources are not wasted in vain.

Motivated by the question "What can teachers do to improve their students’ performance in reading comprehension?" (Houtveen & Van de Grift, 2007,p. 173), Houtveen and Van de Grift designed and carried out a quasi-experiment with 10-years old students in Dutch elementary schools to find out the effects of metacognitive strategy training and optimizing instructional time on reading comprehension. The experimental group composed of 11 schools with 344 students were instructed by the teachers who were trained in metacognitive strategy instruction and in optimizing teaching time for better reading comprehension. Being observed for their metacognitive strategy instruction and instructional time, the teachers were ranked on the instruments, using the event-sampling procedure and time sampling procedure, respectively. On the other hand, students were given a set of instruments including a questionnaire for metacognitive knowledge about reading, a reading attitude and reading materials questionnaire, a test for measuring reading comprehension, an intelligence test, and a questionnaire for SES, age, and gender.

The findings of the study can be divided into two regarding teachers and students. “[T]he teachers in experimental group outperformed the control group on metacognitive strategy instruction and instruction time with effect sizes (Cohen’s d) of .34 and .87, respectively” (Houtveen & Van de Grift, 2007, p.183). In parallel with the scores of the teachers, in experimental group students also outperformed control group students regarding metacognitive knowledge. “[T]he effect size in favor of the experimental group was .38, which is a medium difference” (Houtveen & Van de Grift, 2007, p. 184).

Moreover, during the first months of the next school year, all students from former control and experimental groups were tested for their reading comprehension. The test results revealed that average score of the former control group was distinctively lower than the average score of former experimental group. Providing some evidence for metacognitive strategies’ being learned and taught, this study also highlighted that intensive metacognitive trainings foster students’ more automatic reading processes. Effective metacognitive strategy trainings led by teachers, who are knowledgeable about metacognition and well-prepared to teach metacognitive strategies by optimizing instructional time, can help students develop metacognitive skills and benefit from them in future, as well.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Reading does not merely mean code-breaking and reading comprehension does not solely enhance by reading more texts. It is true that children need phonological and phonemic awareness, but still their understanding of written materials is to be supported with comprehension strategy instruction (Boulware-Gooden et al., 2007).

Veenman et al. (2006) stated that research on metacognitive training has a common conclusion; explicit metacognitive strategy trainings have a statistically significant effect on reading comprehension scores; nevertheless, Boulware-Gooden et al. (2007) raised an important issue to be considered regarding trainings. They stated that even though metacognitive strategies are thought to be valuable for text comprehension, “classroom teachers often fail to teach this process” (Boulware-Gooden et al., 2007, p. 72). In this review, two studies, Houtveen and Van de Grift’s (2007) and Michalsky et al. ’s (2009), had teachers instructed with metacognitive strategies and guided how to teach them. As partially correlated to students’ reading outcomes...
in Houtveen and Van de Grift’s (2007) study, teachers’ effect in metacognitive strategy instruction is one of the areas to be investigated. More specifically, some studies investigating how teachers’ being well-equipped with and well-knowledgeable about metacognitive knowledge and skills impact the effectiveness of metacognitive strategies training can be carried out. Even to take this idea further, instead of training teachers for research purposes, some studies can investigate pre-service teachers’ readiness to teach metacognitive strategies. For that purpose, (a) if teacher education programs integrate metacognition in their curriculum, (b) how teacher-candidates conceptualize metacognition, and (c) what kind of beliefs and attitudes they have towards teaching metacognitive strategies in their future classes can be potential research questions to be investigated.

Moreover, all studies in this review were designed to test the common hypothesis: explicit metacognitive strategy instruction may affect children’s reading comprehension positively. Although cumulative findings proved this hypothesis true, each study has its own particular pathway to explain the phenomenon more. While Royanto (2012) specifically investigated teaching metacognitive strategies through reciprocal teaching and emphasized the importance of scaffolding, Michalsky et al. (2009) used cooperative learning as the instructional method. Therefore, another important direction for future research is to investigate how to instruct students with metacognitive strategies best. Such research, aiming to make strategy acquisition more meaningful, relatively easy, motivating and effective for all students, needs to investigate, first of all, (a) how different instructional techniques and/or methods, for example reciprocal teaching, cooperative learning, traditional reading instruction, and concept-oriented reading instruction (Guthrie, Wigfield, Barbosa, Perencevich, Taboada, Davis, & Tonks, 2004), affect metacognitive instructions’ effectiveness and (b) if teaching method have a confounding effect on students’ reading performance.

Boulware-Goodden et al.’s (2007), Michalsky et al.’s (2009), and Gaulney’s (1995) research also highlighted another important factor to be considered for strategy instruction: background knowledge and familiarity, respectively. In addition to testing students’ reading comprehension enriched within different instructional environments, it is also important to investigate how text difficulty, familiarity, and prior knowledge affect students’ strategy acquisition (Michalsky et al., 2009) and retention. Through an experimental design, students can be trained with the same metacognitive strategies in different instructional groups with reading texts whose familiarity level differs. So, future research can also investigate if text familiarity and instructional method have an interacting effect on metacognitive strategy training’s effectiveness in a single study.

In addition, although enhanced reading comprehension results (product measures) were reported following metacognitive strategy interventions almost in each study in this review, these studies failed in reporting process assessment of children’s (changing) knowledge about reading and metacognition. In other words, examining the effectiveness of metacognitive trainings should also cover how and why these trainings facilitate “increased reading outcomes” apart from simply reporting comprehension test results. To clarify this, the impacts of metacognitive trainings on children’s understanding of reading, strategy acquisition, and reading engagement need to be investigated. For that, future studies can utilize mixed method designs and benefit from think-aloud protocols. “It [think-aloud] is a technique in which students verbalize their thoughts as they read and thus bring into the open the strategies they are using to understand a text” (Oster, 2001, p. 64). Requiring an awareness for meaning-making and a feedback mechanism for effective strategy use, think-aloud is the way to reach students’ conscious material and cognition processing.

Lastly, taking Veeneman, Kerseboom, and Imthorn’s (2000) distinction between children who suffer from availability and production deficiency of metacognition into consideration, carrying out face-to-face interviews with students can be helpful to understand their awareness and use of metacognitive strategies and thereby, to adapt the metacognitive intervention. Although each research in this review benefited from metacognitive strategy trainings, there is still a need to understand how these interventions were developed. Aiming to satisfy students’ specific learning needs and to benefit from their prior knowledge, future research may utilize some diagnostic tools. For this purpose, inspired by Flavell’s (1979) theory, some interview questions may be developed to find out, for example, (a) if students set a goal before reading, (b) if they scan the text to activate background knowledge, or how they activate background knowledge, (c) if they underline some parts of the text for specific goal(s) or how they know they are on the right track. After collecting data for these, nature,
purpose, and components of the prospective metacognitive training can be adjusted. Regarding students' needs and their prior knowledge, students reading comprehension can be supported purposefully.

CONCLUSION

This review has covered empirical studies on explicit metacognitive trainings and highlighted their common and important points regarding reading comprehension. Limited to six studies carried out with grade 3 to 5 children, it basically aims to contribute to the understanding and implications of metacognitive trainings in reading classes.

Emerging from the current analysis of experimental research, the common points to be considered for classroom applications and future research cover (a) explicit metacognitive strategy instruction and (b) very possible advantageous features of the interventions. First of all, in all studies, students were explicitly trained with metacognitive strategies and being trained with metacognitive strategies created an obvious and positive impact on children's reading comprehension performances. So, the findings about improved reading outcomes support what most research has recommend so far. Still, training children with metacognitive strategies to enhance their reading comprehension had better be done by teachers who are knowledge enough about metacognition and its training. Also, teachers' modelling and scaffolding can be integrated in collaborative learning and/or reciprocal teaching. This is because in such instructional environments children, progressively handed over the strategy use, can experience whole-class discussions, work in small groups, and finally work at individual levels to build up their metacognitive knowledge and skills repertoire.

Training children with metacognitive strategies requires a well-designed intervention program, as well. This is because, teachers' being well-informed about metacognition and metacognitive strategies may not be enough to reach the ultimate goal. As learning emerges from the interaction of learners, materials and strategies, by paying attention to each component children’s metacognitive strategy development can be supported as much as possible. So, training children with familiar texts can be helpful, because they not only activate children’s background knowledge, but also lessen the metal load. In addition to using familiar texts, opening a space for meaningful strategy acquisition, teachers can also consider about how to embed metacognitive knowledge and skills and benefit from them in each reading phase. Asking explicit self-generated questions, activating their background knowledge for the verification of their hypothesis, and making right elaborations with the help of “why” questions, students ought to be motivated to monitor and regulate their own reading processes in each phase of reading. To develop metacognitive skills, automatic and durable for future performances, these are important and advantageous acts.

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CONFLICT MANAGEMENT IN STUDENT NURSES: SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

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Abstract
The aims of this paper are to review the current literature about conflict management of the student nurses, to determine the needs and priorities in this area. Various databases were reviewed at this literature review study and it was reached to 8 studies for purpose. The review was done with student nurse”, “conflict” “conflict management”, “conflict resolution” keywords. The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument, Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory II and Conflict Resolution Skill Scale were used for measurement tools. The conflict management and conflict resolution styles of the students were reviewed and it was investigated whether the variables differ according to emotional intelligence, personality traits, gender, frequency of experiencing conflict and the curriculum changing in the studies. As a result, it was seen that most of the researches were descriptive and cross-sectional. There is needed high level of evidence and experimental studies to understand the conflict management of student nurses.

Key Words: student nurse, conflict, conflict management, conflict resolution, review.

INTRODUCTION
Conflict is a commonly reported in educational institutions like in all organizations (Cook et al., 2014; Kantek & Gezer, 2009) and, as a natural result of human communication, it is generally defined as an internal misunderstanding that occurs from the differences in thoughts, values and feelings between two organizations or people (Marquis & Huston, 2000; Rahim, Magner, & Shapiro, 2000). Student nurses experience conflicts with their class mates, lecturers, and other medical personnel during their education (Chan, Sit, & Lau, 2014; Kantek & Gezer, 2009; Pines et al., 2012).

Conflicts in and out of the classroom in educational institutions stem from differences in personal characteristics of students and lecturers, and in their values, beliefs, and attitudes, crowded classrooms, inadequate quality of education, miscommunication between partners of education, insufficient teaching aids, and limited sources of education (Argon, 2009). Conflicts may potentially result in positive or negative consequences depending on how they are managed. If conflicts are successfully managed, student nurses have higher levels of motivation and productivity (Mrayyan et al., 2008). If not, they may suffer from high stress, problems in interpersonal relations, decrease in academic success, and increasing rates of absenteeism (Kantek & Gezer, 2009).

Conflict management requires establishing learnable behaviors through education programs (Pines et al., 2012). Understanding reactions of student nurses towards conflicts is elemental to develop efficient conflict management methods (Chan et al., 2014; Sportsman & Hamilton, 2007), which may vary according to the type
and cause of the conflict. Besides, personal characteristics and experiences of individuals (gender, education, personal traits) may also influence conflict management processes (Seren & Baykal, 2007). Conflicts may also provide an opportunity to improve values, empower personal relations, and ensure high performance (Williams-perez & Keig, 2002).

It is imperative to maintain the ways student nurses manage conflict situations and influencing factors in order to develop conflict management strategies for student nurses (Chan et al., 2014; Seren & Ustun, 2008), which created the need to carry out this particular study. This study reviewed previous studies on conflict management among student nurses and aimed to map out the requirements and priorities. It is strongly believed that study results will create a common ground for future studies.

METHOD

This literature review was conducted in January 2015 by reviewing articles published on Pubmed, EBSCO, Web of Science, Akdeniz University Library Database, and Google Scholar. The review was based on searching for certain key terms such as “student nurse”, “conflict” “conflict management”, and “conflict resolution”. The review included original full research articles in English published between 2000-2015. Anecdotes, commentaries, dissertations, conference proceedings, and articles with less than 10 references were excluded from the study. Consequently, 181 articles were selected for the study and 8 of them were considered to comply with the inclusion criteria.

FINDINGS

3 articles in this review were published in 2007, 1 article in 2008, 1 article in 2009, 1 article in 2012, and 2 articles in 2014. Sample groups of all reviews were composed of student nurses and one review was a semi-experimental and seven reviews were descriptive studies. The review data were analysed with The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument(TKI) (4 reviews), Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory II (ROCI II) (2 reviews) and Conflict Resolution Skill Scale (CRSS) (2 reviews).

One common theme in most studies was conflict management styles of student nurses and these studies particularly focused on determining the most and the least popular styles of conflict management. One of these studies was conducted by Kantek and Gezer (2009) with 151 nursing students and teaching staff to investigate the conflict management styles of student nurses, which concluded that the most common styles were integrating and obliging and the least common style was dominating style (Kantek & Gezer, 2009). Sportsman and Hamilton (2007) carried out a study in the USA and found that the most popular style of conflict management among nursing students was Compromise (Sportsman & Hamilton, 2007). In another study conducted in the USA, it was reported that more than 60% of the participant student nurses commonly used “avoiding” and “accommodating” styles to deal with challenges while they least used “competing” or “collaborating” styles (Pines et al., 2012). In a similar study completed in Jordan, it was noted that the most popular conflict management style among student nurses was “collaboration” whereas the least popular was “Accommodation” (Mrayyan et al., 2008).

Another research question in selected studies was if student nurses were any different than other student groups in their preferences of conflict management styles. The nursing students were usually compared with students from the faculty of medicine and students from several other departments of the health school. Seren and Baykal (2007) similarly compared the trends in conflict management among 359 nursing students and 367 medical faculty students, which suggested that there was a difference between the conflict management styles of both groups and that nursing students were more inclined to resolve conflicts in comparison to medical students (Seren & Baykal, 2007). Sportsman and Hamilton (2007) compared the conflict management styles of nursing students, radiologic science students and respiratory care students in the USA. The study sample included 65 nursing students, 52 radiologic science students, and 9 respiratory care students, which did not indicate any difference between the conflict management styles (Sportsman & Hamilton, 2007).
Two more studies focused on conflict management styles according to their conflict experiences. Kantek and Gezer (2009) reported that 63.58% of the students had conflicts with the teaching staff among whom 61.46% of students had conflicts rarely (Kantek & Gezer, 2009). Additionally, they reported that students who had “often” and “always” conflicts commonly used avoiding style and those who “occasionally” had conflicts used compromising style and those who “rarely” had conflicts used obliging and integrating styles (Kantek & Gezer, 2009). Pines et al. (2012), on the other hand, asserted that there was no difference between the conflict management styles according to their conflict experiences.

Gender was another variable in the studies on conflict management styles of student nurses. Pines et al., (2012) reported that male students reported more frequent conflict situations than female students (Pines et al., 2012). Seren & Baykal (2007) conducted a study with nursing and medical students and found that female students, rather than male students, tended to resolve conflicts (Seren & Baykal, 2007). Sportsman & Hamilton (2007) pointed out that female students most usually preferred compromise and avoidance styles, respectively, while male students mostly used avoidance and compromise styles (Sportsman & Hamilton, 2007).

Seren and Ustun (2008) comparatively discussed the conflict management styles of 141 nursing students following a problem-based curriculum and 291 nursing students following a traditional curriculum. It was indicated that total scores and subdimension scores (empathy, listening skills, requirement-based approach, social adaptation and anger management) of the former were higher than the latter (Seren & Ustun, 2008).

Chan, Sit and Lau (2014) analyzed the correlation between the conflict management styles and emotional intelligence and implicit theories of personality (Chan et al., 2014) and stated that emotional intelligence was a significant predictor of five conflict management styles, students with high EQ used integrating, obliging, compromising and dominating styles relatively more, and students with low EQ preferred avoiding style. They further pointed out a substantial correlation between implicit theories of personality and compromising style and suggested that students who defined themselves as less malleable more frequently used compromising style (Chan et al., 2014).

Pines et al. (2014) designed a semi-experimental study to investigate the conflict management styles of student nurses and measured stress flexibility, empowerment, and conflict management styles of students before and after taking Psychiatric-Mental Health Nursing (PMHN) and Leadership/Management in Nursing (LMN) courses. The most popular style was found to be compromising and the least popular was avoiding. It was further found that the scores of “collaboration”, “accommodating” “avoiding” decreased while “competing” and “compromising” scores gradually increased (Cook et al., 2014).

Table 1: Studies on Conflict Management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Place and Sample</th>
<th>Method and Scales</th>
<th>Key Findings</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seren and Ustun (2007)</td>
<td>Turkey 141 PBL students 291 Traditional Curriculum Students</td>
<td>Descriptive Conflict Resolution Skill Scale.</td>
<td>Students in the Problem Based Learning (PBL) model had higher total and subdimension scores (empathy, listening skills, requirement-based approach, social adaptation and anger management) than those in the traditional curriculum model. Emotional intelligence was significantly associated with all five conflict management styles while implicit theories of personality were significantly associated with compromising style only. It was reported that there was a significant difference between the conflict management styles of nursing students and medical school students, nursing students were more inclined to follow conflict resolution strategies, and female students more frequently tended to resolve conflicts.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chan et al. (2014)</td>
<td>Hong Kong 568 undergraduate nursing students</td>
<td>Descriptive The Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory-II</td>
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<tr>
<td>Seren and Baykal (2007)</td>
<td>Turkey 359 nursing students 367 medical school students</td>
<td>Descriptive Conflict Resolution Skill Scale</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Participants</td>
<td>Design Type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sportsman and Hamilton</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>65 nursing students, 52 radiologic science students, 9 respiratory care students.</td>
<td>Descriptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kantek and Gezer</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>151 nursing students</td>
<td>Descriptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrayyan et al. (2008)</td>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>62 nursing students</td>
<td>Descriptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pines et al (2012)</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>166 nursing students</td>
<td>Descriptive -A correlational design</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pines et al (2014)</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>60 undergraduate nursing students</td>
<td>A quasi-experimental pre-post design</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CONCLUSION**

The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument, Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory II and Conflict Resolution Skill Scale were commonly used to measure conflict management style of nursing students. A majority of the studies were designed as descriptive or cross-sectional studies. Furthermore, it can reasonably be argued that the study results didn’t allow any generalizations about the conflict management styles of nursing students and there need be further experimental studies with high levels of evidence to elaborate conflict management styles of nursing students.

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REFERENCES


A STUDY ON ASSESSMENT TOOLS USED BY TURKISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS IN RESPECT TO THE PROMOTION OF HIGHER-ORDER THINKING SKILLS

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Abstract
Nowadays, living conditions are changing gradually, technological and scientific developments are rapidly entering our lives. To adapt these changing conditions, people must expand their knowledge about themselves, realize the life around, think and decide faster. In order to do these, people need to have higher-order thinking skills. Turkish language courses can be used as an effective tool to gain the higher-order thinking skills. To gain higher-order thinking skills in teaching Turkish language, appropriate questions and student-based assessment methods must be used. Measurement and evaluation activities are expected to steer students to be critical thinker, inquisitive, deductive and observer. In this study, measurement and evaluation tools are discussed in terms of gaining the higher-order thinking skills. The aim of the study is defined as: to determine the compatibility of the item formats and student-based assessment tools with higher-order thinking skills and to determine item formats by analyzing exam papers. To achieve the overall aim, general screening model is used and a descriptive study was carried out to set forth the current situation. 102 Turkish language teachers from 20 different secondary schools who work in Çankaya, Mamak and Yenimahalle districts are formed the working group of the research. A questionnaire which prepared by the researchers was administered to Turkish language teachers to find out their item formats and student-based assessment methods. Chi-Square test was used in assessing teachers answers to questionnaire. Besides, examination papers used in 2015-2016 education year by targeted Turkish literature teachers were collected. Questions in these papers are examined with respect to document analysis method and grouped according to item formats. According to the study's findings, Turkish language teachers frequently used multiple-choice questions and open-ended questions of which answers are given in the text in their exams which are inappropriate with higher-order thinking skills.

Key Words: Measurement of higher-order thinking, student-based assessment.

INTRODUCTION

Thinking is “an informed, active, dynamic, purposeful and sequential process involving several mental processes” (Aslan, 2013: 11). It is an activity in which the mind compares information on a subject, examines their relationships to reach a judgment or a decision (TDK, 2005: 592). High order thinking, on the other hand, “is a way of thinking that is based on reasoning and complex, requires a consistency among information, a relationship and extensive mental activities, is based on research and inquiry, and aims at clarity, and in which results are presented based on scientific data” (Aslan, 2013: 11). Some of high order thinking skills are understanding, problem solving, decision making, critical thinking, reasoning, creative thinking, analytical thinking, inquiry, evaluation and synthesis (Aydın & Yılmaz, 2010; Çakır, 2013; Demirel, 2004; Haladyna, 1997).
Haladyna (1997) classified high order thinking skills in a cognitive-domain taxonomy including understanding, problem solving, critical thinking and creative thinking. Of high order thinking skills, understanding includes situations such as definition of facts, concepts and procedures, creation of their characteristics and selection of their examples (Haladyna, 1997). Problem solving includes skills such as coping with a problem, collecting data about the problem, developing solutions for the problem, and testing the developed solutions (Seferoğlu & Akbıyık, 2006:193-200). Critical thinking requires an individual to be inquisitive, view facts and circumstances from different perspectives and objectively and make predictions. The basis of critical thinking is sources of information including observations, experiences and facts, and inferences (Paul, 2006:5). Creative thinking, on the other hand, is a way of thinking that requires being original, being sensitive to problems, going beyond the boundaries, arguing new thoughts, taking risks and being curious (Açıkgoz, 2003; Özden, 2004).

Turkish classes can be used as an effective tool to promote the said high order thinking skills. Individuals with developed language skills can be more inquisitive, view events from different perspectives, and use evaluation and decision making processes more comfortably (Özgen-Tuncer, 2010:35). One of the most general objectives of Turkish language education is to develop students’ understanding, expressing and thinking skills. In a rapidly changing world, high order thinking is of great importance in upbringing of individuals needed by democratic societies (Tsui, 1999: 185).

Promoting high order thinking skills in Turkish language education requires making use of appropriate texts, questions and student-based assessment methods. Measurement and evaluation activities must encourage students to think, be inquisitive, draw inferences, think critically and make evaluations.

Questions in measurement and evaluation tools drive students’ cognitive processes and develop their thinking skills (Aydemir & Çiftçi, 2008, Büyükalan, 2004). A high level questions also bring high order thinking with them (Aslan, 2009).

It is hard to examine high level behaviors by short-answer, multiple-choice and true-and-false questions used in traditional measurement and evaluation tools (Küçük & Geçit, 2012:35, Üstüner & Şengül, 2004:202, Bahar, 2008:44, MEB, 2005). A study conducted by Anıl and Acar (2008) on problems faced by class teachers during measurement and evaluation process suggested that "written examinations was one of the least frequently used measurement and evaluation tools". Scoring written examination papers requiring long answers is also an affecting factor in this matter (Türkyılmaz, 2008). However, if it is desired to make an assessment-evaluation to assess high level skills, using open-ended questions are a must. Open-ended questions enable students to think, design and organize the answer (Turgut, 1992:47; Temizkan & Sallabaş, 2011:209). These questions have no single correct answer. Open-ended questions drive different cognitive processes. Open-ended questions may also enable students to use high order thinking skills including creative and critical thinking, problem solving, decision making, analysis, synthesis and evaluation (Özbay, 2007:166). Open-ended questions are also affective in assessing high level skills as they enable students to make interpretations, comparisons and analyses about a topic or situation (Çağlar, 1970). However, the quality of open-ended questions is also important at this point. A study of the research on problems faced by students suggested that students were mostly exposed to questions aiming at lower cognitive domains (Aydemir & Çiftçi, 2008; Güfta & Zorbaz, 2008; Aslan, 2011; Kavruk & Çeçen, 2013; Şengül, 2005; Sarar-Kuzu, 2013). And in that case, it is not possible to put high order thinking processes to work.

Student-based assessment requires use of high order thinking skills as it requires problem solving (Dikli, 2003:14). These methods also require process assessment (Karadüz, 2009). However, the studies on use of student-based assessment methods in Turkish language education have suggested that problems are experienced in student-based assessment application due to crowded classes and long hours of application (Yiğit & Kırımlı, 2014; Benzer & Eldem 2012; Yıldırım & Karakoç-Öztürk, 2009; Coşkun, Gelen & Kan, 2009). Project assignments focusing on the student-based assessment technique of high level cognitive skills involve adaptation of the school learning to real life conditions (Doğan & Kutlu, 2011:461). Project assignments make use of open-ended questions. Students are expected to solve problems that are presented to them and possible in real life using high level cognitive skills. Teachers can evaluate students’ skills such as problem solving, decision making, inference and commenting (Kumandaş, 2008:9).
Self-assessment, a student-based assessment tool, involves self-assessment by students of their own work (Noonan & Duncan, 2005:2; Taşdemir, 2014; Black & William, 2001:7). Through self-assessment, students can make self-criticism and realize their strengths and weaknesses. When discussed in terms of its contribution to high order thinking skills, self-assessment is found to require students to engage in activities requiring high order thinking such as decision making, critical thinking and problem solving (Kutlu, Doğan & Karakaya, 2009:96).

Through peer-assessment, students can evaluate their friends’ works and find out their strengths and weaknesses (Topping, 1998; Topping, Smith, Swanson & Elliot, 2000:150). Thus, they develop their inquiry capabilities and use high order thinking processes (Kaya, 2013:32). Group-assessments, on the other hand, involve group members evaluating the work performed by the group. Group-assessment is a process involving self and peer-assessment (Kutlu et al., 2009:105). In this respect, group-assessment can be used effectively in Turkish language teaching environments to develop high order thinking skills.

A study of the research on measurement and evaluation tools used in Turkish language education suggests that efforts are generally concentrated on the frequency of use of measurement and evaluation tools and the determination of cognitive levels of questions asked by teachers in examinations (Aydemir & Çiftçi, 2008; Güfta & Zorbaz, 2008; Şengül, 2005; Aslan, 2011, Sarar-Kuzu, 2013, Kavruk & Çeçen, 2013). These studies mention in a limited way appropriateness of item formats used in examinations in respect of the development of high order thinking skills.

Therefore, the present study investigates measurement and evaluation tools in respect of their contribution to the promotion of high order thinking skills. This study aims to determine whether or not item formats and student-based assessment tools used by Turkish language teachers in examinations aim to promote high order thinking skills and to identify item formats used by teachers. Under this general purpose, answers to the following questions were sought:

1) What item formats do Turkish language teachers use and how often?
2) How often do Turkish language teachers use “student-based assessment methods”?
3) Are project assignment topics assigned by Turkish language teachers as such that they require use of high order thinking skills?
4) Do item formats and student-based assessment methods used by Turkish language teachers vary based on seniority?
5) Are item formats used by Turkish language teachers as such that they require students to use high order thinking skills?

METHOD

Research Design

The present study that will investigate whether or not item formats and student-based assessment tools used by teachers require students to use high order thinking skills is a descriptive study that will reveal the current status using a general survey model.

Descriptive studies strive to describe the past or the present situations as they exist (Karasar, 2009: 77). Survey studies are grouped into two as general survey and case study. In general survey model, also used in this study, a group consisting of a large number of elements is studied to reach a general judgment about the group (Karasar, 2009:79).
Study Group

The study group is comprised of 102 Turkish language teachers serving at 20 middle schools in Çankaya, Mamak, Altındağ, and Yenimahalle sub-provinces in Ankara. Information regarding these teachers are provided in Table 1.

Table 1: A Breakdown of Turkish Language Teachers Based on Gender, Seniority and Major.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>60.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>39.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seniority</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-10 years</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>42.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>36.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 yrs and plus</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkish teacher</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>55.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkish language and literature</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 1 is examined, 60.8% of the teachers are female, and 39.2% are male. The teacher distribution based on seniority is that 42.2% has 0-10 years of professional service, 36.3% has 11-20 years of professional service and 21.6% has 21 years or more of professional service. The teacher distribution based on faculties graduated is that 55.9% is a graduate of Turkish teaching, 16.7% of Turkish language and literature teaching, 18.6% of Turkish language and literature, and 8.8% of other departments.

Data Collection and Analysis

In order to determine the items to be used in the research, first the literature was screened. Survey items were developed based on the information obtained about the item formats and high order thinking skills. Opinion of four language and field experts and one measurement and evaluation expert was obtained about the survey items developed, in line with which, necessary corrections were made to have the final version of the survey.

Participants were administered the questionnaire prepared by the researchers. Also, examination papers used in Turkish language exams by these teachers during the 2014-2015 academic year were also collected. Questions in the examination papers collected from the teachers were examined with document analysis. In a document analysis, written resources that contain information regarding the researched topics are examined (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011:187). Chi-square test was used in evaluation of the teacher responses to the questionnaire. The present study examined whether or not the item formats used by teachers varied based on seniority.

FINDINGS

The survey findings about the first and second sub-goals of the study, which item formats and student based assessment methods are used by Turkish language teachers and how often, are as follows:
Table 2: Distribution of Frequency of Use of Measurement and evaluation Applications by Turkish Language Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Items</th>
<th>Frequency of application</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questions for Lower Level Cognitive Stages</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use matching questions.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use true-false questions.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use multiple-choice questions.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use short-answer questions.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use open-ended questions in which answer is directly provided within the text.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I ask the topic I expect to be written on by limiting it.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questions for High Level Cognitive Stages</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use open-ended questions in which answer is not directly provided, but implied within the text.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use open-ended questions in which answer is not directly provided within the text, but can be reached by drawing detailed inferences.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I ask the topic I expect to be written on under a general heading.</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I ask the topic I expect to be written on by using visuals.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student-Based Evaluation Approaches</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I provide students with topics that require them to directly cite the information they have obtained in the projects.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I provide students with topics that require them to cite the information they have obtained in projects by interpreting it.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I provide students with topics that require them to criticize the information they have obtained in the projects and develop original answers.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use self-assessment forms</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use peer-assessment forms</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use group-assessment forms</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in Table 2, there is no participant saying that they never use multiple choice questions, open-ended questions with the answer directly provided within the text, questions with the answer not directly provided, but implied within the text, and topics requiring students to cite the information they have obtained by interpreting it in the projects. These measurement and evaluation applications are always used. The number of teachers using multiple-choice questions is considerably high. There are 79 teachers (77.4%) who says that they
often and always use these types of questions. There are 52 teachers (51%) who say that they often and always use open-ended questions with the answer directly provided within the text. The number of teachers saying that they often and always use topics requiring students in a project study to cite information they have obtained by interpreting them is 70 (68.6%). The number of teachers saying that they never use the student-based assessment methods of self-assessment (14.7%), peer-assessment (14.7%) and group-assessment (15.7%), or rarely use them (self-assessment (34.3%), peer-assessment (49%) and group-assessment (48%)) is considerably high. The number of teachers saying that they always use these methods is considerably low.

The survey findings about the third sub-goal of the study, whether or not the project assignment topics provided by teachers require students to use high order thinking skills are as follows: Item 17 of the questionnaire administered to the teachers asked them to write down the three project topics they used the most. Project topics written down by the teachers were examined by the researchers and by obtaining the opinion of an expert in the field, and the project topics at familiarity and reminder level that require use of forms of thinking such as interpretation, criticism, creative thinking and evaluation were classified as high level. While there are 49 teachers (48%) who give project assignments requiring students to use their low order thinking skills, there are 53 teachers (52%) who give project assignments requiring students to use high order thinking skills.

Chi-square analyses were conducted to determine whether or not the fourth sub-goal of the study measurement and evaluation applications used by Turkish language teachers vary based on seniority, which is the fourth sub-goal of the study. At this stage, survey response options “never” and “rarely”, and “often” and “always” were combined. After the combination, the cross-table results are provided below:

Chi-square analyses were conducted to determine whether or not the measurement and evaluation applications used by Turkish Language teachers vary based on seniority. Cross-table results attained at the end of the analysis are as follows.

Table 3: Use of Matching Questions (Aimed at Lower Level Cognitive Stages) by Turkish Language Teachers Based on Seniority

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Seniority</th>
<th>I use matching questions.</th>
<th>Never/Rarely</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often/Always</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-10 years</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>56.7</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years and more</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>46.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>39.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 3 is examined, “use of matching questions” does not significantly vary based on seniority of the Turkish language teachers. While the frequency of use (“often/always”) of matching questions by the teachers with 0-10 years of service and that of the teachers with 11-20 years of service are close to each other, the number of teachers with 21 years and more of service selecting the option of “often/always” is more than that of teachers with 0-10 years of service and 11-20 years of service.
Table 4: Use of True-False Questions (Aimed at Lower Level Cognitive Stages) by Turkish Language Teachers Based on Seniority

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I use true-false questions.</th>
<th>Never/Rarely</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often/Always</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seniority</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-10 years</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>43.3</td>
<td>46.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years and more</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>41.2</td>
<td>45.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 4 is examined, a majority of the Turkish language teachers are observed to often use true-false questions (0-10 years 46.7%; 11-20 years 45.5%, 21 years or more 42.9%). However, while the number of those saying that they never or rarely use them is less at 0-10 years of service (10%), it is more at 11-20 years of service (15.9%).

Table 5: Use of Multiple-Choice Questions (Aimed at Lower Level Cognitive Stages) by Turkish Language Teachers Based on Seniority

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I use multiple-choice questions.</th>
<th>Never/Rarely</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often/Always</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seniority</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-10 years</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>84.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years and more</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>77.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 5 is examined, a majority of the Turkish language teachers are observed to often use multiple-choice questions (0-10 years 70%; 11-20 years 84.1%, 21 years or more 75%). However, while there is none saying that they never or rarely use them at 0-10 years of service and 11-20 years of service, there are few in the least at 21 years and more of service (3.6%).

Table 6: Use of Short-Answer Questions (Aimed at Lower Level Cognitive Stages) by Turkish Language Teachers Based on Seniority

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I use short-answer questions.</th>
<th>Never/Rarely</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often/Always</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seniority</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-10 years</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>43.3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years and more</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>46.4</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When Table 6 is examined, there is no significant relationship between the use of short-answer questions and seniority ($X^2 (4) = 1.830, p>.05$). A majority of the Turkish language teachers are observed to sometimes use short-answer questions (0-10 years 43.3%; 11-20 years 38.6%, 21 years or more 46.4%). However, while the number of teachers with 0-10 years of service (26.7%) and that of teachers with 11-20 years of service (25%) saying that they never or rarely use them are close, there are few teachers with 21 years or more of service saying the same.

Table 7: Use of Open-Ended Questions with the Answer Directly Given within the Text (Aimed at Lower Level Cognitive Stages) by Turkish Language Teachers Based on Seniority

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I use open-ended questions in which answer is directly provided within the text.</th>
<th>Never/Rarely</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often/Always</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seniority</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-10 years</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>65.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years and more</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 7 is examined, a half the Turkish language teachers with 0-10 years of service is observed to sometimes use open-ended questions with the answer directly given within the text (0-10 years 50%), and those with 11-20 years of service is observed to often use them (65.9%). However, the number of those saying that they never or rarely use them is low (0-10 years 6.7%; 11-20 years 2.3%; 21 years and more 14.3%).

Table 8: Turkish Language Teachers’ Asking the Topic They Expect to be Written on by Limiting It (Aimed at Lower Level Cognitive Stages) Based on Seniority

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I ask the topic I expect to be written on by limiting it.</th>
<th>Never/Rarely</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often/Always</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seniority</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-10 years</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>53.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>61.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years and more</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>67.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>60.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 8 is examined, the Turkish language teachers are observed to often provide the topics they expect to be written on by limiting them (0-10 years 53.3%; 11-20 years 61.4%, 21 years and more 67.9%). However, the number of Turkish language teachers with 0-10 years of service saying that they never or rarely use these topics is also high (0-10 years 26.7%).

A majority of the Turkish language teachers are observed to use matching, true-false, multiple-choice and short-answer questions and open-ended questions with the answer directly provided within the text aimed at lower level cognitive stages in their assessment-evaluation applications. Also, they are also seen to include essay-type questions such as “providing a topic expected to be written on by limiting it” in their assessment-evaluation applications, which may limit the student creativity.
Table 9: Use of Open-Ended Questions with the Answer not Directly Provided, but Implied within the Text (Aimed at Higher Level Cognitive Stages) by Turkish Language Teachers Based on Seniority

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Seniority</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Never/Rarely</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often/Always</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-10 years</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>56.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years and more</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 9 is examined, a majority of the Turkish language teachers are observed to often use open-ended questions with the answer not directly provided, but implied within the text (0-10 years 56.7%; 11-20 years 50%). However, the number of those saying that they never or rarely use them is low at 0-10 years of service (6.7%) and 11-20 years of service (2.3%). The number of teachers with 21 years and more of service saying that they never or rarely use open-ended questions with the answer not directly provided, but implied within the text is not low (25%).

Table 10: Use of Open-Ended Questions with the Answer not Directly Provided within the Text, but Attainable by Drawing Detailed Inferences (Aimed at Higher Level Cognitive Stages) by Turkish Language Teachers Based on Seniority

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Seniority</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Never/Rarely</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often/Always</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-10 years</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years and more</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>53.6</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 10 is examined, there is no significant variation based on seniority in use of questions with the answer not directly provided within the text, but attainable by drawing detailed inferences ($X^2$ (4)= 11.864, p<.05). While there are 17 teachers with 11-20 years of service (38.6%) and 15 teachers with 21 years and more of service (53.6%) saying that they never use open-ended questions with the answer not directly given within the text, but attainable by drawing detailed inferences, there are 5 teachers with 0-10 years of service (16.7%) saying the same.
Table 11: Condition of Turkish Language Teachers Based on Seniority in Asking the Topic They Expect to be Written on under a General Heading (Aimed at Higher Level Cognitive Stages)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Seniority</th>
<th>Never/Rarely</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often/Always</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-10 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>54.5</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years and more</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>39.2</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 11 is examined, there is no significant variation based on seniority in use of questions providing the topic expected to be written on under a general heading ($X^2 (4) = 8.363, p<.05$). A majority of Turkish language teachers with 0-10 years of service (40%) and 11-20 years of service (35.7%) are observed to often or always ask the topic expected to be written on under a general heading, and the teachers with 11-20 years of service (54.5%) are observed to sometimes ask such questions under a general heading. However, the number of those saying that they never or rarely use them is also high (0-10 years 36.7%; 11-20 years 25%; 21 years and more 32.1%).

Table 12: Condition of Turkish Language Teachers Based on Seniority in Asking the Topic They Expect to be Written on by Using Visuals (Aimed at Higher Level Cognitive Stages)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Seniority</th>
<th>Never/Rarely</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often/Always</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-10 years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>52.3</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years and more</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>46.1</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 12 is examined, there is no significant variation based on seniority in use of questions providing the topic expected to be written on by using visuals ($X^2 (4) = 5.223, p<.05$). A majority of the Turkish language teachers are observed to sometimes ask the topics expected to be written on by using visuals (0-10 years 53.3%; 11-20 years 52.3%). However, a majority of teachers with 21 years and more of service (42.9%) is observed to never or rarely use such questions.

Part of the Turkish language teachers are observed to use open-ended questions with the answer not directly provided within the text that can be used for higher level cognitive stages in assessment-evaluation applications. Also, they are also seen to “sometimes” include essay-type questions that will support the student creativity such as “providing the topic expected to be written under a general heading or by using visuals” in assessment-evaluation applications.
Table 13: Condition of Turkish Language Teachers Based on Seniority in Providing Topics in Project Assignments, a Student-Based Evaluation Approach, Requiring Students to Directly Cite the Information They Have Obtained

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I provide students with topics that require them to directly cite the information they have obtained in the projects.</th>
<th>Never/Rarely</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often/Always</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seniority</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-10 years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
<td>46.7%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
<td>45.5%</td>
<td>34.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years and more</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
<td>42.9%</td>
<td>35.7%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>21.6%</td>
<td>45.1%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 13 is examined, there is no significant variation based on seniority in providing topics in project assignments requiring students to directly cite the information they have obtained ($X^2 (4) = .273, p<.05$). A majority of the Turkish language teachers are observed to sometimes provide topics in project assignments requiring students to directly cite the information they have obtained (0-10 years 46.7%; 11-20 years 45.5%; 21 years and more 42.9%) However, the number of those saying that they never or rarely use them is also high (0-10 years 23.3%; 11-20 years 20.5%; 21 years or more 21.4%).

Table 14: Condition of Turkish Language Teachers Based on Seniority in Providing Topics in Project Assignments, a Student-Based Evaluation Approach, Requiring Students to Cite the Information They Have Obtained by Interpreting Them

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I provide students with topics that require them to cite the information they have obtained in projects by interpreting it.</th>
<th>Never/Rarely</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often/Always</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seniority</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-10 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>31.8%</td>
<td>65.9%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years and more</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>60.7%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>27.5%</td>
<td>68.6%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 14 is examined, a vast majority of the Turkish language teachers with 0-10 years of service (80%) is observed to often provide topics in project assignments requiring students to cite the information they have obtained by interpreting them. It is also considerably high among the teachers with 11-20 years of service (65.9%) and 21 years and more of service (60.7%). Also, while there is no teacher with 0-10 years of service saying that she/he never or rarely uses such questions, There are few teachers with 11-20 years of service (2.3%) and 21 years and more of service (10.7%) saying the same.
Table 15: Condition of Turkish Language Teachers Based on Seniority in Providing Topics in Project Assignments, a Student-Based Evaluation Approach, Requiring Students to Criticize the Information They Have Obtained and Develop Their Own Answers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Seniority</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Never/Rarely</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often/Always</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-10 years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>56.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years and more</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 15 is examined, there is no significant variation based on seniority in providing topics in project assignments requiring students to criticize the information they have obtained and create their own answers ($X^2 (4)= .2.868, p<.05$). A majority of the Turkish language teachers are observed to often provide topics in project assignments requiring students to criticize the information they have obtained and develop their own answers (0-10 years 56.7%; 11-20 years 45.5%; 21 years and more 57.1%).

Table 16: Condition of Turkish Language Teachers Based on Seniority in Use of the Student-Based Evaluation Approach of Self-assessment Forms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I use self-assessment forms</th>
<th>Never/Rarely</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often/Always</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seniority</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-10 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>54.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years and more</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>53.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 16 is examined, there is no significant variation in use of self-evaluation forms in relation to the seniority ($X^2 (4)= .3.680, p>.05$). More than half the Turkish language teachers with 11-20 years of service (54.5%) and 21 years and more of service (53.6%) are observed to never or rarely use self-evaluation forms, and this percentage is observed to be lower in teachers with 0-10 years of service (36.7%).

When Table 17 is examined, there is no significant variation in use of peer-assessment forms in relation to the seniority ($X^2 (4)= 5.339, p>.05$). A majority of the Turkish language teachers with 0-10 years of service (73.3%) is observed to never or rarely use the peer-assessment forms, and this percentage is lower in teachers with 11-20 years of service (61.4%) and 21 years and more of service (57.1%).
Table 17: Condition of Turkish Language Teachers Based on Seniority in Use of the Student-Based Evaluation Approach of Peer-assessment Forms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I use peer-assessment forms</th>
<th>Never/Rarely</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often/Always</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seniority</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-10 years</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>61.4</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years and more</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>63.7</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 18: Condition of Turkish Language Teachers Based on Seniority in Use of the Student-Based Evaluation Approach of Group-assessment Forms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I use group-assessment forms</th>
<th>Never/Rarely</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often/Always</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seniority</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-10 years</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>63.3</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>63.6</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years and more</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>64.3</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>63.7</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When Table 18 is examined, there is no significant variation in use of group-assessment forms in relation to the seniority ($X^2 (4) = 3.691, p>.05$). The Turkish language teachers are observed to never or rarely use group-assessment forms (0-10 years 63.3%; 11-20 years 63.6%; 21 years and more 64.3%).

A majority of the Turkish language teachers are observed to provide topics requiring students to use thinking skills in project assignments (such as interpreting, criticizing). However, they are seen to not sufficiently benefit from self, peer and group-assessment.

Findings about the fifth sub-goal of the study, which item formats teachers use in examinations are as follows: In the present study, 1152 questions from 88 examination papers collected from 88 teachers were examined through document analysis. As a result, 44.3% of the questions used in the examinations were found to be multiple-choice questions and 31.3 % of them to be open-ended questions with the answer provided within the text. Other question types used by teachers in the examinations are as follows: True-false questions (3.1%), matching questions (2.2%), short-answer questions (2.1%), open-ended questions with the answer implied within the text (12.6%) and open-ended questions requiring detailed inferences (4.4%). The fact that the Turkish language teachers include multiple-choice questions and open-ended questions with the answer provided with in the text suggests that they ask questions aimed at lower level cognitive stages. Questions requiring high order thinking skills (open-ended questions with the answer implied within the text and open-ended questions requiring detailed inferences), on the other hand, are not adequately used.

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

The result of the research is that the Turkish language teachers do not adequately benefit from measurement and evaluation tools that require high order thinking skills. The teachers is seen to often use multiple-choice questions and sometimes use matching questions, true-false questions and short-answer questions intended
for lower level cognitive domain stages. Results obtained from the examination of the written examination papers also support this situation. Similar to these results, the pre-test results of the study conducted by Aslan (2011) on teachers’ question preparation skills suggest that a majority of prospective teachers ask lower level questions. However, in this study, post-test was conducted after the prospective teachers were trained in questioning skills, and an increase was observed in the question levels. The study conducted by Kavruk and Çeçen (2013) on written examination questions in Turkish classes in relation to cognitive domain stages concluded that a majority of teachers asked questions at the knowledge, comprehension and practice stage. The study conducted by Aydemir and Çiftçi (2008) on questioning skills of Turkish language and literature teachers, on the other hand, concluded that teachers did not possess questioning skills intended for higher level cognitive stages and that questions remained intended only for lower level cognitive stages.

Considering that Turkish language classes subsume reading, listening, speaking and writing skills, the skills, clearly, cannot be assessed by such questions. If it is desired to promote high order thinking skills, open-ended questions with the answer not directly provided within the text, project assignments requiring students to interpret and criticize the information they have obtained and student-based assessment tools must be used. For, multiple-choice, matching, true-false and short-answer questions are limited in promoting high order thinking skills. Such questions generally remain at knowledge, comprehension and practice level.

The teachers were observed to mostly use multiple-choice questions when their written examination papers were examined. Contrary to this conclusion, the study conducted by Benzer and Eldem (2012) on knowledge levels of Turkish language and literature teachers on measurement and evaluation tools” concluded that almost half the teachers mostly used open-ended questions and less often used multiple choice questions in written examinations. The study conducted by Küçük (2002) on “challenges in measurement and evaluation in Turkish language education” concluded that the teachers generally preferred written examinations and neglected test assessments. The study conducted by Beyhan (2011) on “measurement and evaluation practices in Turkish language education” suggested that a majority of the group mostly used written examinations (and therefore open-ended questions). The study conducted by Çakmak (2009) on “measurement and evaluation in Turkish language classes” concluded that a majority of the group used open-ended questions. What matters in open-ended questions is the context of the question. However, these studies did not focus on the context of the questions and did not determine whether or not they were intended for higher levels.

Another result obtained from the examination of the examination papers of the teachers is that they use open-ended questions with the answer provided within the text in the examinations. Similar to this result, the study conducted by Aydemir and Çiftçi (2008) on questioning skills of Turkish language and literature teachers about measurement and evaluation tools” suggested that self-assessment and peer-assessment were not adequately used and that a very small number of teachers used them. The study conducted by Yiğit and Kırmılı (2014) on student-based assessment methods used by Turkish language teachers concluded that, for reasons such as low number of class hours and high number of students attending classes, a vast majority of teachers were not able to adequately benefit from student-based assessment methods.

In line with the results obtained from the study, the following may be recommended to future researchers:

- The present study focuses on the student-based assessment methods of self-assessment, peer-assessment and group-assessment. Other student-based assessment methods may also be studied.
- Goals of the Turkish language education program may be compared with the questions asked in examinations conducted by teachers.
Based on the findings of this study conducted as a survey, an experimental study may be conducted on teachers by training them in measurement and evaluation of high level behaviors.

Practitioners may be recommended the following:
- The teachers may believe that their open-ended questions are intended for high order thinking skills.
- Therefore, qualities of the written questions must be reviewed.
- The teachers may look into the conformity of the questions asked with the program goals and accordingly design the examination questions.

REFERENCES


