



İZMİR UNIVERSITY OF ECONOMICS

**1st INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON
EDUCATIONAL THEORY AND RESEARCH**

FEBRUARY 11-12-13, 2016

İZMİR, TÜRKİYE



CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

**1st INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON EDUCATIONAL
THEORY AND RESEARCH**

FEBRUARY 11-12-13, 2016

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Recent developments have had a profound effect on the educational strategies and teaching methods in higher education institutions. We are convinced that, with recent developments and the opportunities for knowledge transfer and acquisition they provide, new strategies and methods are needed to meet the expectations of the coming generations.

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1. Educational Technologies
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WELCOMING MESSAGE

Dear Colleagues,

I'd like to personally welcome each of you to the 1st International Conference in Educational Theory and Research. It's an exciting time for higher education and educational technologies as we continue to explore and grow, all the while remaining flexible, motivated, and open to new ideas. The world of education is evolving, and we are finding new ways to adapt and develop in this age of globalization.

Educational theory and research are just some of the ways we are doing this, and the findings have been inspiring and transformative. As such, conferences like this are important, and we'll continue to meet, bringing well versed and dedicated individuals together to ensure we remain on the cutting edge of educational change.

At İzmir University of Economics, we have modified the way we operate to better incorporate the innovations sparked by educational research. Our academicians and students have continued to meet the challenges of this field and excel despite the obstacles that are always present in such ventures. We should all be very proud of where we are today and excited about where we are headed.

Before I close, I'd like to thank all of you for attending our conference – your expertise is invaluable. You have the vision, knowledge, and experience that will help pave the way to the future. You are truly education's greatest asset today and tomorrow, and we would not be able to reach the goals of this field without your support. Throughout this conference, I ask that you remain engaged and curious – always with a proactive mindset – as we continue to shape the future of education. My personal respect and thanks go out to each of you.

Prof. Dr. Oğuz Esen

Rector

İzmir University of Economics

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Does Democratic Education Have to be a Liberal Education? A Philosophical Assessment

Devrim Kabasakal Badamchi
Department of Political Science and Public Administration
Izmir University
Turkey
devrim.kabasakal@izmir.edu.tr

Abstract

Education has always been a significant topic of interest not only for theorists and practitioners of education but also for political philosophers. Philosophers aimed to describe the relation between education and democracy by referring to various functions that educational institutions can play for contributing the improvement of democracy since the time of Stoics in Ancient Greece and Rome.

This paper aims to draw the conceptual and moral boundaries of what democratic education amounts to. When dealing with the meaning of democratic education, there is one significant matter that is the source of confusion for many of us: whether democratic education and liberal education are same, and if not, to what extent they are different. In line with this question, this paper argues that democratic education cannot be reduced to liberal education in the sense of promoting merely liberal values but it should be founded on the idea of creating autonomous citizens as a necessary minimum liberal requirement. Thus, it is claimed that, along with the value of autonomy, democratic education may promote various different values at the same time as long as these values are not unreasonable in the sense of disrespecting the equal moral status of every citizen.

First, arguments regarding the concept of autonomy that are developed by political liberalism and classical/comprehensive liberalism are analyzed comparatively. Second, the significance of the promotion of autonomy as a moral principle in democratic education is discussed. Third, possible other values that can be supported along with autonomy are outlined. Since this paper is a theoretical analysis which aims to examine critically certain contemporary liberal theories on education, it does not intend to focus on the practical field of education.

Keywords: education, democratic education, liberal education, political liberalism, liberalism, autonomy

Introduction

It is difficult to deny the relevance of education for the realization of certain goals in a society, no matter if the society is democratic or not. Regardless of the character of the political regime, education is an instrument that is used to promote certain common goals in a society. In non-democratic societies, education is utilized to serve non-democratic ends in order to sustain the stability in the political system. In other words, in non-democratic political regimes, education becomes a mere tool in the hands of power holders to impose and sustain their hegemony in the society.

In democratic political regimes too, education has a functional relevance to sustain the stability and continuity of the political system, yet the goals that are promoted through education and the principles on which educational policies are based, are of different nature. Democratic education, put simply, is education that aims to contribute to democracy broadly

speaking. The values and principles that contribute to democracy constitute the goals that are promoted by democratic education.

It is a common tendency to use the concepts of democracy and liberalism interchangeably mostly due to the historical legacy that brought together the development of modern democracy and liberal ideology as parallel forces that affected each other. We encounter the same tendency in our usage of the concepts of democratic education and liberal education too. This paper aims to answer the question whether democratic education and liberal education are same, and if not, to what extent they are different.

In my attempt to answer this question, I address a specific debate within contemporary liberalism between classical/comprehensive liberalism and political liberalism.¹ A classical liberal position supports that autonomy should be the basic value that is to be promoted in democratic education. On the other hand, a political liberal position supports the idea that instead of the promotion of the value of autonomy in education, we should support values such as toleration and respect. Political liberals think that promotion of autonomy means imposition of a particular conception of good life on all persons in a society and that is intolerant. In this paper, it is claimed that, contrary to what political liberals argue, democratic education has to be liberal because promoting autonomy- ability to choose on the basis of critical reflection regarding the right and the good- is at the core of the democratic ideal. In line with this requirement, it is also claimed that values such as toleration and respect can be supported by democratic education coherently too. That is to say, we can think of an education that is both democratic and liberal which is founded on the values of autonomy, toleration and respect. That is to say, we do not have to either choose a classical liberal or political liberal position on education since incorporating both positions is possible.

First, the paper begins by discussing which moral values a classical liberal education is founded on. This is an analysis of a liberal concept of education in terms of its moral goals from a paradigmatic point of view. In this manner, specifically the value of autonomy and its relevance in education are analyzed. Second, the concept of education from a political liberal perspective is examined in terms of its moral goals. In this sense, toleration and respect are discussed as two foundational values for a political liberal conception of education. Third, I discuss the dimensions of a democratic conception of education that incorporates autonomy, toleration and respect as foundational values.

Classical Liberal Conception of Education and the Value of Autonomy

In this part of the paper, I intend to explicate the features of a classical liberal understanding of education that is based on autonomy. Specifically, I analyze Immanuel Kant's theory of education as a significant interpretation of a conception of education based on autonomy.

Immanuel Kant is the first philosopher that comes to mind in modern philosophy when we refer to autonomy. For Kant, autonomy is a property of the will which human beings possess as rational beings. In this sense, autonomous action is action that is motivated by reason. Individuals act autonomously as long as they act out of their reason, without the influence of any external force, inclination or necessity. This means human will is autonomous when it is not motivated by anything outside itself. (Kant, 2004, pp. xv-52)

¹ The distinction between what I call classical and political liberalism is based on John Rawls's distinction between comprehensive and political liberalism that he developed in his book *Political Liberalism*. In the book, he calls liberalism as "comprehensive liberalism" that aims to impose the value of autonomy on different types of world-views as opposed to political liberalism that is based on toleration which refrain from imposing any comprehensive value on people. According to Rawls, liberalism as a comprehensive philosophical doctrine is intolerant towards world-views that do not value autonomy. For details see (Rawls, 2005)

Moreover, individuals act autonomously when they obey the moral law they have made themselves. Autonomy means the power of determining oneself to action in accordance with certain laws. In this sense, it refers to self-determination.

The goal here is not to explicate the features of the concept of autonomy in Kant's philosophy in detail but rather, to outline the meaning of autonomy and its relevance for education. Therefore, I refer to a specific primary text by Kant called *Über Pedagogik* which was first published in 1803.

In *Über Pedagogik*, Kant categorizes education into three phases: nurture, discipline and teaching, together with culture. (Kant, 1900, p.11) Nurture refers to feeding and care of the infant. Discipline "prevents man from being turned aside by his animal impulses from humanity." (Kant, 1900, pp.11-12). In this sense, discipline helps to shape the character of a person by restraining his/her animal nature and extract the best human side in him/her as an individual and as a member of society.² Moreover, education must provide persons with culture and moral training. Thus education supplies persons with discretion so that he/she may be able to conduct himself/herself in society in a better and acceptable way. (Kant, 1900, p. 17). Moral training should aim to guide children towards good ends which may be willed as the ends of everyone. That is to say, moral education should aim to assist children towards acting from duty.

Although for Kant, the moral capacity is a property of human will and it is presupposed by every rational being, education towards developing that capacity can be seen as a necessary and essential practice.³ Kant openly points out that the ultimate aim of education is to develop correct principles and lead children to understand and accept them. (Kant, 1900, p.51). In line with this for Kant, individual becomes a moral being only by developing the ideas of duty and law, which are at the core of Kant's conceptions of morality and autonomy. Children should be guided about the duties for oneself and duties for others. In this sense, if a man makes a promise, he must keep it as a duty for oneself and moreover, as a duty to others, a child should learn to respect the rights of others and try to realize this in his actions too. (Kant, 1900, pp. 47-48)

Kant's emphasis on duty in education is related to his understanding of autonomy. That is to say, he argues that children should learn to regard an action as worthy, not because it falls within their inclinations, but because they fulfill their duty in performing it. (Kant, 1900, p. 55) This is in line with Kant's conception of autonomy: autonomous agent does not allow her actions guided by natural impulses or inclinations but only by maxims that can be willed as a universal law. Kant calls this categorical imperative, the law of reason. (Kant, 2004, pp. xv-52) According to Kant, the goal of education is to make children be aware of their potential as

² Giesinger claims that the role of discipline in Kant's pedagogy is negative in the sense that it does not bring about morality but helps human beings to hold back their animal impulses. For this reason, discipline can be regarded as the first step in the child's process of humanization. (Giesinger, 2012, p. 781)

³ Johannes Giesinger addresses a paradox in Kant's pedagogy. According to Kant, the human self can only be regarded as free and autonomous if it is not influenced by empirical causes. In this manner, Giesinger claims that "Kant's Notion of non-empirical sense is at odds with the idea of education: While it might be assumed that the noumenal self shows itself in the empirical actions of the person, it can hardly be imagined that the moulding of the empirical character has any impact on the intelligible character- if this were the case, the intelligible character would not be free in Kant's sense." (Giesinger, 2012, p. 777)

autonomous agents and develop the capacity to act autonomously by guiding them in accordance with a moral education.

What is the role of the educator in guiding children for developing their autonomous capacities? Kantian pedagogy offers a Socratic method for assisting students in terms of moral teaching. Kant says: "In the culture of reason we must proceed according to the Socratic method. Socrates, who called himself the midwife of his hearers' knowledge, gives examples in his dialogues, which Plato has in a manner preserved for us, of the way in which, even in the case of grown-up people, ideas may be drawn forth from their own individual reason." (Kant, 1900, p. 40) Thus, the aim and role of the educator should be to extract the rational and moral knowledge from them rather than introducing and carrying knowledge into students. (Giesinger, 2012, p.783)

Moreover, Kant claims that a catechism of right conduct can be helpful in school curriculums for children to develop a sense of duty and morality.⁴ He suggests that this should be in the form of everyday questions of right and wrong in a popular form. (Kant, 1900, p.49) For instance, the question if lying is ever justified in certain circumstances can be included in the questions about right and wrong conduct. It is significant that children learn lying is wrong under any kind of circumstances. Kant thinks that if we teach children, they are allowed to lie in a specific situation, and then they would use this occasion to lie in most situations. He says "if there were a book of this kind, an hour might be very profitably be spent daily in studying it, so that children might learn and take heart lessons on right conduct- the apple of God's eye upon earth." (Kant, 1900, p.49)

According to Kant, moral education has to be cosmopolitan in the sense that it should assist children to develop a value in them with regard to the whole human race. Kant states that children should be brought up not only with an interest in themselves and those with whom they have been brought up but also an interest in the progress of the world. (Kant, 1900, p. 55) An interest in the progress of the world signifies seeing our activities as promoting and sustaining a shared moral culture with other persons. (Herman, 1998, p.266) In other words, cosmopolitan principle in education for Kant means raising children with the awareness that they are part of human race and thus, they have an impact on the moral culture and progress of human history.

As an example of a classical liberal conception of education, Kant's pedagogy aims to train individuals as autonomous beings who are members of a world community. Autonomy is regarded as a presupposed property of human will and education provides the necessary assistance to children to be able to use this moral capacity of living in accordance with the laws of their own reason. Thus, the goal of education in a classical liberal account of education is to help children to develop their moral capacity which every rational being can find within him/her.

Political Liberal Conception of Education

On a political liberal view, education should not be based on goals such as promoting autonomy since this would mean imposing a comprehensive worldview on others who do not value autonomy. This view of political liberalism is not only restricted to the realm of education but rather, it is about the framing of laws, and regulation of political and social life

⁴ Chris W. Surprenant points out that what Kant has in mind by referring to catechism is something similar to Luther's catechism which had the function to teach students doctrines and prayers of the church through a series of questions and memorized answers. However, he claims, unlike Luther's catechism, Kant's catechism does not require students to memorize answers that they could not generate themselves since for Kant, morality requires individuals to use their own reason freely to determine and adopt maxims out of respect for the moral law itself. (Surprenant, 2010, p. 169)

in general. Political liberals argue that toleration should be basic principle of decision making processes in a democratic society. For instance, a law or regulation cannot be justified with reference to a specific comprehensive worldview such as a religion, ideology or doctrine. Since the goal of this paper is limited to the arguments of classical liberals and political liberals about the moral foundations of education, I do not go through arguments of political liberals in general.

In this part of the paper, I analyze specifically Stephen Macedo's perspective on education as a political liberal view. Macedo defines political liberalism as a neutral liberalism with respect to the ideals of life as a whole due to the reason that it does not rely on the justifiability of any particular comprehensive view of the truth (Macedo, 2000, p.179). In a parallel vein, and as a requirement of this neutrality, Macedo asserts that liberalism will reject in principle a public program that teaches one worldview as the true necessary road to truth. (Macedo, 2000, p.176) Thus, he claims that we should focus on shared civic virtues and values rather than promoting one comprehensive worldview such as a religious doctrine, secular humanism or atheism as the only way to truth.

What are those civic virtues and values? Certainly these are liberal values such as toleration for reasonable⁵ forms of diversity, respect for equal rights and liberties of all individuals and the importance of a critical attitude toward contending political claims. (Macedo, 2000, p.179) Promotion of these liberal values is acceptable for Macedo in educational institutions. However, the problem arises when autonomy as a core value is promoted because in his view, this would violate the principle of toleration.

The justification of political liberals regarding the exclusion of the promotion of autonomy in education is based on the claim that not all reasonable worldviews accept autonomy as a value for their lives. But values such as toleration and respect can be shared by all reasonable worldviews. These public moral principles can have a mutually acceptable and convincing rationale for all reasonable diverse ways of living. In this manner, it is assumed that autonomy constitutes a too demanding requirement for certain forms of life especially religious and traditionalist forms of life. (Macedo, 2000, p.167) The expectation that individuals should act autonomously in religious matters would mean to impose the view that individuals should adopt religious beliefs only after a critical reflection. However, this requirement conflicts with the morality of many religious beliefs and traditional life styles. Unconditional belief and acceptance are the major requirements of almost all religions. Thus, Macedo argues that critical moral autonomy claims more than we should want to claim on behalf of our political order since promotion of autonomy would exclude most forms of life that do not value autonomy as their core moral principle. (Macedo, 2000, p.167)

It can be argued that as long as public justification of laws and decisions in political order are concerned, Macedo's argument is sound. Political liberalism is right in warning us against the intolerance of the imposition of a comprehensive value such as autonomy on others who do not value autonomy as a moral ideal in a political order. Imposition of one worldview is morally wrong and illegitimate because in a democratic regime, all citizens are equal in sharing political power and that exclusion of certain citizens due to their moral views is in conflict with the premise of democracy. However, in the educational policies and regulations,

⁵ The concept of reasonableness is first developed by John Rawls. By referring to Rawls, Macedo points out that reasonableness is characterized by a commitment to two basic virtues. First, he says, reasonable citizens abide by fair terms of cooperation provided that others do the same. This means citizens should be ready to propose principles that can be willingly accepted by other citizens. Second, he says, citizens should be willing to acknowledge the fact of reasonable pluralism. That is to say, citizens should know that reasonable people might disagree profoundly over their conceptions of good. (Macedo, 2000, p. 171).

promotion of autonomy as a moral value is necessary and even inevitable as long as we commit ourselves to a liberal civic life.⁶ In this regard, it can be claimed that in the realm of education, promotion of autonomy is a requirement of democratic education.

Democratic education has to promote autonomy as a value for two reasons. First, treating children with moral respect requires the promotion of autonomy. Children are not only members of their families but also at the same time they are individuals who have the right to evaluate their own goals in life and have the capacity to choose and live a life which they think fit their own conceptions of good. In order to consider children (students) as individuals who are in need of developing the capacity to choose for themselves, we need to accept that promotion of autonomy as a value (at least in the minimal sense of developing self-critical capacity and reflection) is inevitable and necessary in education.

Second, it is impossible to develop the capacity to deliberate in children without helping them to improve their reasoning autonomously. In a democratic society, it is the institutions of public education that aim to raise citizens. Democracy is about public deliberation, providing reasonable arguments and evaluating the other's opinion from a critical and rational point of view. In this sense, raising citizens, at the same time, means educating future deliberators that will contribute to democratic politics. Democratic education should aim to develop capacities of deliberation and this requires to develop the capacities of self-critical reflection and critical inquiry. That is to say, developing the capacity of autonomous thinking and reflection are among the principle components of democratic education.

For the reasons outlined above, Macedo has to welcome autonomy from the back door even though he insists that promoting autonomy in education is not the goal of political liberalism.⁷ We can find the traces of this welcoming even in Macedo's own arguments concerning liberal education. For instance, Macedo contends that

“Civic liberalism will insist that children learn that the freedom to choose is the birthright of every citizen of a liberal political community: that they are right holders and that as adults they may leave oppressive associations and relationships without losing their status as equal citizens. Children must at the

6 Here, in a similar fashion, Eamon Callan addresses that the distinction between comprehensive liberalism and political liberalism fails in the realm of education. But his argument is different than mine: in my view, the distinction between two liberalisms has some relevance in the realm of the public justification of laws unlike the realm of education. On the other hand, Callan claims that the distinction between two liberalisms is mistaken and illusory in general and we can see this in the convergent educational implications of the two liberalisms. The fact that Macedo has to invite autonomy from the back door is a proof of Callan's thesis. Callan draws our attention to whether and how the acceptance of burdens of judgment can be encouraged in children among the families whom it has yet to develop. He rightly asserts that the families will try to raise their children on the basis of their ethical doctrines, motivated by their desire to perpetuate their own deepest values in the lives of their children. (Callan, 1996, p. 16).

7 Amy Gutman claims that comprehensive and political liberalism are not much different when looked from the premises they rely on. Both liberalisms aim to persuade close-minded citizens to respect reasonable opposition and for achieving this end, they can accept to teach deliberation, mutual respect and toleration at the same time. She also argues that both liberalisms can also reply to the critique that their conception of civic education wrongly restricts diversity. Teaching toleration, mutual respect and deliberation supports diversity but at the same time autonomy and individuality. (Gutman, April 1995, p. 579)

very least be provided with the intellectual tools necessary to understand the world around them, formulate their own convictions, and make their own way in life.” (Macedo, 2000, pp.238-239)

Macedo accepts that children should learn that they have a right to autonomy in the sense of choosing their own way of living.

Furthermore, Macedo contends that critical thinking is an important quality of citizens in a democracy. He claims that a basic aim of civic education is to develop the ability of critical reflection in children for the sake of honoring shared principles of liberal justice and equal rights for all. (Macedo, 2000, p. 239)⁸ The ability of critical thinking and reflection presupposes a capacity to reason independently of the external authorities and impositions. Put simply, in the view of Macedo, developing the ability to reason autonomously is accepted as a significant goal of political liberal education.

Democratic Education

In the previous section of the paper, I demonstrated that even though political liberalism wishes to do away with the concept of autonomy in the realm of education, it is not capable of doing this for certain reasons. By focusing on the theory of Macedo on education, I stated that political liberalism has to welcome autonomy from the back door as long as it is committed to the civic liberal principles such as equal rights and liberties for all. Autonomy in the sense of the ability to choose on the basis of critical reflection regarding the right and the good is an inevitable and necessary qualification that should be developed to raise democratic citizens who are committed to liberal values.

Relying only on toleration as a moral foundation in education will not help us to raise citizens who are capable of democratic deliberation and reason giving in the public political realm. In other words, toleration alone cannot provide a strong enough ground for raising citizens who are capable of critical reflection but at the same time emphatic towards diversity. Promotion of autonomy in the sense of developing the capacity to critical reflection is an essential prerequisite for democratic education. For this reason, democratic education is a liberal education by definition and as a matter of principle. However, this does not mean that only autonomy should be promoted as a core value. Rather, other values such as toleration and respect should be supported as moral values too along with autonomy through democratic education.

In this paper, I share the motivation of Amy Gutman who claims that our concern for democratic education is related to our commitment to democracy. (Gutman, 1987, p.289) That is to say, democratic education aims to raise good citizens who are the principle actors of democratic deliberation. This view prioritizes political education over other types of public education since the aim of political education is to cultivate the virtues, knowledge, and skills necessary for political participation.⁹ “Political education prepares citizens to participate in

⁸ In a similar vein, in another text, Macedo asserts that it is very important for liberal constitutionalism to educate individuals and shape communities in ways that are congruent with liberalism. (Macedo, 1995, p. 236). This implies that democratic education means educating citizens in a manner that they can develop their abilities for liberal democratic deliberation. Critical reflection and autonomous reasoning are at the core of these abilities of democratic deliberation which should be developed.

⁹ Amy Gutman rightly points out that the skills of political reflection cannot be clearly differentiated from the skills of evaluating one’s own way of life. She claims that this is an important reason why civic education is so demanding and threatening to some ways of life. Civic education might open the door for students to criticize their parents’ way of living and the traditions and values of their families.

consciously reproducing their society, and conscious social reproduction is the ideal not only of democratic education but also of democratic politics.” (Gutman, 1987, p.287).

If we reason in line with Gutman, we have to contend that autonomy in the sense of critical reflection should be considered as one of the core values of democratic education. Without the promotion of autonomy, it seems impossible to cultivate the virtues, skills and knowledge necessary for political participation. Political participation requires self- reflection and criticism as well as critical inquiry of other’s argument and opinions. Moreover, it requires a developed capacity of judgment and reason giving for the justification of one’s opinion or standpoint regarding public matters. Therefore, a developed capacity of autonomy in the sense of choosing on the basis of critical reflection about what is right and the good is a necessary component of public political deliberation. Democratic education has to help students to develop their capacity of autonomy in order to contribute raising democratic citizens.

Toleration and respect are other values that can be promoted along with autonomy in a democratic educational system. Toleration -refraining from intervention with a practice or way of living that we consider morally wrong- is necessary for peaceful coexistence in a democratic society but it is not enough if we commit ourselves to sustaining and reproducing a democratic civic culture. Toleration might have non-principled justifications such as serving the self-interest of the tolerator or consequences such as contributing peace. However, for a civic democratic culture to reproduce itself, children should have an insight on moral and principled justifications for why we should put up with others who think and live differently from them.

I agree with Amy Gutman on the claim that the most basic premise of democratic education is to raise students with the consciousness of respect for all individuals as free and equal citizens. Here, the meaning of respect should be thought together with recognition too: “Democratic education supports a “politics of recognition” based on respect for individuals and their equal rights as citizens, not on deference to tradition, proportional representation of groups, or the survival rights of cultures.” (Gutman, 1987, p.306) Respect is a value concerning the equal moral status of all individuals but not equal moral status of all traditions and cultures. Saying this does not mean to ignore the value of traditions and cultures for the realization of different ways of living. However, cultures and traditions should be evaluated on the basis of the way they treat individuals. There can be specific cultures that do not respect all individuals as equal and free citizens and we should have the freedom to criticize them. Furthermore, the principle of reciprocity demands mutual respect for the personal integrity of all persons. (Gutman, 1987, p.308)

Cultivating mutual respect requires developing hermeneutical understanding as a quality in students regarding their judgment about diversity. Understanding people in their own particularity and way of living should precede acceptance or rejection of a certain way of living. (Gutman, 1987, p.309) Understanding has important contributions for the reproduction of civic public culture. First of all, it will help students to reason and judge by means emphatic approach rather than a crude judgmental one. Furthermore, “understanding opens up previously unknown or misunderstood ways of living and the relationship of those ways of living to politics and public life. Such understanding enriches students’ store of civic knowledge.” (Gutman, 1987, p.309).

Emphatic reasoning and hermeneutical understanding as components of democratic education are compatible with cosmopolitanism too. Cosmopolitanism requires one to be able to sustain a certain level of distance towards one’s own culture and way of living which

That is to say it is not possible to separate the political quality of critical reflection from personal critical reflection. (Gutman, 1995, p. 578)

will help to build up empathy towards individuals from other cultures that are different than the culture of one's own country. The ability to sustain a self-critical cognitive distance towards one's own culture is a necessary step before developing empathy and understanding towards other cultures.

Furthermore, democratic education and cosmopolitanism are compatible with respect to the moral foundation that they both rely on. As Amy Gutman puts it rightly: "Teaching consistently with a moral perspective of democracy means treating students—and expecting students to treat each other and to consider individuals around the world—as having the moral status of civic equals. Democratic education, by virtue of its moral commitment to the equal dignity and civic equality of all individuals, therefore, is conducive to cultivating egalitarian cosmopolitans," (Gutman, 1987, pp.311-312) In this sense, both democratic education and cosmopolitanism are committed to the moral premise that all individuals have equal moral status regardless of their local identities. Although Gutman is reluctant in equating democratic education with cosmopolitan education straightforwardly, I think, democratic education, as a matter of principle, is cosmopolitan since the commitment to the equal moral status of all individuals as free and equal citizens demands a commitment to human dignity regardless of any concern to local identities.¹⁰

Conclusion

In this paper, I intended to answer the question whether democratic education has to be a liberal education and if so, on what grounds. To answer this question, I focused on a debate within liberalism regarding the moral relevance of promotion of autonomy in education. The debate between classical/comprehensive liberalism and political liberalism was analyzed critically to reflect on the moral grounds of civic education.

First, I focused on classical liberalism and specifically Immanuel Kant's conception of education. I analyzed on what grounds Kantian philosophy defends autonomy as a moral principle in education. I addressed that on a Kantian view, although autonomy is presupposed as a property of human will in every rational being, education is necessary for the development of the capacity of autonomy. In line with this, it is stated that in a classical liberal account of education, students are assisted in learning and developing to use their capacity of autonomy.

Second, I examined on what grounds political liberals criticize classical liberals regarding the promotion of autonomy and whether their criticism is sustainable. I addressed that according to political liberalism, promotion of autonomy means imposition of one worldview on others who do not value autonomy. Particularly, I examined Stephen Macedo's argument on education that is based on the promotion of civic political values such as toleration towards all reasonable worldviews and equal liberties and rights for all. I argued Macedo has to welcome autonomy from the back door for two main reasons. First, the moral requirement to treat children as beings that deserve respect on their own regardless of their familial membership is a reason for the promotion of autonomy. Children are not only members of their families but they are also individuals who have the right to develop their capacity of free choice among various ways of life. Second, I claimed that children are potential future political deliberators in the public realm in a democratic regime and in order to learn deliberation and critical reflection, they need to develop their capacity to reason autonomously.

¹⁰ Gutman thinks that democratic education and egalitarian cosmopolitanism are compatible but, it is not the primary goal of democratic education to cultivate egalitarian cosmopolitans. Gutman claims that: "There are multiple ways of being attached to people that are compatible with a democratic commitment to treating all individuals as civic equals. Egalitarian cosmopolitanism is one of those ways." (Gutman, 1987, pp. 311-312)

I demonstrated that Macedo's argument about autonomy is not sustainable and that we can support the promotion of autonomy as well as toleration and respect. In other words, I claimed that promotion of toleration alone cannot serve raising democratic citizens and that is why, political liberal claim about doing away with the promotion of autonomy in education is not sustainable if we want to remain committed to the democratic ideal of raising citizens.

I referred to Amy Gutman's perspective on democratic education which prioritizes political education over other types of education to contemplate on the values and principles that democratic education should promote. In this sense, I considered political education as education that aims to teach students the basic skills, virtues and knowledge necessary for political participation. Political participation requires self- reflection and criticism as well as critical inquiry of other's argument and opinions. Therefore, a developed capacity of autonomy in the sense of choosing on the basis of critical reflection about what is right and the good is a necessary component of public political deliberation.

I emphasized that toleration is another value that should be promoted in democratic education along with autonomy. However, toleration- in the sense of putting up with something we find morally wrong- is not enough for the development and continuity of civic democratic culture. Children should have an insight on moral and principled justifications for why we should put up with others who think and live differently from them.

Finally, I qualified that respect can provide a good moral ground for children to understand and value diversity. Respect is considered as a value concerning the equal moral status of all individuals but not equal moral status of all traditions and cultures. This means traditions, cultures and ways of living deserve recognition as long as they treat individuals as equal and free citizens.

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Flip The Page: Reinvigorating Literature in the Classroom through Flipped Learning

Eric James Beyer,
School of Foreign Languages,
MEF University,
Turkey
beyere@mef.edu.tr

Jonathan Mark Day,
School of Foreign Languages,
MEF University,
Turkey
dayj@mef.edu.tr

Abstract

Flipped Learning is a new educational approach which supports the pedagogical needs of today's students. In the Flipped approach, instructors make content available to students before class through web-based technologies, allowing for student-centered lessons. Following a Flipped approach on our literature course, literature texts were provided to students prior to class, leaving class-time free for discussion. Though effective, the design was instructor-centric. On the second course, aiming for a student-centric approach, students posted thematic artifacts onto a digital platform prior to class, and then shared their choices in class. Having tried two approaches, we wanted to compare the different classes' experiences. To do this, the following questions arose: Does providing student choice in material selection affect feelings of ownership and autonomy?; In which approach do students feel most engaged before class?; In which approach do students feel most prepared for class?; To answer these questions, data from student focus groups and end-of-semester student surveys were compared. Based on data comparison, we identified that in the second approach the students perceived higher levels of student ownership, autonomy, engagement, and preparedness. These results form the basis of how the next course can be adapted to further enhance students' learning experience.

Keywords: Generation Y and Z, Web-based Technologies, Collaborative Learning Environment, Case Study, MEF University, Student Autonomy

Background

Our research takes place at MEF University, in Istanbul, Turkey. MEF is the first fully Flipped university in the world. Every course at MEF, from the English Language Preparatory Program (ELPP) to all faculty courses, are Flipped. The Flipped Learning Network defines Flipped Learning as "a pedagogical approach in which direct instruction moves from the group learning space to the individual learning space, and the resulting group space is transformed into a dynamic, interactive learning environment where the educator guides students as they apply concepts and engage creatively in the subject matter" ("Flipped Learning Network," 2015). The main tenets of Flipped Learning are as follows. Instruction moves from being instructor-led to student-led. The instructor is no longer a "sage on the

stage” but “a guide on the side” (King, 1993). Instructors provide content to students in the form of videos or digital materials via web-based technologies. This frees up class time for students to be actively involved in practically applying that content and also allows the students to become ‘producers of knowledge, not consumers of knowledge’ (Editors, 2013).

MEF has embraced Flipped Learning as the sole institutional, educational approach, as it believes the Flipped approach supports the pedagogical needs of today’s Generation Y students and the Generation Z students of tomorrow. Today’s students have grown up in a digitally connected world. They use technology in their everyday lives, and are aware that they will be expected to competently use technology when they enter the workforce. They therefore expect their education to support this by incorporating these digital technologies into their programs and maximizing their educational benefits. Flipped Learning supports this need as it incorporates technologies into its approach. Another important aspect that today’s students face is that many of the jobs that exist today will not exist or will have been replaced by time students graduate. This means educational institutions can no longer prepare students for specific careers, they must teach them to be flexible to become and remain competitive in an unknown job market. Flipped Learning trains students to deal with this uncertainty, as it requires students to continually address what they know, their level of skills and competencies and what they need to do to develop these. In other words, it trains them to be autonomous learners who are flexible and adaptable to change. Finally, Flipped Learning can help to address the chasm that has appeared in the global employment market. This chasm has appeared through the erosion of middle-class jobs (Brynjolfsson & McAfee, 2014) meaning growth is occurring at the very top of the employment market where entrepreneurial skills are required, and at the bottom where there is a growing need for lower paid service industry workers (Auerswald, 2012). This has led to “a new economy (which) favors highly skilled, highly educated workers” (Zhao, 2015: 130). However, industries at the top end of the market are currently struggling to find suitable candidates for these jobs which has led to the creation of a global talent shortage (Zhao, 2015: 131). Flipped Learning can help train graduates in the skills needed to fill this talent shortage as it encourages critical thinking, creativity, entrepreneurship, problem-solving and active involvement in developing real-life projects. Flipped Learning enables institutions to graduate the innovative and entrepreneurial employees that today’s industries so desperately need.

English Literature

That brings us to the story of how we developed a Flipped literature course. While students moving from ELPP to faculty have all achieved an intermediate level of English, it emerged that many felt a need for additional support to improve their English in order to feel comfortable studying in the fully English-medium environment required in their faculty courses. In order to meet this need, instructors in the School of Foreign Languages were approached with a request to develop elective courses in areas of special interest that students wishing to continue to improve their English could take. Based on our backgrounds in the field, we felt literature could provide an ideal conduit for students to develop their English, enabling them to develop their critical thinking skills while contemplating literature in the context of issues relevant to their lives.

Literature, by definition, requires personal and analytical engagement. It challenges those who engage meaningfully with it to think critically and question perceived norms. It also asks that individuals assert themselves in this process - that they acknowledge their self in relation to the text and the points it is making. Literature, therefore, even in the most classic educational setting, already contains the key elements of Flipped Learning. Students read and research texts prior to class in preparation to engage in critical debate and discussion with their peers in the classroom. We therefore felt that it would be relatively simple to take a Flipped approach on our literature course; literary texts would be provided for students to

read prior to class, then the practical connections to the world in which we live would be evaluated and analyzed in the actual lesson.

Design of the First Course

As we had been approached to develop a course based on students' desire to continue developing their English in their first year of faculty, we decided that the aim of the course should be to provide students with the linguistic skills necessary to succeed in their undergraduate studies; mostly speaking, but also listening, reading, and writing skills relevant to broad range of subject areas. We therefore decided to design the course so that listening, reading, and writing activities would be carefully chosen to generate and complement speaking activities. We felt this would help the students become more confident, independent, and experienced speakers of English. Due to the students wishing to further develop their English to prepare them better for faculty, the following learning outcomes were written. Upon successful completion of the course, we expected our students to be able to: 1) engage in and contribute meaningfully to formal debates; utilize the skills of active listening, polite interruption/interjection, and turn taking; and bring a debate to a close, 2) research, plan and produce academic opinion essays including formatting, citation, cohesive devices, discourse markers, 3) research, plan and produce presentations, and field post-presentation questions effectively. Once the learning outcomes had been identified, we moved on to investigate which content to include. With the course aim and learning outcomes in place, next we moved on to the course design. We wanted to design the course in a way which would enable students to develop their linguistic skills while exploring and analyzing a range of literature, so that each week, students would engage with several different types of texts/materials (book excerpts, poems, song lyrics, articles) covering topics fundamental to the world we live in today. The students would read the texts before class, then summarise and break down the themes, critique and discuss them, and finally produce pieces of writing to show how well they had understood those themes. In order to create a cohesive design for the course, we felt the best way to organize the literature was through a variety of lenses. We therefore decided that units would have a thematic focus ('War', 'Politics and Power', 'Women's Rights', etc...). Deciding on these themes was a difficult task in that the sheer breadth of the history of literature at times appeared daunting. Eventually, we decided to settle on those themes we felt were most universal across varying cultures and historical eras. Once we had the themes in mind, we had to decide on the approach within those themes. After deciding on the actual excerpts and literary pieces we would use, we uploaded them to the university LMS (Blackboard) in folders labelled according to theme. Students would read the pieces and complete tasks prior to class. These tasks would range from answering discussion questions (which would be further explored in class later), researching vocabulary, and brainstorming potential meanings of passages. The next stage was to decide how to assess students' achievement of the learning outcomes. Due to the thematic nature of the units, we decided that the most appropriate approach would be to assess the students throughout the course on their verbal skills, written skills and participation. The following assessment structure was therefore developed.

Table 1. *Assessment structure for the Understanding Literature, Understanding Life Course*

Essay	Comparing a single theme or idea in two themes in two or more texts from the syllabus), (500-750 words, to be handed in by the end of Week 4). Students will be assessed on a) essay structure (correct construction of the 5 paragraphs), b) appropriate style for quoting long and short passages of text, c) tone and style (formal, distanced, little to no use of 'I'), e) word count (500-750 words).	25%
Oral Presentation	Argumentative. Students will be assessed on a) use of rhetoric: questions, refutation, balance (while I agree with A, B is not right), b) use of supporting ideas/quotes from texts studied c) delivery (pauses, stress, speed etc.), d) dialogue, unplanned responses during Q & A e) timekeeping.	50%
Weekly in-class debate	Students will be assessed on a) ability to present a coherent argument during discussion using appropriate introduction phrases, b) ability to interrupt politely using phrases taught on the course, c) how clearly they verbalise agreement/disagreement through the use of target phrases, d) how well they listen actively to others, showing interest, doubt, agreement etc., and e) being able to ask for clarification as and when necessary.	15%
Class Participation	Based on a rubric - some weeks instructor graded, other weeks self or peer graded.	10%

We learned a great deal from the first run of the course. The students had taken very well to the autonomy and engagement that the Flipped approach had afforded them. However, after taking a closer look at the course, analyzing the end of semester student satisfaction survey, and sharing our reflections with various colleagues on the matter, we realized that we could do more to truly Flip our course. So, the challenge that remained for us was to find how we could better apply the Flipped methodology to get students learning on their own terms, with their own contributions, to an even greater degree through the passion and knowledge they had clearly demonstrated. Although students had engaged in meaningful ways with the themes and content of the first course, we wanted to explore ways in which learners would have more control over the content and direction of the course, thus increasing their autonomy and, as a result, meaningful engagement and sense of ownership.

Design of the Second Course

When designing the second course, we decided to revisit the tenets of Flipped Learning regarding utilizing web-based technologies, taking a student-centered approach, and encouraging high levels of autonomy and enquiry. In order to meet these tenets, we wanted to find a way in which we could combine the digital platforms that our students use in their everyday lives with a more student-centered, autonomous approach that would encourage them to become producers of knowledge on the course, not simply consumers as had happened on the first course. Therefore, we decided to take the following approach. We would give students the theme for the two-week period, but instead of immediately providing them with texts, we would ask them to find a relevant digital artifact (a poem, an

image, a song) and upload the artifact onto a shared digital platform. This would provide a student-driven space for students to share their artifacts, their ideas and raise questions at the start of each thematic unit. The literary text would only be introduced after the students had been actively involved in developing themes and ideas at the start of each unit. Padlet emerged as a natural candidate to provide the social space in which students could share their ideas. Padlet is a website that functions as a digital display board onto which students can post a range of media (pictures, videos, texts, other documents) to express themselves. Critically, it is a shared, collaborative space for learners to engage with each other and the material, free from the direction of the instructor. The only limit we placed on student contributions was that they needed to be connected in some way to the upcoming literary theme. While the Padlet boards were driven by students, they were monitored by the instructors in order to give us the opportunity to implement Just-In-Time Teaching, a strategy developed by Gregory Novak and colleagues (Marrs & Novak 2004). In this approach, students are given pre-class tasks through an online medium that instructors can observe in real-time. Instructors can then modify the upcoming lesson based on the materials that students provide. After having decided to do this, we felt it appropriate to alter the assessment structure by changing the percentage of the overall course grade, thereby incentivizing and indicating the importance of pre-class participation. To do this, we moved 10% of the final grade from the final oral presentation and allocated it to students' Padlet contributions.

The Research

It quickly became clear to us that the course, over time, had evolved and changed in significant and sometimes unexpected ways. We therefore wanted to take a closer look at exactly what these changes were and how they affected our learning outcomes and the student experience.

We had designed the first course in such a way that followed a traditional approach to literature instruction, whereby introduction of materials was chosen and directed by the instructor. On the second course, we had added more student-driven elements as well as collaborative software in order to increase student involvement and autonomy. While our impression was that we had improved autonomy and student-centeredness, we wanted to check this against what the students were saying. The following research questions therefore arose: Does providing student choice in material selection affect student's sense of ownership and autonomy?; In which approach do students feel most engaged prior to class?; In which approach do students feel most prepared for class?. In order to answer these questions, the following data were compared between the first and second courses. Firstly, to hear what the students were saying, qualitative data from student focus groups was collected. In addition, quantitative data was collected from end-of-semester student surveys in which students were asked to respond to questions by indicating their response on a scale from 'strongly agree', 'agree', 'disagree' or 'strongly disagree'. Data presented in the analysis of results represents the 'strongly agree/agree' responses. This data is available upon request.

Analysis of Results

Based on the focus groups, it became clear that students from the first course did not feel they had much ownership over the course or the materials used. When asked how much input or effect they had on the materials used, students responded by saying things like, "I felt I didn't have much control." (MEF University Student, 2015). Students from the second run of the course, however, had a different attitude, responding with, "The teachers didn't just say, 'We are going to do this'. They gave us options," (MEF University Student, 2015) and,

"I'm doing the materials the teacher gives, it's not a problem, because we have freedom to speak our minds." (MEF University Student, 2015).

Student autonomy was one of the areas in which we saw another change from course one to course two. When we asked students if they had engaged with materials before class on their own, students from the first course responded with sentences such as, "Not really," (MEF University Student, 2015) and, "A little." (MEF University Student, 2015). In the second focus group, however, students responded differently, saying, "In my view, student-centered classes should be like the literature course is - the debates and discussions let us talk a lot and express ourselves. In class, everyone talks, and there is a connection between the students." (MEF University Student, 2015). This was also seen in the end-of-semester survey with 91% of students (32 out of 35 respondents) saying the course enabled them to express their own ideas; this increased to 95% (10 out of 11 respondents) in the second course.

Students from both courses felt that the pre-class activities and materials helped prepare them for lessons. For example, students who took the course in the first semester said, "It helped," (MEF University Student, 2015) and, "We read them, but we just talked about if we liked the literature or not." (MEF University Student, 2015). Students from the second course, however, responded more definitively, saying, "The activities helped prepare us because it was really important to read before class, otherwise it was hard to understand during the lesson. It's very useful," (MEF University Student, 2015) and, "It was fun and it helped to look at them before class." (MEF University Student, 2015).

When asked how much they had engaged with the pre-class materials, students from the first course responded from "not at all" to "a little" to "some" (MEF University Students, 2015). However, in the second course, a great difference could be seen. One student said, "I think Padlet is good for debating because we see other people's ideas about the subject." (MEF University Student, 2015). Other students responses were even more positive, including one student who responded with, "I often do some research before the class. I think it's useful to make the lesson more efficient. It's just one or two pages long. When I do that before the lesson, it helps me to figure out how to understand the topic. It enlightens me." (MEF University Student, 2015). Being actively involved in the pre-class process may also have facilitated in students' understanding of what was required of them prior to class, with 91% of students (32 out of 35 respondents) from the first course responding that they found it easy to understand what activities they needed to complete before class in contrast to 100% of students (11 out of 11 respondents) in the second course. These results and perceptions provide evidence to support our assumptions that the shift from instructor-chosen materials to student-chosen materials increases students' sense of ownership and autonomy in the course, their engagement with pre-class materials, clarity on what is required of them, and preparedness for class.

Discussion

Now in the second semester of our second year, we have experienced first hand the benefits and pitfalls of 'Flipping' the classroom. We believe there are definite advantages to the Flipped approach, not least its insistence that learners play an active role in not only what, but also *how* they learn. Of course, any learning methodology must take into account the unique characteristics that define the culture and educational background of the students within it. We believe that what this means is, though it is an ostensibly broad approach that has the potential to alter the educational landscape, the methodology has to be implemented mindfully, remembering that a successful learning experience is always the ultimate goal.

One of the goals we had in mind after the end of the first run of the course was to give students a greater say in directing the content and direction of the course. In fact, this is exactly what occurred. Padlet clearly opened a vein for students to speak their minds and take control of their learning to a greater degree. Perhaps the most happy of our realizations was that, when given this opportunity, they absolutely took advantage of it. Oftentimes, we threw out entire lesson plans that we had prepared in favor of what the students had provided on Padlet and went in a direction that was entirely student-driven.

This tells us a number of things, and leads us into a discussion of educational context. As students in many educational settings have often lamented, too frequently does the learning process rely on rote memorization of facts and test-based approaches. It is clear that imposing these kinds of environments on learners has the opposite effect to what is desired; student interest levels drop, comprehensive understanding falters, and learning - one of life's greatest joys - suffers terribly, becoming just another chore to surpass as quickly as possible. Worse, it becomes viewed as unnecessary. There must be room for inspiration in and outside of the classroom, for this is a key element to the learning process. Happily, our experience has shown that, when you give students the opportunity to produce content, to actively engage in what is happening in the classroom, to take responsibility for their learning - even when they are unaccustomed to having such autonomy - they will take full advantage of it.

Furthermore, applying the Flipped learning methodology to any course raises a number of interesting questions, not the least of which addresses the very nature of Flipped itself and its aims. The whole point of Flipped Learning is to empower the learner, to give them more autonomy and a greater degree of personalization in their education. But we must go further and ask, to what end? Why? As educators, we need to address the question of why we educate ourselves and our children. Is it only to survive economically? Yes, partially, but it is also much more. Human beings are naturally curious - we crave learning. In no uncertain terms, a healthy, holistic education that emphasizes the humanities as well as the sciences, is one way to prevent, as David Foster Wallace says, "...going through your comfortable, prosperous, respectable adult life dead, unconscious, a slave to your head and to your natural default setting of being uniquely, completely, imperially alone day in and day out" (Wallace, 2009).

Perhaps the best way to sum up what we feel was the intellectual and educational focus and success of the literature course is the following quote from a student: "Maybe this problem isn't unique for our country but, many people don't read in Turkey, not much anyway. The literature class provided us with some opportunities we haven't had before - as you know this lesson provided some ability in us. I liked the debates - I think this was the most useful activity in our lesson. Everyone talked and gave their opinions. We could change their ideas, or we could change ours." (MEF University Student, 2015).

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Just One More Hit: Student Engagement with Pre-Class Videos in the Evolution of an English for Academic Purposes Course from Traditional to Flipped

Joshua Shannon-Chastain

Faculty Academic English Coordinator,

MEF University,

Turkey,

shannonj@mef.edu.tr

Caroline Fell Kurban, PhD

Director of the Center for Excellence in Teaching and Learning,

MEF University,

Turkey,

kurbanc@mef.edu.tr

Abstract

The primary objective of this research is to use data gathered from a semester of a Flipped freshman English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course to examine our assumptions about Flipped Learning. To this end and to further improve the course, the following research questions emerged: How long is the optimal length of a video to capture students' attention?; Why are some videos viewed more than others?; Why do certain videos capture students' attention for longer?; Why do students engage in some online activities more than others?. To answer these questions, YouTube and Blackboard analytics were gathered from the second year EAP course and compared against students' perceptions in surveys and a focus group. Based on what we learnt, we asked ourselves: How can we adapt our Flipped courses to encourage the successful patterns of learning of our learners and discourage the unsuccessful patterns? Based on the analysis of outcomes, we have identified that our EAP Flipped best-practice theories are effective, and we have further developed best practices that lead to student success and removed those hindering progress. Based on these implications, a number of clear lessons have been learned that will be incorporated into future courses.

Keywords:MEF University, Web-based Technologies, Video Lectures, Online Engagement, Active Learning, Flipped Assessment, Flipped Best Practices

Background to the Study

Flipped Learning has emerged globally as an effective pedagogical approach for educating the Generation Y students of today and the Generation Z students of the 2020s and beyond. In 2013, MEF University was established with the vision of educating innovative and entrepreneurial global leaders to shape the future (“MEF University Vision and Mission,” 2016). In order to achieve this vision, the founder of MEF, Dr. İbrahim Arıkan, and the university rector, Prof. Dr. MuhammedŞahin, realized that the existing approach to tertiary education was outdated and not suited to the needs of today’s students, industries, economies or the digital environment. Only willing to establish the university if they could find an effective and innovative approach to education that would meet these needs, they undertook extensive research into learning pedagogies which eventually led them to embrace the Flipped Learning approach as their educational model.

Flipped Learning is not a new phenomenon; types of Flipped Learning have existed for a number of years. However, it is only now that all these ideas and approaches have been pulled together under the single title Flipped Learning that it is garnering more attention. The main pioneers behind the concept of Flipped Learning are Alison King who suggests instructors shift ‘From Sage on the Stage to Guide on the Side’ (King, 1993), Eric Mazur and his peer-instruction approach (Mazur, 1997), Maureen Lage, Glenn Platt and Michael Treglia’s ‘Inverted Classroom’ approach (Lage, Platt, &Treglia, 2000), Salman Khan’s Khan Academy with instructional videos (Khan, n.d.), and Jonathan Bergmann and Aaron Sams groundbreaking book ‘Flip Your Classroom: Reach Every Student in Every Class Every Day’ (Bergmann &Sams, 2012) which they followed up with by establishing the Flipped Learning Network (Bergmann &Sams, n.d.). It is the combination of all these ideas that creates the Flipped Learning approach. Flipped Learning differs from the traditional approach in the following ways. In the traditional approach, the lecturer is at the center of the educational experience, standing at the front of a lecture theatre acting as a disseminator of information. Students take notes, ask questions, remember and understand this information until later, while working without the support of their instructor or peers, they apply, analyze and evaluate that knowledge. However, this is neither an effective learning approach, nor the most effective use of the instructor or students’ time. It is also not how students will be expected to operate when they enter the employment market. In Flipped Learning these stages are reversed. Instructors prepare videos of the lesson content which students access and engage with prior to class. This means that class time is freed up for higher-level, student-centered, active learning where students are asked to use that knowledge practically.

The Evolution of the EAP Course over the First Two Semesters

In the first semester of MEF University opening, the English for Academic Purposes course was designed along the lines of a traditional EAP course. A course book was provided to all students and the course followed the progression of the learning outcomes in the book.

However, early into the course, the instructors started to question how it was justifiable to run a traditional course for the EAP students when the university believed in Flipped Learning as its learning approach and had promised students this would be the approach

used. The EAP instructors really wanted to Flip the course, but due to the course already having started, felt there was little time to make changes. The instructors also agreed that, although they were unhappy with the traditional book-based approach, the students had all been provided with the book and were therefore expecting to use it. While time constraints were recognized, there was some consensus from the EAP instructors that some changes needed to be made immediately before the lack of a Flipped approach on the EAP course became an issue with the students. In order to do this, the EAP instructors looked at the topics that the students were exposed to in the EAP book and tried to find videos related to these topics, then upload these to the university learning management system, Blackboard, for the students to view before class. The students then watched these videos prior to class and then in class undertook activities from the book related to theme of the videos. This shift meant that there was more of an image of Flipped Learning taking place, but realistically the approach was simply trying to shoehorn a traditional course-book-based course into something that looked like a Flipped model. When the instructors shared their thoughts about the semester, they expressed the following concerns. The EAP course had not really taken a Flipped approach, but there was some confusion over where to start, and that there was limited time to address this. There was some frustration that students weren't watching the videos before class and it was agreed that this was something that needed to be addressed in the course design in order to incentivize viewing. In addition, there was disappointment that class attendance was so low. Finally, instructors were picking up indications that as EAP is a mandatory course for all students the students just expected the instructors to pass them regardless. From this, it became clear that the students had a very traditional picture of assessment and did not prioritize the EAP course.

In the second semester, taking into consideration the lessons learnt from the first semester, the EAP team made the following changes. A continuous assessment model was implemented to try to increase student engagement with pre-class activities and increase attendance. Next, the instructors reviewed the materials. It was agreed that using a course book to structure the EAP course was not the best approach to Flipped Learning as it led to a more traditional approach and, in addition, the book didn't fully match the learning outcomes that had been identified. As a starting point, the instructors decided upon a set of topics that would interest and challenge the students, and, crucially, started designing their own videos and creating activities around these topics and learning outcomes. Along with other supporting videos (comedy clips, commercials, clips from TV shows), these videos were uploaded onto Blackboard in advance of class for the students to watch. In class, the students were asked to get involved in student-centered, practical activities, such as brainstorming, ranking, ordering, categorizing and discussing, all presented within the context of the chosen topic. The book was used as a resource for extra activities for students to do at home, but dropped in-class. The results at the end of the second semester were greatly improved, with a pass rate of 90%. This showed a better match between the expectations for the students' abilities and what they were being asked to achieve. The students expressed mixed feedback regarding the videos. Some said they enjoyed the videos, some said they didn't know if they were learning from the videos while, conversely, some students expressed that the videos were so informative that they learnt everything from them and therefore didn't need to come to class. Class attendance also arose as a point of contention. Some students expressed that they came to class regularly, unlike other students, and therefore felt that they should get extra credit for this. When the instructors

pointed out that there were lots of graded pop quizzes in class that effectively gave them points if they attended, the students responded that they didn't see it that way and that they felt it was unfair that they were not getting points for attendance. Regarding the instructors' reflections, it was noted that students joining the EAP course from the ELPP was a great advantage at the start of the second semester as these students were used to the concept of the Flipped Learning approach, unlike those who had started immediately in faculty. The EAP instructors felt there had been varying success with the 24 videos they had made and also with the supporting videos; some had proven engaging for the students, others not so. This led the instructors to question what aspects made a video engaging for students. Based on an analysis of YouTube data it was determined that shorter videos, 3-6 minutes, and humorous and entertaining videos were the key to student engagement with the pre-class materials.

Preparing for semester three over the summer of 2015, the instructors reached the decision that continuing with a book was not the best option. It was felt it would be more beneficial to revisit the learning outcomes as the starting point for planning the course and then create course materials from scratch. With these issues in mind, the Faculty Academic English Coordinator rewrote the course aims and learning outcomes and worked to develop authentic materials for the course. Newspaper articles, film clips, adverts, and images were used to create a rich and authentic context for learning. In addition, new videos were made by the team to introduce and support the learning outcomes. By this stage, the videos were more sophisticated, better edited, and included additional aspects such as in-video links, added text, titles, headers, and additional information. In addition, the videos were made a lot more humorous as this was assumed to increase students' engagement. Another crucial change in the approach to course design in semester three involved revisiting the assessment structure to address some of the issues that had come up regarding online participation, class attendance and participation, and students' perception that exams were more important than other types of assessment. Now, instead of just watching videos prior to class, students had to complete post-video online quizzes, the total of which was 24% of their overall course grade. This was planned with the aim of increasing online participation before class. These were treated as formative assessments; the tests could be taken as many times as the students wished with only the highest grade being recorded. The aim was to encourage students to re-watch the videos if they had not understood and then take the quiz again to improve their score. The rest of the assessment structure was based on units of study, as opposed to mid-semester and end of semester assessments. Finally, regarding the lessons, additional class activities were developed that involved the students reviewing the content of the pre-class videos, playing games and doing activities that practiced discreet components of the content. In addition, instructors made sure students were involved in student-directed group activities that focused on the skills students need in their academic lives. The aim of the lessons was for students to have the opportunity to work towards the learning outcomes, but also for them to have fun, direct activities themselves, share their opinions, and develop their critical thinking skills and ability to express their ideas at undergraduate level.

By the end of the first year, the approach to the design of the English for Academic Purposes course had gradually evolved from a traditional course into a Flipped course. However, this evolution was based mostly on assumptions we had built from informal observations and student feedback. Therefore, it was decided in the second year, that formal research would

be undertaken to ascertain whether these assumptions were correct. The EAP course could then be improved based on the results that emerged.

Research Method

The research questions that had arisen from our assumptions were as follows: How long is the optimal length of a video to capture students' attention?; Why are some videos viewed more than others?; Why do certain videos capture students' attention for longer?; Why do students engage in some online activities more than others?. In order to answer these questions, a combined quantitative and qualitative approach was taken. Macro-quantitative data were collected from the Blackboard grade center including students' grades for online participation and their overall course grade. This macro view of grade data ensured anonymity for students. Macro-quantitative data were also collected from YouTube Analytics including: length of videos; average number of views per video; and average length of view per video. To hear what the students were saying, quantitative data was collected from mid-semester student surveys and end-of-semester student surveys and qualitative data was collected from a student focus group. After the Blackboard data and YouTube data were collated, these were analyzed against what the students were saying in the surveys to see if students' perceptions of what they were doing on the course correlated with what they were doing in practice. Finally, the outcomes of this analysis were evaluated and recommendations for revisions to the EAP course for the third academic year were made.

For purpose of this paper while the integrity of the data from Blackboard and YouTube is unassailable, it has proved so compressive that an attempt to provide it in this paper, even in an appendix, is unmanageable. Therefore, any and all data is available upon request.

Analysis of Results

Based on an analysis of Blackboard data and YouTube analytics the following observations were made. Students were most likely to participate in pre-class activities the day prior to the class. As our classes were Mondays and Wednesdays data from Blackboard and YouTube show the most engagement on Sundays and Tuesdays. Mondays and Wednesdays were about half of the preceding, with Thursday, Friday, and Saturday showing the absolute lowest levels of student online engagement. Based on YouTube analytics we can see that 69% of videos were watched on a desktop or laptop, 23% on a tablet, and 9 % on a mobile device. Interestingly, students who used tablets watched videos almost 10% more than on a PC.

There were around 500 active students in the EAP course and on average each pre-class video and associated quiz was completed by 81% of students. As these students were drawn from all of the faculties of the university, events and exams affecting particular faculties led to variances in which students did the pre-class tasks. It should be noted that while events like midterms in other classes did radically affect attendance, online participation was not nearly so affected.

Students accessed pre-class videos exclusively through Blackboard. Therefore, it is unlikely that students watched videos without doing the associated quiz afterwards. In other words,

students logged on to Blackboard with the intent to complete all pre-class tasks, there was no disconnect between content and activity. This is confirmed based on a comparison of number of video views to number of students who attempted the quiz. For example, the video and associated quiz “Find the perfect Source” was made available on Sunday October the 11th, the pre-class task was due 9am on Wednesday October the 14th. 427 students submitted the quiz. During this same time period the video received 463 views. The greater number of views to number of quiz submission can be explained as individual students watching the video more than once. This is further verified by the fact that the video’s average view duration and average percentage viewed was higher than the video length (2.15 minutes) and percentage itself, 2.49 minutes and 115.64% respectively. This shows that students not only watched the video more than once, but also re-watched sections of the video multiple times. Whether this was due to the quiz related to that video, or the video itself being challenging, or both, is unknown. However, it is important to note that this trend is not collective among videos, some videos were not watched multiple times, nor did all videos have high scrubbing rates. The reason for this is unknown, but we would speculate that the difficulty level of the video and/or associated quiz would be a primary factor in this. This issue will be a key component of future research, however we can confirm from the data that humor plays no role in students’ engagement with a video.

Based on conversations with students we had assumed that humorous or entertaining videos would receive a higher number of views, and higher average view duration and average percentage viewed. However, we found no correlation. While we initially found this result surprising, after some consideration and comparison with related data, this result is perfectly logical. Students’ in-class comments regarding amusement and satisfaction with a pre-class video led us to assume that said video was more engaging. However, there was no reason for students to re-watch the video based on this. Moreover, as students only had a short amount of time to complete the pre-class tasks, there was no reason that “word of mouth” would have increased video views. Finally, no matter how funny or brilliant a video may have been, its re-watch value in terms of entertainment when compared to the many other options on YouTube is negligible. Whether or not a more entertaining or humorous video leads to an increase in student recall of the content or increase in student learning is an intriguing question, one that will be a subject of further research.

Another interesting trend observed in the data related to video views can be seen in views after the period for which the video was intended. For instance, the aforementioned video “Find the perfect Source”, got 463 views prior to the class it was prepared for. However, in total the video got 655 views. These nearly 200 additional views occurred some three weeks later between November 4th and 6th. The reason for this is clear, on November 6th a high stakes written assignment was due which required demonstration of the skills and content included in the video, post-video quiz and associated class.

The issue of stakes is an interesting one, clearly high stakes assignments encouraged students to re-watch or “revise” the videos. However, the stakes of the pre-class quizzes had no effect on how many views a video received. In total, all pre-class quizzes for a given day were worth 12 points. However, prior to a given class there were often multiple videos and quizzes given. For instance, a longer video with an associated quiz worth 10 points, and a shorter video with a quiz worth 2 points, did not see a disparity in the number of views nor the average view duration or average view percentage.

Based on the results of the mid-semester survey, end of semester survey, focus group, and ongoing discussions with students, we feel we can confidently claim that we have created an effective, Flipped course. Evidence for this conclusion is plentiful. In the mid-semester student survey, students' perception of their learning experience was overwhelmingly positive. High numbers of students responded either "agree" or "strongly agree" to the questions asked regarding Flipped Learning on the EAP course. For example; more than 90% of students said that it was easy to find videos and activities on Blackboard; 85% said the videos were informative and relevant; 75% said they learned from the pre-class quizzes; 80% said they used what they learned from the videos; and 84% said they saw a strong connection between what they did online and what they did in class. "Videos and topics helped us to have a better understanding of what is expected of us in a Flipped class." (MEF University Student, 2015). Finally, 72% said they found the lessons engaging and useful and were learning the skills they needed. The end-of-semester student survey conducted by the MEF Student Affairs Office confirmed these results, as students had responded more favorably to the EAP course than to many of their other University courses.

Table 1. *End-of-Semester Student Survey Results*

Flipped Classroom	EAP Average (Out of 5)	University Average (Out of 5)
The Flipped Classroom method was effectively used on this course.	4.52	3.85
In the context of the Flipped Classroom method, the online course videos were effective.	4.4	3.81
The Course	EAP Average	University Average
Course objectives and what was expected of the students were clearly stated.	4.23	3.96
The course content was useful and relevant to course objectives.	4.16	3.98
Textbook(s), course videos, resources on Blackboard and other materials were up-to-date and helpful.	4.42	3.85
The assignments/projects contributed to my learning.	4.01	3.82
The course involved critical and analytical thinking.	4.6	3.95
Overall Evaluation	EAP Average	University Average

Overall, the course was effective.	3.97	3.89
Overall, the instructors were effective.	4.49	4.01

Student survey data, focus group, and general comments about the videos were likewise positive. While a few students said that some videos were boring, students generally commented that they found videos creative and engaging. In fact, 70% said the videos were entertaining. Moreover, 78% said they watched the whole video and 58% said they watched the video more than once. However, as previously stated, despite student comments and survey data, the entertainment value of a video has no effect on student views or the average view duration or average view percentage. As one student stated: "I can't say one video is better than another. They are all same, you can't discriminate things that you have to do." (MEF University Student, 2015)

Moreover, the data does not fully support student assertions that they regularly watched the whole video or watched it more than once. Rather, student-viewing habits seem to be the product of time and necessity. Unlike the abovementioned "Find the perfect Source" video that was watched in full and more than once, most videos were watched nearly all the way through, but not watched more than once. Yet one of the most interesting aspects of student viewing behavior regards on which day the video was viewed. Take for example the video "Thesis Statement 101". It received a total of 650 views in total over the duration of the course, but got only 401 views prior to class. However, there were a total of 418 quiz submissions received before class. With the pre-class task connected to this video, it is clear that the students had rushed to finish prior to class in order to meet the quiz deadline. For example, after this video and quiz were posted on Friday November 6, views on that day and the next showed high average view duration and average view percentage, indicating students watched the whole video and watched more than once. However, on Sunday November 8th and the Monday November 9th (likely early in the morning on Monday before class) the average view duration and average view percentage dropped. At first this drop was small, but by Monday (again, likely rushing to finish before class) these rates dropped by almost half. Now it is no revelation that work done last minute is rushed, but it is important to point out that student engagement with Flipped materials is likely far more the product of necessity in meeting a deadline to obtain a grade, rather than of length or content of the video.

Conclusion

While this research has raised more questions than it has answered, a few clear lessons have been learned that will be incorporated into future courses. Accountability increases engagement. We are currently investigating new online assessment tools like EdPuzzle. Such tools can be used to reinforce accountability and track just what students are watching and how questions affect viewing habits. This should increase both their engagement as well as the data available to analyze how we can further improve engagement. Based on experience in semester two, Flipped Learning best practices were modified to produce shorter videos, a practice which was fully internalized this semester. However, while we feel that shorter videos lead to higher student engagement, it would be interesting to see how students react to longer videos. Therefore, longer videos will be periodically employed to see

if there is a change in student engagement. If longer videos still hold the students' attention, then more content can be introduced prior to class. Finally, it is not the suggestion of this study that entertaining and/or creative videos is not important to overall student engagement, in fact, just the opposite. We would argue that the overall tenor of creative and entertaining videos in the course gave the students an impression of the course, which enabled us to use videos that were useful but less than entertaining. This is important because many students expressed an admiration for the course's creative and humor compared to their, very often, traditional style lecture videos they got in their other faculty classes. Therefore, the entertainment value is not important to student engagement with any individual video, but rather affects the overall student engagement with the course. To quote one student, EAP was "the most fun class in the whole semester. Thanks for making boring stuff enjoyable." (MEF University Student, 2015)

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**Flipped Learning with Turkish Students:
Issues of Dissonance to Possible Harmonization**

Joel David Compton

English Language Preparatory Program

MEF University

Turkey

comptonj@mef.edu.tr

Abstract:

Flipped Learning is a rapidly expanding, popular methodology. It is becoming a talking point at educational conferences and in academic studies, and its use is growing worldwide. As it grows, certain questions surface which demand thoughtful consideration. Do issues arise in the implementation of Flipped Learning in settings which could be considered culturally diverse from the settings in which the movement began? If so, how should these be addressed? In order to answer these questions, three studies based on Geert Hofstede's cultural dimensions were conducted in a Turkish foundation university context. The results suggest that in order for the pedagogical assumptions of Flipped Learning to be accepted and put to use, certain values could be discussed and behaviors developed and which would build even more bridges between the learning philosophies of both student and teacher in the MEF University English Language Preparatory Program. The results of this study will prove beneficial in helping both parties identify what areas of disagreement or misunderstanding might appear and how to effectively address these in order to create a healthy learning environment.

Keywords: MEF University, Flipped Learning, Flipped Classroom, Hofstede's cultural dimensions, intercultural competence, educational cultural convergence (ECCO)

Background to MEF University

The story of the start of MEF University is worth repeating as it highlights key concepts within a student-centered education. In 2013 the rector, Prof. Dr. Muhammad Şahin, invited a select

group of seasoned academicians and then, at a later date, a group of students from some of the best universities in Turkey. He explained to them what Flipped Learning entailed and asked them what they thought. The results seemed to reveal a generational gap. The professors were not overly impressed; however, students loved the idea. (Interestingly, this ad hoc survey seems to match with more formal research performed in multiple undergrad and graduate settings [Bormann, 2014].) Dr. Şahin trusted the students and MEF University opened its doors September 2014 to its first freshman cohort as the “World’s First and Only Flipped University.”

Goals of this study

Particularly relevant for this study is the recently published study by the British Council, “The State of English in Higher Education in Turkey” (2015). One of the eleven improvement recommendations suggested is “communicative methodology”, and “all teachers should undergo training in techniques for incorporating student-student interaction at every stage of the lesson, with speaking integrated into every activity, regardless of the skill being practiced.” The potential impact of such a suggestion would be increased motivation of the students and increased skills and confidence. Based on the Council’s suggestion, this study aims to bring such motivation, skills, and confidence to fruition through the creation of an active classroom, via Flipped Learning.

Flipped Learning, though, is a creation of several American educators. Questions arise when the context of such pedagogy is transported outside America. If “Cultural competence [is] an essential aspect of classroom harmonious relations” (McKeown and Kurt, 2012) how will the Flipped Classroom hurt or help the teacher and the student? Further, as McKeown and Kurt (2011) explain with the “Educational Cultural Convergence” (ECCO) model, “intercultural competence is a way to address cultural anxiety.” This study aims to show that identifying areas of possible dissonance in the interaction of people from two different cultures will go a long way in creating intercultural competence. Dealing constructively with these areas of dissonance would then set up the possibility of having a suitable environment for learning the English language. Establishing suitable environments for learning the English language could become a renewable cultural resource.

Finally, this paper will not be a critique of the MEF University English Language Preparatory Program (ELPP). It is also not a discussion of the pros and cons of Flipped Learning per se. The goal of this study is to evaluate the attitudes that MEF University ELPP teachers and students have toward Flipped Learning as well as on possible points of connection between these teachers (all foreign passport holders) and students who are exclusively Turkish.

Deconstructing Flipped based on Hofstede’s Dimensions

A brief history of Flipped Learning

Flipped Learning has its origins in several educator's works. Initially, in the late 1990s Eric Mazur developed peer learning (2015). Dr. Mazur was concerned that his students understand the "whys" of the formulas rather than just focusing on problem solving per se. Then there is the work of Alison King (1993), who initiated the "guide on the side" terminology; Wes Baker (2000) and the "classroom flip"; Lage, Platt, and Treglia (2000) and the "inverted classroom"; Salman Khan (2011) and the Khan Academy in 2006; and, finally, Jonathan Bergmann and Aaron Sams (2012). These latter three educators (along with Eric Mazur) introduced videos into their teaching as pre-classroom work, replacing the lecture. Following that development, Bergmann and Sams (2014) transitioned to speaking of Flipped Learning which fulfills, at least for them, the ideal educational environment produced by an equal mix of curiosity, content, and relationship along with instruction via web-based technologies prior to class and face-to-face interaction in class.

The Flipped Network (2014) is also instrumental in promoting the advances of Flipped Learning. According to the Network, Flipped Learning involves four pillars, following the acronym FLIP: (1) flexible environment "where students choose when and where they learn"; (2) learning culture in which "students are actively involved in knowledge construction"; (3) intentional content "in which students develop conceptual understanding"; (4) and professional educator who is "less visibly prominent... [but remains] the essential ingredient that enables Flipped Learning to occur." The Flipped Network defines Flipped Learning as "a pedagogical approach in which direct instruction moves from the group learning space to the individual learning space, and the resulting group space is transformed into a dynamic, interactive learning environment where the educator guides students as they apply concepts and engage creatively in the subject matter."

Finally, Bergmann and Sams (2014) talk repeatedly of "giving the control" over to the students. In fact, they suggest that if a teacher must have control over his or her classroom, then that teacher shouldn't attempt flipping the class since this contradicts the Flipped Learning ideal which places the students learning at the center. What Bergmann and Sams mean is that in a Flipped Learning environment, classroom time should be devoted to more "student-directed and inquiry-based learning."

Flipped Learning's relationship to Hofstede's scale

Following this brief introduction to Flipped Learning, a closer look at Flipped Learning vis-a-vis the cultural dimensions established by Hofstede is essential. The questions and results

from the surveys are based on the work of Geert Hofstede, the Dutch social psychologist who pioneered the cultural dimensions, as well as that of Gert Jan Hofstede, and Michael Minkov (2010). Geert Hofstede came up with the first four dimensions. The other two dimensions are based on the first four, and are useful expansions. They include the work of Michael Harris Bond (1988), who, with support from Hofstede, came up with Long-Term Orientation as well as the work of Michael Minkov (2007) who included Indulgence.

The following deconstruction is not of all Flipped Classrooms, but the Flipped Learning happening at MEF University. Since all Flipped Classrooms are different, even those at MEF, this deconstruction is preliminary. That said, it is vital that the attempt be made and then serve as a point of reference for the students' and teachers' survey scores. Turkey's results (and others) are also discussed for sake of comparison.

First, Hofstede describes power distance (PD) as “the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally” (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010). So, for example, Turkey has a higher score (66), which means that people in Turkey tend to be “dependent, hierarchical” and the “superiors [are] often inaccessible.” The “ideal boss is a father figure” and teachers are the center of the educational system (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010). Flipped Learning, on the other hand, is decidedly low on the PD dimension. It is student-centered and the focus in the classroom is on equality between teacher and student—the two actors are focused on sharing knowledge. Solicitation of answers empowers the student not the teacher. The teacher is a guide, not a sage. The teacher is alongside of the students and not lecturing. As mentioned above, Bergmann and Sams (2014) note that relationship (and not the strict maintenance of hierarchy) is essential to learning.

The second dimension is individualism (IND). This is “the degree of interdependence a society maintains among its members” (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010). So, in this dimension Turkey (with a score of 37) is a “collectivistic society” in that the group's value is more important than the individual's value. Further, in-groups such as “families, clans or organizations...look after each other in exchange for loyalty” (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010). Flipped Learning is higher on the IND dimension. In Flipped Learning, individual scores matter, so even within group work, Mazur (2015) and the MEF ELPP have developed rubrics which test the individual's learning. Further, working at one's own pace is part of many Flipped mastery classrooms (Bergmann and Sams, 2012). A higher score on individualism also means people's personal opinions are solicited and encouraged.

The masculine (MAS) dimension is next and is defined as the range of motivation. Is it being the best (masculine) or liking the job (feminine)? Hofstede describes Turkey this way: “Turkey scores 45 and is on the Feminine side of the scale. This means that the softer aspects of culture such as leveling with others, consensus, sympathy for the underdog are

valued and encouraged. Liking what you do is also a revelation of a more feminine dimension to the culture. Conflicts are avoided in private and work life and consensus at the end is important” (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010). That said, a score of 45 also reveals that the culture as a whole is closing in on the MAS qualities of being driven by competition, achievement and success (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010). Flipped falls in the middle of the MAS dimension. For example, for peer-to-peer instruction to work, the masculine idea of competition is discouraged (Mazur, 2015). And group work involves helping one another and going at one’s own pace, rather than seeing who is best or finishing first. The Flipped Learning in the ELPP seeks to create a classroom where everyone’s ideas are encouraged but not necessarily for developing consensus. But, specific targets and goals, a masculine idea, are put forward for the students to achieve. On the other hand there is not a high level of competition between students in the MEF ELPP as far as final grades are concerned.

The fourth dimension is uncertainty avoidance (UA). UA is understood as “the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations and have created beliefs and institutions that try to avoid these” (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010). Turkey’s score is 85 and, therefore, underscores the Turks desire for the multiplication of laws and involvement of the government. Further, Hofstede also notes, “For foreigners [Turks] might seem religious with the many references to ‘Allah,’ but often they are just traditional social patterns, used in specific situations to ease tension” (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010). Flipped Learning falls below 50 on the UA scale. Teachers in the ELPP help students focus on exploration of ideas (in speaking/writing exercises), and they solicit concepts (in grammar and vocabulary) rather than dictate ideas. Further they may sometimes need to say, “I don’t know” if a question is asked outside of the expertise of that particular teacher. Of course, there are grammatical rules to be followed (in those speaking/writing exercises) since words mean one thing and not another; but, there is an openness to the demonstration and usage of such grammar and vocabulary. Of course, regularly scheduled quizzes and assessments helps Flipped Learning in the ELPP from going lower on the UA scale

Fifth, long-term orientation (LTO) is the dimension which measures “how every society has to maintain some links with its own past while dealing with the challenges of the present and future” (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010). Turkey’s score (46) demonstrates that it is neither exclusively past oriented nor future oriented. It is unlike some societies, like Saudi Arabia (36) which score low and demonstrate a high preference for the past, their traditions, and establishing absolute truth. It is also unlike future oriented societies which are more pragmatic and focused on economy in order to help safeguard against future possibilities (like France—63). Further, countries which score higher on this scale also reveal a greater priority in education (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010). Flipped Learning falls slightly higher than 60 on the long-term orientation (LTO) dimension. In the MEF ELPP, English is taught in order to prepare students for the future. Therefore, failure is not a result of chance and success is a result of diligence, a quality marked higher on the LTO dimension.

As the name suggests, the final dimension, indulgence (IDG), measures the overall extent to which people allow their impulses to control them or restrain these impulses (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010). The lower a person's score is on this dimension reveals a weaker control over one's desires and impulses. The stronger a person's score is, the stronger their control over impulses. Turkey has a 49 for this scale and therefore falls in the middle with no dominant idea about IDG. (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010). The UK, for example, has a higher score on this dimension (69) while Russia has a low score of 20, which means their society is overall more restrained, cynical, and pessimistic and seek to control the gratification of their desires (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010). It is somewhat difficult to gauge where Flipped Learning falls on IDG. As far as MEF ELPP is concerned, freedom of speech is encouraged. The result may be lively discussion where students focus on giving their ideas and potentially talk over one another. Plus, as Hofstede notes, the more indulgent one is, the more they see a higher level of self-efficacy, rather than control residing outside of themselves (Hofstede, Hofstede, Minkov, 2010).

Most common pitfalls of MEF ELPP teachers

The Cultural Compass Report contains 42 questions all designed to highlight a person's position within the six previously discussed cultural dimensions and to suggest areas of potential dissonance ("pitfalls" in Hofstede's language) when interacting with people from another country. When the results of the participant's answers vary significantly from the average preferences within the country of interest, pitfalls are flagged. The Cultural Compass Report differentiates between pitfalls that are most likely, those which have a big chance, those which have a fair chance, and finally, those which have a small chance of happening.

The MEF ELPP has thirty-five non-Turkish English Language instructors with native-like fluency. Of the 35 teachers all but six come from Europe and North America. One teacher each comes from the following six countries: Australia, Brazil, Iran, the Philippines, South Africa, and Uzbekistan. Nineteen teachers completed the Cultural Compass Report. Due to space considerations, the pitfalls listed below include only those from the top two categories. The number following shows the frequency.

In all likelihood...

1. you may demotivate your students by showing up not fully prepared (x9)
2. you may demotivate your students if you tell them that you don't have precise answers to all their questions (x8)

3. you may underestimate the time and energy required to create trust among you and your students (x7)
4. you may wonder why students don't disagree with you at all. If they do, however, please be on guard (x7)

There is a big chance...

1. you may get annoyed by the fact that parents try to give you favours so that you will give their son or daughter preferential treatment (x13)
2. you may get annoyed that your students don't like to be confronted with surprises (x6)
3. you may feel at a loss when you have found out that students in your host country are motivated quite differently to learn from the way students are motivated to learn in your home country (x6)
4. you may be surprised that your students don't contradict you, not even when it must be clear to them that you tell them nonsense (x6)
5. you may be pleasantly surprised that your students try to please you all the time, but after some time you may get bothered (x5)
6. you may get the feeling that your students are too dependent on you by indirectly soliciting a lot of control from your side by checking whether they understood you well (x5)
7. you may get frustrated if your students will neither volunteer to give an answer nor ask you a lot of questions, only if you address a particular student may an answer be given, but then only hesitantly (x5)

Most common potential pitfalls of MEF ELPP level 4 students

Eighteen Level 4 students completed The Cultural Compass Report as "Students Studying Abroad." Here are the most common submissions for the students who chose to identify their country of interest in western schools (US, UK, Canada, Germany, and the Netherlands). Since some of the pitfalls were found in both the "in all likelihood" and "there is a big chance" categories, I decided to use a simple point system to reflect both the weight and the frequency of these pitfalls. If they occurred in the "In all likelihood" (IAL) category, they received four points. If they fell in the "there is a big chance" (BC) category, they received three points. From those results the most common pitfalls were these:

In all likelihood...

1. you experience the people around you as cold and aloof. They literally try to keep you at a distance (x3; BC x4)=24
2. you may feel lost by the fact that you are not being treated in a hospitable way (x4; BC x2)=22
3. you may feel too much challenged by your friends and acquaintances who think that they will please you if they can let you experience all kind of weird things (x3; BC x3)=21
4. you may get annoyed that your counterparts are apparently not able to read the clear messages you send them when they have upset you or when you don't want to go along with what they want you to do (x3; BC x2)=18
5. you may wonder why status seems to be much more important than at home (x1; BCx4)=16
6. you may be seen as timid by not giving your personal opinion about everything and nothing (x3)=12

There is a big chance that...

1. you may wonder why most people around you don't respect your emotions and feelings (x7)=21
2. you may get upset by the boastful and gloating manner in which many people around you present themselves and/or their country instead of being humble= (x6) 18
3. you may demotivate many people around you if you are not giving positive feedback about them regularly (x5)=15
4. you may start looking down on people around you who are playing around too much, so it would be difficult to build up good relationships with them (x5)=15

Suggestions based on survey results

The following results might at first glance seem fairly obvious to anyone who has worked in MEF University ELPP. That said, what has been a given now stands on firmer, statistical support. Of course, some or all of these suggestions might be happening in the classes at MEF. But, even in those case, the stastical data would argue for their continuation. Finally, not every pitfall will receive attention in the following suggestions.

It would seem clear from the students surveys (SS) and the teacher's surveys (TS) that the MEF ELPP students will need time to continue to be oriented to Flipped Learning more fully (cf. SS, IAL 3, 6). This could happen at orientation 2016 or alternatively instructors may make this a fairly regular part of their classes, to not only encourage their students to do pre-class and post-class tasks but to share the rationale of the in-class tasks as well. To build confidence in learners as speakers of English, they will be asked questions of self-reflection, which are highly valued in Flipped Learning.

Along the same lines, perhaps discussions could be held about what motivates students as the survey indicates this might be an area of dissonance (cf. TS, BC 3). However, teachers might want to make sure that, while exploration of new ideas is a part of Flipped Learning and some questions don't have right or wrong answers (cf. TS, IAL 2), assessments find a significant place in the curriculum. After all, assessments play a large part of the Turkish educational system and therefore will not surprise the students.

Teachers will probably need to explore the students feelings about the reality that the answers given are the correct answers because they accurately reflect the student's ideas—not because they conform to the teacher's ideas or to any norm (cf. TS, IAL 2). The teachers should seek to create a classroom where collegial disagreement is not only possible but sought after for the purpose of enabling students to express themselves confidently (TS, IAL 4). At the same time, teachers should realize that, as the Turkish proverb states, "sheep separated from the flock are eaten by the wolves." Thus, advocating only for highly alternative views on sensitive Turkish issues might not be conducive to an interactive learning environment. It could feel isolating for some students. Thus, discussions of this nature might be more productive outside of the classroom.

Next, the ELPP students could benefit by understanding the nature of individual competence vis-a-vis group competence. Flipped Learning emphasizes both. Of course a large amount of pressure from students friends, parents, and other well-wishers will be met with an awkward feeling that the teachers are being asked to give the candidate special consideration (TS, BC 1). Perhaps teachers can minimize this occurrence by encouraging discussion which highlights the advantages and disadvantages of collective approaches vis-a-vis individualistic ones. Teachers might want to solicit and highlight collective attitudes from collective societies which are beneficial in their university life as well as most jobs (for example, building consensus as well as compromise). This would help build trust and give support to the students' feelings (SS, IAL 1, 2; BC 1). On the other hand, teachers might want to remind the students that individual grades reflect the skill level they have achieved and that, in the future workforce, individual skill sets and abilities are scrutinized.

Teachers at MEF ELPP could consider ways in which they can further build their credibility among Turkish students. A Flipped teacher is a *professional* educator. If trust is difficult to

earn (TS, IAL 3), then not coming in prepared or not displaying confidence might lead some Turkish students to believe the teacher is not qualified. Building confidence in the students by knowing the answers to grammatical, vocabulary, or usage questions would go a long way in establishing trust. Further, knowing some things about Turkish culture certainly builds trust in that the student sees effort from the teacher to know Turkish priorities, which is part of establishing good rapport (and therefore, a building block within an interactive learning environment). Some of the ELPP teachers have wisely focused projects on Turkish foods, customs, and traditions.

Teachers might aim to implement more and more autonomy into the classrooms, potentially allowing the students themselves to determine at least a part of how they are going to fulfill learning objectives (cf. Flipped Mastery). This freedom might be hard, initially, for the students or teachers to handle, given the results of the study (cf. TS, BC 2, 6, 7; SS, IAL 6). However, incremental steps toward this are absolutely necessary in establishing the confidence that students need in English and in the Flipped Classroom.

Students might feel the teachers are cold and aloof if they don't completely understand the hidden signals students give (SS, IAL 4). Perhaps discussing this aspect of Turkish culture (i.e., body language) would lead to advances in this area and a minimization of the feeling of the lack of warmth and respect on behalf of the teachers toward the students (SS, IAL 1). If relationship is a key element in Flipped Learning, this conversation seems like a way forward.

It would seem likely that the students would be helped to realize that the teachers are globally-interested, curious and, often, confident people (cf. SS, IAL 3; BC 2). Curiosity is a part of the foundation of Flipped Learning. Therefore, discussion of other culture's foods, customs, and religious practices enhances everyone's perspective and could potentially spur the students' own curiosity to learn more. Moreover, students would be helped to understand the difference between personal preference and personal attack. That is, if someone doesn't care for iskender or işkembe, this doesn't mean that they dislike all Turkish food and, by extension, Turkish culture.

The teachers might wish to help students become comfortable with not only expressing themselves on particular subjects but also learning ways to pass the question. For example, simple phrases or words can be used when the student hasn't had time to think through a question and needs more time to consider the idea. The students, would have opportunity to consider what their thoughts are on an idea as well as allow them a culturally appropriate way of saying, "I'd rather not say" or "I'm not ready yet." Flipped Learning promotes this kind of content.

Conclusion

This study has highlighted potential pitfalls (or, alternatively, areas of dissonance) as a result of deconstructing Flipped Learning and reflecting on the attitudes of MEF students and teachers toward learning with someone from another culture. Of course, more research could focus on other suggestions--and avenues of implementation of these suggestions--based on the survey results. However, the suggestions given could be the catalyst for having a Flipped Classroom which is even more interactive and where content, curiosity and relationship all merge and form an even better learning environment--giving the students more and more confidence--in the MEF ELPP.

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Faculty not Factory:

Education is transforming from a mission and a model into a product and a tool or about the Arcadia of the Academy

HristoChukurliev

New Bulgarian University

Sofia, Bulgaria

hchukurliev@nbu.bg

Abstract

The main goal of the School for Distance, Electronic and Continuing learning in New Bulgarian University is to manage the programs for part-time students. The heritage from the Communist period in higher education is hard (including the forms of education for part-time students and programs). The **part-time learning** was “second hand” education in all of its dimensions: learning materials, schedule, and gravity of diploma. Nowadays, when the trend is in **blended-learning** and **e-learning**, the aim for the School for Distance, Electronic and Continuing learning was to transform the methodology of learning in part-time programs without making the University into factory for diplomas. The administration of the School decided to create a **standard for e-learning**, which to describe the frame of the education process. This standard is playing the role of a contract which guarantees the students the minimum of the services on which they can relay. In the same time the standard gives to the Administration of the School possibility to handle in cases of suspected **cheating** in the examination and evaluation. From one side, students can send their papers and do test on line, from other side, the University can use software for **plagiarism** and many settings in testing to guarantee transparency. In teaching process we start to use video records of the lectures simultaneously making the lectures non-obligatory. Most of the learning materials has begun to be available in digital copy in the platform for e-learning. Shortly after this stage, we introduce virtual class room in the education. After the first two years of on-line testing, we find that the GPA is decreasing, contrary to the expectations. We introduce a blended evaluation tasks. Each student must choose a topic from several proposed from the faculty and to submit a paper on it electronically. The material is checked for plagiarism but the student must present it before a jury in campus with all other students who have worked on the same topic.. If some students show difference between the grades of the on-line paper and the presentation in the campus, they become object of special attention when doing on line testing. They are asked to do a second test. Also the Faculty uses the possibility from the program to gather students twice a year for outdoor activities. In those activities, trainers divide students in teams and give them tasks for teamwork. The outcomes are that students

start to take learning process as a game, but in the same time, with responsibility. It is clear that in the future the higher education will become more and more practically oriented. Elements from Continuing education and team building programs will become more and more important and efficient.

Keywords: part-time learning, blended-learning, e-learning, standard for e-learning, cheating, plagiarism

The world in which we are living is changing. After the fall of the Iron Curtain, the world has moved from ideological to economic competition. There is no sphere of human life that has not been more or less transformed, over the last 20 years: food, travelling, communications, entertainment, and healthcare. Confrontations on religious grounds are a manifestation of the same struggle for economic supremacy. It would be naïve to claim that economic rivalry has never existed before. On the contrary, it has always been the driving force behind people's actions, because it motivates them to act, to change, to discover, to live a better life (taking into account the absolute relativity of these notions "living a better life", "being happy").

The Western world has tried to establish a socio-political system, which has a hard outer shell and an internal system of conditions and norms that contribute to a strong economy, wealth and the common good. In the East, on the other hand, they experimented with controlled, regulated environment, planned by the state, designed to provide for such an outer shell. The centrally controlled environment had reduced to a minimum the conditions conducive to competition and entrepreneurship, introduced artificial norms, and being anti-class by nature, has developed a caste system. In both worlds education occupied an equally important place. In the Western world, it reached the highest point of applicability—education enabled technologies to take their natural course and develop aggressively, searching for new ways to augment and accumulate wealth (medicine, high technologies, communications), while in the East, due to the totalitarian nature of the political regimes, education degraded into a well-developed defense sector (both technologies and knowledge were developed in this sphere), and demonstrated total disregard for the most basic amenities of the average middle-class individual. In the sphere of defense technologies, the two rivaling camps were almost on an equal par, but in terms of the standard of living of the man in the street, the gap was huge. The answer to the question for whose benefit the state operates was more or less identical, although the wording was slightly different in the two camps: in the West it was "*for the benefit of the individual*", while in the East it was "*for the benefit of the people*".¹¹

¹¹Zuzowski, Robert, "Political change in Eastern Europe since 1989: prospects for liberal democracy and market economy", ISBN 0-275-96145-1, Westport, Connecticut London, 1998

We need a generalized review of the philosophical ideas about economics, social structure, rights, responsibilities and the individual's place in society, in order identify how they affect the education model in both systems. The models are instrumental to this paper, since the domain where they have interacted over the last 25 years constitutes the environment in which education in Bulgaria has evolved.

The collapse of the Eastern Bloc also undermined the model of education, which does not relate to practice, but rather serves ideology. The Western world gained the upper hand and thus unleashed the maximization of profits (which had been constrained by the mere existence of the Eastern Bloc with markets and spheres of influence, which were off-limits). Deprived of their ideological shell, the countries in the former Socialist Bloc found themselves in a peculiar environment of transformations—changes in education and government models—which fall within the scope of this research paper. In the Far East, a hybrid system emerged, gaining momentum in the changing world—China with its form of socialist market economy.¹²

Currently, we do not know of any stable and viable model of an education system that does not experience any difficulties.

Since the time of the industrial revolution, knowledge has always been burdened with the expectations of creating conditions conducive to extending the human life span and augmenting possibilities for production and acquisition of public goods. From being establishments that were monastic in spirit and nature, universities had to connect with research institutes and laboratories, acting as incubators of technologies and innovation. The two worlds of knowledge and profits became even more tightly interwoven and this was an irreversible process which radically changed the Arcadia of the Academy. From being a mission and a model, education transformed into a product and a tool.¹³

¹²Wai-Cheng Yeung, Henry, "Chinese Capitalism in a Global Era, Towards hybrid capitalism", ISBN 0-203-40046-1, Taylor & Francis Group, London and New York, 2004

¹³Scott, J. C., The mission of the university: Medieval to Postmodern transformations. Journal of Higher Education, 2006

After the end of the Second World War, the two worlds on the East and West side of the Berlin wall fell into an interesting relationship with each other, similar to the DNA and RNA chains—interwoven with each other, struggling to continue their co-existence, in a replicating interdependence. If the West came up with a novelty, the East “borrowed” it (legally or illegally). If the East showed any signs of military and technological progress, then the West would pool their resources to surpass the expected outcome. Tom and Jerry versus Nu, pogodi!, Lada versus Volkswagen, Soyuz versus Apollo.

Despite the differences in the social structure of the two systems, no matter how hard the establishment wanted to prove that the people in the two worlds were different, that still was far from true. People are strikingly similar in terms of their desires and needs. Both in the west and in the east, there are people who have reached maturity in their psycho-physical development, have family and professional responsibilities, take care of their family and offspring, and live in areas physically remote from any university campus. These people muster the confidence that they are capable of completing a lot more than a one-off practical course with self-study materials posted by mail. The experience accumulated in the mid-19th century with non-classroom instruction in Great Britain and the USA, in the 1950s proved instrumental in fostering the introduction of the first university distance education programs. At the same time, the East adopted the part-time and evening modes of instruction in higher education and vocational colleges. The characteristics and the challenges were the same—behavioral, institutional and situational. The boom in the development of distance education in the USA and Canada occurred in the 1990s. Upon reaching peak levels in enrollment between 1992 and 1997, the levels plateaued for a while, until the second decade of the 21st century. The expansion of the platform of technical tools for distance education has triggered new transformations in its nature. The Internet revolution is about to suffocate university distance education, after having brought it to the level of almost absolute technical perfection.

The initial model of sending only text learning materials by mail, which was later replaced by audio and video recordings, or monthly intensive classroom-based instruction sessions, has finally given way to the capabilities offered by electronic distance education (synchronous or asynchronous). They, in turn, put to the test the function and authority of the university as an institution. Beginning with individual courses for additional qualification, distance education reached its prime as an alternative form for obtaining a bachelor’s or master’s degree, only to see it change again towards a vocational or combined/mixed with the full-time mode of study nowadays. Technological advances both assist and challenge the model of distance education. The opportunities for wider access to university education benefit the whole environment by enhancing its capacity (professional and personal), but only as long as it exists in a pure state and perfect form. However, the differences between the East and the West, engendered by years of antagonism, in terms of purpose and meaning of existence, are instrumental here as well. In the West, students seek practical application of the knowledge and skills, regardless of how they were obtained—in full-time or distance education programs, while in the East the knowledge (or rather the document certifying that some knowledge or skill has been acquired) is viewed as a guarantee for the transition from

one caste to another, from equality to a higher level of equality. This dissonance between the goals of the students engenders the differences and the problems posed to the development of the model of distance education. 14

Education is a sphere of human activity which is most susceptible to the influence of two seemingly opposing development strategies—on the one hand, the strategy based on innovations, and on the other, based on traditions. Accumulating experience and maintaining an established model of instruction provides for the opportunity to maintain and apply standards in education. The standards, in their own turn, allow for defining quality. This, however, is partial quality since it reflects the institution's satisfaction with the implementation of a system of norms and the functioning of the education model in a predictable and manageable format. On the other hand, keeping to an already established model by implementing standards poses the risk of dissatisfaction on the part of the students and the probability of another aspect of quality suffering. Education can easily end up being outdated, impracticable, theoretical and dull. The challenge nowadays facing both modes of instruction—full-time and distance—is how to maintain the quality, and yet change to match the environment and the demand, but at the same time managing to keep knowledge and skills in a scientific context.

Examining the model of distance education management at New Bulgarian University (NBU) is a process and text that will proceed from the concrete to the general, and vice versa. The lack of one or several universal and viable models of distance education, without any issues or alterations in the structure or mechanism, is a challenge which is outside the scope of this text. However, this paper aims at suggesting a possible direction and framework for the desired solution. The high degree of perception of individualization in each individual nowadays is the result of the global processes, which through practically mass and matrix models, deliver information, access to services and tools for action. At the same time, this focus on the individual and the evocation of a feeling that each and every individual is unique and valuable in his/her own right, are far from sincere, and are employed to disguise the striving for easier and heftier profits. Thus, at the same time, each of us is feeling increasingly more unique, while in reality we are becoming more and more uniform, part of rows and columns in a database.

The Europe 2020 strategy for the development of the EU envisages that by the end of this period, each of the member states will have managed to get 40% of their high school graduates to continue and successfully complete their education in universities. According to a speech of the Minister of Education Sergey Ignatov, as far as Bulgaria is concerned, this

14Nasseh, Bizhan, A Brief History of Distance Education, Ball State University, <http://www.seniornet.org/edu/art/history.html>

indicator is currently standing at 36%. What is disturbing, however, is not whether the country will be able to reach, exceed or fail to reach this indicator, but rather the fact that we are again resorting to planning and controlling of needs. Being faced with the lack of qualified workers in a world of advanced high technologies, the EU is attempting to tackle an issue by setting indicators to be met. As a result, many individuals who do not need university education will enroll and obtain a diploma. The point when institutional higher education from being a free choice turns into a necessity is right now in the presence. This alarming transformation combines the two convictions of “western” civilization that no knowledge is wasted, and that once a task has been assigned, it will be completed by both parties involved in it—the student and the trainers—in the best possible manner. Countries in the East are perfectly familiar with such meeting of targets, as well as the mechanisms to feign an activity and its final product in order to absorb the allocated funds. In line with this centralized policy of the EU for regulating the processes in the field of higher education, the system of regulation of the modes of study in higher education in Bulgaria has also undergone some transformations. The establishment of the National Evaluation and Accreditation Agency and the adoption of the criterion model for evaluation of universities is institutionally justifiable and beneficial for an environment that is still incapable of implementing a healthy dose of self-regulation.¹⁵

The massification of higher education is a controversial trend. It does allow for the opportunity to discover hidden talents and for unexpected breakthroughs in the development of sciences and their application in practice. Along with this, the process of democratization of the elitist institutions that universities used to be before 1989 in the West and the East, opened up opportunities for profanation and quality debasement of education. The intangible added value of the diploma was reduced. The establishment of an increasing number of new educational institutions, the transformation of vocational colleges into universities and the training in virtual universities became quite common. The transformation of education into a market commodity forced even some of the largest and most expensive universities (Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Harvard, Berkeley, Columbia University, University of British Columbia and the University of Texas) to initiate transformations and to introduce electronic education platforms.¹⁶ These universities did not open directly to the distance education mode of study, but by pooling their resources in the development of the platform for open (and free?!) electronic education, they practically demonstrated the level of change in the perception of higher education. The MOOC¹⁷ platforms (Massive Open Online

¹⁵https://www.uni-svishtov.bg/app/quality/CKO_DOCUMENTS/7-Kriterii-i-ukazania-Distancionno.pdf

¹⁶<https://www.edx.org/>

¹⁷https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Massive_open_online_course

Course) do not offer complete programs, but rather individual courses taught by distinguished professors or on interesting topics. This phenomenon of elite universities offering generally accessible education in certain disciplines electronically might be attributed to several reasons, not necessarily in synchronicity. Relying on their already established reputation and their quality of education, elite universities have begun to offer such open courses as a response to the emergence of huge virtual universities, which have begun to offer distance bachelor, master and doctoral programs at a very low cost and with lowered requirements. Thus, they reveal the real level of university education, as they perceive it, and make it open and generally accessible. This paper will attempt to analyze the facts and trace the processes, without daring to venture into bolder and more speculative forecasts. But in this particular case, we would like to predict that the development of individual training courses for the acquisition of specific skills and knowledge will lead to the shift of students away from the actual bachelor and master programs to hands-on training programs aimed at the acquisition of professional skill or continuing education. Thus it is likely that a process of normalization of the situation could be initiated and a realignment of the constituting elements. The EU though is still faced with the issue of striving to impose centralized control and fulfillment of targets. Universities, however, no matter private or state-owned, are beginning to seek solutions other than the officially suggested. The development of programs for vocational and continuing education and of individual courses puts them in direct competition with a multitude of unaccredited institutions, centers and agencies.

At this moment, we are poised on the cusp of the dynamic processes of change in institutions meeting the demands and intuition of those who want to be educated. The democratization of higher education in Bulgaria puts the established universities' ability to survive to the test. The need for transformation of the overall education model and process ensures change, which will ultimately cater to the needs of the people and the economy, though how it will unfold in time is not quite clear.

Distance education at NBU has long traditions, and has made a name for itself. On the one hand is its long history, while on the other—its accomplishments over the last few years. In an environment where new higher education institutions spring up regularly, the admission quotas are increasing while the number of the graduating classes is shrinking, the threat of the university turning into a factory for diplomas is quite imminent. In the course of expanding the target population from which students are recruited, the ability of the newly admitted students to cope with the academic content and the attendant standards and requirements to be met is shrinking. In order to retain students and to prevent their "leakage" into rival educational institutions offering lower expectations and evaluation criteria, the university has to decide on a strategy for development: whether to go with the flow and turn into a rank and file player on the market, or to devise a high-risk strategy for boosting the quality of education, while simultaneously expanding the technological capabilities of the education platform. Currently, the implementation at NBU of the concept for educational model in distance learning outlined below has proved its expediency. Although initially, the number of newly admitted students plummeted, NBU has succeeded in maintaining the levels of the new intakes of students within a range wider than the average for the country.

The occurrence of several events at the same time has resulted in a situation plagued by many difficulties and risky moves. On the one hand was the boom of web 2.0 technologies¹⁸, while on the other, due to the demographic collapse, the number of high school graduates also plummeted. Bulgaria's accession to the European Union ensured free access of Bulgarian students to European universities and the labor market raised the bar for the educational attainment of newly appointed staff. These circumstances were mirrored in the development of the education market—an increasing number of new educational institutions were established, all of which were in fierce competition with each other (offering similar academic programs and seemingly equal opportunities for the students to engage in flexible learning modes). The price formation of the educational service adheres to the dumping principle. The interconnection between the academic programs and the actual economic sector is at a very low level. Due to some peculiarities of the legislative framework and its development over the last two decades, we are currently experiencing a shortage of habilitated professors possessing practical experience and up-to-date education, tested under the new economic conditions.

NBU is the first Bulgarian university which, in the post-1989 period, immediately after it was established, introduced a new type of education in the country—distance education. The very name of this mode of learning was opposed to the then existing forms of part-time study, the Eastern European counterpart of the western distance education. At first, NBU relied mainly on the media popular in the 1990s—movies, radio lectures, and mailed materials. The students were still required to attend some classes on campus, although these were designed in a way that differed from the traditional month-long lecture cycle in part-time education. The classes were called consultations and were not intended to deliver academic content (unlike the part-time model of education). During these consultation sessions, the students, who had already familiarized themselves with the learning materials, were able to discuss with the teachers any unclear points from the textbooks. The emphasis was on the students' self-study, counting on their strong motivation, discipline and perseverance. During these consultations, the examination modes were also discussed and analyzed. These followed the model adopted in the full-time mode of study at NBU—instead of one final examination, the final grade was assigned on the basis of several components. The aim of these was twofold—the students were able to learn the content in smaller portions and test their knowledge by means of several communication models (independent study, written examination, and interview), as well as to reduce to a minimum the probability of bias in evaluation on the part of the teacher. Over the years, this model has evolved and is currently structured as described below.

The students are provided with textbooks and paper materials for some of the courses, while all courses are covered by electronic education. Each course features two consultations, four academic hours each within the semester. The students from other cities are served by three

¹⁸<http://www.paulgraham.com/web20.html>

local campuses (in the cities of Plovdiv, Varna and Vidin). There are three types of assessment—ongoing, final and mixed type. Students may choose when to complete the final examinations, can actually resit any of them and select their highest score to be included in the final grade. Attendance of consultations is optional, recordings of the consultation sessions conducted on campus are also uploaded, and the integration of a virtual classroom as a method of training and communication is also underway.

The backbone of distance education at NBU is the Moodle platform. All students and teachers at the university have access to it, including those enrolled in full-time modes of study.

There are two types of calendars providing information to the students. The general calendar provides information as to terms and deadlines applicable to all NBU students—enrollment, payment of the tuition fees for the semester, public holidays, the beginning and the end of the semester and the examination session. In the individual calendar, which is synchronized with the platform for electronic education, the students can find all upcoming tasks, tests and deadlines for the specific courses in which they are enrolled.

Each student or teacher has access during the current semester to all courses in which he/she is enrolled. In the course sections, the students can find all academic content in electronic format which has been uploaded in advance. Also there, they can take electronic tests, which are generated individually for each student from an existing test bank with questions on the course.

The system for video training allows for the broadcast in real time (as well as recording for later use) of lectures from the NBU lecture halls equipped with video cameras. Over 95% of the lectures for distance-learning students are conducted through this system. It is also integrated in the platform for electronic education. Students' written assignments are run through the internet-based plagiarism-prevention service Turnitin. The software is integrated in Moodle NBU and enables teachers, if they wish, to check papers uploaded by students for improper citations and potential unoriginal content.

Moodle NBU consists of the following:

- more than 15,000 courses
- more than 37,000 users
- more than 17,000 pages of academic content
- more than 100,000 files with academic content

- more than 20,000 hyperlinks to resources outside of Moodle
- more than 20,000 assignments
- more than 4,000 electronic tests
- more than 10,000 forums

On a daily basis, between 3,000 and 5,000 students access Moodle NBU, which is approximately half of the students currently being taught at the university.

The model of distance education described above, however, is facing a number of difficulties and challenges both internal and external for the university.

A number of internal factors pose a threat to distance education. First of all, there is the unsatisfactory quality of the academic content and programs taught. They are structured as each department sees fit and do not take into account students' expectations. The business point of view is also not taken into consideration, mostly due to the widespread apathy among businesses with regard to education, although attempts are being made to establish contacts.

Distance education still remains in the shadow of full-time education. Teachers are not motivated either, which invariably entails lower quality of education and lack of interest. However, distance education is in desperate need of exactly the opposite—more attention to students, whose contact with the teacher is quite limited.

Distance learning programs face competition from full-time programs offering electronic education. Full-time students are not required to attend classes and are able to keep track of the course via Moodle and keep in touch with what's happening at the university. In a sense, the full-time mode of study at NBU has asserted itself as an improved version of distance education, offered by the university. It enables students to work and study at the same time.

The launching of new distance learning programs requires greater effort—the initial development of academic content. There is no instrument through which to motivate teachers and departments to do just that.

External factors mainly include the state regulation of this segment of the education market. In 2013, the National Evaluation and Accreditation Agency instituted requirements and

criteria for the accreditation of distance learning programs. The administrative burden of inaugurating a new distance learning program has been increased considerably.

Many colleges and universities emulate the NBU methodology for distance learning education and are beginning to implement some platforms for electronic education—most often Moodle, Blackboard, etc.

The academic programs offered are almost identical in terms of their scope and structure. The instructors usually teach classes at more than one institution.

To enroll in a distance education program at NBU is no longer an easy way to obtain a diploma. Distance education has significantly raised the bar on students. This was accomplished over a period of several years. The notion that distance learning differs from full-time study not only in terms of its methodology, but also in terms of its nature was operational during the 1990s and the first decade of the current century. The Internet boom exposed the differences and allowed for the practice of plagiarism and other forms of cheating through them. The need to introduce individualized electronic tests further complicated the examinations transparency issues. It became imperative to develop models for coping with those difficulties and transforming the modes of study so that they remain equally convenient and attractive to working students or students residing abroad, but without undermining the quality of education and assessment. Two strategies to deal with the problem were decided upon. On the one hand, the structure and academic content of distance education programs were harmonized with those of the full-time programs. Requirements for students enrolled in distance learning programs were raised. New courses and modes of learning, which at first glance seemed totally unfit for the specific schedule of distance learning, were later added to the curriculum. On the other hand, the technological tools ensuring the transparency of assessment were also upgraded—special software for the prevention of plagiarism, electronic tests were equipped with a number of components enabling teachers to examine and compare the performance of students and to re-check any suspicious submissions when they come across any irregularities or unexpected results.

At the same time, the content taught to students fails to keep up. The academic content is delivered in an innovative multimedia environment, but it has not undergone any major revisions and lacks enough contemporary pedagogical approaches. This is the next step in the development of distance education at NBU and it will be initiated exactly through this medium since it is distance education that is the driving force behind innovations in NBU. The technologies that are implemented to address its needs (like video cameras, plagiarism prevention software, and electronic tests) are also successfully implemented in the full-time education, while the revision of the academic content and the development of vocational education aimed at the acquisition of practical skills through the distance education mode of study is one possible model in the future.

The Relationship between School Principals' Humor Styles and School Climate

Mehmet Çanak

Educational Administration and Policy,
Ankara University
Turkey

mcanak38@hotmail.com

Başak Coşkun Demirpolat

Educational Administration and Policy,
Ankara University
Turkey

basak84coskun@yahoo.com

Abstract

Described as “smiling thought” by Einstein, humor has been related to a number of organizational processes and outcomes, one of which is organizational climate. Climate of an organization is the result of its members' everyday behaviors. Although there are studies on how humor influences organizational efficiency, there are few studies on the relationship between leaders' humor and organizational climate. Specifically, although numerous studies have been done on the effect of leader behaviors on climate, the management literature is short of the studies on the influence of leaders' humor behaviors on climate. In order to define the relationship between school principals' humor styles and school climate, this study was designed as a relational survey model. Study group consisted of 356 teachers working at public schools in Kayseri in 2014-2015 academic year. Data collected by Humor Styles Scale and School Climate Scale was analyzed on SPSS 21.0 package program and descriptive statistics, t-test, ANOVA, Tukey test and Pearson correlation methods were used. According to the results, it was observed that as school principals' humor style “Cynical Humor Style” was perceived most by the teachers and that their school climate perceptions were positive. Besides, significant positive correlations between positive humor styles scores and school climate scores, and significant negative correlations between negative humor styles and school climate scores were observed.

Key Words: Humor, humor styles, teachers, school principals, school climate

One of the things that we, all are quite sensitive about is our sense of humor. Actually, we all, most probably, know people who easily admit that they don't like to read, have no interest in religion and politics, cannot sing in tune or play a single musical instrument, or that they waste too much time watching useless television programs. But there is not anyone who admits having no sense of humor (Hurren, 2006,373). With this provoking claim, Hurren draws our attention to the importance of humor in our lives and in our self-perceptions. According to Turkish Language Organization dictionary (2016) humor is defined as tinge of irony aiming to amuse, make people laugh and joke someone without hurting the feelings. It

can also be defined as the art of making one think on the events, amuse or make people laugh (Yardımcı, 2010,2). Altinkurt and Yılmaz (2011,2) explains humor as all the situations mediate the behaviors of laughing and making people laugh. In a similar way, Southam (2001; as cited in Kılınç, Receptoğlu and Koşar, 2014,136) describes humor as an unexpected, sudden and surprising situation which results in laughing or smiling. Just like Hurren (2006), Yılmaz (2011,31) draws attention to the importance of humor in daily life by likening it to the oxygen of life.

Many can be said about the functions of humor in life. According to qualitative and quantitative works in the extant literature Berk (2010,323) argues that humor has 15 psychophysiological benefits. Humor lessens stress, depression and loneliness, increases self-respect, hope and energy, and creates a feeling of strength and control. Being such an important sense, humor basically might seem to be a subject of psychology. Yet, its effects on organizational settings are getting the attention of management and organization researchers more and more. According to Barsoux (1996,500) spontaneous humor is often considered to be an irregular behavior, or at best an unproductive intervention. It ranks alongside irresponsibility, irrationality and incompetence as a wrench in the works of business efficiency. However, management researches suggest otherwise. That is, far from sabotaging organizational purpose, humor proves instrumental in pursuing it. According to Decker and Rotondo (2001,450) effective managers possess leadership ability in order to affect change in followers, and one promising area of focus is the relationship between humor and leadership. In the same vein, Receptoğlu and Özdemir (2012,28) argue that findings about humor and leadership are clear and consistent; humor is an important component of effective leadership which is composed of solving managerial problems, managing the change, motivating the followers. Studying humor at school leadership, William and Clouse (1991,1) identifies humor as an important device for improving administrator-teacher relationships. Besides, the use of humor facilitates the informal school climate, increases social bonding (which contributes to increased productivity), conflict resolution, and commitment.

In the extant literature, humor hasn't been studied in a common way. In scales developed by different researchers, it can be seen that humor has been claimed to have different dimensions. For instance, Cemaloğlu, Receptoğlu, Şahin, Daşçı and Köktürk (2012) argue that humor behaviors can be examined with a scale which has five dimensions. The first dimension is "Cynical Humor Style". Cynical humor style is used to insult and hurt other people. The second dimension is "Productive Social Humor", which is used to develop relationships with other people. The third dimension is "Affirmatory Humor", explained as having a positive attitude towards humor. The fourth dimension is "Negatory Humor" meaning rejecting humor, humorous attitude, sayings and behaviors. The fifth and the last dimension is "Nonhumorous Style". People with a nonhumorous style include humor in their lives just a little bit or not at all. The relationship between the sense of humor and various organizational processes and outcomes have been the focus of different studies. In the extant literature, there are studies on the relationship between humor and group cohesion (Duncan, 1984), organizational culture (Clouse and Spurgeon, 1995), and the effect of humor on leader-follower relationships (Avelio, Howell and Sosik, 1999). In educational organizations, while the researchers have focused on the use of humor in classroom setting (e.g. Oruç, 2010), there are just a few studies on the humor behaviors of school principals (Ziegler, Boardman and Thomas, 1985; William and Clouse, 1991; William, 1994; Hurren, 2006; Receptoğlu, 2011; Receptoğlu and Özdemir, 2012; Yılmaz, 2011).

Long before humor did, climate had attracted the organizational researchers. Although there is not a standard definition of this construct, Ashforth (1985) argues that climate is shared perceptions of behavior (as cited in Hoy, Tarter, and Bliss, 1990,261). Hoy and Miskel (1987) suggests that organizational climate is a broad term that refers to members' shared perceptions of the work environment of the organization. As for school climate, it is the subjective and objective feelings and perceptions of teachers about the school (Ellis, 1988; cited in Nur, 2012,43). As a complex and vague concept, climate and school climate, has been studied in various methods. For example Loukas (2007,1) argues that although it is not easy to come up with a standard definition, researchers agree that school climate is consisted of physical, social and academic dimensions. Hoy and Tarter (1991; as cited in Çağlayan, 2014,97) suggests that the first component of school climate is about the quality of the relationship between principal and teachers. The second component is the quality of the relationship among teachers. Çağlayan (2014, 97-103) found out that school climate is composed of three dimensions. The first dimension is leadership and participation, the second dimension is instructional environment and the third is cooperation. It is clear that in organizational and school climate studies leadership has always been treated as a separate dimension. As Balcı (2002,112) argues school principal has a great influence on the characteristic of school. He or she is the one who has a critical importance on improving school's academic and social climate. As a result of this critical importance, the question "What is the influence of schools principals' humor styles on school climate?" needs to be answered.

In educational management literature, school climate has been related to various organizational processes and outcomes. Researches indicate that school climate and school effectiveness, teacher commitment and students' success are correlated (Tsui and Cheng, 1999); school climate creates a difference in instructional environment and student success (Bossert, 1988). However, apart from just a couple of studies (Ziegler and Boardman, 1986; Williams and Clouse, 1991, Williams, 1994), there are not enough studies on the relationships between school principals' humor styles and school climate. Specifically, in Turkish literature the relationships between two concepts has never been studied before. As it is agreed that school principals has an utmost importance on school climate, it is crucial to understand how their humor behaviors influence school climate.

This study has been planned from this point of view. That is to say, studying the relationships between school principals' humor style and school climate will provide valuable implications for educational management. In this study, which basically aims to enlighten the relationship between school principals humor styles and school climate, it is also aimed to measure the perceptions of teachers about their principals' humor styles and school climate and analyze these perceptions according to some personal variables.

Method

Trying to find out the relationship between school principals' humor styles and school climate, the relational survey method was applied. Selected according to purposive and stratified sampling methods, the study group was consisted of 356 voluntary teachers

working in Kayseri, in 2014-2015 academic year. The characteristics of the study group can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1. *Frequency and percentage distribution of the study group*

Variables	Categories	N	%
Gender	Female	181	50,8
	Male	175	49,2
Marital Status	Married	306	86,0
	Single	50	14,0
Work Experience	Less than 10 years	132	37,1
	Between 11-20 years	166	46,6
	More than 21 years	58	16,3

As seen in Table 1, the study group included 181 female and 175 male teachers, most of whom were married and who had work experience varying between less than 10 years and more than 21 years. In order to collect data two measures were used, a personal data form developed by the researchers was used, as well. One of the measures was Humor Behaviors Scale (HBS), which was developed by Cemaloğlu, et al., (2012), and the other measure was School Climate Scale (SCS) developed by Çağlayan (2014). Found to be reliable and valid by Cemaloğlu, et.al. (2012) HBS is a 32-item, five-point Likert scale. In HBS there are five dimensions, which are cynical, productive-social, affirmatory, negatory humor styles and nonhumorous style. Proved to be reliable and valid by Çağlayan (2014) SCS is a 47-item, five-point Likert scale. In SCS there are three dimensions, which are leadership and participation, instructional environment and cooperation. The data collected for the study were coded to SPSS 21.0 statistical program (the importance level was .05). For both scales, higher points imply higher levels of teachers' perceptions about the school principals' humor styles and school climate. In the analysis, descriptive statistics, means, standard deviations, t-test, ANOVA, Tukey multiple comparison test, Pearson's correlation coefficients were used.

Findings

In this part first of all findings about school principals' humor styles, then findings about school climate and lastly the relationships between the two are given. Findings about school principals' humor styles according to teachers' perceptions are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. *Means and standard deviations for school principals' humor styles scores*

Humor Styles Dimensions	N	\bar{X}	Sd
Nonhumorous Style	356	3,5234	1,11852
Negatory Humor Style	356	4,0534	1,00173
Affirmatory Humor Style	356	3,2360	0,92041
Productive-Social Humor Style	356	2,7444	0,94492
Cynical Humor Style	356	4,3525	0,87126

Data in Table 2 shows that according to teachers' perceptions, school principals exhibited "cynical humor style" most and "productive-social humor style" least. Further analysis were done to find if teachers' perceptions about school principals' humor styles differed according to the teachers' gender, marital status and teaching experience. T-test results showed that teachers' perceptions didn't differ significantly according to their gender (Nonhumorous Style =1,004, negatory humor style =1,499, affirmatory humor style =0,678, productive-social humor style =-1,092, cynical humor style =0,312 and $p > 0,05$ for all the dimensions). As for gender, t-test analysis showed that teachers' perceptions didn't differ significantly in nonhumorous ($t=1,485$, $p > 0,05$), productive-social humor style ($t=0,609$, $p > 0,05$) and cynical humor style ($t=1,293$, $p > 0,05$). Yet, in negatory ($t=2,301$, $p < 0,05$) and affirmatory humor style dimensions ($t=2,098$, $p < 0,05$), there were significant differences between the groups. In both dimensions the means of the married teachers' scores (negatory humor style $\bar{x}=4,1085$, affirmatory humor style $\bar{x}=3,2771$) were higher than the single teachers (negatory humor style $\bar{x}=3,7160$, affirmatory humor style $\bar{x}=2,9840$). When one-way ANOVA was conducted to analyze the differences according to their teaching experience, it was observed that teachers' perceptions about school principals' humor styles didn't differ significantly in affirmatory ($F=1,415$, $p > 0,05$) and productive-social ($F=0,310$, $p > 0,05$) humor style dimensions. Yet, in nonhumorous style ($F=4,602$, $p < 0,05$), negatory style ($F=11,771$, $p < 0,05$) and cynical style dimensions ($F=6,706$, $p < 0,05$) meaningful differences were observed. When TUKEY test was conducted to find the source of these meaningful differences, it was observed that in nonhumorous style, negatory humor style and cynical humor style dimensions, the perceptions of teachers with more than 21 years teaching experience were lower than those of the teachers with 10 years and less teaching experience (mean difference for nonhumorous style= $-,49547$, $p < 0,05$; for negatory humor style= $-,74305$, $p < 0,05$, for cynical humor style= $-,49412$, $p < 0,05$) and teachers with 11-20 years of teaching experience (mean differences for nonhumorous style= $-,46967$, $p < 0,05$; for negatory humor style= $-,49975$, $p < 0,05$; for cynical humor style= $-,32613$, $p < 0,05$).

After the analysis about humor styles, analysis for school climate was conducted. Findings about school climate are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Means and standard deviations for school climate scores

Dimensions	N	\bar{X}	Sd
Leadership and Participation	356	3,3105	0,91758
Instructional Environment	356	3,4095	0,72712
Cooperation	356	3,5864	0,79231
School Climate Scale Total Score	356	3,4188	0,74767

In Table 3 mean and standard deviation for SCS total score and means and standard deviations for the factors are presented. SCS total score mean was 3,4188 and standard deviation was 0,74767. This showed that teachers' perceptions for their schools' climate was around "agree" level. In addition, the highest mean was that of cooperation factor ($\bar{x} = 3,5864$, $Ss=0,79231$), which meant that teachers perceived the cooperation factor most in their school atmosphere. T-test was conducted to find out if teacher perceptions of school climate and school climate factors changed according to their gender and marital status. According to t-test analysis between the genders significant differences for school climate total score was observed ($t=2,877$, $p<0,004$), there weren't significant differences in the factors, though (leadership and participation $t=0,130$; $p>0,05$, instructional environment $t=0,000$; $p>0,05$ and collaboration $t=0,001$; $p>0,05$). In SCS total score female teachers' score mean ($\bar{x}=3,5298$, $Ss.,69606$) was meaningfully higher than male teachers ($\bar{x}=3,3041$, $Ss.,78310$). According to teachers' marital status, no significant difference was observed between married and single teachers either in total SCS total score ($t=-,424$; $p>0,05$) or factors (leadership and participation $t=-,842$; $p>0,05$, instructional environment $t=-,087$; $p>0,05$ and collaboration $t=-,067$; $p>0,05$). One-way ANOVA was applied to find out the differences in SCS total score and dimensions according to teachers' experience. Although no significant difference was observed in SCS total score, in collaboration factor significant differences between the groups were observed ($F=3,524$, $p<0,05$). In order to find out the source of the difference TUKEY test was used. According to the test results, the significant difference was between the teachers with 10 years and less teaching experience and the teachers with 21 years and more; specifically, teachers with 10 years and less teaching experience had a higher score in collaboration factor than the teachers with 21 years and more experience (mean difference= 0,32807, $p<0,05$). The correlational analysis about the relationship between teachers' perceptions of school principals' humor styles and school climate factors is presented in Table 4.

Table 4. *The relationship between school principals' humor styles and school climate factors*

		Leadership and Participation	Instructional Environment	Collaboration
Cynical Humor Style	r	-,371	-,272	-,299
	p	,000	,000	,000
Productive-social Humor Style	r	,476	,380	,357
	p	,000	,000	,000
Affirmatory Humor Style	r	,501	,363	,364
	p	,000	,000	,000
Negatory Humor Style	r	-,535	-,374	-,430
	p	,000	,000	,000
Nonhumorous Style	r	-,449	-,367	-,346
	p	,000	,000	,000

In Table 4 it could be seen that meaningful correlations between all dimensions of HBS and all the factors of SCS were observed. According to the correlation analysis, it was observed that there were significant and moderate negative correlation between cynical humor style and leadership and participation factor ($r=-,371$) and low negative correlation between cynical humor style and instructional environment ($r=-,272$) and collaboration ($r=-,299$). Between productive-social humor style and leadership and participation ($r=,476$), instructional environment ($r=,380$), collaboration ($r=,357$), significant and moderate positive correlations were observed. Likewise, significant and moderate positive correlations between affirmatory humor style and leadership and participation ($r=,501$), and instructional environment ($r=,363$), and collaboration ($r=,364$) factors were observed. Between negatory humor style and leadership and participation ($r=-,535$), and instructional environment ($r=-,374$), collaboration ($r=-,430$) factors, significant moderate negative correlations were observed. Significant moderate negative correlations between, the last dimension of HBS, nonhumorous style, and leadership and participation ($r=-,449$), instructional environment ($r=-,367$), and collaboration ($r=-,346$) factors were observed, as well.

Discussion and Conclusion

In this pioneer work for Turkish educational administration literature, valuable findings about school principals' humor styles and school climate were put forward and the relationships between the two were introduced. According to participant teachers of this study, school principals exhibited cynical humor style most, while they exhibited productive-social humor style least. This finding is inconsistent with almost all the previous studies about school principals' humor styles (Yılmaz, 2011; Receptoğlu and Özdemir, 2012; Receptoğlu, 2015; Williams, 1994). In the previous studies, it is seen that school principals were perceived to exhibit the humor styles that could be called positive styles in general. For instance, Yılmaz (2011,36) found out that school principals' self-enhancing humor style was perceived most by the teachers. Similarly, Receptoğlu and Özdemir (2012,32) observed that according to teachers' perceptions, the highest score for school principals' humor style was that of affirmatory humor style. In a later study by Receptoğlu (2015,35), that affirmatory humor style was perceived most by the teachers was validated again. Williams (1994,67), conducting his study in the USA, came up with similar results. In his study with teachers, it was observed that school principals' had the highest score in productive humor style. Kara (2014,719) who

conducted her study with the managers in different sectors, found out that the managers scored themselves as having the self-enhancing and affiliative humor styles most. It is striking that although almost all the previous studies about school principals' humor behaviors found that school principals' humor styles were perceived positive most, in this study it was observed that schools principals' humor styles was scored the highest in negative humor styles. Strikingly, in this study it was observed that the second highest score was that of negatory humor style- a negative humor style, too. This different findings may simply derive from the fact that samples of the studies have got different perceptions. Besides, that the conditions for becoming a public school principal changed a lot in the recent times may have changed the perceptions of the teachers about the principals in a negative way. That is to say, because of unwanted changes about school principals' appointment regulations, teachers may have a total negative perception about the principals, not just about their humor styles. These inconsistent findings imply that more studies are needed to be done on this subject.

In this study, it was observed that the teachers' perceptions about the school climate was quite positive. The highest score was that of collaboration factor. This finding is similar to Bayram and Aypay's (2012,56) study, which found out that teachers had quite positive perceptions about their school climate and the highest score was that of collaboration factor. However, Çağlayan (2014,115) found out that teachers' perceptions about their school climate was not very high, but at "partially agree-moderate" levels. This might show that teachers in Çağlayan's study had relatively lower and negative perceptions about their schools' climate. One parallel finding of Çağlayan's study with this one is that the highest scores were observed in collaboration factor in both studies. Gültekin (2012,83) also reached the finding that in school climate dimensions, teachers scored the collegial support factor higher than all the other school climate factors.

When the relationships between school principals' humor style and school climate were analyzed, significant correlations between all the humor styles and all the school climate factors were found out. In general, while positive correlations between positive humor styles, such as confirmatory and productive-social humor styles, and school climate factors were observed, negative correlations were observed between negative humor styles, such as nonhumorous, negatory and cynical humor styles, and school climate factors. These findings show that if school principals use positive humor styles, s/he might be able to raise the positive perceptions about their school climate. And likewise, not using humor or having the negative styles might have detrimental effects on school climate. This finding is parallel with Ziegler and Boardman's (1985,347) findings. According to Ziegler and Boardman's study there were significant positive correlations between positive humor styles and school climate, and significant negative correlations between negative humor styles and school climate. In their qualitative study Williams and Clouse (1991) concluded that school principals' use of humor influenced the school climate in a positive way and it was perceived as an important communication device between the principals and the teachers. In accordance, Williams (1994,69) confirmed that when school principals exhibited and supported positive humor behaviors, there was generally positive school climate. Nonhumorous principals were generally the leaders of the schools with inefficient school climate. All the studies about school principals' use of humor and school climate in the extant literature showed that school principals' use of positive humor influenced school climate in a positive way. It is clear that studying the relationship between school climate, one of the determiners of student success, and school leadership behaviors one need to take the effects of use of humor into consideration in leadership. From this point, more studies with different research designs are needed to be done in order to clarify the importance and effects of humor in educational management. Moreover, the policy makers should improve and conduct activities and programs that can raise the awareness on how much beneficial humor might be as a managerial device in educational institutions.

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Investigation of Teachers' Attitudes toward Reporting Child Sexual Abuse According to Gender Roles

Burhan ÇAPRI
Psychological Counselling and Guidance Department
Department of Educational Sciences
Mersin University
Mersin, Turkey
burhancapri@gmail.com

Zeynep DEMİRÖZ
Ministry of Education
Mersin, Turkey
zeynep-demiroz@hotmail.com

Abstract

The purpose of this research is to examine attitudes of teachers towards reporting child sexual abuse according to gender roles, gender, level of information about signs of child sexual abuse and first reaction to a suspected child sexual abuse. The research group is formed of 281 female, 211 male, in total 492 voluntary teachers working in state schools in 2015-2016 academic year in Mersin central towns. In the study; "Attitudes towards Reporting Child Sexual Abuse Scale (ATRCAS)", "Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI)" and "Personal Information Form" are used. Pearson moments correlation coefficient, multiple regression analysis, Mann-Whitney-U and Kruskal-Wallis-H tests are used in analysis of data. As a result of statistical analysis obtained from research it was observed that attitudes towards reporting sexual abuse were related with gender roles in negative and low level. At the end of regression analysis conducted to determine contribution in predicting attitudes towards reporting sexual abuse of gender roles it was observed that the most important contribution comes from the masculine gender role. It was observed in research that attitude points for reporting of sexual abuse didn't demonstrate a statistically significant difference by gender and it showed significant difference according to having information about the signs of sexual abuse, first reaction to a suspected sexual abuse.

Keywords: Teacher, child, sexual abuse, gender roles, attitudes, reporting

Introduction

In accordance with Convention on the Rights of Children signed by Turkey in 1990 (1989) according to the law applicable to the child, except being major at earlier age, every person is considered child until the age of eighteen. 19, 34 and 39th Articles of Convention on the Rights of the Children (1989) relates to the prevention of child abuse and according to Article 19 of this Convention, states are obliged to protect children against all forms of abuse and mistreatment. According to this article the state is responsible for preventing, identifying, reporting and referring to relevant authorities and treatment of all kinds of mistreatment and abuse against children and obliged to establish social programs to provide necessary support to those caring children. According to Article 34 of this Convention children should be protected against all forms of sexual exploitation and sexual abuse. Under this Article State is obliged to prevent the exploitative use of children in pornographic performances and

materials or forcing, deceive or cheating of children to engage in any unlawful sexual activity or exploitation or prostitution or other illegal activities. In addition, according to the 39th Article of this convention state is also obliged to take the necessary measures to ensure protection of mental and physical health of war victim children, to heal children victim of armed conflicts, torture, exploitation, neglect and abuse and to ensure their integration into society. Considering in the scope of these articles protection of child from all forms of abuse and healing abused children and integrating them may be considered among the most important tasks of the states signed the convention.

Child abuse is entirety of actions or inactions performed by person or persons obliged to care child who are defined as improper or damaging according to social rules and professional persons and block or restrict child's development (Tıraşçı and Gören, 2007). Looking at the literature, there are five types of child abuse including physical abuse, emotional abuse, sexual abuse, economic abuse and neglect. The main point that separate other types of child abuse and neglect from each other is that abuse is active and neglect is passive (Topbaş, 2004). In this sense, neglect is passive abuse of children and means not supplying or supplying inadequately children's basic needs such as nutritional health, shelter, clothing, protection and surveillance by person or persons obliged to care child or failure to meet their needs, lack of care and attention about child's care and allowing children to be in the environment that may present danger (Yarar and Yarış, 2011). Other types of child abuse in general include all active behaviors damaging emotional, mental and social development of child from beating, shouting and insulting up to use the child as a sexual object. According to definition of World Health Organization (2002) child abuse means behaviors adversely affecting the physical and psychosocial development children's health whether intentionally or unintentionally. In child abuse, not purposes but results are significant (Turhan, Sangün and İnandı, 2006). Child abuse and neglect is a serious problem area in the community. According to Dubowitz and Bennet (2007) it is naturally difficult to measure maltreatment to child because it cannot be observed by other people and it is not notified by close environment of child. Nevertheless, child abuse is a problem that can be observed in every country, every family and in all racial and religious groups and despite child protection systems with different laws reported abuse cases represents a small part of iceberg. Therefore, although it is difficult to reach a finding about commonality of the problem in society even knowing existence of such a problem require a lot of research to be conducted in this area. In order to understand what the child sexual abuse is, it is necessary to distinguish it from other types of child abuse. Child sexual abuse; is use of a child who has not completed his/her psychosocial development for sexual stimulation by an adult (stimulation) and covers all behavior in the range of touching genital areas, exhibitionism, voyeurism, use in pornography and even rape (Akduman, Ruban, Akduman and Korkusuz, 2005). Child sexual abuse is not required to contain violence necessarily and child sexual abuse includes behaviors such as physical contact, incest and prostitution verbal abuse, exhibitionism, voyeurism, vaginal and body contact, pushing children to watch sexual relationship, oral and anal sexual intercourse, rape, molestation (Akduman et al., 2005). As it can be seen from this definition it is possible to examine child sexual abuse in seven groups (Celbiş, Özdemir and Kaya, 2011):

1. Types of sexual abuse without contact: conversations of sexual nature, exposure, and voyeurism.
2. Touching for sexual purposes.
3. Oral-genital sex.
4. Interfemoral sex
5. Sexual penetration: penetration with fingers, penetration with objects, genital intercourse, anal intercourse.
6. Sexual abuse: child pornography, child prostitution.

7. Child abuse intertwined with another type of child abuses.

As it can be understood from such behaviors including child sexual abuse, sexual abuse of children is not required to contain violence necessarily and at the same time is not required to contain physical contact necessarily. In this sense child sexual abuse can be analyzed in two groups as with and without physical contact. As defined by "intentionally or unintentionally" terms also used in abuse definition impact of the actions on the child is important but not the intention of the adult in sexual abuse (Turhan et al., 2006). In article 102 sexual assault, in Article 103 sexual abuse of children, in Article 104 sexual intercourse with a minor and in Article 105 sexual abuse crimes are defined in Criminal Code numbered 5237 (Official Gazette, 2014). According to these articles violation of the physical integrity of a person and any kind of sexual offenses committed against children who has not completed fifteen years of age or who have completed but his/her ability to understand the consequences of legal meaning and consequences of action have been defined as crime. It is observed that large number of child sexual abuse cases are reflected to media in our country in recent years. According to statistics about lawsuits about child abuse of TCK for 2011 year explained in Report of Sexual Exploitation and Sexual Abuse against Children in Turkey (2014) 47% of sexual crimes in Turkey are sexual abuse crimes against children. Majority of these cases are formed of forced marriages of girls at child age, raped and even murdered children for customs. In addition to sexual abuse cases reflected to media and official records there are also sexual abuse cases kept hidden and not disclosed. When considered all these it can be said that there is a substantial number of children sexually abused in the community and sexual abuse is a serious problem in our country. Taking into account that children spends an important part of their time in school and they are in contact with teachers throughout their time at school, attitudes of teachers about reporting child abuse is important in integrating such children to society and to ensure children's health.

At this point, child sexual abuse may be considered a case must be addressed on the basis of a social problem. Because community expects individuals to behave in certain behavioral patterns as male or female to fulfill certain roles and responsibilities. These patterns have a major impact on the outlook of the community taking different forms in different cultures and create social gender roles. The most obvious example of this situation is the perspective of society for career selection of individuals. In our society while nursing is a profession attributed to women more widely it is not accepted for men. Besides society expects women to prefer occupations such as teaching where women may spend more time for home and child care there is no such a limitation for men. Individuals take this prejudiced point of view when they were child. This prejudiced viewpoint affect the career choices of individuals and also prevent men and women to have equal opportunities in private and public spheres. As a result of perspectives ascribing domestic roles to women like motherhood there are still girls not getting basic education at schools. Understanding of social gender concepts may be guiding in perception of many problems that arise in the context of gender roles in society and they must be addressed in this sense.

According to Şenol and Yıldız (2013) other than the biological differences of the two sexes social gender is differences which was created at the social level for both sexes and involves adopted social roles continuing for generations. In the literature "sex" is used for sex identity and "gender" term is used for social gender. In order to understand the concept of social gender it is necessary to look at the various theories addressing gender. According to

Damarlı (2006), the concept of social gender is discussed with psychoanalytic theory, social learning theory, and cognitive development and gender schema theory. Psychoanalytic Theory, explains formation of social gender concept with libido that make up the biological sex and gender; libido is sexual energy and it is present in human biologically.

Psychoanalytic Theory argues that sexuality is innate and individuals are bisexual innately. However, individuals develop a gender identity with an identification process consistent with their biological sex. According to Social Learning Theory of gender roles is a concept that has been learned; it is learned through reinforcement and punishment. Imitation and social feedback also has a major influence on the learning of gender roles. Social Learning Theory asserts that children learn the gender roles in society taking their same-sex parent as model and it is supported by society. On the other hand, Kohlberg as pioneer of Theory of Cognitive Development thinks that formation of gender is based on "self-socialization" process. In their self-socialization process when children are cognitively matured they categorize themselves as male or female and they try to behave the way they think it is appropriate in this category according to their sexual identity. Representative of Gender Schema Theory Sandra Lipsitz Bem, combine the basic ideas of social learning theory and cognitive development.

According to this theory there are schemes that enable individuals to have knowledge about objects and facts and in the development of social gender concept the child observes differences between gender schemas and both sexes and getting information about his gender child defines his gender (Dökmen, 2014). In general theories of social gender it may be concluded that attributing biological infrastructure of gender to gender roles in society social gender is formed of learned patterns.

On the other hand, according to Coşkun and Özdilek (2012) differences regarding cultural values and children's upbringing method, namely the roles attributed to women and men in society, namely the concept of social gender cause gender inequality. The reason of early marriage of girls mostly results from this perspective for women. This situation leads to child sexual abuse as a result of gender inequality in terms of gender roles. Child brides are the most typical examples of child sexual abuse as a result of gender inequality. In this sense, "child brides" observed as a common practice of child sexual abuse in our country child sexual abuse is also justified on the basis of gender roles.

Perceptions of individuals about being a man or a woman is under the concept of gender. Therefore, the concept of social gender involves perspectives of individuals about roles associated with being man or woman and some stereotypes accepted by the society. According to Dökmen (2014) gender stereotypes, prejudices and discrimination cause serious limitations on women and men and leads to a system based on the oppression of women under these limitations in our society. Influence of this system based on male superiority on child sexual abuse were especially argued by the feminist movement. Finkelhor (1984) mentioned about contributions of the feminist movement in the definition of children the sexual abuse and claimed that feminist perspectives define sexual violence against children and women based on the male dominance.

Though child sexual abuse rarely results in death, there are serious consequences for the victim of abuse which continues through adulthood (Johnson, 2004). There are some research results concluding that sexual impairs child's mental and physical health (Livingston, 1987; Pelcovitz, Kaplan, Goldenberg, Mandel, Lehaneve, Guarrera, 1994; Weiss, Longhurst ve Mazure, 1999; Fergusson, Horwood, Lynskey, 1997; Kendall-Tackett, 2002).

According to the research results in literature, sexually abused children experience anxiety disorders, depression, begin to exhibit sexual behavior, introvert behaviors and having problems such as post-traumatic stress disorder. In addition, fears, behavioral problems, low self-esteem and behaviors of a sexual nature are the most common symptoms in children who suffers sexual abuse (Kendall-Tackett, Williams ve Finkelhor 1993). According to Davis and Petretic-Jackson (2000) changes in the child's self-esteem after trauma and deterioration in emotional processes may be experienced. In a study that examined the long-term effects of childhood sexual abuse (Dube, Anda, Whitfield, Brown, Felitti, Dong ve Giles, 2005), childhood, risk of marriage of victims of sexual abuse alcoholics is 40% greater than who has not experience sexual abuse and childhood sexual abuse problems increase problems related to marriage between 40% and 50%. In another survey conducted by Briere and Elliott (1994) psychological and interpersonal problems were more prevalent in individuals exposed to sexual abuse compared to those without such experience. In addition, according to them post-traumatic stress disorder, depression, anxiety, experiencing difficulties in interpersonal relationships, promiscuous sexual behavior, self-mutilation, suicide, substance usage and abuse problems of a variety of categories can be observed in these individuals.

As it can be seen from researches made in the literature, sexually abused children already faced with many challenges in the process of integration to the community. In this sense, taking into account increasingly widespread sexual abuse cases attitude for notifying suspected sexually abused children in the community is important. Child sexual abuse is a multi-dimensional problem that needs to be dealt with in many ways. According to a survey made with 351 women university students in China, (Chen, Dunne, Hons and Han, 2006), one in five women reported exposure to at least one of the sexual abuse before the age of sixteen. Also in this study (Chen et al., 2006) one out of every seven victims of sexual abuse stated that they were exposed to type of sexual abuse containing physical contact. On the other hand, Finkelhor (1994), saying variety of researches showed that child sexual abuse is an international and reported in an epidemiological study containing data from 19 countries that frequency of child sexual abuse among women varies between 7% and 26% and among men between 3% and 29%. Also, talking about the sexual abuse of children Horozgil (2011) points out that only increase in the amount of the penalty to be given to offenders about children sexual abuse will not be enough and more realistic measures in this regard should be taken and in addition to possibilities of criminal code it should be a governmental policy with support of psychology, sociology, philosophy disciplines. Walsh, Rassafiani, Mathews, Farrell and Butler (2012) report of suspected child sexual abuse cases by teachers and other professionals will disclose important number of cases and attract attention of the authorities so it would offer an important contribution to public health and criminal proceedings problems related to child sexual abuse.

Reporting child abuse is not blaming someone but it is a process of determining whether child is exposed to abuse and so to make a claim for initiation of support process for child, but this process contains some obstacles to recant educators. These obstacles are concern of teacher to be in trouble with family, reporting is not welcomed in school and belief that nothing will be done in case of reporting (Crosson-Tower, 2003). Regardless of the incidence rates about child sexual abuse it is considered to be a serious problem with adverse and serious consequences. In this sense, especially reporting of educators spending more time with children to relevant organizations is the key in delivering the necessary help to sexually

abused children. In this study, it is searched whether attitudes of individuals towards reporting sexual abuse differ according to gender roles. According to the European Commission's gender strategy aimed at the promotion of equality between men and women for the years 2010-2015; social gender roles continue to affect critical individual decisions like career, reproduction, business arrangements and these decisions influence economy and society (European Commission, 2010). In this sense, social gender roles affect attitudes towards reporting sexual abuse and it is believed to be important in making decision about reporting. Under the light of all these statements answers for following questions have been searched in this study and reporting attitudes towards child sexual abuse in the central district of Mersin among state schools teachers according to gender roles, gender, level of being informed about the signs of child sexual abuse and behavioral variables in case of a suspected case are examined in this research.

1. Is there a significant relationship between teachers' attitudes towards reporting children sexual abuse and gender roles?
2. Do gender roles predict child sexual abuse reporting scores of teachers significantly?
3. Is there a significant difference in teacher reports of child sexual abuse according to gender?
4. Is there a significant difference in teacher reports of child sexual abuse according to level of being informed about the signs of sexual abuse?
5. Is there a significant difference in teacher reports of child sexual abuse according to their first attitude in case of a suspected sexual abuse?

Method

Research Model

This research conducted to examine reporting attitudes towards child sexual abuse in the central district of Mersin among state schools teachers according to social gender roles is a qualitative research made with descriptive method.

Research Group

The research group is formed of 281 (57.1%) female and 211 (42.9%) male and total 492 volunteer teachers determined by simple random sampling method working in public schools in central Mersin districts (Akdeniz, Toroslar, Yenişehir, Mezitli) in 2015-2016 academic year (elementary, middle and high school). Age range of teachers vary between 21 and 62 and 175 of them work in (35.6%) primary schools, 180 (36.6%) in secondary schools and 137 (27.8%) in high schools.

Data Collection Means

Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI): Turkish adaptation, reliability and validity studies of Bem Sex Role Inventory developed by Bem (1974) has been made by Kavuncu (1987). Bem Sex Role Inventory is a Likert type 7 self-assessment scales. Bem Sex Role Inventory consists of three scales including femininity scale, masculinity scale and social acceptability (social appreciation) scale. In her study made by Kavuncu (1987) in Bem Sex Role Inventory Turkish form test-retest reliability coefficient for femininity scale is .75 and for masculinity .89 and social appreciation scale is .87. Bem Sex Role Inventory consists of 60 items including

20 items Femininity scale, 20 items Masculinity scale and 20 items Social Acceptance scale. In Bem Sex Role Inventory reliability and validity study conducted by Dökmen (1991) Cronbach's alpha coefficient for internal consistency reliability for Femininity Scale is found to be .77, for Masculinity scale .71. In Dökmen's (1991) study Social Acceptability Scale was not included. According this version, 40-items form of inventory consisting of Femininity and Masculinity scales were used in this research and Cronbach Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient for Femininity Scale was found .75 and Cronbach Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient for Masculinity Scale was calculated as .78.

Attitudes towards Reporting Child Sexual Abuse Scale (ATRCASAS): Turkish adaptation, reliability and validity of Children Sexual Abuse Attitude Scale developed by Choo, Walsh, Chinna and Tey (2013) were carried out by Akin, Yıldız, Uysal, Demir, Kaymaz, Aşut ve Erguvan (2013). Attitudes towards Reporting Child Sexual Abuse Scale is a 5 items Likert-type self-assessment scale. The scale consists of 4 subscales and 8 items. Scale gives a total attitude score for reporting sexual abuse against children and subscale. The highest score that can be obtained from the scale is 40 and the lowest score is 8. Rising scores indicate high levels of negative attitudes. 2, 3, 7 and 8 items of scale calculated reversely. Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient of scale is calculated for 4 subscales as .88, .75, .87, .58. Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient obtained under this research using the total scale score was calculated as .78.

Personal Information Form: This form containing information about variables of teachers like sex, age, being aware of signs of child sexual abuse has been created by researchers in this study.

Operation

The application form consist of information form prepared by the researchers and measurement tools were applied to participants at breaks by researchers after giving information about the purpose and voluntary survey. In the application process, all basic guidelines about implementation and scale were described to participants aim in a standard way.

Data Analysis

The data obtained from the measuring tool were transferred to the computer and prepared to conduct appropriate statistical procedures. To determine the relationship between gender roles and attitudes of teachers towards reporting children sexual abuse Pearson moment multiplication correlation coefficient was calculating and to determine their contributions in prediction of attitude scores of teachers for reporting child sexual abuse multiple regression analysis was used. On the other hand, compliance of independent variables analyzed in the study with parametric statistical procedures was examined by Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and according to results non-parametric statistical techniques have been applied to data not distributed normally. To determine whether attitudes of participants to report the sexual abuse differs in terms of gender Mann-Whitney-U test was used and whether it differs according to having information about the signs of sexual abuse and first attitude when informed about a suspected case Kruskal-Wallis H-Test was used. Scheffe test was used to determine the source of the resulting difference. To determine the effect size of independent

variables ETA square (η^2) value was taken into. Eta squared (η^2) value was interpreted as small (.01), moderate (.06) and large (.14) effect size (Green and Salkind, 2005). For statistical analysis of data obtained from the study SPSS 20.0 software package was used and margin of error in analysis was considered to be 0.05 to 0.01.

Findings

This section is devoted to findings obtained in accordance with the lower object of research. In this context following issues were examined about teachers working in different branches of public schools in central district of Mersin (Akdeniz, Toroslar, Yenişehir, Mezitli); whether there is relationship between gender roles and attitudes towards reporting child sexual abuse and whether gender roles predict their reporting attitude scores towards child sexual abuse significantly and whether their attitudes towards reporting child sexual abuse differ according to variables like gender, level of being informed about signs of sexual abuse, first reaction a suspected child sexual abuse.

Relationships between Gender Roles of the Teachers Participated to the Research Group (feminine and masculine) and Reporting Attitudes of Child Sexual Abuse:

To examine the relationship between gender roles of teachers participated to study group and their attitude scores for reporting child sexual abuse Pearson moment correlation coefficient was calculated. Later, multiple regression analysis was calculated to determine whether gender roles predict their attitude scores for reporting child sexual abuse.

Correlation analysis results and mean and standard deviation values calculated to determine relationship between gender roles and attitudes towards reporting child sexual abuse of teachers are given in Table 1.

Tablo 1: *Correlation Coefficients Between Variables with Mean and Standard Deviation Values about Variables*

Variables	Mean	Sd	1	2	3
ATRCASAS	13.89	5.20	1		
Feminine	114.43	9.64	-.171**	1	
Masculine	100.24	11.71	-.202**	.285**	1

**p<01 (ATRCASAS; Attitudes towards Reporting Child Sexual Abuse Scale)

Looking at Table 1, it is observed that correlation between relationship between gender roles and attitudes reporting towards child sexual abuse found to be significant at low level and negative. Statistically negative and low level relationship was found between ATRCSAS points and feminine gender role scores ($r=-.171$; $p<.01$) and masculine gender role scores ($r=-.202$; $p<.01$).

Contribution of Feminine and Masculine Gender Roles in Predicting Attitudes towards Reporting Child Sexual Abuse:

Contributions of feminine and masculine gender roles in predicting attitudes reporting towards child sexual abuse were examined by regression analysis and the results are given in Table 2.

Tablo 2. "Multiple Regression Analysis" Results about Feminine and Masculine Gender

Variables	B	SE	β	t	p
(Constant)	28.935	2.990		9.676	.000
Feminine	-.067	.025	-.123	-2.692	.007
Masculine	-.074	.020	-.167	-3.632	.000
R=.234	R ² =.055			F(2 – 491)=14.155	p=.000

Roles in Predicting Attitudes towards Reporting Child Sexual Abuse

When we look at Table 2, feminine and masculine gender roles significantly predict reporting attitude scores towards child sexual abuse (R=.234, R²=.055, p=.000). The variance related to masculine and feminine gender roles and attitudes reporting towards sexual abuse of children appears to explain 5%. According to t-test results related to significance of regression coefficient the most important contributions in predicting attitudes towards reporting child sexual abuse comes from masculine gender role and from feminine gender role.

Findings about whether teachers' attitudes towards reporting child sexual abuse differ according to gender variable:

Mann Whitney U test results about whether teachers' attitudes towards reporting child sexual abuse differ according to gender variable are given in Table 3.

Tablo 3. "Mann-Whitney U Test" Results about whether Scores of Attitudes towards Reporting Child Sexual Abuse Scale Differ According to Gender Variable

Dependent Variable	Gender	N	Mean Rank	U	p
ATRCSAS	Female	281	255.19	27204.5	.117*
	Male	211	234.93		

*p>.05 (ATRCSAS; Attitudes towards Reporting Child Sexual Abuse Scale)

As seen in Table 3, statistically significant difference was not found according to the teachers' gender in terms of ATRCSAS score (U = 27204.5, P> .05). According to these results it can be said that both genders exhibit similar behavior characteristics about reporting sexual abuse of children.

Findings about whether teachers' attitudes towards reporting child sexual abuse differ according to being informed about signs of sexual abuse of children:

Kruskal-Wallis H test results about whether r teachers' attitudes towards reporting child sexual abuse differ according to being informed about signs of sexual abuse of children are given in Table 4.

Tablo 4. "Kruskal-Wallis H Test" Results about whether Scores of Attitudes towards Reporting Child Sexual Abuse Scale differ According to Being Informed about Signs of

Dependent Variables	Being Informed about Signs of Sexual Abuse	N	Mean Rank	SD	χ^2	p
ATRCSAS	I have no information	30	302.28	2	9.842	.007*
	I have a little information	324	251.70			
	I have sufficient information	137	220.19			

*p<.05 (ATRCSAS; Attitudes towards Reporting Child Sexual Abuse Scale)

Sexual Abuse of Children

In Table 4 according to Kruskal-Wallis H test results conducted to determine whether ATRCSAS means show a significant difference according to the variable of having information about the signs of sexual abuse; difference between means of the groups belonging to variable of having information about the signs of sexual abuse was statistically significant ($\chi^2=9.842$, $p=.007$; $p<.05$). Following this operation to determine from where significant difference found after Kruskal-Wallis H test stem from complementary comparison techniques were used. Because there is no special technique used for this purpose Mann-Whitney U test was preferred. According to Mann-Whitney U test results conducted to determine under which sub groups being informed about signs of sexual abuse of children ATRCSAS score showed a significant difference; it was found that source of the difference stem from groups of "I have no information" and "I have sufficient information "; "I have a little information" and "I have sufficient information." Considering the mean rank of the groups participants in the "I have no Information" group were found to have higher ATRCSAS points compared to other groups and they have a negative attitude towards reporting sexual abuse of children. In addition, according to ETA square results variable of being informed about signs of sexual abuse of children influence mean scores of their attitudes for reporting sexual abuse was found to be a low level ($\Gamma^2= .02$) and it can be said that variable of being informed about signs of sexual abuse of children explains 2% of attitude towards reporting child sexual abuse.

Findings about whether reporting attitudes of teachers towards sexual abuse of children differ according to first behavior reaction to a suspected sexual abuse of children:

Kruskal-Wallis H test results whether attitudes towards reporting child sexual abuse differ according to first reaction to a suspected child sexual abuse are given in Table 5.

Tablo 5. "Kruskal-Wallis H Test" Results about whether Scores of Attitudes towards Reporting Child Sexual Abuse Scale Differ According to First Reaction to A Suspected Sexual Abuse of Children

Dependent Variables	First Reaction to a Suspected Child Sexual Abuse	N	Mean Rank	SD	χ^2	p	η^2
ATRCSAS	Reporting without delay	152	163.14	5	18.494	.00	.05
	Not reporting	5	217.90				
	Decision-making by sharing friend	35	234.14				
	Decision-making in line with the idea of school management	41	208.99				
	Decision-making with family	10	210.45				
	Forwarding to guidance service	118	174.45				

* $p<.05$ (ATRCSAS; Attitudes towards Reporting Child Sexual Abuse Scale)

In Table 5 according to Kruskal-Wallis H test results conducted to determine whether ATRCSAS mean rank differ according to first reaction to a suspected child sexual abuse; difference between groups about first reaction to a suspected child sexual abuse was found to be statistically significant ($\chi^2=18.494$, $p=.002$; $p<.05$). Following this operation to determine from where significant difference found after Kruskal-Wallis H test stem from complementary comparison techniques were used. Because there is no special technique

used for this purpose Mann-Whitney U test was preferred. According to Mann-Whitney U test results conducted to determine under which sub groups first reaction to a suspected child sexual abuse ATRCSAS score showed a significant difference: the source of difference was found to be between "reporting without delay" and "decision-making by sharing friend" and "decision-making in line with the idea of school management" and "decision-making by sharing friend" and forwarding the guidance service groups. Considering the average position of the groups ATRCSAS points of "reporting sharing friend" and " decision-making in line with the idea of school management" group of participants were higher compared to "report without delay" participants group and ATRCSAS points of "decision-making by sharing friend" group of participants were higher compared to "forwarding to guidance service" group was higher and it can be said they had more negative attitude towards reporting child sexual abuse. In addition, according to obtained eta-squared value it was found that effect of first attitude about reporting suspected sexual abuse variable on scores average for reporting suspected sexual abuse was at low levels ($\eta^2 = .05$) and it can be said that variable of reporting suspected child sexual abuse explains 5% of attitude towards reporting child sexual abuse.

Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

According to the results obtained in accordance with the first sub-objectives of the study, low negative correlation has been found between the gender roles of teachers and their attitudes towards reporting child sexual abuse. In literature no study was found conducted about determining relationship between attitudes towards reporting sexual abuse and gender roles and therefore findings could not be reviewed in comparison with other research findings on this subject. However, in the scope this research reason of negative low level relation between gender roles and teachers' attitudes towards reporting sexual abuse may be that teachers are informed about legal reporting processes through teacher training, social media, television or experience. Because teachers are a group of teachers who have a legal obligation to notify such cases. Therefore, it may be thought that they have replied measurement tool for reporting child sexual abuse under light of this information and effect of social appreciation factors. In other words, teachers having knowledge about legally mandated reporting of sexual abuse of children may have led to refrain from replying outside the process of legal requirements. On the other hand, whether social gender of teachers is male or female participating in the study, basis of giving positive attitude impressions in response for reporting sexual abuse may be awareness of the seriousness of the notification of sexual abuse legally and their concerns in this regard. Therefore, it is thought that not reporting child abuse is defined as a crime under the laws caused positive attitude of teachers for reporting the sexual abuse of teachers in measuring tool.

According to the results obtained in accordance with the second sub-objectives of the study, it is concluded that teachers' feminine and masculine gender roles predict attitudes towards reporting child sexual abuse and contribution of masculine gender role in prediction was higher. According to the results of a study that examined the gender roles of candidate class teachers (Seçgin and Tural, 2011) it was found that a team of students adopted roles related to cultural and traditional values and exhibited attitudes more in favor of their own group on gender roles. In our study prediction of child sexual abuse reporting by gender roles was significant and it can be evaluated as teachers tend to comply with traditional patterns

required by the gender roles. It is assumed society expects from both female and male teachers and educators to start the legal process and give the necessary support with regards to child sexual abuse. In this research teachers respond to measurement tools in line with this expectation is not surprising. The higher contribution of masculine gender role in predicting may be due to high expectation of society for reporting in patriarchal structure of our society. However it should also be considered that attitudes measured at attitudes scale may not turned into behavior always and individuals tend not to express what is happening instead of what happens in self-assessments scale responds.

In addition, in this research it has been found that scores of attitudes towards reporting child sexual abuse did not vary by gender. According to a study that examined the attitudes of reporting sexual abuse of children by teacher candidates (Can Yaşar, Şenol and Akyol, 2015) class levels and branches of the participants differed in terms of getting training on child neglect and abuse and feeling ready themselves to identify the signs of sexual abuse while there is no difference according to gender. Also according to a study made by Pala (2011) a significant correlation was found between gender roles and attitudes of the participants to report child abuse. These researches support finding of our research that attitudes towards reporting child sexual abuse doesn't significantly differ according to gender roles. In this sense it can be said that gender of individuals is not effective in determining attitudes towards reporting sexual abuse and both gender have similar attitudes towards reporting child sexual abuse.

According to the results obtained in accordance with the fourth sub-objectives of this study, those informed about signs of children sexual abuse had more positive attitudes towards reporting sexual abuse compared to those without information. Some research have been found conducted in Turkey and world examining awareness, attitudes and information level about child abuse and reporting sexual abuse for teachers and educators. In a study conducted by Aksel and Yılmaz Irak (2015) with 100 teachers it was concluded that education about children sexual abuse they took during university and in-service was inadequate and despite having accurate information about sexual abuse they were inadequate to report cases to official institutions. In a research studied opinions and experience of preschool teachers about child abuse and its prevention (Dereobalı, Çırak Karadağ ve Sönmez, 2013) it was concluded that teachers have knowledge about child abuse but they consider this issue as one-dimensional and limited number of teachers were taking formal training in this regard. Similarly, in another study examined attitudes of staff working in pre-school educational organizations towards reporting sexual abuse of children (Akgül, 2015) staff's attitudes toward reporting the sexual abuse were found to be positive, but almost all of the participants did not report any child sexual abuse notification previously and a group of them didn't report sexual abuse case that they suspected throughout their career. In another study examined knowledge and attitudes of teachers about mandatory reporting of sexual abuse to children (Beck, Ogloff and Corbishley, 1994), despite teachers were aware of the legislation on mandatory reporting they were familiar with legislation only at moderate level. In a similar study examined trends of teachers in the United States to inform the child abuse (Crenshaw and Lichtenberg, 1995), reporting trend had a hierarchical order based on type of abuse and there was no significant difference according to gender of the victim. Some teachers attended to study found less important to report certain types of abuse and thus it may be thought that they were not fully aware of the seriousness of child

abuse and they need to be more informed about the sexual abuse. In another study that examined awareness of teachers about legal process of reporting and signs of child abuse (Kenny, 2004), it was found that teachers were not aware of the seriousness of the legal notification process and child abuse and signs and symptoms of the majority of child abuse. On the other hand, Walsh, Mathews, Rassafiani, Farrell and Butler (2012) reported that a 24% of teachers reported child sexual abuse previously had more information about reporting child abuse, they trusted that system will give effective response and they had less concerns about the results of the reporting. In line with these findings, it can be said that those having knowledge about legal notification process and signs of child sexual abuse have more positive attitude towards sexual abuse reporting. All of these research can be said to support findings of our research that teachers having knowledge about signs of children sexual abuse have more positive attitudes towards reporting sexual abuse.

According to another result of this research, in case of a suspected case in school, participants reporting that case to be reported immediately to counseling service in terms of the first attitude compared to those saying they will share case with another colleague and they will decide after approach of school management they had more negative attitude towards the sexual abuse report. It may be said that this result shows that teachers stating that they will comply with the legal processes of reporting (those reporting without delay and referring to guidance service) compared to those stating that they will not follow the legal process (deciding by taking idea of another teacher or deciding in line with the idea of school management) had more positive attitude toward reporting the sexual abuse. From this point forth, it can be said that the first attitude teacher said they will exhibit when they suspect a sexual abuse case and their attitudes to report child sexual abuse are consistent. In a study that examined the behaviors of teachers to report child abuse (Goebbels, Nicholson, Walsh and Vries, 2008) it is emphasized that teachers stating that they always report when they suspect child abuse had always more robust potential action plans. This finding can be said to support finding of our research that teachers stating that they will immediately notify a suspected case at the school or they will refer case to guidance service have more positive attitude towards reporting sexual abuse.

As a result of all the findings obtained from this study, it may be concluded that teachers' attitudes towards reporting child sexual is associated at a low level in a negative way with feminine and masculine gender roles, predicted significantly by roles of masculine and feminine gender and the most important contribution comes from masculine gender role. Moreover, it was found that attitude scores to report the sexual abuse of children doesn't differ statistically significantly by gender roles, those having information about the signs of sexual abuse have more positive attitude towards reporting abuse compared to those without information and with regards to first behavior in case of a suspected a case in school those stating that they will share the suspected case with other teachers or with school management have more negative attitude for reporting child sexual abuse compared to those stating they will report sexual abuse case without delay or refer to guidance service.

Under the lights of these results the phenomenon of child sexual abuse and in-service training or courses on legal reporting process for teachers may be effective in developing more positive attitudes towards reporting children sexual abuse. For disclosing children sexual abuse cases and providing necessary aid to such cases informing teachers in terms of reporting such abuse cases would be useful. In addition, to eliminate concerns of teachers

about legal reporting process it would be useful to organize seminars or workshops by experts of subject to inform teachers. Informing teachers about only cases of child sexual abuse and legal process and eliminating their concerns are not sufficient in this issue. To disclose cases of child sexual abuse teachers in all types of schools must be aware of severe negative consequences of sexual abuse of children and reflection of such cases to society. Therefore, especially children's mental health professionals working with sexually abused children, social service experts and educators may organize together in cooperation an awareness campaign to draw attention to this issue.

Because measuring instruments used in this research have self-evaluation nature it is possible that participants replied not actually what is the case but they replied what it should be. This possibility may cause significant limitations for results about determining whether masculine and feminine gender roles of teachers predict their attitudes towards reporting sexual abuse against children. Therefore, it is thought that in new research collecting data about how teachers faced with child abuse before behaved may eliminate this limitation and may result in more efficient and comprehensive results.

On the other hand, results of the research shows that feminine and masculine gender roles predict together 5% attitudes to report the sexual abuse. It is important to focus on new models with different variables that may be thought to explain 95% variance about attitudes of teachers in reporting child sexual abuse (confidence level to reported institutions, feeling self under threat when reported, reflection of reporting to entity he is working for, etc.) It is believed that it is important to focus on new models.

In addition, the factor determining way of life teachers spending much of the day in schools and their self-expression in society as male or female is their gender roles. In this sense, it is believed that it would be better to identify this issue with different findings because there is no any other research about relationship between social gender roles of reporting persons and their attitudes towards reporting the sexual abuse.

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Self-Awareness Levels of English Language Teacher Trainees

Feryal Cubukcu
Faculty of Education,
Dokuz Eylul University,
Turkey,
cubukcu.feryal@gmail.com

Abstract

Learning ability develops naturally through time. However, to do so, we need to change and adapt ourselves to changing conditions which lead to lifelong learning. Most students do not change because they do not recognize that a problem exists or they do not realize the significance of learning strategies. They are unaware that their learning activities can cause problems for them or they do not have any clues as to which learning skills are necessary for them to perform better. To foster achievement, increase enjoyment, and to utilize the learning time better, most students need to change for better. The factors ranging from motivation, to time management, memory skills, text learning, representations-graphic organizers, and lecture learning constitute the key elements of this study which aims at investigating the study skill awareness levels of teacher trainees. In order to see how cognizant English language teacher trainees are, a self-awareness scale developed by Kiewra & Dubois (1998) was administered to 240 sophomores and junior students at the English Language Teaching Department. Then they were compared with each other to investigate whether time might enhance the self-awareness level or not. The third aspect of the study is to tackle whether there is a correlation between the teacher trainees' general academic proficiency scores and their self-awareness levels.

Keywords: Awareness, Teacher trainees, Study skills, Proficiency, Time.

Introduction

When we think of our own education we should think whether somebody has taught us how to motivate ourselves, manage time, mark a text, study for various types of texts. Teachers do not dwell upon imposing and transmitting such skills to their students. Only a few of learners know how to acquire skills and how to survive in lifelong learning, which is defined as the act of acquiring new, or modifying and reinforcing, existing knowledge, behaviours, skills, values, or preferences and may involve synthesizing different types of information. As time goes by, most of us develop into better learners.

Being aware of one's shortcomings and strengths is crucial to be better. Kiewra & Dubois (1998) come up with some subheadings to enable learners to be more cognizant of

themselves: motivation, time management, memory, representations, text learning, lecture learning, review, real-world applications.

Motivation

Believing that you lack ability is dangerous, because it can rule out how you use strategies and spend time. Attributing low performance to low ability is not helpful for the learners as this precludes people from trying harder. In the same way, equating success with high ability is wrong because such people do not try hard and they resist achieving more and harder. People perform better not because of their ability but skill and will.

Motivated students do not let anything get in the way of performing their tasks. According to Ellis (2008, p. 708) earlier studies on motivated language learners showed five major aspects of successful language learning:

- (1) a concern for language form,
- (2) a concern for communication (functional practice),
- (3) an active task approach,
- (4) an awareness of the learning process, and

(5) a capacity to use strategies flexibly in accordance with task requirements. To some scholars (Naiman, 1978; 1996; Ur, 2005) the characteristics of successful and motivated learners are listed as below:

- Positive task orientation
- Ego involvement
- Need for achievement
- High aspirations
- Goal orientation
- Perseverance
- Tolerance of ambiguity

Text learning and memory

Oakley's list (2014) highlights some tips for studying effectively and fruitfully:

1. Using recall. After you read a page, look away and recall the main ideas. Highlight very little, and never highlight anything you haven't put in your mind first by recalling. Try recalling main ideas when you are walking to class or in a different room from where you originally learned it. An ability to recall—to generate the ideas from inside yourself—is one of the key indicators of good learning.

2. Testing yourself.

3. **Chunking problems.** Chunking is understanding and practicing with a problem solution so that it can all come to mind in a flash. After you solve a problem, rehearse it. Make sure you can solve it cold—every step. Pretend it’s a song and learn to play it over and over again in your mind, so the information combines into one smooth chunk you can pull up whenever you want.
4. **Spacing repetition.** Spread out your learning in any subject a little every day, just like an athlete. Your brain is like a muscle—it can handle only a limited amount of exercise on one subject at a time.
5. **Alternating different problem-solving techniques during practice.** Never practice too long at any one session using only one problem-solving technique—after a while, you are just mimicking what you did on the previous problem. Mix it up and work on different types of problems. This teaches you both how and when to use a technique. (Books generally are not set up this way, so you’ll need to do this on your own.) After every assignment and test, go over your errors, make sure you understand why you made them, and then rework your solutions. To study most effectively, **handwrite** (don’t type) a problem on one side of a flash card and the solution on the other. (Handwriting builds stronger neural structures in memory than typing.) You might also photograph the card if you want to load it into a study app on your smartphone. Quiz yourself randomly on different types of problems. Another way to do this is to randomly flip through your book, pick out a problem, and see whether you can solve it cold.
6. **Taking breaks.** It is common to be unable to solve problems or figure out concepts in math or science the first time you encounter them. This is why a little study every day is much better than a lot of studying all at once. When you get frustrated with a math or science problem, take a break so that another part of your mind can take over and work in the background.
7. **Using explanatory questioning and simple analogies.** Whenever you are struggling with a concept, think to yourself, How can I explain this so that a ten-year-old could understand it? Using an analogy really helps, like saying that the flow of electricity is like the flow of water. Don’t just think your explanation—say it out loud or put it in writing. The additional effort of speaking and writing allows you to more deeply encode (that is, convert into neural memory structures) what you are learning.
8. **Focusing.** Turn off all interrupting beeps and alarms on your phone and computer, and then turn on a timer for twenty-five minutes. Focus intently for those twenty-five minutes and try to work as diligently as you can. After the timer goes off, give yourself a small, fun reward. A few of these sessions in a day can really move your studies forward. Try to set up times and places where studying—not glancing at your computer or phone—is just something you naturally do.
9. **Eating frogs first.** Do the hardest thing earliest in the day, when you are fresh.
10. **Making a mental contrast.** Imagine where you come from and contrast that with the dream of where your studies will take you. Post a picture or words in your workspace to remind you of your dream. Look at that when you find your motivation lagging.

Study skills during lectures

To get the full profit from the lectures, it is possible to divide the lecture session into three: Before, during and after the lecture. Before the lecture, preparing emotionally, physically and mentally is crucial. Physical preparation requires being on time, being up front, sitting on the edge, keeping the materials ready. During the lecture, note-taking, recording main ideas, details, examples, asking questions to the instructor are essential activities for students to fulfill.

If you simply put your notes away and don't look at them again, it is likely you will forget about 80% of the lecture within as little as a week.

So what can students do after a lecture to help them remember?

- Soon after the lecture, spending a little time thinking about and writing what they have learnt without consulting notes. This gets your brain to process the information and makes a good basis for revision notes later.
- Talking with friends - check what they understood and compare what they found out...
- Skimming over notes - identify any gaps you need to fill, then do some extra reading to fill them!
- Doing a coversheet or spider diagram summarising the key points of the lecture as a trigger when it comes to revising.
- Having a simple and easy to use filing system so they can find everything again e.g. a box file for each module. <http://www.palgrave.com/studentstudyskills/page/learning-strategies/>

Method

Participants

In order to see how cognizant English language teacher trainees are, a self-awareness scale developed by Kiewra & Dubois (1998) was administered to 240 sophomores and junior students at the English Language Teaching Department. 120 of them were in the second year of their study at the university, the other 120 in their third year.

Instrument

The scale of self-awareness was developed from the ideas of Kiewra & Dubois (1998) and tested for reliability with the fourth year students at the Faculty of Education. The reliability is found, 93.

Results and Discussion

When the items are analysed closely, it is easy to see that language teachers' awareness in terms of learning styles, committing the new items to memory(1,8 to 2,2), revision (ranging from 1,9 to 2,5) and relating to real life score very poorly (1,9 to 2,4). However, on the other hand, their time management skills (3,5) outscore the others and their overall motivation is considered not as high (varying between 2,2 and 2,5).

Table 1 shows the relationship between gender and the awareness levels. There is a significant difference in the awareness levels in terms of gender. Girls are more cognizant of the importance of time management and listening to the lectures.

Table 1. Paired Samples Statistics between gender and awareness

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1 gender	1,2883	240	,47458	,04505		
total	133,9910	240	22,21199	2,10827	,287	,002

In terms of the relationship between ages and awareness levels of the pre-service teachers, since there is no huge gap between their ages, the results show there is no significant difference of the awareness levels in terms of age(,086)

Table 2 shows that GPA is closely affiliated with the awareness levels of the pre-service teachers. The higher their grades are, the more aware they are in terms of motivation, study skills, real life adaptations, revisions, time management and representations.

Table 2. Paired Samples Statistics between GPA and awareness

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1 GPA	2,2432	240	,71626	,06798		
total	133,9910	240	22,21199	2,10827	,273	,004

In terms of class, there is no significant difference between the classes and the awareness levels of pre-service teachers. (, 372)

Conclusion

The results of the scale show that the pre-service English language teachers:

--are not highly motivated

-- are certain that poor teachers, unfair tests and personal problems cause bad grades.

--are not good at using memory and rehearsal strategies to retain the new items of knowledge in their minds

--are not successful in grouping the ideas, finding out key words and the crucial structures

--do not know how to survey the table of contents, highlight the material, generate representations and summarize the passage, in short, they are not capable of using the reading strategies successfully

--do not revise the class

--cannot relate what they have learned to the real life situations, cannot monitor their thoughts in real life settings.

Such dynamic assessment of students' learning strategies and awareness serves a number of pedagogical purposes. First, it reflects back to the learner what they say about themselves in relation to their awareness of themselves and the learning process. Second, it reflects back to the teacher data about individuals, and groups, which can be used for diagnosing what is needed to move forward in the development of self-awareness, ownership and responsibility for learning. Third, the dimensions of learning power provide scaffolding for the ways in which students encounter the formal content of the curriculum and adjust themselves for the more fruitful learning process.

A sense of identity and ownership is crucial if students are to become intentional learners, taking responsibility for their own learning journey and making sense of the 'public funds of knowledge' which are their entitlement. Often knowledge is introduced to learners from the 'top down', acquired from a central fund. The dynamic assessment of learning power facilitates a 'bottom-up' learning journey which begins with the experience and choice of the learner. Identity is a troublesome concept, but being able to complete statements such as 'I am the sort of learner who usually . . . ' or 'I am the sort of learner who likes to . . . ' can be affirmations that build the self-knowledge and self-confidence necessary for a healthy identity (Crick, 2007, p.151).

The learning journey is scaffolded towards a more personally owned construction of knowledge through dialogue, using learning power dimensions, in which attention moves between the person and the 'knowledge' to be acquired, in the context of experience. When learners are cognizant of their strengths and the ways to amend themselves, they can be successful towards the learning process (Hattie, 1996, Jaros & Crick, 2006). To put it simply, metacognitive awareness, study skills and strategies are necessary for the learning journey.

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Dialects in Design Learning

Özgen Osman Demirbaş
Department of Interior Architecture and Environmental Design
Faculty of Fine Arts and Design, Izmir University of Economics,
Izmir, Turkey
osman.demirbas@ieu.edu.tr

Güler Ufuk Demirbaş
Department of Interior Architecture
Faculty of Architecture, Çankaya University
Ankara, Turkey,
udemirbas@cankaya.edu.tr

Abstract

Learning as a lifelong and interactive activity, is defined as a continues cycle in which learning starts with an experience, continues with reflection, and then an action which turns to be a concrete experience for reflection according to Kolb's *Experiential Learning Theory* (ELT). Design education in its featured nature is stated as a good example of ELT and its formation is considered to a suitable approach for all higher education of different disciplines. Previous research shows that most of the design students have a balanced learning style. All four learning styles of ELT are effective in design learning; however, the performance level of different learners with diverse learning styles in various stages of the design learning processes might differ. Another important factor in design learning is the perceptual, cognitive and spatial abilities of the learner. These will help to define the design ability that could be classified as coping with ill-defined problems, problem structuring, managing goals and constraints, generating solution concepts, thinking by drawing, and intuitive reasoning.

In the scope of the study it is aimed to figure out the correlations of the learning styles and spatial abilities of the design learners. The spatial ability scores of the design students through some mechanical aptitude tests are figured out and these scores were correlated with the learning styles of them. Results show that the students with higher scores in mechanical aptitude tests tend to have more experiential skills than analytical skills on the bipolar perceive axis and they tend to act by having better behavioural skills rather than the perceptual learning skills on the bipolar process axis. These differences are considered to be the dialects of the design learners through the learning process. By considering the considerably balanced distribution of the learning styles and the developing performance levels in spatial abilities through experience, it is concluded that the association and synergy of the learning dialects are essential for the efficiency of the design education.

Keywords: Experiential Learning Theory, Learning Styles, Spatial Ability, Design Learning

Learning process

For the recent years, learning has been one of the most important research areas for design (Demirkan and Demirbas, 2008; Demirbas and Demirkan, 2007, 2010). Learning process is critically important in the discussion of education and any individual's way of learning is the key for an educational improvement (Leutner and Plass, 1998). Each individual's way of receiving and acquiring new knowledge and information differs from each other, and this could be considered as the learning styles of the individuals which is the biological and developmental set of personal characteristics (Demirbaş and Demirkan, 2003; Fox and Batholomae, 1999; Kraus et al., 2001). The perception, organization and retention of new knowledge is distinct, consistent and unique for every individual (Chou and Wang, 2000; Hsu, 1999). Out of several different studies and instruments, Experiential Learning Theory of Kolb is one of the most popular studies (Kolb and Kolb, 2005; Smith and Kolb, 1996; Kolb, 1984).

Experiential Learning

According to Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory, learning is a cyclic process that starts with experience continues with reflection that brings conceptualization and finally leads to an action (Metallidou and Platsidou, 2008; Kolb, 1984). Through this process there are four learning actions as learning by experiencing, reflecting, thinking and doing. These are considered as the four modes of learning as concrete experience (CE), reflective observation (RO), abstract conceptualization (AC) and active experimentation (AE). These four learning modes create to bipolar dimensions as perceive (vertical axis) and process (horizontal axis). Perceive dimension is the concrete/abstract dimension while process is the active/reflective dimension (Willcoxson and Prosser, 1996). Ideally any learner would move through each mode of the cycle equally (Demirbaş and Demirkan, 2007; Smith and Kolb, 1996; Willcoxson and Prosser, 1996), but various research search show that not all of the individuals equally experience each stage (Demirbaş and Demirbaş, 2007; Demirbaş and Demirkan, 2007). The combination of learning preference through experiencing or thinking and the learning preference through reflecting or doing reveals the learning style of the individual (Figure1).

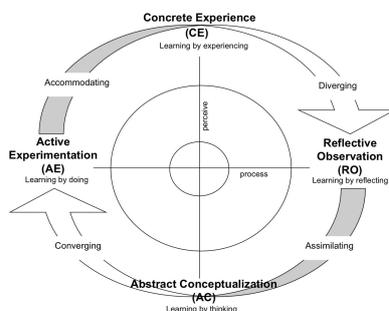


Figure 1. Experiential Learning Theory, Modes of Learning (cited from Demirbaş and Demirkan, 2007, p.347).

In order to find the learning style of the learner the combined scores are calculated by subtracting AE from AC and RO from AE. The find out scores are put on the Learning Style Type Grid, which gives the exact learning style of the individual as accommodating, diverging, assimilating and converging. Accommodating learners prefer getting things done and generally considered as practical and adaptable during the learning activity. Diverging learners are considerably more imaginative and they tend to brainstorming. Assimilating learners are theory developers and good in defining things. Generally they are more interested in abstract concepts than people and real experiences. Converging learners are

good in deductive reasoning and they are considered to be the problem solvers and good decision makers (Figure 2).

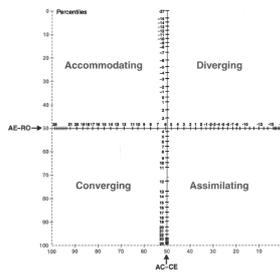


Figure 2. Learning Style Type Grid (cited from Kolb, 1999, p.6).

Design Learning

In its special nature the learning process in design education could be considered as unique and different than other traditional higher education programs. The most unique notion of the design education is its interactive process in which all parties should be active. In this respect it is considered to be a general model for higher education by Schon (1987). Schon states design education process as 'action-in-reflection' and 'reflection-in-action' in which while students reflects on the action of instructor, the instructor reflects on action of students. This is a continues process through which all four learning modes of ELT is experienced through the different stages of the learning and teaching action (Demirbaş and Demirkan, 2007).

Design education is not something that aims to teach how to design but it is also crucial to teach how to define what the design problems is (Cross, 2001; 2006; Schon, 1984). In order to do this, experience is one of the key concepts of design teaching and learning. Different than a regular classroom, design studio is the main learning environment that provides the reflection-in-action and action-in-reflection interaction. In this respect design studio is a good example of ELT. During different stages of any design learning activity in the design studio both the learner and the instructor experience the different modes of learning cycle (Demirbaş and Demirkan 2003).

Spatial Ability

Spatial ability is described as the capacity of the individuals to understand and/or recall the spatial relationships between things (Quaiser-Pohl et al., 2004). As one of the important traits of cognitive skills, spatial ability is a unique and distinguishable type of intelligence rather than the verbal ability, memory ability, reasoning ability etc. It is made up of several sub-skills that are linked to each other and develop all through the life of the individual (Webb, 2007; Humphreys and Lubinski, 1998). In everyday life, spatial skills are stated to be important for success in solving many daily tasks. From orienting oneself in any environment; be able to use a map, adapt oneself in a heavy traffic, packing up, using a mirror etc. are all activities in which there is spatial ability (Carpenter and Just, 1986; Lohman, 1979).

Spatial ability is considered as one of the most important personality traits that accounts for success in many fields such as mathematics, engineering, natural sciences and design such as architecture, interior architecture, industrial design, visual communication design etc. All these disciplines involve the use of spatial skills (Gardner, 1986). In this sense, it would be

correct to mention that it is one of the most important personality traits for interior architects since the work is much more related with the space itself. In order to design a space or in other words to transform a space to a place, the designer should have a high spatial perception which is directly related with spatial ability. By all means, spatial ability is not something that is only related with the abilities of perception and cognition of space but it is also the skills required to construct necessary mental models of things from theory to practice.

Spatial skills do not stand alone but work with other abilities such as logical reasoning, verbal skills, memory retrieval etc. Any deficits in on generally compensated by the excellence of other(s).

Case Study

Previous research emphasize that there is a direct relation between the learning styles and performance levels of interior architecture and architecture students (Demirbaş and Demirkan, 2007; 2008; Kvan and Yunyan, 2005). Besides, Demirbaş and Demirkan (2008) state that although all design students with diverse learning styles develop their performance levels in time, the level of the development is dependent on the learning styles. In general studies focusing on the learning styles of design students state that there is no specific learning style for design students but each design learner could have a diverse learning style which creates a distribution of the whole population on the learning style type grid. In this respect design education is considered to be a good example of ELT since all learning activities can take place during the whole learning process. However, according to different studies the general distribution of the design students through learning style type grid is towards the lower part that is more related with learning through experiencing, and towards the left side which is more related with learning by doing (Demirbaş and Demirkan, 2007; Kvan and Yunyan, 2005).

As mentioned above, spatial skills under cognitive abilities are one of the most important personality traits that is effective in human intelligence. Besides especially in interior architecture education, spatial abilities have a unique position since the main problematic of the discipline is space. Considering the previous findings in the literature, it is aimed to consider the relationship between learning styles and spatial ability levels of interior architecture students. In this respect instead of the performance levels of the interior design students on any designing process, their spatial ability levels have been tested by Maze Tracing Speed Test (MT) and Copying Test (CT). Maze Tracing Speed Test is designed to test the ability of an individual to find a path through a maze in a given time. It is formed of two successive similar parts. Three minutes is given for each part and each part has 24 maze squares. The total correctly finished mazes are the scores of the individual for each part. Copying Test is designed to test the ability of an individual to keep in mind a pattern and recall it on a square of dots. This test is also formed of two successive similar parts. Just like the other one, three minutes is given for each part and there are 32 shapes to remember in each part. The total correctly remembered squares are the scores of the individual for both parts. The results will be considered according to the learning styles of the participant students.

It is hypothesized that interior design students who have more experiential skills than analytical skills and having better behavioral skills than perceptual skills have higher spatial skills. A case study has been conducted with 23 freshman interior architecture students at. In the first phase students were given the Learning Styles Inventory Test (LSI) of Kolb. Through this process the learning styles of the participants was found out. In the second phase each participant was asked to complete a Maze Tracing Test and a Copying Test successively. Each of these tests have two parts to be completed with similar criteria so each participant should complete the similar test twice that shows the development rank of the individual.

Similar with pervious studies (Demirbas and Demirkan, 2003; 2007) the distribution of the students is more converging and assimilating students (Figure 3). There is only one student in the diverging style for that reason his scores was eliminated from the assessments in order to eliminate the risk of any bias. The four learning scores of the LSI (AC, CE, AE and RO) and two combined scores (AC-CE and AE-RO) were correlated with the Maze Tracing Speed test (MT) and Copying test (CT) scores (Table 1).

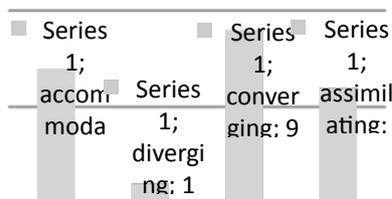


Figure 3. LS distribution of the sample.

Table 1. Pearson Correlation between LS and Spatial Ability scores.

	CE	AC	RO	AE	ACCE	AERO	MT1	MT2	CT1	CT2
CE	1.000									
AC	-0.24	1.000								
RO	-0.58**	-0.010	1.000							
AE	-0.09	-0.72	-0.35	1.000						
ACCE	-0.74**	0.83**	0.33	-0.45*	1.000					
AERO	0.11	-0.38	-0.73**	0.85**	-0.32	1.000				
MT1	0.59**	-0.14	-0.70**	0.23	-0.44*	0.45*	1.000			
MT2	0.53*	-0.24	-0.57**	0.26	-0.47*	0.36	0.93**	1.000		
CT1	0.19	-0.17	-0.41	0.33	-0.23	0.42	0.49*	0.53*	1.000	
CT2	0.31	-0.27	-0.51*	0.42	-0.36	0.52*	0.57**	0.51*	0.75**	1.000

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

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

When MT 1 and CT 1 scores are correlated with the modes of learning, it is found that they are highly correlated with CE and RO scores. CE is positively correlated with MT1 ($r=0,59$, $df=20$, $p<0.01$) and MT2 ($r=0.53$, $df= 20$, $p<0.05$) and RO is negatively correlated with MT1

($r=-0,70$, $df=20$, $p<0.001$), $MT2$ ($r=-0.58$, $df=20$, $p<0.01$) and $CT2$ ($r=-0.51$, $df=20$, $p<0.05$). When the correlations between the ability test scores and combined scores of LSI are considered, it is noticeable that while AC-CE is negatively correlated with $MT1$ and $MT2$ ($p<0.05$), AE-RO is positively correlated $MT1$ and $CT2$ ($p<0.05$). These results validates the hypothesis that the students with more experiential skills (CE) have higher scores in the spatial ability tests and students who prefer learning by doing (AE, tends to behavioral skills than perceptual skills) have better performance in spatial ability tests.

As expected more of the students are on the left side of the learning style type grid as accommodating (30.4%) and converging (39.1% students). 26.1% are assimilating and only 1 student is under the diverging group. As mentioned above the scores of this student was not considered in the evaluations. When the Maze Test and Copying Test performance levels of the students are considered in relation with their learning styles, it is noticeable that there are statistically significant differences between the scores in favor of accommodating students ($MT1 F=8.13$, $p=0.003$; $MT2 F =5.50$, $p=0.013$; $CT1 F =4.58$, $p=0.024$; $CT2 F =8.41$, $p=0.002$) (Table 2).

Table 2. Mean Scores for $MT1$, $MT2$, $CT1$ and $CT2$ according to Learning Styles.

		N	Mean	Std.Dev.
$MT1$	Accommodating	7	13.71	2.93
	Converging	9	8.78	3.23
	Assimilating	6	6.50	3.94
	Total	22	9.73	4.33
$MT2$	Accommodating	7	16.71	3.99
	Converging	9	11.67	3.39
	Assimilating	6	9.33	5.32
	Total	22	12.64	4.97
$CT1$	Accommodating	7	17.43	6.193
	Converging	9	11.33	4.66
	Assimilating	6	9.83	3.37
	Total	22	12.86	5.70
$CT2$	Accommodating	7	23.14	6.01
	Converging	9	12.67	6.27
	Assimilating	6	12.17	4.12
	Total	22	15.86	7.43

Conclusion and discussion

The limited number of participants averted to conduct further statistical analysis, however the found out results were meaningful to consider the correlation between the learning styles and spatial ability levels of interior architecture students. It could be concluded that the individuals who rely on learning from specific experiences and being sensitive to feelings and people (Smith and Kolb, 1996), and who show ability to get things done, don't afraid to take risks and influencing events through action, have higher spatial abilities both in Maze test and Copying test.

Similar with the previous findings the distribution of the interior architecture students could be accepted as a balanced distribution between the learning styles except from diverging style. According to the Cycle of Learning which is composed of four modes of learning, students show a tendency towards CE-learning by experiencing on the perceive axis and AE-learning by doing on the process axis.

Among mechanical aptitude tests, spatial ability tests are much more relating with the spatial relationships between the objects. As mentioned above spatial skills are important for solving a lot of daily problems such as using a map, orienting oneself in an unfamiliar environment, packing up etc. Especially in design education it is mostly affective for the development of the skills of understanding a space and then learn how to change space as a place either for the user or for the function or both. Previous research shows that these abilities can be developed through time, especially by experience and practice. In this respect experience and learning is crucial for the development of the spatial skills, and within the context of this study it was aimed to consider spatial ability of the interior architecture students through learning styles. The results show that the performance levels of all students with diverse learning styles show an increase from the first test to the second in both Maze test and Copying test. Although the spatial ability performances of learners with diverse learning styles are statistically different from each other, the progress level for all learning styles were almost same. In Copying test, the progress level of the accommodating students from the first test to the second is significantly ore than the development of the performances of the students with other learning styles. This is found to be a very sound result since accommodating learners more rely on learning by experience and doing.

The personality traits of interior architecture students are considered to be the learning dialects of design. These dialects affect the performance level of the students in spatial ability that is very important for interior architecture learner. For further study, it is aimed to study with a larger sample group in order to figure out more concrete results. Besides, together with spatial ability performances, students performances in the design courses under the consideration of their learning styles would open up new points of views for a more effective design education. By considering the considerably balanced distribution of the learning styles and the developing performance levels in spatial abilities through experience, it is concluded that the association and synergy of the learning dialects are essential for the efficiency of the design education.

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The Role of Creative Drama on Prospective English Teachers' Academic Achievement

Berna Gryay
English Language Department
Dokuz Eyll University, Turkey
bernaguryay@gmail.com

Abstract

Creative drama is an improvisational form of drama created by participants based on their observations and experiences. It enhances imagination, communication and problem-solving skills. Thus, creative drama suits perfectly to the 21st century skills, helping learners develop four Cs; creativity, critical thinking, communication and collaboration which are of crucial importance for personal and professional achievement in today's society. The main objective of this quantitative study is to determine whether there is a relationship between creative drama and achievement in one of the most theoretical lessons of English Language Teaching (ELT) Department; "language acquisition". Accordingly, the paper discusses how creative drama can be implemented in order to increase the achievement of prospective teachers of English in "language acquisition" lessons. The sample of the study is composed of 66 second grade prospective English teachers of a state university. In the scope of this experimental study, control and experimental groups were formed randomly and six hour-lesson plans were prepared for these groups. Experimental groups were taught language acquisition lessons for two weeks via of creative drama; whereas, control groups used traditional teaching. An achievement test was prepared and its construct and content validity were investigated by the experts. This achievement test was administered as pre and post test to all groups. Findings indicated that creative drama has statistically significant positive effect on prospective English teachers' language acquisition lesson achievement.

Key Words: Creative drama, English Language Teaching (ELT), achievement, language acquisition

Introduction

The school of the future will, perhaps, not be a school as we understand it—with benches, blackboards, and a teacher's platform—it may be a theatre, a library, a museum, or a conversation. (Tolstoy cited in McCaslin, 2006:257)

Creative drama looks for a classroom Tolstoy describes, where there are no limits and students learn by experiencing. It changes ordinary experiences into important ones, which is a difficult thing to do (Heathcote, 1991). However this difficult thing may bring the excellence that some educationists look for. This paper has investigated whether creative drama can be efficient in teaching one of the most theoretical lessons in English language teaching department; language acquisition. It is assumed that creative drama can be helpful for prospective English language teachers in their education and in their career (Gryay, 2012). Creative drama is a process in which group members reflect their experiences, ideas, aims in the form of enactments by using techniques such as improvisation, role-playing etc. (Adigzel, 2010, Karakelle, 2009, McCaslin, 1990). In language teaching creative drama can be helpful to develop positive attitudes towards language because the student is invited to an enjoyable environment where active participation is required (ol, 2015)

Why Creative Drama?

San (1990) suggests that today there is always something such as a coursebook, teacher or media between the child and the world. This makes learning just cognitive, excluding experiences. Nonetheless, with creative drama, affective domain and imaginative world unite with cognitive skills. Therefore, creative drama rescues learning from being only cognitive and puts affective factors into play.

Heathcote (1991) suggests that drama ensures isolating an event or comparing one event with another, looking at events that have happened to other people in other places and times, or to look at one's own experience after the event, within the safety of knowing with just it is not happening. She adds "I will not guarantee that classes will work, what I will guarantee is that I will always keep the work interesting" (1991:90-94). Creative drama can be a way to make an exciting connection between reality and theory. It may help to bridge the gap between classroom and real life by providing insights into how to deal with tricky situations (Davies, 1990). It is effective in increasing creativity and imagination (Karakelle, 2009; McCaslin, 1990, Özdemir & Çakmak, 2008), self-reliance and self-esteem (Selcik & Oğuz, 2015); fluent and flexible thinking (Karakelle, 2009); aesthetic sensitivity and artistic viewpoint (Erem, 2015); empathy and social skills (Korukcu & Ersan & Arar, 2015; Yassa, 2006;), language development (McCaslin, 1990, Stewig, J.W. 1972). Besides, there is a connection between learning in drama and personality development (Yassa, 1999). Creative drama is also influential on cognitive and affective achievement (Adıgüzel & Timuçin, 2010; Çalışkan & Üstündağ, 2010, Taşkın-Can, 2013). Ulubey and Toraman (2015) analyzed the effect of creative drama on students' achievement by gathering the experimental researches which investigated the effect of creative drama on students' achievement, and synthesized the findings of these researches and they concluded that creative drama method increased the students' academic achievement. Furthermore, creative drama can be devised effectively in ELT classrooms because students are motivated and relaxed, they use language for real purposes, students and teachers can approach sensitive topics and they can concentrate on pronunciation and retention (Burke and O'Sullivan cited in Wood Shand, J., 2008). It also suggests a unique opportunity to "enlarge the vocabulary, promote more audible speech and improve articulation" (McCaslin, 1990, p. 254). Because learners use English for specific purposes, language is more easily internalized and remembered. Drama provides the ultimate multi-sensory learning experience, it is inclusive and it supports the learning of a foreign language (Dervishaj, A., 2009).

Briefly, it has been stated that creative drama develops critical and creative thinking, linguistic, communicational, problem solving skills of the participants and helps them to develop self-efficacy, empathy, respect, and socialization subjects; increase their sensorial awareness, and help them to remember (Adıgüzel 1994; McCaslin, 1990, Karakelle, 2009). Gavin Bolton (2010) asserts that there have been four types of drama teachers; the ones who emphasize content, the ones who promote drama for personal growth, third type who see drama as a means of social development, and the last kind who hold teaching about the dramatic art form as a priority. Because prospective teachers will perhaps take all of these objectives in the future, this study will analyze their relation with creative drama and whether this relation affects their success.

Purpose and Significance of the Study

It is assumed that creative drama may initiate communication, increase critical thinking and may be helpful in the academic achievement. Accordingly, this study aims at finding out whether creative drama is an effective method in teaching ELT candidates' language acquisition lesson. The research question is "Is there a significant difference between

creative drama and achievement in language acquisition lessons?" Related to this main research question, sub-questions were asked, namely:

R1: Is there a significant difference between pre-test results of experimental and control groups?

R2: Is there a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the control group?

R3: Is there a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the experimental group?

R4: Is there a significant difference between post-test results of experimental and control groups?

This study is expected to make pre-service teachers learn their subject matter in a student-centered method; creative drama. They will comprehend the topic and learn about creative drama simultaneously. There is no research study about language acquisition lesson in ELT field in Turkey in which creative drama was used. Consequently, this study may be helpful in the field. This study will also be an example of using creative drama as a teaching method in language acquisition lessons.

Method

Participants

The research, which has a quasi-experimental design, had been carried out in ELT Department of Dokuz Eylül University in spring term of 2012-2013 academic year. All second year students who were taking language acquisition lesson participated in the study. Experimental and control groups were determined randomly. The total number of students decreased from 88 to 66 (Experimental group: 35, Control group: 31) because some of these students were not present at some stage of the experiment.

Content of the study

The content of the study was selected as factors affecting second language acquisition unit in language acquisition lesson of second graders in ELT department. The factors discussed were motivation, age, attitudes, aptitude, learner preferences, learner beliefs and intelligence. Two types of lesson plans were prepared for control and experimental groups separately. For experimental group the plans were prepared considering creative drama steps; preparation, enactment, evaluation and creative drama components such as drama techniques, dramatic moment, acting as if, teacher and student roles, group work, play-like processes, previous life experiences (Özdemir & Üstündağ, 2007). In the implementation of the target subject, in order to reduce the factors which can disturb the experiment, the researcher taught both of the groups. The treatment lasted two weeks, in total 6 lesson hours in each group.

Data Collection Tool: Achievement Test

In the scope of the study a multiple choice achievement test was developed for measuring “factors affecting second language acquisition” unit by the researcher. It was developed for learning outcomes reported in Higher Education Council (www.yok.gov.tr), ELT Department curriculum. The test evaluated knowledge related to factors affecting second language acquisition; such as motivation, age, attitudes, aptitude, learner preferences, learner beliefs and intelligence. Two English Language Teaching experts insured the validity of the test. Construct and content validity of the test were investigated by the experts; accordingly some items were eliminated and the last version of the test composed of 18 items. Inter-rater reliability was assessed by two different experts who checked the tests. The achievement test was administered as pre and post test to all groups. The test scores of both experimental and control groups were analyzed in order to define the effects of creative drama on achievement.

Results and Discussion

In this section the results related to the educational treatment will be given and each research question will be answered in detail.

Findings related to the first sub-question

Hypothesis 1: There is no statistically significant difference between pre-test results of control and experimental groups.

In order to measure this hypothesis, pre-test mean scores of both groups were analyzed by means of independent samples t-test. The results of this analysis are shown in Table1.

Table 1. *Difference between Pre-test results of experimental and control groups according to group variance*

Group		n	Mean	sd.	t	p
(Max.Score=18)						
Pre-test Results	Experimental	35	8,71	2,30	,568	,572
	Control	31	9,03	2,22		

*p<.05,**p<.01

When the experimental and control groups were compared at pre-test by independent t-test (Table. 1), it was found that there was a non-significant difference between experimental and control groups. This indicates that experimental group (t= ,568; p=, 572) were almost equal in their subject matter knowledge in second language acquisition lesson prior to the educational treatment.

Findings related to the second research question

Hypothesis 2: There is no statistically significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the control group.

The second hypothesis is analyzed by means of paired-samples t-test because the mean scores in these two tests belong to the same group (Büyüköztürk, 2002). In other words, these scores are closely related to each other.

Table 2. *Difference between Pre-test and Post-test results of control group*

Group		n	Mean	sd.	t	p
(Max.Score=18)						
Control Pre-test		31	9,03	2,22		
Control Post-test		31	12,67	2,54	-8,75	,000

*p<.05,**p<.01

As indicated in Table 2 the educational treatment with traditional teaching has also been successful, which is contrary to the 2nd hypothesis. Before teaching the subject control group's test score mean was 9, 03 and in post test it has been 12, 67, which is statistically significant. This finding shows that traditional, teacher-centered instruction was also highly beneficial for the students.

Findings related to the third sub-question

Hypothesis 3: There is statistically significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the experimental group.

Table 3. *Difference between Pre-test and Post-test results of experimental group*

Group	n	Mean	sd.	t	p
(Max.Score=18)					
Experimental Pre-test	35	8,71	2,30	-11,95	,000
Experimental Post-test	35	13,57	1,81		

*p<.05,**p<.01

In order to evaluate third hypothesis, paired sample t-test was applied to the experimental group's test scores. As seen in table 3 below, experimental group students' mean score is 8, 71 in pre-test and 13, 57 in the post-test. Therefore, it is clear that experimental group's achievement on the subject matter has significantly increased with the use of creative drama method (t = 11,95, p = ,000). The finding related to third sub-question of the research is in parallel with the third hypothesis. This indicates that creative drama method has been effective in the teaching of language acquisition lesson in second grade students of ELT Department.

Findings related to the fourth research question

Hypothesis 4: There is statistically significant difference between post-test results of control and experimental groups in favour of the experimental group.

To compare the effectiveness of creative drama method, independent samples t-test was applied to the post-test mean scores of experimental and control groups, according to the group variable. Table 4 shows the results of this independent samples t-test.

Table 4. *Difference between post-test results of control and experimental groups*

Group	n	Mean	sd.	t	p
(Max.Score=18)					
Post-test	Experimental	35	13,57	1,65	,103
Results	Control	31	12,67		

*p<.05,**p<.01

Table 4 indicates that there is a rise in both groups' mean scores in post-test. The results showed a non-significant difference between the control and experimental groups' mean scores in post test. Although the experimental group's mean score is higher than that of the control group in post test, this difference is not statistically significant (t=1,65, p=,103). This result may stem from the fact that creative drama was a new method for the students and they might not have enough time to get used it.

Conclusion and Suggestions

In this quasi-experimental study, the effect of creative drama was measured in the context of language acquisition lesson in second year programme of ELT Department. The pre-test results indicated that experimental and control groups were equal in their subject matter

knowledge before the educational treatment. For two weeks, experimental group was taught with creative drama whereas control group was taught with traditional teacher-centered instruction. In the end of this six-hour-lesson period with the groups, achievement test was re-administered to all groups. The post test result of the experimental group was significantly higher than its pre-test result which proved the effectiveness of creative drama method in language acquisition lesson. This finding related to creative drama's positive effect on achievement is in parallel with several studies (Batdı & Batdı, 2015; Maranon, 1981; Planchat, 1994; Vitz, 1984; Wagner, 1998). In post-test a difference was observed between two groups' scores in favour of the experimental group. As a matter of fact, not only experimental group's achievement but also control group's achievement scores increased significantly. The experimental group had higher improvement than the control group after the treatment but this difference was not statistically significant. Creative drama activities enabled experimental group to gain a better learning of acquisition lesson than those of control group; however, this difference was not very high and statistically significant. This can be related to the fact that creative drama was a radical change for the students who were accustomed to teacher-centered approach.

It can be suggested that in further studies, creative drama method can be implemented in other lessons and for longer periods of time. This study only searched for its effect on achievement and some other variables such as, retention, creativity and attitudes can be tested. In conclusion, creative drama method is worth using in increasing the achievement of ELT students. It can be a path to success in their education and career as a teacher.

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Initiatives to Enhance European Awareness

Oliver Holz
Faculty of Economics and Business
University of Leuven
Belgium
oliver.holz@kuleuven.be

Abstract

The integration of the European Dimension in education was, is and will be a very important goal when it comes to the contribution of the realization of the European unification process. This process offers many opportunities and includes many challenges in Flanders and for other European countries.

This conference contribution will show initiatives by the Faculty of Economics and Business of the University of Leuven how to work on internationalization @ home, the internationalization of the curriculum and mobility. This contribution will show concrete examples like student- and staff mobility, European projects and International week for administrative staff.

Key words: Enhance European Awareness, European Dimension, internationalization, curriculum, mobility

Introduction

Even more than 60 years after its establishment, Europe and the European Union face numerous and sometimes enormous challenges. Over the past months, for example, there has been the Euro crisis, the Greek crisis and the refugee problem. It seems that today - and perhaps especially today - Europe divides more than it unites. For the generation that is currently growing up, Europe is self-evident, although they associate it with obstacles and challenges. Also in the field of education, the schooling and upbringing of children and young people and in particular the training of teachers have repeatedly undergone changes over the past decades. The competence debates of recent years, for example, shows this clearly.

The process of European cooperation in the field of education started with the 1986 and 1987 decisions to introduce COMETT and ERASMUS as the first Community subsidised action programmes. In the years after, numerous other programmes followed: Socrates, Lifelong Learning, Jean Monnet etc. as well as the current ERASMUS+ Programme. A wide range of objectives for a wide variety of target groups were reached with European financial support. Since the start of the programme, one of these objectives has been Enhancing European Awareness.

Enhancing European Awareness

In the first place we rely on Jobst, who tries to understand the concept of European Awareness. European Awareness in his opinion is "defined as a sense of belonging which, depending on certain identification structures and social perspectives, can take such distinct forms of moral consciousness as 'Eurocentrism', 'European patriotism', or 'reflective European consciousness'. (...) it is finally argued that the emancipatory contribution of

schooling to greater European integration consists in mediating precisely this last way of thinking.” (Jobst 2005, p. 385)

A possible answer to the question 'Which aspects contribute most to the development of European Awareness' includes important criteria as 'European Dimension', 'European Curriculum', 'Mobility' and 'Language Learning'.

As mentioned earlier for the first time, financially effective actions were taken to support cooperation between European states in the field of education. The European parliament decided that “the introduction of the European dimension in education. (...) aims at showing the younger generation that the European Community exists and is developing further, and that it is taking a series of decisions that will affect their present lives and determine their future.” The responsibilities in the areas of education and youth have changed with the entry into force of the Treaty on the European Union in November 1993. Since then, chapter 3, article 126 of the Maastricht Treaty forms the basis for the general and vocational education in the former Community and today's Union.

Even before the entry into force of the Union Treaty, the Green Paper on the European Dimension in Education was adopted by the Commission of the European Communities on 23 September 1993. In the Green Paper it says: “This Green Paper on the European dimension in education will provide food for thought for possible objectives of Community action in the field of education.”

The discussions with regard to the terminology and complexity on the one hand and the integration of the European dimension on the other hand, presented major challenges at first. Taking the above mentioned criteria into consideration, the European dimension in education could mean the actions taken by the schools in the EU member states that will facilitate the entry into working life of their pupils. During their time at school, boys and girls are taught independence, responsibility and a positive attitude towards lifelong learning.

The European dimension in education aims to ensure quality education on both qualitative and quantitative levels. The European dimension is integrated into the education system through exchanges, foreign language teaching, exchanging information and experience, educating and training teachers, distance learning, as well as the inclusion of different European contexts in the curriculum and learning and teaching materials. Developing children's and youngsters' capacity for innovation contributes to raising European Awareness in the younger generations and, consequently, facilitates the integration into social life in the European Union.

In a broader sense, the European dimension in education also means conveying common political and cultural values. These become apparent in the European Union, NATO, the Council of Europe and the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe.

European Curriculum

The author is member in the European network VoiceS. The VOICE of European TeacherS connects students as future teachers, teachers, teacher trainers, researchers and persons of other institutes with the overall aim to implement European Teacher competences. In the thematic field group 'European professionalism' we carried out an analysis of curricula in different European countries. An important question in this context was if there is a need for a European curriculum. The members of the group consider that this question cannot and should not be answered conclusively. Rather descriptively attempt should be made to examine the curricula of selected European nation - states in terms of integration of European or Europe -relevant content.

The members of the thematic field group were analysing what the criteria of a European curriculum should be. They mentioned in this context that the European teacher is obliged to realize different important objectives, f.e.:

- We live in an information society. The teacher should provide relevant knowledge. Skills and knowledge contribute to the development of European awareness.
- European symbols are not enough! Through practical impressions and experiences the teacher should establish a European identity.
- The teacher should make every effort to initiate cooperation and communication links on all educational levels or to integrate into existing networks.
- The teacher should prepare the young generation for a responsible, peaceful and emancipated life, which in Europe should be characterized by a qualitative and quantitative high-quality standard of living for all citizens.
- The level of education will continue to grow in our information society. Today's teacher must develop lifelong learning skills in students.
- He/she should make sure to provide a binding framework of values and standards and also exemplify these. Thinking and acting must form a unity.
- The teacher should not replace national thinking with cross-national thinking, but expand it towards a cross-national thinking....

A European curriculum can have multiple facets. Internationalisation initiatives have different dimensions depending on the educational institution, the age of the target groups, the desired effect etc. In that context, internationalisation of the curriculum and its associated internationalisation @ home are always cited.

This article will present two initiatives which, in addition to the mobility initiatives that are discussed below, were/are being undertaken by the KU Leuven Campus Brussels Faculty of Economics and Business.

The multilateral COMENIUS-project EDGE: Education & Gender

EDGE (Education and Gender) was a Comenius multilateral project which explores gender challenges in education with a focus on young people aged 13-15 from 12 European countries from North, East, South, West and Central Europe. The project commenced in October 2011 and reaches its conclusion in September 2014. This short explanation will give a summary about the content of the project and, more interesting for this contribution, the challenges and benefits of internationalization through this project.

In February 2011 the final application for EDGE was made, the points that needed addressing were formalised and in July 2011 the project was granted approval. The process was competitive, with 202 projects being submitted at that time. Thirty-three were approved, two of which were from Flanders, and one of these was the EDGE project. The budget for the project was € 287.302, with partner countries comprising: Belgium, Austria, Czech Republic, Germany, Estonia, Spain, Hungary, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Turkey and the United Kingdom. The institutions involved in the project included, amongst others; schools, universities and children's homes. Because one of the outcomes for a Comenius lifelong learning programme is related to staff mobility and partnerships, the project has enabled staff to work in a range of institutions in order to meet, review current work and discuss next steps. Additionally the project focused on young people in school, their experience of education in relation to gender and the testing of materials that have been created by the group. This fulfils Comenius aims in relation to 'improving pedagogical approaches', 'better teaching techniques and practices' and 'enhancing the quality and European dimension of teacher training' (EACEA, 2011).

The key outcomes for the project were agreed as follows:

- A study text about gender education (including a comparative analysis of the different countries position in relation to education and gender);
- A European resources database;
- Development and implementation of four core modules (including development and testing of didactical material within a secondary education setting);

- Development of a web based curriculum;
- A website and a virtual learning environment.

The main results of the project are available at: <http://www.education-and-gender.eu/edge/index.php/nl/>

In the past, many HEI have been able to gather experiences with European projects and/or networks. Since the process and implementation of the developed models, materials and strategies are sufficiently known, only difficulties and challenges as well as the added value of such projects will be highlighted at this point. Those are aspects that impede internationalisation, but at the same time demonstrate their positive impact. The following examples show what the added value of 'EDGE: Education & Gender' is, and what challenges it faces.

1. Challenges experienced during the project

As the project closure it became useful to reflect on some of the challenges and benefits of undertaking research and partnership-working of this nature. As with all research there were challenges presented. Some of these are outlined here, the first example being the content of the questionnaires.

One of the UK schools completing the questionnaires, asked for the questions relating to 'sex' to be removed before they were distributed to students. This was done but meant that some of the results were skewed in relation to this section of the research. A second UK school was invited to participate and there were no problems here with the questionnaires, all sections were completed, but there were no teacher questionnaires completed in the given timeframe, from either of the participating UK schools.

Permission to carry out the research was difficult in some of the countries participating in the project. In Hungary it was necessary to gain permission from parents before pupils could complete the questionnaires and in some countries it was difficult to get permission from the schools. This meant that the time frame was challenged and added additional pressure to this element of the project.

The editing of the book chapters presented difficulties due to the complexity of the different languages. Editors often felt compromised when sections and statements had to be amended, particularly when the sense of a discussion was lost in the translation from one language to another. Editors had to make ethical decisions relating to the ways the work was altered, whilst still maintaining the integrity and sense of the chapter, sometimes it was possible to do this in conjunction with the original author, but at other times these decisions were made unaided.

Translations of all the chapters were expensive and time consuming especially as the study text was published in Dutch, English, German and Turkish. However this was a great benefit to the project, as it meant that the output of the texts had a much wider reaching audience.

Time was a challenge. For some members of the group, time was allocated in their annual workload and therefore the project was part of their day-to-day working practice. Some members of the project group had fewer work commitments than others and some members of the group were completing all the work for the project alongside their fulltime work. Consequently there were sometimes delays in work being completed and deadlines were not always met as promptly as would have been hoped.

Finally, E-communication, this presented few problems for some members of the group, but for others the e-communication was a challenge. The virtual learning environment (VLE) had been created to enable all members to communicate with each other, upload materials and review documentation. By communicating via the VLE all members of the project would be included in the emails and therefore everyone would be able to see what communication was taking place. Some members of the group, particularly the project organiser, used the VLE at

all times; others did not use it at any point in the three years of the project. This was possibly due to a range of reasons including technical problems, lack of confidence using the VLE interface and loss of password and login details.

2. Benefits of collaborating in a project such as EDGE

Just as there are challenges, there are many benefits and without a doubt the benefits outweigh the challenges. The impact that a Comenius project has from a personal and professional perspective is astonishing. The opportunity for personal development, growth of subject knowledge and the empowerment that travel brings, are defining features of a project of this nature. Meeting in different countries, visiting a range of educational contexts and working alongside academics and educationalists from a range of educational settings has developed a greater sense of interculturality amongst the EDGE group. Several institutions have exchanged bi-lateral agreements for staff and student mobilities and there is an increasing sense of collegiality between the partners.

There has been wider impact in relation to colleagues in the individual institutions, sharing resources, inputting into module content and exploring theoretical concepts with students studying gender in Higher Education. At the University of Derby the project has become an integral part of a thematic strand of internationalisation, and gender and students are given practical materials to evaluate and test out in school. Study texts and materials are additionally shared with students completing dissertations at the end of their undergraduate degree, where there is a focus on gender and the European dimension.

For the secondary schools involved in the project there has been learning from a range of perspectives. Young people completing questionnaires have become more aware of the gender debate, the young people testing the materials have experienced learning from a different perspective and this in turn has had an effect on the ways in which lessons are structured, organised and taught. Additionally there were young people in the UK who were involved in creating videos for comparison with the 'test' school on the same topics of communication and emotional wellbeing and this has had a positive effect on those young people in terms of confidence, skills of self-management and public speaking.

Working collaboratively has been challenging, the group have devoted a great deal of time to the outputs, it has not always been plain sailing ... but it has been an enriching, empowering and experiential endeavour. We have learned a significant amount about young people, education and gender and have become more effective educators and more collegiate partners as a result of working together on the EDGE project.

International Week

Not only should the mobility participation rate of students raise to 20 per cent by 2020, but also the participation rate of higher education academic staff and employees. Many tertiary educational institutions think those challenges are unrealistic. The Faculty of Economics and Business is working towards the set target but has not reached it yet. The faculty organises an annual International Week so as to encourage and spur on higher education academic staff and their colleagues to take part in mobility.

This International Week in the first place aims at administrative staff who are confronted with international aspects in their job but who have limited opportunities to gain international experience abroad. This article will give the outlines of this year's IW programme without discussing it in detail.

This 5 day event, organized by the faculties of Economics & Business and Arts, comprises various activities, such as lectures and workshops, focusing on the collaboration between higher education and enterprises and on intercultural experiences. The activities will be complemented by cultural activities and excursions outside the university. In addition, the programme includes opportunities to learn more about our institution and its education, get to

know colleagues from the Mobility Office and from other services, discover the city of Brussels as the capital of Europe and the Flemish way of life. A more detailed programme will be provided at a later stage.

The benefits of such an International Week are:

- Strengthens the cooperation between KUL and their partner institutions and offers all participants a rewarding international and intercultural learning experience;
- representing the home institution during the Global Village;
- closing event for incoming students and promotional event for future outgoing students stimulates staff mobility (administrative);
- promotes KUL's international partners;
- increases the internationalization @ home.

Table 1. *Programme of the International Week 9 – 13 May 2016 in Brussels*

	Monday 9 May	Tuesday 10 May	Wednesday 11 May	Thursday 12 May	Friday 13 May
Morning session 1	Registration	International Programmes	Student participation & networks	Global Village	Admissions
Morning session 2	Welcome at KU Leuven and Campus Brussels	Mobility Office Campus Brussels	Social Services		Collaboration between higher education and enterprises
Morning session 3	Presentations by the representatives of each institution	Education in Flanders	Blended Learning		Closing discussion
Afternoon session 1	Presentations by the representatives of each institution	Visit to city of Leuven & KU Leuven Association	Library @ KU Leuven	Global Village	
Afternoon session 2	Tour of Campus Brussels	HRM @ FEB	Cross Cultural Competences : The Target Based Learning approach		
Evening	Walking dinner	Farewell of Leuven incoming students		Farewell of Brussels incoming students	

Mobility

In 2009, the Member States of the Union and the European Commission decided on the strategic framework for European cooperation in the field of education and training (ET 2020).

The educational policy programmes will make a decisive contribution to the long-term strategic goals of the EU's education and training policies:

- Implementation of lifelong learning and mobility;
- Improvement of the quality and efficiency of education and training;
- Promotion of justice, social cooperation and civic responsibility;
- Promotion of innovation and creativity on all levels of education and training.

Mobility is therefore a key factor to achieve these demanding goals. Student and staff mobility is expected to have a significant role to play in the development of a European Higher Education Area. The London Communiqué (2007) stated, “mobility of staff, students and graduates is one of the core elements of the Bologna Process, creating opportunities for personal growth, developing international cooperation between individuals and institutions, enhancing the quality of higher education and research, and giving substance to the European dimension”.

The European Commission is in the process of modernising higher education. They suggest that students should be given more opportunities to acquire skills while studying abroad. The EU student mobility target should be 20 % by the end of the decade. Currently, about 10 % of EU students study or train abroad either on a study grant or at their own expense. Approximately 5 % receives an Erasmus grant (2011/12); countries participating in the Erasmus programme counted more than 5.35 million graduates of which almost 253 000 Erasmus students.

Thanks to the new Erasmus+ programme, starting in 2014, 4 million people of which 2 million students and 300 000 higher education employees will have the opportunity to go abroad in the coming seven years (2014-2020). In addition, the programme will make available resources for 135 000 exchange programmes for students and employees in partner countries outside Europe. Erasmus+ will also become more accessible thanks to more intensive language support; more flexible rules; additional support for people with special needs or people from disadvantaged backgrounds or remote areas.

This task and objective is equally applicable to the KU Leuven Faculty of Economics and Business.

In this regard, the term ERASMUS is without any doubt familiar. A number of graphics illustrate the situation of the KU Leuven Faculty of Economics and Business.

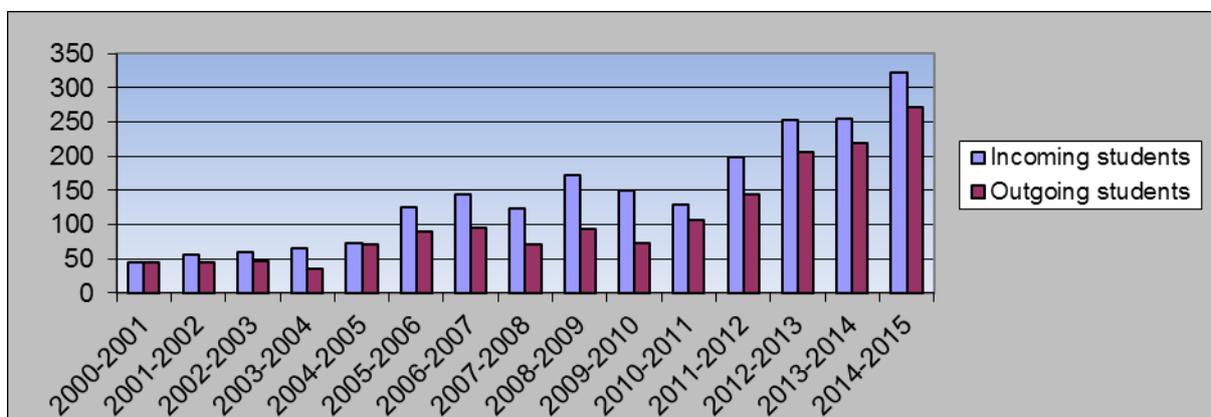


Figure 1. Evolution incoming and outgoing exchange students KU Leuven campus Brussels

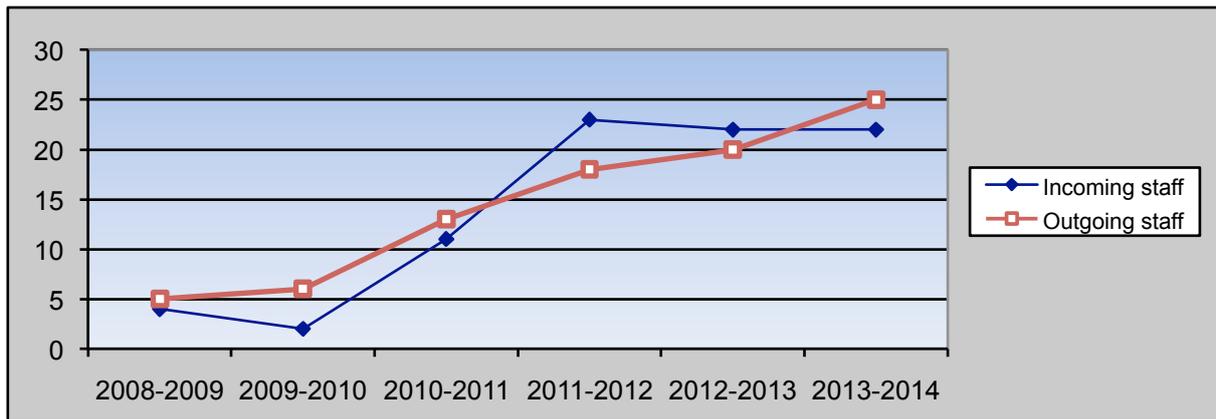


Figure 2. Evolution incoming and outgoing staff KU Leuven campus Brussels

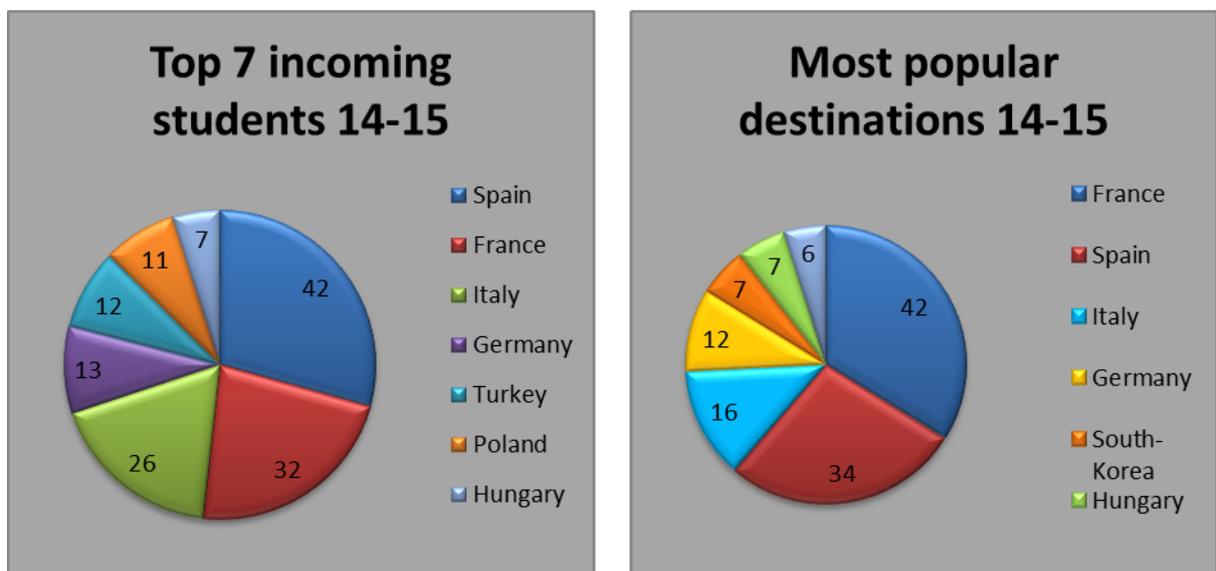


Figure 3. Top 7 incoming students and most popular destinations 2014-15

The graphs clearly show that especially over the past five years there has been a permanent increase in mobility participation. This applies equally to the

- incoming students,
- outgoing students, as well as
- to the outgoing staff.

There is only a slight stagnation in the numbers of incoming staff.

Even if the faculty has not yet reached the Bologna target for 2020, they are well on their way. It should also be pointed out that quantity is an essential factor but not an exclusive one. For example, the KU Leuven Faculty of Economics and Business aims to collaborate with partners that - as the faculty themselves - are high up in the ranking and whose programmes are accredited with (the) high(est) distinction.

The author kindly refers to the 2014 "ERASMUS impact study". In the context of the study, both quantitative and qualitative research has been done. Surveys were conducted in all EU member states as well as in the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway, Switzerland and Turkey, and answers of more than 75 000 students and alumni were analysed, including more than 55 000 who studied or trained abroad. In addition, 5 000 employees, 1000 institutions of higher education and 650 employers responded to the surveys. The qualitative study aims at eight countries that differ greatly as

to size and geographical location: Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Finland, Germany, Lithuania, Portugal, Spain and the United Kingdom. This included visits on site, interviews, focus groups and institutional workshops.

This ERASMUS impact study, which covered the European Union ERASMUS student exchange programme, showed that graduates with international experience do much better on the labour market. Androulla Vassiliou, European Commissioner for Education, Culture, Multilingualism and Youth, explained:

"The findings of the Erasmus Impact study are extremely significant, given the context of unacceptably high levels of youth unemployment in the EU. The message is clear: if you study or train abroad, you are more likely to increase your job prospects. The new Erasmus+ programme will offer EU grants to four million people between 2014 and 2020, allowing them to experience life in another country through studies, training, teaching or volunteering".

Other impressive results are:

- Students run half the risk to long-term unemployment as compared to those who did not go abroad;
- When recruiting, 92 % of employers look for attributes in staff that are strengthened by the ERASMUS programme, such as tolerance, self-confidence, problem solving, open attitude, knowledge of own strengths and weaknesses and decisiveness.
- Students with an Erasmus grant can choose between studying or doing a traineeship abroad. It turns out that more than one third of those who did a traineeship with an Erasmus grant were offered a job in the company where they were a trainee. 64 % of employers indicate that they give more professional responsibility to employees with international experience.
- ERASMUS provides better career prospects, broadens the horizon of students and gives them a better social network. 40 % of them lived abroad at least once since they graduated, which is twice as much as those who studied in their country.
- On average, former Erasmus students are more likely to have a foreign partner. 33 % of former Erasmus students has a partner with a different nationality, compared to 13 % for those who did not study abroad; 27 % of Erasmus students meet their permanent partner during their Erasmus stay abroad.

Based on the last point, the Commission estimates that since the start of the ERASMUS programme in 1987 more or less one million children were born out of Erasmus student couples and in such a way the European dimension becomes tangible and European consciousness a reality.

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Bridging the Gap between Preparatory Classes and Freshman Courses in Higher Education

İlkem Kayıcan,
School of Languages,
Sabanci University,
Turkey
ilkem@sabanciuniv.edu

Amy Stopper-Uzunkoca
School of Languages,
Sabanci University,
Turkey
amystopper@sabanciuniv.edu

Abstract

This paper aims to introduce the integration of a new component into a preparatory year course that allows students both to develop critical thinking and academic writing skills, and cope with social science freshman courses at a higher education institute in Turkey. Today, in most European countries, a significant increase has been observed in English medium universities, which generally convey knowledge using a Western discourse pattern. Therefore, when asked to cope with academic writing which requires bringing multiple skills together such as researching, reading, annotating, critical thinking, analyzing, corroborating different resources and referencing, a considerable burden is placed on students' shoulders, causing a significant level of struggle. In order to fill the afore mentioned gap, and allow preparatory year students a smoother and substantial transition to freshman courses, in the preparatory year we implement a separate course entitled Critical Thinking for Social Sciences (CTSS). In this study we will detail the CTSS course method, describe its implementation into the preparatory year program and share the results of feedback collected via one-to-one interviews with students who took CTSS during the last academic year and who are now taking Social and Political Science.

Key Words: Critical Thinking, Academic Writing, ESAP, Turkey, Content based instruction

Introduction

Due to the high number of English medium universities in Turkey, Academic English language instruction has become an integral part of university education. For this reason, whether public or private, a great number of higher education institutions have a separate preparatory year that provide intensive English language teaching for students. Since it is called "preparatory year", it does not only aim to furnish students with academic English

competency, but also transfer the academic skills necessary for faculty courses. Due to such a loaded responsibility, preparatory year programs require a very well designed syllabus integrating English teaching with academic skills.

It is a well-known fact that EFL/ ESL instructors and curriculum designers have the tendency to place pedagogy and language acquisition above content, and this generally causes a disassociation of preparatory year programs from the rest of the campus. "In the eyes of 'academic' teachers, then, the literacy instructors appeared to be unconcerned with the 'real stuff' of the university (Johns, 1997, p.75). Benesch also criticizes ESL instruction that distances itself from teaching the required topics of an academic curriculum:

As long as the instruction in the [language] program is not integrated into the regular academic curriculum, no course in the program, however well designed and executed, is ever likely to rise above the status of an "exercise" in the minds of many students (Ponder & Powell, 1989, p.10)

However, it is generally the case that while trying to achieve both, curriculum designers may not be able to put an adequate weight on the content or content specific language because this may lead to course which is too demanding. This may be entirely understandable due to the greatly loaded duties of curriculum designers in preparatory year programs; however, in order to bridge that afore mentioned gap between the preparatory year and faculty studies, implementation of courses specifically targeted towards degree program modules is both preferable and manageable. The details of such a course will be explained in the progression of this paper.

As it is mentioned above, preparatory year program ESL/ EAP instructors and administrators are generally aware of the fact that there is often some incompatibility between the preparatory year and faculty studies. Whether murmured in committee meetings or arising from survey results, faculties may complain about the weak critical reading and writing skills of students, along with inadequate English competency, whether in the language of the natural or social sciences, business or medicine. Such comments could frustrate and even demotivate both professionally and psychologically ESL/EAP instructors who may be spending average 20 hours teaching academic English including skills such as reading, writing, speaking and use of English. In fact faculty demands ideally require preparatory year programs to instruct students simultaneously in three different areas: academic English, academic skills and the content that will address topics studied at least at Freshman degree level. Although this appears demanding, it is not unmanageable once the appropriate use of content-based instruction is applied. In this paper, the integration of a separate, content-based course called Critical Thinking for the Social Sciences (CTSS) into

the Sabancı University Foundation Year Development (FDY) program will be analyzed in terms of its method, implementation and participant perception of its success.

The Importance of Content-Based Instruction for Turkish University EAP Learners

Before approaching the theory of content-based instruction (CBI), it is important to say a little on the pre-university education history of Turkish EAP students, as this is one of the key factors to consider while designing a curriculum addressing their needs. When the educational ideologies in Turkey are considered, it may be concluded that they hinder the development of critical thinking and the analytical approach, which are key components of academic success in arguably most departments. In Turkey, learning is mostly based on rote-learning and imitation, rather than originality; there is an internalization of knowledge which promotes replication only, reflected in assessment methods such as multiple-choice tests, written exams with single type of questions. Education, therefore, is exam-oriented and can hardly be said to foster critical thinking. Besides this, writing is not tested in any national exams, which leads the students to underrate its importance as a professional skill before they encounter it in an academic setting.

Turkish EAP students in preparatory year programs are expected to develop their English syntactically, lexically and grammatically, and also to acquire a completely new system of Western discourse patterns and academic skills, including critical thinking, critical reading, evaluating resources and researching, which in all probability, as explained, contrast with their previous educational history. Preparatory year instructors need awareness of this to develop appropriate materials and tasks to help students think critically and process new knowledge. As Pally argues

students preparing for college or professional training need to learn in their L2s not only the “information” of content areas but how to gather, synthesize, and evaluate it, and organize ideas of their own...” (2000, p.9).

For this reason, the remedy for such an audience requires a specifically designed course or curriculum that will address learner needs in order to increase the compatibility with their faculty courses. Realizing this need led to the emergence of the Critical Thinking for Social Sciences (CTSS) course in the Sabancı University Foundation Development Year program which is rooted in content-based instruction. The essence of CBI is to integrate language and content learning; thus learners are expected to simultaneously acquire L2 *and* the content of academic subjects in that language (Lyster & Ballinger in Yi Lo 2014, p.142) and in line with this, CTSS

helps learners make the transition from language preparation and general academic skills to undergraduate coursework by introducing them to simplified versions of real tasks... (Mengi & Şendur in Gün Alayafi et.al., 2016, p.125).

This approach clearly overlaps with the rationale of CBI as it is

...an 'umbrella term' for approaches that combine language and content-learning aims even if there are differences in the emphasis placed on language and content" (Stoller in Cenoz, 2015, p.10).

It needs to be highlighted that there are several types of CBI and, as Lyster and Ballinger explain:

...content-driven programs promote language and literacy development through subject-matter learning and assess both content knowledge and language development in substantive ways. In contrast, language-driven programs focus on the development of target language proficiency but entail no high-stakes assessment of content knowledge (2011, p.280).

In terms of this distinction, CTSS aims to sustain a reasonable balance between language and content as it concentrates on some of the skills necessary for a particular undergraduate course, Social and Political Science, and although it can contain a sprinkle of the subject matter of the related course, content knowledge *is* required for a successful assessed written production and the group presentation.

The creation of a remedial support course for Freshman Social and Political Science (SPS)

Identifying SPS learners' needs

Kristin Şendur of Sabancı University's Academic Communications student support centre performed research to discover how to support Freshman SPS students who were clearly struggling with this compulsory component. Conducting interviews with Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences SPS instructors and teaching assistants, use of sources was identified as a key area of difficulty. Interviewees reported, for example:

*(Learners) should read critically, but they're not ... they should look for evidence, evaluate the text, challenge the writer...
When (learners) read, they read it as the absolute truth...they're not aware of who*

said what. 19

Following this, Şendur had student sample writings read over by instructors to identify both their expectations of a successful, critical reasoning, and common errors made. She then performed a literature review on the issues adolescents have in analysing sources and performing written historical reasoning (Nokes, et al., 2007; Stahl et al., 1996 and Wineburg, 1991) and selected the remedial goals upon which the CTSS course was founded. In terms of disciplinary reading, the use of multiple sources leading to history as interpretation was chosen, and in disciplinary writing, knowledge transformation by using evidence to create a claim (thesis statement).

Course design

Şendur adapted the Stanford History Education Group *Historical Thinking Chart*²⁰ to create a heuristic of the source reading skills students would practice and aim to master. The theme of Roman gladiators was selected with a focus on the social, political and cultural, and primary and secondary source texts chosen accordingly. Their language was adapted to reduce the linguistic cognitive load, allowing learners room to focus more on content and critical analysis, and tasks were created for target skill introduction and development and production. Each lesson was assigned a “guiding question” to give a focused purpose to its texts.

*Course content*²¹

- History & historical reasoning

To attempt to alter the prevalent mindset that history consists of a set of fixed facts, an attention-grabbing “history-experiment” is performed, where the lesson is disrupted by someone acting out in a manner calculated to distract the class. Students then attempt to objectively report what happened, filtering out judgement (Mengi & Şendur in Gün Alayifi et al., 2015). From the variety of information which is both included *and* omitted, learners begin to explore Howell and Prevenier’s concept of history as interpretation (2001).

- Critically evaluating primary sources

19 Critical Thinking for the Social Sciences, SPS & CTSS Overview for SL powerpoint, Şendur, K. 2013, unpublished.

20 <https://sheg.stanford.edu/historical-thinking-chart> , retrieved 01.01.2016

21 For further and fuller description of content, see Mengi & Şendur in Gün Alayafi et.al., 2015

To approach the historical thinking heuristic (see above), a contemporary subject and source are used to make the idea of evaluating a source more tangible for learners. They view a photo of an untidy dormitory room, and must decide whether it represents a truthful portrait of the room, or if it has been biased in some way due to the context in which the photo was taken. Having been introduced relatively lightly to critically analysing sources, learners are exposed to textual and visual primary sources from the Roman period. Each time they are guided through the heuristic, eventually being required to evaluate a source and its author independently. Assessment of source evaluation abilities is achieved through the writing of short responses to two prompts, for example:

Question 1	Which 1 of the 3 facts (CB p19) might cause you to <u>question the reliability</u> of Suetonius' account?
Question 2	Many historians believe that gladiator games showed Roman social hierarchy. Does this source support that argument? Explain your reasons.

Figure 1. Source Evaluation 1 task, Lesson 3, CTSS course program.

The analysis of visual sources includes the comparison of artifacts depicting embattled gladiators, as shown in Figure 2. Learners must decide how each helps answer a guiding question (Were gladiator games important to all Romans?), and what bias each may contain:



Primary source 1: Mosaic. This mosaic is in the entrance hall (atrium) of a very large Roman villa in Perl-Nennig (modern day Germany). It was made in the 2nd or 3rd century CE, during which time Germany was part of the Roman Empire.



Primary Source 2. Figurine. This terracotta (pottery) figurine was made sometime in the 1st-2nd century CE, under the Roman Empire. Roman terracotta figurines were usually mass produced.

Figure 2. Two visual sources from “Choosing Evidence & Developing a Claim” task, Lesson 5, CTSS course program.

Şendur also developed answer keys with sample student responses and grading justifications to ensure standardised marking of source evaluations. This resource is also invaluable as teacher training material.

- Constructing an argument

This is learned and practiced through a variety of exercises:

1. Annotating secondary sources

Learners read up to six texts written by historians and practice annotating the central theme(s) of paragraphs. This serves not only to draw attention to the argument structure of a text, but to build up background knowledge essential to writing longer responses (see 3. below).

2. Instruction on argument building

Throughout the course aspects of argument building, along with relevant lexis, are introduced in stages: writing a claim, supporting it with evidence, choosing relevant evidence, and corroborating and contextualising sources. Discrete tasks allow the learner to practice before putting the new skill to use in writing.

3. Document-Based Question (DBQ) response writing

Document-based question (DBQ) response writing of circa 250 words enables the learner to put into practice and hone the new skills mentioned in 1. and 2.. To answer a prompt fully, writers are required to develop a claim based upon the sources studied, to support it sufficiently with evidence from those sources, to explain how that evidence proves the claim, and corroborate and contextualise as appropriate. A sample prompt:

<p>Task prompt: Why did politicians sponsor gladiator shows?</p>

Instructions:

- Write 250-300 words
- Develop an argument that accounts for **all of the evidence** i.e. all the different reasons for sponsoring games

Şendur developed a DBQ grading rubric, again with sample student writings, and a student version was also produced to provide feedback to ensure learners know what they are doing well, and also which areas need more practice.

Initial itegration into the preparatory programme

At first CTSS was part of elective support material taught by Şendur at Sabancı University's Academic Communications student support centre. She was later joined by Jonathan Smith, an Foundation Development Year (FDY) preparatory programme instructor as student

interest and thus numbers rose. Student feedback was positive²² and following inter-faculty talks, CTSS was made compulsory for FDY students by integrating it into its top stream (exit level CEFRL B2) programme. With the shift to another department and program, the following actions ensured the development of a knowledgeable team, and a course which suited FDY learners:

- A dedicated team of instructors was chosen
- Those instructors had observed a full set of CTSS lessons and completed background reading on historical reasoning and writing among young learners, and on Rome and its gladiators
- Şendur trained up an instructor in the assessment method
- Instructors brought their language teaching expertise to the course by developing more tasks to provide opportunity for practice and consolidation of the core writing and thinking skills
- The course was extended to 8 weeks
- Sources and task worksheets were placed in a booklet for students

Configuring the course

The very first CTSS team was naturally keen to gauge whether further change was necessary, and to that end made sure to collect instructor and learner perceptions on the success of the course. For instance, following that 2013-14 Fall semester, 5/8 CTSS instructors were not at all, or not very, satisfied with the pacing of activities within lessons, with similar results for timetabling and scheduling.²³ This also appeared to have negative ramifications for learners:

Lessons planned for 2 hours lasted for 3 or more actual class hours which led students' not being able to digest some important points / language.²⁴

In the learner forum held every semester to collect the student perspective of the preparatory programme, learners also felt that the course had been unreasonably tough.²⁵ Such

²² Critical Thinking for the Social Sciences, SPS & CTSS Overview for SL powerpoint, Şendur, K. 2013, unpublished.

²³ 2013-14 Fall CTSS Teacher Feedback survey, School of Languages, Sabancı University, unpublished.

²⁴ Ibid.

²⁵ 2013-14 Fall Learner Forum minutes, School of Languages, Sabancı University, unpublished.

feedback is an important motivator that has lead, and still leads, to the constant upkeep of the CTSS course. Over the semesters, significant elements that have been altered or developed have been:

- Lesson length

Increased from 2 to 4 teaching hours per week; lesson number was also made flexible according to timetabling constraints and student profile

- Written production

Number of DBQ tasks reduced to allow learners more time to digest information, and focus more on the process of writing. The chance to redraft a DBQ was also added for these reasons.

- Assessment

A certificate was introduced to encourage student participation and performance

This certificate was subsequently replaced by assigning CTSS assessed part of the FDY end of course grade. Written and oral production produced during lessons was assessed, and 60 minute exam added where students respond to a DBQ based on the sources read in class

- Marking

The DBQ rubric was simplified to make it more user-friendly when marking papers and the exam

Sample student DBQ papers given a standardised grade were provided as a guide for marking

Production tasks were incorporated into a workbook to make submission and grading practical

Future development

One challenge facing the teaching of the course is that the team is chosen relatively late in the day due to administration constraints. This means that the opportunity for pre-course training is extremely narrow, and to counter this, the following have been created or are currently underway:

- Student DBQ writing samples with standardised grades and justifications
- Student Source Evaluation writing samples with standardised grades and justifications
- A teacher's book of compiled lesson plans and answer keys (at present electronically available)

Maintaining relevancy and validity in our role of supporting preparatory students in their degree studies means that CTSS should keep in close contact with those stakeholders who seek to benefit from it, namely Freshman SPS students and their instructors. To this end, the following are either proposed or currently in practice:

- Mid- to end-of course survey of Freshman SPS students assessing their perception of CTSS' effectiveness
- Observation by course coordinators of SPS 101 and 102 lectures and discussions
- Liason with SPS instructors as to the current SPS format and learner needs
- The creation of a second version of CTSS with a new subject focus

Methodology of the Research for Student Evaluation of CTSS

The study was conducted at Sabanci University, Turkey, and was carried out on current Freshman SPS 101 participants who had previously taken CTSS. It is a descriptive research which examines the effectiveness of CTSS on student performance. In this study, qualitative data was gathered through interviews and a questionnaire, and the descriptive responses analysed.

Participants

The participants of the study included 24 Freshman Turkish students, all of whom had attended CTSS and were currently taking SPS101. The questionnaire was sent to more than 100 students through assistance of colleagues teaching Freshman ENG 101; however, due to the end of semester work and exams, only few participants could complete the questionnaire. Otherwise, 12 students, 5 female and 7 male, were also interviewed in person.

Data Collection Procedure

Each ENG101 instructor sent the questionnaire to his/her class via e-mail, and the responses were analysed. Additionally, the researcher randomly selected 12 participants to be interviewed. The interviews were semi-structured, and participants expressed their ideas and feeling according to questions (identical to those of the questionnaire) asked by the researcher. The interviews were recorded and transcribed for analysis.

Data Collection & Analysis

To obtain extensive data and gain a comprehensive understanding of student perception of the level of contribution of CTSS to their SPS101 performance, semi-structured interviews in English were carried out with 12 students using one Yes/No question with a follow up commentary question, and two open-ended questions. The data collected was content analysed, which required identifying common and significant points, themes and patterns in the data.

Results

- Question 1: Have you seen similarities between CTSS and SPS101? If yes, explain what these similarities are.

The first question of the study aimed to find out how much students correlate the skills and the content they learn in CTSS with those in SPS101. Results revealed that students found CTSS more similar to SPS101 in terms of evaluating visual resources to come to conclusions about a particular historical era. Few students responded that the topic of Roman Empire overlapped with the topic of SPS101, yet most of them emphasized that the way they use critical reading and academic writing skills in CTSS are similar to SPS101. This result may point to the fact that students have more the opportunity to strengthen the academic skills necessary for this particular undergraduate course than to build connections with the content.

- Question 2: How do you think CTSS in particular has helped you to cope with SPS and other freshman classes this year?

This prompt intended to discover a specific benefit of CTSS which students make use of in SPS101. Responses were very varied, and so it was concluded that the main advantages of taking CTSS were its opportunity to practice academic writing skills, note-taking, analyzing resources and using citations in writing. Again, CTSS did not directly seem to assist subject-wise, but importantly it did assist in reinforcing the necessary academic skills.

- Question 3: To better help you cope with SPS and freshman courses, in your opinion, how should the CTSS course change?

This aimed to elicit learner ideas for the improvement of CTSS. Almost all responses clearly showed that students desired a direct correlation between CTSS content and subjects covered in SPS101. It has to be noted that students accepted the fact that studying Roman Empire in CTSS does address one minor aspect of SPS101 content; however, it was suggested that a broader study of historical eras, as in SPS101, would be something learners feel would be towards their benefit.

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Developing a Cross-Cultural Design Methodology: A study of UK-South Korean Collaboration in Higher-Education Design

Dong Yeong Lee

Department of Design
Goldsmiths, University of London
UK
d.lee@gold.ac.uk

Jennifer Bain
Department of Design
Goldsmiths, University of London
UK
j.bain@gold.ac.uk

Abstract

This paper focuses on development of a Cross-Cultural Design methodology that promotes culturally literate students and designers in higher education courses.

Firstly, it charts the development of a conceptual framework, 'Categories of the Interaction of Cultures', through an extensive review of the literature. This framework was then tested over a four-year period through a series of specially designed practice-based collaborative Design Education workshops, conducted in collaboration with Goldsmiths, University of London (UK) and Kyung Hee University (South Korea). Sample size over three workshops was: Student N=80 and Academic Staff N= 8. Observations of practice and semi-structured interviews were carried out during the workshops with both students and academic staff. Qualitative data from the workshops was then analysed and findings from this are discussed. These are then applied to refine the initial conceptual framework into a final Cross-Cultural Design methodology.

The Cross-Cultural Design methodology is focused on making a contribution to Higher Education Design in that it can support both academics and students in planning and experiencing learning opportunities that develop understanding of the nuances of varying cultures, keep students motivated, and enhance their contextual understanding. The methodology seeks to suggest ways to signpost academics and students to a new way of understanding and interpreting different cultures, supporting development of new design possibilities through making explicit the benefits of Cross-Cultural Design.

Key words: Cross-Cultural Design, Higher-education, cultural literacy

Conference Strand: Educational Programs and Teaching or Contemporary Approaches in Higher Education and Examples of Best Practice

Introduction

Design is a holistic process that embraces various aspects of life; so understanding context is an increasingly critical ingredient of design practice. Therefore, although a function can be universal, its design varies depending on its context. The underlying question here is 'cultural difference', which is arguably one of the most important issues in contemporary critical, social, and cultural theory. Although, as a result of globalisation, considerable efforts are being made to explore and understand cross-cultural relationships, there has been limited discussion about cross-cultural concerns in a design practice context. It examines cross-cultural concerns in a design practice context in order to develop a Cross-Cultural Design learning methodology that promotes culturally literate students and designers in higher education courses.

The paper draws on data collected during phase 1 of a longer research project. Firstly, it summarises how development of a conceptual framework, 'Categories of the Interaction of Cultures', was informed through by a review of the literature. This was focused in three broad areas:

- Understanding of culture and cross-culture
- Understanding Cross-culture in Design Practice
- Understanding Cross-cultural Design Education

The paper then goes on to reveal how the conceptual framework was used to plan a series of specially designed practice-based collaborative Design Education workshops, conducted collaboratively between Goldsmiths, University of London (UK) and Kyung Hee University (South Korea). Findings from the workshops are then discussed and applied to refine the initial conceptual framework into a final Cross-Cultural Design methodology.

Understanding of Culture and Cross Culture

Culture has always been a vital ingredient in the design of products. Cultural influence varies between different products - some are culturally specific whereas others show a diversity of influences. However, as a result of advances in technology including global travel movement, communication, information, and particularly the recent rapid development of the internet and proliferation of smart phones, and as a result the world has become much more integrated. In that regard, the term 'globalisation' is used everywhere. Globalisation is the process of integrating various aspects of our everyday lives such as economics and culture, from all parts of the world (Bordo, 2002; Mussa, 2003). Some researchers such as Richard Jenkins (2014), author of *Social Identity*, argue that globalisation has brought diversity to our everyday lives, whereas others try to warn against cultural homogeneity, which merges each region or area's unique local trait with global traits and, more importantly, is often dominated by a few minor groups. Jenkins explains the cultural homogeneity with an example of the concept 'McDonaldisation' by George Ritzer (in Jenkins, 2014).

Diversity in this context means that people from different cultures use a variety of products to perform similar functions, but in nuanced ways. Such a global market environment is built on a very complex relationship between the various cultural contexts, and these markets have developed a standardised design approach in order to create efficient appeal for their global consumers. Ritzer in his book *The Globalization of Nothing* (2007) argued that globalization refers to the rapidly increasing worldwide integration and interdependence of societies and cultures. For Ritzer, "Nothing" refers to things that are standardized and homogenous such as 'McDonald's, Wal-Mart, Starbucks, credit cards, and the Internet (Mann, 2007, p.398)' whereas "something" means things that are personal or local flavour such as 'local sandwich

shops, local hardware stores, family arts and crafts places, or a local breakfast café (Mann, 2007, p.398)'.

Theorist Theodore Levitt (1983), in his Harvard Business Review article, 'The Globalization of the Markets', paid particular attention to the phenomenon of 'standardised products and brands'. He observed that (Levitt, 1983 IN Douglas & Wind, 1987, p. 419);

1. Customers in the global markets needs and interests are becoming increasingly homogenous worldwide; and
2. People around the world are willing to sacrifice preferences in product features, functions, design, and the like for lower prices at high quality;
3. Substantial economies of scale in production and marketing can be achieved through supplying global markets

For mass-produced industrial products, the overall uniformity in product design is actually an advantage. As suggested by point 1 above, global segments with homogenous customer interests and response pattern may be identified in some product markets (Czinkota and Ronkainen, 2004), where differences, due to cultural diversity, are almost absent (Diehl & Christianns, 2006).

Therefore, the complexity of contemporary cultural context based on globalisation has led to many studies which try to guide corporations and organisations in how to strategically approach the issue of being global and local (Kluyver, 2010) which is often referred to as glocalisation (Globalisation + Localisation) and in an element of the CCD.

Understanding Cross-culture in Design Practice

This part of the paper explores case-study examples of Cross-Cultural Design found in our everyday life, such as food, clothing, decoration, houses, and living environments in order to collate in-depth information based on actual practice and experience. It will assess current examples that demonstrate the concept of the 'Cross-Cultural Design'. Currently, many people use cultural interaction design methods in products, tools, objects, and even visual information practice. Yet there are still many obstacles to overcome due to a lack of multi-cultural understanding in design. Therefore, it is important to explore how a Cross-Cultural Design approach and Cross-Cultural Design processes can effectively represent and impact our everyday lives. Furthermore, the importance of the Cross-Cultural Design education will be highlighted so as to encourage students to learn other cultures, which can further contribute and be applied into the design process.

Use of cutlery and chopsticks in everyday life in both Eastern and Western cultures and 'Natural' is one of those interesting fusion concept that brings the two cultures together. Spanish designers Clara Del Portillo and Alejandro Selma stated that, "Silver cutlery is a symbol of elegance and it has been used in banquets and important tables for several years. Although the sense of fashion and aesthetics has changed, most of these cutleries still remain". Their cutlery concept, Natural, gives a new air to silver cutlery, making it current and modern without giving up on elegance. The product features a combination of two materials; traditional Western silver combined with Japanese wood (Figure 1). This product also takes into account new global mergers in the design of kitchen products by joining utensils from different cultures.



Figure 1. Designing a fusion between two cultures

Women's wear designer Yeashin Kim, launched her brand 'YEASHIN' in 2011, another example that is rather structured and controlled, with a particular cross-cultural intention. The brand's basic concept is derived from a combination of the retro designs found in British fashion of the 1960's with the influence of traditional Korean folk design (Figure 2). The playfully quirky designs and garments in Yeashin's SS13 design collection show her Eastern roots, with a focus on concertina pleats, blossom, and tassels. She acquired her inspiration by looking to her own heritage, particularly at old South Korean oriental landscape paintings, saying "The varieties of materials, controlled colours and textured details are typical of luxurious traditional Korean dress" (2013). In fact, over the past few years Koreans have become increasingly interested in fashion design and with many people choosing to research 'Korean street style', it is fast becoming recognised around the world.



Figure 2. Yeashin's SS13 design line

Recently, Android launched a commercial slogan 'Be together, not the same' (Figure 3) which summarises the underlying philosophy of Cross-Cultural Design. There is a need for a design that responds to the local environment and culture. Cross-Cultural Design opens the possibility for peoples and cultures to be entirely intertwined in the products and services they use, whilst retaining their own identity and characters.

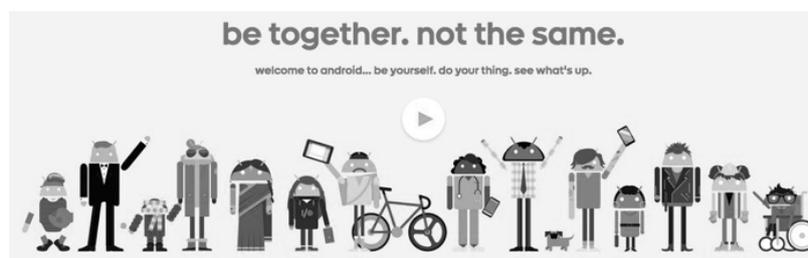


Figure 3. Android's slogan "Be together, not the same" (2015)

As seen above, a great deal of cultural elements such as the environment, materials, social status, ergonomics, and social issues are reflected in our daily life. Through studying the various examples found in different cultures, we can get a much better understanding of how people are influenced by different cultures.

Understanding Cross-cultural education

Cross-cultural education has traditionally been associated with the study of anthropology, sociology and, more recently, business and communication. Theorists and cross-cultural researchers such as Hofstede (1984) and Hall (1989), have focused on the sociological exploration of cross-culture, but hardly touched on any specific area of design. However, the issue of globalisation, and within this, concepts of 'Cultural Interaction (CI)' have been considered in the design of products for international markets. The impact of this is that the design profession and the education of designers has begun to take more notice of the cultural context for design, in order to design something that can appeal to a wider spectrum of consumers from all over the world. Diehl and Christianns (2006) asserted that;

While research on cultural aspects has traditionally been associated with areas of anthropology and sociology, the focus on the interaction with the material world has woken up the interest of the design disciplines to take part in these studies. (p. 503)

Here, what needs to be emphasised is that despite the concerns about standardisation and uniformity, academics including some like Guy Julier (2008) argue that globalisation still offers an optimistic vision for the design industry as an opportunity for renewed creativity with enhanced quality and flexibility. While cross-cultural research has have been mainly used to help the understanding of multinational culture and improve international communication and marketing, CCD as an approach could now be used to enhance not just communication but also the quality of design of products and services. Many already argue that the importance of cross-cultural design in the future continues to grow (Leong & Clark, 2003; Lin, 2007; Sohoni, 2009). As a result, design education as well as design professionals have to consider the cultural context of the users in order for goods and services to fully satisfy the consumer.

Ethnic-cultural variation is, among other things, reflected in the different products with different and similar functionality that people use, and in the different ways people use these products. The amount to which cultural diversity is reflected in differences between products and product forms depend, of course, on the types of products we have in mind. Television sets and ballpoints pens are typical examples of products where differences, due to cultural diversity, are almost absent, but in some cases, however, ethnic-cultural variation conflicts with the uniformity principle of mass-production.

The process of globalisation has resulted in a situation in which industrial designers from one culture or context often have to develop their designs for use in a wider cultural environment, and there has been emerging interest in the impact of cultural dimensions on the experience and interaction between people and products. Consequently, it has become integral for the industrial design profession to carefully take into account the context and culture of the end-users.

Each culture has unavoidably been exposed to other cultures, to 'otherness' throughout human evolution; thus, combining and reforming, hybridising and borrowing form the basis of the constant regeneration of society and culture throughout history. On these blurred boundaries between cultures and societies (Figure 4), many conflicts and misunderstandings can, and have, occurred.

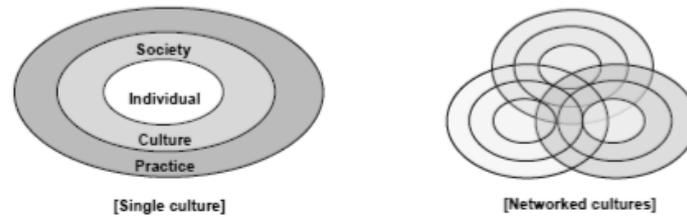


Figure 4. Networked culture diagram

The interaction of cultures through design helps to effectively provide communication to overcome the cultural differences that may arise when two different cultures meet each other. Its purpose is to minimise the negative impact of these differences by establishing common frameworks which cultures can then interact within. Even though the world has become increasingly globalised over the last 50 -60 years, cultural differences still continue to exist and should be respected and understood. In her article, “Cross cultural design = Living on the edge”, Erin Moore (2010), a designer and ethnographer, stated that:

...Connections are a result of technology, economy, transportation, education, politics or one of a million other things and probably do not matter as much as the fact that these connections, large and small, are happening constantly. Living on these borders (‘on the edge’) is easy to see how people of one place have integrated the customs and languages of another into their daily lives. When one lives on the border, cultural exchange or collision is inevitable. Products, services and communications more often than not, cater to people of both or many backgrounds.

Moore, however, wonders about the availability of this type of fluid exchange between people who live miles, countries or continents away from the cultures that they need or want to interact with. It poses an interesting question and unique challenge for designers, as these types of connections continue with increasing frequency across all industries. Engagement within this social process creates a forum for new cultural design concepts. Therefore, it is argued, that in order to achieve solid decision-making and successful product outcomes, Cross-Cultural Design research and cultural interaction design processes are essential.

Cross-cultural considerations affect how designs are received, especially if these aspects are not properly examined and taken into account. It is also important to ensure usability and user experience across cultural boundaries. Cross-Cultural Design education and research requires understanding of cultural differences and application of user-centred design methods, learning via their cultural identities and meanings, in target cultures.

Defining Cross-Cross Cultural Design (CCD) and Introducing CCD methodology

Through case-study examples of Cross-Cultural Design, as outlined above, we have been able to observe and explore in greater depth how tools and elements of design and culture interact, and what designers are capable of producing and expressing in their designs. The interaction and use of such cultural interactions is not one-dimensional but is, in fact, very complex. Through materials and design, nature, environmental and societal structures and lifestyle or religious factors, we were able to explore the Interaction of Cultures in design. We have discovered how many channels feed into the concept of cultural interaction in design, and how such designs can actually lead to more comfortable and ergonomic designs for the end users. Further to this, we have seen various examples of humour and gentle cultural tensions as different cultures interact in design, bringing a smile to the face of those using and observing the designs.

On the basis of the research performed throughout these case studies, we have categorised the various areas where we see the uses and interactions of cultures in design. These have

been developed into a conceptual framework 'Categories of the Interaction of Cultures', see table 1 below. The case studies reflect either one or a blend of these categories and have helped to ascertain how such interactions can influence and shape the various designs and uses. A definition of each CCD category helps the reader (teacher or learner) understand the category and subsequent sub-sections clarify CCD considerations and qualities. These cross-cultural qualities have arisen from the analysis of intercultural and Cross-Cultural Designs assessed in this paper.

From the analysis of the various case studies, we have been able to observe how different cultures can interact and come together to enhance the benefits from each design to form positive synergistic relationships. The harmonisation of these benefits has been enhanced whilst potential weaknesses and faults of each design is reduced. Furthermore, we have not only seen the interaction of designs across cultures, but also over time; we have been able to observe -as in the daybeds -how designs have evolved and interacted cross-culturally over time. The ultimate end results across the various regions and cultures have shed light on the potential benefits of bringing together cultural designs concepts intra-nationally and temporally.

Table 1. *A Conceptual Framework: Categories of the Interaction of Cultures*

CCD Categories	CCD Considerations	CCD Qualities
Things	Materials	Provide the basis for making and creating things and they are influential in the production and manufacturing process.
	Technologies	Cutting edge technology can often bring about completely new design, sometimes resulting in the upgrade of designs.
	Production processes	The final product can vary depending on the local culture, method and production process.
Places	Environments	Environmental and social elements are important and can often impact the designs aimed for everyday use.
People	Signs	Designs can come about to advance communication or they can come about from enhanced communication –it can work both ways
	Subcultural	Lifestyles often portray their inherent cultural roots and are often important in expressing the identity and concept behind a particular cultural design.
	Needs	Needs and essentials often drive the motives behind the designs and are often a great point of initiation for designs.
	Improvement	Makes one's life more comfortable and enriches the user's life.
	Linguistics and	Important with regards to communication and are crucial for the making and keeping of promises often leading to

	signals	potential disputes or cooperation.
	'Now' culture	What is happening 'time based'
Ethics	Conceptual	One's design sense and design concepts are very important and are often connected to cultures.
	Religious	Beliefs and religion are often portrayed in designs and so religious lives and faith are often influential in designs.
	Political	The design of an artefact is always also a political decision about how people should live, communicate, or behave. Design is often influenced by the political incidents or decisions, and, furthermore, design can be used as a political instrument in the form of activism, or as a medium to discuss and dream about possible or better futures.

CCD Short Programmes: Data Analysis and Findings

The conceptual framework as outlined above was tested over a four-year period through a series of specially designed practice-based collaborative Design Education short programmes, consisting of workshops and seminars. These were conducted in collaboration with Goldsmiths, University of London (UK) and Kyung Hee University (South Korea). Sample size over three workshops was: Student N=99 and Academic Staff N= 8. Observations of practice and semi-structured interviews were carried out during the workshops with both students and academic staff. See table 2 below for details of each workshop. Qualitative data from the workshops was then analysed and key findings are summarised below. Findings were then applied to refine the initial conceptual framework into a final Cross-Cultural Design methodology.

Table 2. *Summary of Cross-Cultural Design Short Programmes*

Programme	1	2	3	4
Title	Borders, Boundaries and Thresholds	Inside Out, Outside In	Ritual & Routine	Tourism of the Ordinary
Date	18. 01. 2010 - 12. 02. 2010	26. 07. 2010 - 17. 08. 2010	11. 07. 2011 - 29. 07. 2011	22. 07. 2013 - 09. 08. 2013
Length	4 weeks	3 weeks	3 weeks	3 weeks
Participants	30 BA Design students	20 BA Design students	24 BA Design students	25 BA Design students
Design Outcomes	6 projects	5 projects	6 projects	6 projects

CCD Short Programmes Key Findings

Through the four years' experience of running Cross-Cultural Design short programmes, the most exciting finding is that cultural understanding - particularly juxtaposing two different cultures and finding the hidden connection between them - allowed the students to come up with ideas and design approaches that are 'unexpected,' and based on individual students' own reinterpretation. In depth exploration of the culture permits the students much greater possibility of developing their own intentions and design languages.

According to Professor Meekyung Jang from Kyung Hee University, who organises the Cross-Cultural Design programmes, there are two main factors that have made a positive impact; the first is the new teaching methodologies, which are different from those employed in the Korean education system; it engages the students in more active enquiries, including field research, meta-design, and ideation drawing. The second is a working environment that brings together students from different backgrounds and provides them with a wider context to work on.

Moreover, the outcomes of the Cross-Cultural Design programme provided opportunities to see what are good or bad Cross-Cultural Design examples. As discussed at the beginning, Cross-Cultural Design has not yet been clearly defined; therefore there is a need to clarify what a good Cross-Cultural Design approach is. On the reflection of the outcomes of the early CCD programmes, and in discussion with academic tutors on these projects, it was noted that students commonly make mistakes by basing their ideas on preconceived notions and cultural stereotypes, rather than understanding culture through actually carrying out observation design research. As an example of this stereotyping, Korean students who had never visited England simply assumed that it is a country of 'rain'. They then went on to designing an umbrella. Clearly, English weather is not continuous rain and more importantly, local people do not carry umbrellas all of the time because it rarely rains heavily in UK. Tutors highlighted that another misunderstanding that students often make is that Cross-Cultural Design is about combining two different cultures as a simple sum of 1+1, for example, the Korean traditional hat or 'got' plus the British Fedora.

What emerged from the workshops and seminars is that "whatever definition is ascribed of the word, it can be argued that globalisation is changing the face and shape of education" (Ness & Lin, 2015, p.63). There is also an emergent trend in design, which considers people far beyond the object, or the market. Designers should understand users, their experiences, needs and problems to enable the creation of informed design for the reality of people's lives, who are the potential users (Curedale, 2012). Throughout the design process, and within any design discipline, understanding the outlook of the end user should be carefully considered. In order to apply a greater understanding of design, creative thinking methods can be implemented. By employing a learning framework that stresses the need and importance of cross-cultural consideration in the design process, students, and designers can develop their approach with more informed approaches, particularly when it comes to the message which designers feel is being communicated, and, equally as important, from the user perspective, in regards to how the end product might be received by users. With a coherent understanding of the user's needs, based on learning their cultural background at the initial stages of the design research, building a clear set of project or product objectives, including user needs and desires, and considering the product journey and lifecycle would allow potential constraints and misunderstandings to surface early (Curedale, 2012).

Introducing modules which encourage a change in the way we view the world as a whole, and not solely in terms of design, can encourage a more positive accepting outlook for all life actions, and thus implementing this approach to design enhances the practices. Students must be able to recognise the necessity and importance of each module of their design education programmes in order to fully engage within the educational projects and workshops to obtain the understanding and apply their learning into future design problems. Biggs (2003) claims that cultivation only by acquisition of knowledge is not enough; therefore,

students must work through practice of actual projects, and the assessment should be a formative element of the learning through the 'feedback and feed-forward' process; students should choose to develop their own motivation to include and adapt the learning into their own design processes.

Conclusion: Developing a Cross-Cultural Design Methodology

The main outcome of this research is the coherent development of a Cross-Cultural Design learning methodology, based on findings above. The concepts underpinning the CCD methodology are

- design education is essential for the expanded visual environment and visual literacy education. As we are living in a hugely 'expanded' visual cultural environment aided by the advance of technologies, the main sign of communication and production is no longer letters (Hall, 1997). Images, sound, space, objects, and gestures are treated equally or even transcend written language. Therefore, the ability to use a non-letter language, which is visual literacy, is required. The education of visual literacy, unlike art education where 'perception' is more important than 'interpretation', is based on consideration of the contexts. Referring to Haanstra (1994), the aim of the visual literacy is a "communications' approach" and "to reduce visual images to unequivocal messages and avoid ambiguity" (p.61), which is interpretation, whereas the ultimate goal of art education is to build the unique meaning of the world for a student through "cultivation of perception (p.61). It is designed to train people's interpretation of the visual experiences in daily life, and the ability to create such visual experience. In other words, it is education for design's consumption and production.
- the need for a combined education. At this point, 'combined' means using knowledge, skills, and methods from more than one culture in order to investigate core topics, issues, problems, or experiences so that it can develop abilities and foster students. This is the most ideal form of education, where solving problems is taught via the connection of different culture based on mutual functions. Essentially, design as an academic activity is related to a variety of social, economic, cultural, cognitive, physical, ethical, political, and technical dimensions, and it is also regarded as being very useful for exploring combinations of these elements, because it is through the complex interplay of these elements that possible design solutions can be found.
- the world does not exist as a divided knowledge system. It can be 'explained' with division, but it does not 'exist' in that way. In this sense, CCD education is an education about the 'actual world'. Often there are limits, and the students may feel suppressed when taught to receive knowledge based on understanding other cultures through theoretical text because it may force them to only learn knowledge via texts, rather than to gain an opportunity to experience various cultures. However, in advanced education systems teachers and students create models through CCD projects, in which they all participate directly. This can nurture visual literacy and conceptualizes CCD education as a combination of culture and design education, leading to an innovative Cross-Cultural Design learning methodology as conceptualized in figure 5 below.

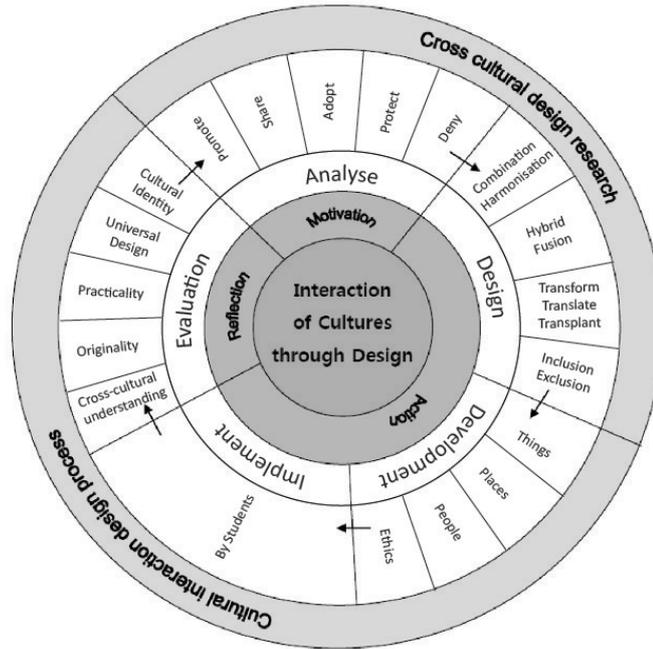


Figure 5. Cross-Cultural Design learning methodology

It is intended that this methodology, developed, tested and refined over a longitudinal period, is focused on making a contribution to Higher Education Design in that it can support both academic staff and students in planning and experiencing learning opportunities that develop understanding of the nuances of varying cultures, keep students interested and motivated as well as enhancing their contextual understanding.

From the four years of experience of running CCD education programmes, a great deal of potential has been revealed; however, key findings from this research emphasise the need for the CCD learning practice rooted in the methodology to evolve and develop in response to changing cultural and global trends and across design disciplines. Another of the key findings is that design practice that considers cultural influences and experience cannot be developed within a short period of time, and this has implications for further research to explore impact across different phases of education.

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The simulation game ECOMAN as a powerful learning tool

Melissa Michielsen
Faculty of Economics and Business,
KU Leuven Campus Brussels,
Belgium,
melissa.michielsen@kuleuven.be

Abstract

The business game ECOMAN has been organized since 1996 by the Faculty of Economics and Business of KU Leuven Campus Brussels. The game is an example of an interactive and skills-focused approach. To lead a company, many decisions have to be taken according to the mission statement and strategic objectives. The intention is that the management team runs the company for a number of financial years (game rounds). For this, they need to make decisions taking into account disruptive economic and business factors. Every decision has an impact on the overall business situation. Within this context, simulation games are extremely powerful learning tools, allowing the decision maker (player) to formulate and test the results of the different decisions taken as a manager.

The game ECOMAN creates an added value for the participants. They clearly have a lot more insight into business economics, as the game teaches them to estimate the effects of various unpredictable factors.. The reaction of the individual and the group is thoroughly tested. Moreover they learn to work independently on a project and practice their foreign language and presentation skills.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, teamwork, manager, responsibilities, skills, objectives

Education structure in Flanders linked to ECOMAN

Our campus is situated in Brussels, the capital of Flanders, Belgium and Europe. Flanders lies in the northern part of Belgium and is centrally located to major industrial areas in Western Europe. Flanders has a population of almost six and a half million inhabitants. The official language is Dutch, but French, German and English are widely spoken.. This has its influence on the business game concerning language choices and simulation environment.

Belgium is a federal state, composed of language-based communities and territorial regions. The redistribution of power occurred along two lines. The first line relates to language and, in a broader sense, to everything related to culture. The result was several communities. The concept of 'community' refers to persons that make up a community and the bond that unifies them, namely their language and culture. Belgium sits across the fault line that separates German and Latin cultures. This explains why the country has three official languages: Dutch, French and German. As a result, Belgium today has three communities: the Flemish, the French and the German-speaking Community. The second line of state reform was historically inspired by economic interests. The regions, which aspired to greater economic autonomy, conveyed these interests. The establishment of the three regions was the result: the Flemish Region, the Brussels Capital Region and the Walloon Region. The power to make decisions is no longer the exclusive preserve of the federal government and the federal parliament. The leadership of the country is now in the hands of various partners, who independently exercise their authority within their domains.

The powers over education in Belgium lie with the communities. The Flemish, French and German speaking Community have their own very similar educational system. Within the Flemish Government, the Minister of Education is responsible for almost all aspects of education policy, from nursery to higher and university education. Nursery education is available for children from two and a half to six years. Primary education aims at children from six to twelve and comprises six consecutive years of study. Secondary education is aimed at young people aged twelve to eighteen. Higher professional education exclusively consists of professionally oriented bachelor courses, which are only organised at university colleges of higher education. Academic education comprises bachelor and master courses, which are provided by universities. The business game ECOMAN can be organized in different levels for in the final year of secondary schools, at university colleges and at university.

Business game ECOMAN

A business game (also called a management game) is a simulation exercise. This means that the participants 'act as if' they run a company. Not surprisingly, the main purpose of a business game is to test the theoretical knowledge of the participants through practical exercises.

Design of the game

Groups with a maximum of thirty students are divided into three or four teams competing within one market. The more students there are, the greater the number of markets. This means that the three or four companies will compete against each other within one market. Markets do not interfere with each other. Each team will run a company for several financial years. It is not intended that each team will create a new firm. Each group starts from the same starting point: the ECOMAN company. This fictitious company was established ten years ago.

After the three or four teams have been formed, the participants have to choose a new name for their company and each participant has to assume responsibility for a department in that company. As it happens, in each company at least one person is responsible for marketing, human resources, logistics, finances and production. Furthermore, each company has to select a managing director. Only after the responsibilities have been laid down can the game start.

A first assignment for the management consists in formulating a mission statement. The mission needs to be pursued and should be translated into long term objectives. What does the company try to emphasize (e.g. customer satisfaction, growth, employment) and what does the company want to have achieved in three or four years' time (e.g. market leadership, financial independence) In order to do so, a SWOT analysis has to be made. Which are the company's strong points; what are weaknesses? The consequence of taking over a company is the need to review all the good, but also all the bad decisions of the previous management.

At the beginning of each financial year every company receives information concerning business economics: profit-and-loss account, balance sheet, market information, technical information ... Also expectations about the economic situation too are clarified in a report on the state of the market: what is the company up against in the field of economic growth, inflation, interest rates, taxes, social (un)rest ... Also information about the policy and decisions taken by the company's board of supervisors have to be taken into account. And to complete the SWOT analysis, participants have to think about the opportunities and threats.

All this information is provided by the ECOMAN-coach. Based on these data and considering the mission statement and long term objectives, each company takes several decisions:

- Managing director

The managing director sees to the co-operation within the team. The decisions have to be taken as a team. Sometimes this is very straightforward, sometimes it is accompanied by problems. The managing director makes sure that compromises can be reached (without harming the value of the decision). In the important decisions (e.g. massive dismissals, acquisition of real estate, increase in capital) he plays a crucial role. What is the effect of an increase in capital? Why is the profitability of the company too low? As in reality, it is the managing director who assumes the final responsibility for the achievements of the company. Of course, the managing director has to ensure that decisions are in line with the overall, long-term objectives of the company.

- Production manager

The demand for the products of the company needs to be met in order to comply. The production manager has to cooperate closely with the marketing manager. The production planning and the stock policy are key elements in the policy of the company. If the company fails to meet the demand, this implies that a higher production volume should have been budgeted or that the company failed to produce the amount budgeted. This could be caused by a shortage in materials, which is one of the production manager's responsibilities. The production manager also takes care of the creative part of the company. He is responsible for the R&D-budget and the development of a renewed product and thus for the quality of this product. To what extent has the quality of the product grown by a rise in the R&D-budget? How does the quality of the materials affect the quality of the product? Again the information flow between production and marketing has to be up to speed. If not, there will be a serious problem in product placement.

- Human resources manager

The HR manager bears responsibility for the recruitment and the dismissal of staff members, personnel training and motivation and wage policy. For this purpose the HR manager has to evaluate a number of macroeconomic factors (e.g. inflation, unemployment) and factors in business economics (e.g. productivity, labour costs, number of union members). The HR management motivates the staff members as much as possible. The HR manager should be able to clearly explain the decisions taken. How have the dismissed members of staff been supported? How were new members of staff selected? Sometimes the information flow between HR, marketing and logistics is problematic. If this is the case there can be insufficient numbers of salesmen from blue collar backgrounds, affecting the company in a rather negative way.

- Logistics manager

First of all, the logistics manager and the production manager estimate the production volume. This cannot be conducted effectively without a good information channel to the marketing department. Investment analysis and decisions are other important tasks of the manager of logistics. How many machines are needed to ensure that the budgeted production volume can be realised? This manager can decide to replace first generation machines with newer, more productive ones. What is the price of extension or replacement investments? How much return does the company expect

from such investments? How many production shops are needed to set up the machines? The company might invest in installations which reduce the use of energy and the waste production. Have these investments really been the key to a saving in costs? An intensive communication with the company's financial manager is needed.

- **Marketing manager**

The responsibility of the marketing manager concerns sales, demand and market share. An important and complex task for the marketing director consists in forecasting the demand for the product of the company in the next year. This estimate is very important for the production manager, who will base his production plan on it. The typical 4 P's (Product, Price, Promotion and Place) are the basis of the marketing policy. The marketing manager works out each P very carefully, and sees to it that they are tuned to one another. He has to explain the details of the marketing budget. . Which media are used to attract (new) customers? What does the commercial consist of? How can market research be conducted?

- **Financial manager**

The financial manager has a large number of responsibilities concerning the dividend policy, investment policy, financing decisions. Naturally, all these decisions have to be explained. It is the financial manager's task to follow up a number of important ratios: What's the news on the solvency of the company? Is profitability high enough? Why has the value of the shares increased or decreased?

The goal of the game is to approximate the objectives. To reach these goals, participants are challenged to actively analyse data and simulate scenarios dealing with a constantly changing economic environment. The one can't decide without consulting and negotiating with the other. This constant discussion leads to an intense interactivity between all participants. Moreover they have to respect deadlines for submitting their decisions.

The decisions of the three or four companies are passed on to the ECOMAN-coach and posted into a software program. With the help of the computer program, analyses and calculations are made, after which, the profits, the market shares, the cash flows, the turnover, the stocks of the companies are known.

The newly gained information is passed on to the companies. Each company receives extensive information about their own performance and limited information about the competition. After an analysis of these results and a comparison of the different companies, another year can start. Obviously, it is important that the companies calculate and analyse all types of ratios (liquidity, profitability, solvency) and compare the results shown with the objectives, as the company makes decisions in order to reach the goals set at the start of the game.

Competences involved

The competition between teams is an advantage, but winning the business game may not be an aim in itself. The objectives set out at the start of the game are far surpassed by the objectives of the game itself. These objectives are situated at different levels. First, the game provides the opportunity to apply their theoretical knowledge in a fairly realistic, but protected environment. Second, the participants can test their assumptions and the decisions linked to them. Moreover the effects are clearly visible in the new balance sheet, profit and loss account and the comparison with the competitors. A financial year within the business

game takes up only a few hours and not a full year, therefore connections can be easily found in a relatively small amount of time. In a real environment, the management may be afraid of making mistakes and often has to wait for a long time to see the result of certain actions.

This implies that all participants, whether with or without prior knowledge on entrepreneurship can take part. Starting from the learning by doing principle all participants acquire knowledge of the conceptual framework of economics and management. Deductive skills are learned, because the numerous data needs to be processed in a short period of time.

This is automatically linked to a third competence within the game and in the “real world” teamwork. In each financial year, the participants have to co-operate and work together. If they don't, the company will never reach its goals. Without excellent teamwork, no company can achieve good results.

Teamwork matters in a business game; it is demonstrated to what extent the departments are dependent on one another. The participant gains a clear understanding of the relations between different factors in business economics: How does the dividend policy affect the solvency of a company? What's the consequence of a degree of capacity utilisation which is too low?

Business economics is not the only issue of importance. The fact is that the teams work in a specific economic, political and social environment. Participants experience how they can be constrained by a number of economic factors: To what extent does inflation affect the costs? How should the company react to an economic crisis? What risks is it willing to face in the financial market?

In taking the decisions and interpreting the results, the possibility exists that management will be placed under pressure. This means that the management has to react and think fairly quickly. Furthermore, each participant has to learn to cope with uncertainty and to experience how difficult it is to outwit the competitor if the company doesn't know what the competitor is doing or is intending to do. The analysis of all data requires a high degree of teamwork, and efficient meeting skills are necessary to meet the proposed deadlines.

Organization

The business game is organized for different target groups: students in the final year of secondary education, students of the Academic Bachelor Program and students of the Professional Bachelor Program. The level of difficulty and the language (Dutch, English or French) can be modified according to the target group.

In Flanders, the game is organized annually for approximately 2,500 students of secondary schools and 1,000 students of university colleges and universities.

- ECOMAN in the upper-sixth

Playing this business game with upper-sixth or A-level class pupils requires a lot of preparation. No specific initial knowledge of economics or business management is required. Pupils visit an interactive website <http://www.ecoman.be> during a number of weeks (two or three hours a week), during which time they become familiar with the economic and management terminology needed in order to run a company. They also receive more detailed information about the company that they will take over. Each visit to the website is linked to specific tasks, so by the end of this period, they have chosen a company name, designed a logo, written a mission statement, decided on targets, and taken decisions for the first financial year.

This online sessions are followed by an intensive training and coaching day under the supervision of a ECOMAN-coach. The day starts with a competitor analysis which provides students with more information about the economic position of their own company and of their rivals' company. During this day of playing, two more years are covered, with extra attention to sustainable management. Afterwards, the teacher in the school can opt to draw up a report and/or for organizing a presentation on the conducted policy, possibly in a foreign language.

The Flemish government has set interdisciplinary didactic goals for each pupil. These are minimum objectives which do not belong to one specific subject, but which have to be attained in an interdisciplinary fashion or through projects. In this way, some relevant social content can and must be integrated in the curriculum, even though it is not typical of one field or subject. Many schools realize these interdisciplinary goals through integrated projects, such as the "integrated test". The business game ECOMAN can function as an integrated test of whether upper-sixth pupils have attained the required didactic goals at the end of the curriculum. The pupils must be able to show their mental dexterity when applying knowledge, skills and attitudes in a professional situation. This brings pupils closer to corporate life as well as to the world of higher education.

- ECOMAN in university colleges and universities

In Flanders, higher education is provided by university colleges and universities and a number of other accredited institutions. The universities tend to organize more academic programs while the university colleges are more professionally oriented.

Playing the business game with students of university colleges and universities requires different preparation from in secondary schools. The students receive a brochure that contains general information, data and instructions for each department (course material for the general director, HR director, marketing director, production director, logistics director, personnel director) and calculations of the balance sheet and income statement. Based on this brochure and the prior knowledge of economics the students can start the game.

The business game itself lasts two to three days. The students start by allocating responsibilities (organizational structure), formulating a mission statement and defining long-term objectives. Once they have decided the company's direction, other decisions can be made. They need to establish connections between various corporate decisions in a simulated business environment, taking the general economic context and business context into account.

For university colleges and universities, the difficulty of the game is higher, the company needs to produce and sell two types of products in one or two markets. One product is for professional use and the other product is meant for private use, which is more price sensitive.

While making decisions the students use a budgeting-software. This management tool helps the students to get a view of the expected results, if necessary they still can adjust some decisions in order to reach their objectives.

The game ends with an important assignment. The students have to present the policy pursued, the obtained results and the perspectives to the shareholders. Depending on the goals, the university (colleges) wishes to achieve, the presentation can result in a shareholders meeting, during which the language can be Dutch, English or French. On the other hand a financial report with an extensive analysis of data or a website can be drawn up.

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The relation between exposure to electromagnetic field and daily life cycle which affects learning in students

Filiz ÖĞCE,
Nursing Department,
Faculty of Health Science,
Türkiye,
filiz.ogce@ieu.edu.tr

Deniz TALAZ,
Nursing Department,
Faculty of Health Science,
Türkiye,
deniz.talaz@ieu.edu.tr

Deniz HARPUTLU,
Nursing Department,
Faculty of Health Science,
Türkiye,
deniz.harputlu@ieu.edu.tr

Gülem ATABAY,
Health Management Department,
Faculty of Health Science,
Türkiye,
gulem.atabay@ieu.edu.tr

İlgi ŞEMİN,
Vocational School of Health Services
ilgi.semin@ieu.edu.tr

Sevil TELLİ
Vocational School of Health Services
sevil.telli@ieu.edu.tr

Abstract

Circadian rhythm includes approximately 24-hour physiological changes and is synchronized by environmental stimulus. Supra chiasmatic nucleus regulating this rhythm is in charge of regulating variants related to the sleep. Sleep serves a number of functions such as growing up, learning, memory strengthening. A person can feel himself ready for a new day, fit and alive following high-quality and efficient sleep. Socio-demographic factors, biological, psychological and environmental factors affect sleep. Electromagnetic waves transmitted from electronic devices have adverse effects on circadian system.

The objectives of this study are to determine factors affecting sleep quality and sleep status of university students and evaluate exposure to the electromagnetic field and to analyze their relation.

Volunteer students, selected randomly among students at Izmir University of Economics participated in the descriptive study. Data were collected with a questionnaire including personal and behavioural characteristics, sleep, state of wakefulness, time of sleep, use of electronic devices, attention and concentration states, complaints, and ESSorth sleepiness scale and Pittsburg sleep quality scale.

It was found out that students being exposed to electronic field highly because of long-term mobile phone and computer use had sleep problems and poor sleep quality and were sleepy excessively during day time. General health condition, preferred studying period, physical activity, period of sleeping, sleeping in illuminated area, state of dozing off, distance from the mobile phone while sleeping affect sleep quality significantly. Habits, state of waking up as rested, sleeping while studying/falling asleep and sleep interrupting at night affect both state of sleepiness in the daytime and sleep quality significantly.

Key words: Circadian rhythm, sleep quality, electromagnetic field

Introduction

A number of physiological phenomena occur in compliance with a certain rhythm in living organisms. Sleep-wakefulness cycle, body temperature, hormone level, affection and some cognitive functions have a daily rhythm called as Circadian rhythm (*Selvi et al., 2011*). Circadian rhythm involves approximately 24-hour behavioural and physiological changes formed by endogenous biological clocks and synchronized by environmental stimulus. The center in charge of this rhythm is the supra chiasmatic nucleus in anterior hypothalamus known as the circadian or biological clock and this center is also responsible for regulating variants related to the sleep (*Selvi et al., 2011*).

Sleep is a repeated and reversible behaviour serving a number of different functions such as repair and growing up in the brain and body, learning or memory strengthening (*Benington, 2000; Krueger and Obal, 2003*). It is one of the significant variables of the health and affects the state of wellbeing (*Ertekin and Doğan, 1999; Engin and Özgür, 2004*). While it varies by the person, life style and age, it is stated that ideal sleep time for the young adults between the ages of 18-25 corresponding to the university study period is average 7-9 hours (*Hernandez et al., 2012; Hirshkowitz et al., 2015*). High-quality and efficient sleep should be

in time, for sufficient time and uninterrupted (*Kline, 2013*). By this means, the person can feel himself ready for the new day, fit and alive after waking up (*Bingol, 2006*).

As the environmental stimulus increases with the technological advances, life is lived faster and sleep disorder occurring as a result of physiological or psychological reactions of the human body during adaptation to this rate becomes a widespread and significant health problem (*Van Cauter et al., 2005*). Factors affecting sleep quality include psychological factors such as stress and unsolved daily life problems, tendency of insomnia, psychiatric disorders, senility, chronic diseases, alcohol, smoking, tea, coffee consumption, stimulants, sleeping pills, life style with long working hours, environmental conditions such as noise, light, temperature (*Stepanski, 2005; Gargaro et al., 2012*). Sleeplessness is one of the most striking problems of the modern societies (*Bonnet, 2000*) and especially university students experience sleep problems and tiredness frequently (*Yi-Chin Lee et al., 2007*). An accepted opinion is in question for insufficient sleeping of the said group and it was reported that they are substantially sleepy (*Orzech et al., 2011*). Most of young people have problems such as tiredness, anxiety, irritation, depression and difficulty in concentration as a result of sleeplessness frequently (*Fernandez et al., 2009*). Sleep deprivation has a number of results such as being sleepy, neurocognitive and psychomotor performance disorders (*Harrison and Horne, 2000*). Moreover, sleep quality and deficiency of sleep can result in metabolic disorders and cardiovascular disorders (*Chang et al., 2015*).

Exposure to electromagnetic field result in fast aging, rise of blood glucose and lipid levels, increase of neuro regulator disorders, decrease of testosterone levels in men. At the same time, it affects immune functions, blood pressure, pulse rate and other dynamics of cardiovascular system (*Zahiroddin et al., 2006; Ahmadi et al., 2010*).

In addition to these, results of a number of epidemiological and experimental studies show that exposure to electromagnetic fields have adverse effects on circadian system and create risks to endanger the health (*Barsam et al., 2012; Nakatani-Enomoto et al., 2013; Lewczuk et al., 2014; Reza Monazzam et al., 2014*).

Learning requires attention and motivation of the person. Sleep withdrawal, attention and concentration impairment are the factors affecting learning negatively. Moreover, usual biorhythm of the persons will result in choosing different hours of the day for learning by their biological structure as the day or night student. (*Kimençe, 2002; Cardinali, 2008*).

In this study, it is aimed to evaluate exposure of students to electromagnetic field and to determine its effect on their daily lives and biorhythm involving sleeping pattern and the relation of state of learning with the biorhythm. The accuracy of the hypothesis that there is a

relation between the state of being exposed to the electromagnetic field and biorhythm of the student was tested.

Method

The whole students studying at Izmir University of Economics in 2014-2015 academic year constituted the population of the descriptive study. Sample was not selected and 357 students above the age of 18 and accepting to participate were involved in the study.

Data were collected by use of personal information form prepared by the researchers; ESSorth Sleepiness scale (ESS) and Pittsburg sleep quality scale (PSQS). There are questions about gender, age, BMI, state of working, general health perception, continuous consumption of smoking/alcohol/medicine, consumption of energy drink/tea/coffee and frequency, habit of having a breakfast/ physical activity, frequency of using computer/mobile phone, environmental order of the bedroom, state of attention and concentration, sleeping habits, time period preferred for studying, complaints of health in the personal information form.

ESSorth Sleepiness Scale (ESS): It is one of the self-notification scales for measuring sleep qualitatively and quantitatively to determine the excessive daytime sleepiness, developed at ESSorth Hospital in Melbourne by Murray W. Johns (1991) in 1990. The scale evaluates sleepiness in daily special conditions (8 different conditions) and special time period. The scale's Turkish validity and reliability study was performed by Agargun, Cilli, Kara et al. in 1999. In the original scale, while Cronbach's alpha value is 0.88 it was found as 0.80 in Turkish version. ESS is a quarter point likert type scale. Scoring system of 8-question scale is like 0, 1, 2, 3 and the highest score indicates the sleepiness.

Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Scale (PSQS): It was developed by Buysse, Reynolds, Monk et al. in 1989. Studies of validity and reliability in Turkish were carried out by Agargun, Kara and Anlar in 1996. By means of PSQS, reliable, valid and standard measurement is possible for the sleep quality and a reliable distinction between the ones "Sleeping well" and "sleeping bad" can be made. In the original scale, Cronbach's alpha value is 0.83 while it was found as 0.80 in Turkish version. PSQS comprises of total 24 questions and question 19 and the next questions are answered by the partner or roommate. Since it is not possible to contact partner or roommate for our data collection method, 18-question form of the scale recommended by Turkish Thoracic Society was used (Türk Toraks Derneği, 2012). Components of the scale include subjective sleep quality, sleep latency, sleeping time, accustomed sleep efficiency, sleep disorders, using sleeping pill and daytime dysfunction. Global Pittsburg sleep quality index is found by adding scores of all components. Each

component is scored between the points of 0-3. The scale total score is 0-21. Total score of 5 and above of PSQS shows the bad sleep quality. Cronbach's alpha value of the scale was found as 0,77 in this study.

Analysis and evaluation of data

Data were analyzed with SPSS 21,0 package program. For socio-demographic characteristics number and percentage values, normal distribution and constant variance concordance were tested, and parametric or non-parametric analysis methods were used. Frequency and percentage distributions, t test and One Way Anova statistic analysis were performed for independent groups to analyze data. Post-Hoc test was carried out to find the parameters of statistically significant differences by complying with the normal distribution and not complying and Tukey, Lsd, Bonferroni, Dunnet T3, Games Howell analyses were reviewed. The study was evaluated by $p < 0.05$ statistical significance.

Results

30.4% of 357 students participating in the study attend to preparation class, 27.1% of them are in class 1, 20.9% of them are in class 2, 11.5% of them are in class three and 9.8% of them are in class 4.

Information about students' demographic data are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Socio-demographic data of the students.

		Number	Percent (%)
Gender	Male	201	56,1
	Female	156	43,6
Age groups	17-24	337	94,2
	25-33	20	5,6
Body Mass Index (BMI kg/m²)	≤18.5 (underweight)	47	13,9
	18.6-24.9 (normal)	242	65,5
	25-29.9 (overweight)	57	17

	≥30 (obese)	9	2,7
Settlement Type	Metropolis	224	62,6
	Large City	76	21,2
	Town	52	14,5
	Village	5	1,4
Educational Level	Associate	51	14,2
	Undergraduate	301	84,1
	Postgraduate	5	1,4

20.7% of participants expressed that they perceived their health condition as very well, 59.8% of them as well, 17.9% of them as moderate and 1.4% of them as bad. While 86.3% of students express that they don't use medicine continuously, 12.8% of them use medicine continuously. Data related to daily living habits of the students are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Daily Living Habits and Sleep Scores of **the** Students

Factors	Number	Percent (%)
Settlement type		
Metropolis	224	62,6
Large City	76	21,2
Town	52	14,5
Village	5	1,4
Health status		
Very Well	74	20,7
Well	214	59,9

Moderate	64	17,9
Bad	5	1,4
Frequently consumed items		
Cigarette	114	31,8
Energy drink	16	4,5
Tea/Coffee	150	41,9
Antidepressant	10	2,8
Doing Physical Activity		
Regular exercise	277	1,7
Irregular exercise	6	77,4
None	74	20,7
Study preference for morning or evening hours		
Morningness	134	37,4
Eveningness	217	60,6
Sleep Time		
3-4 hours	35	9,8
5-8 hours	264	73,7
> 8 hours	57	15,9
Sleep fragmentation		
Yes	45	12,6
No	125	34,9

Sometimes	173	48,3
Wake up as rested		
Yes	88	24,6
No	100	27,9
Sometimes	169	47,2
Need wake up stimulants		
No	48	13,4
Yes (someone)	26	7,3
Yes (alarm clock)	282	78,8
Wake up when the alarm clock begins to ring		
immediately after alarm	153	42,7
press snooze to delay 1 time	106	29,6
press snooze to delay 2-3 times	97	27,1
fall asleep		
sleeping instantly	154	43
sleeping difficulty	203	56,7
time preferences for study		
Morning	34	9,5
Night	166	46,4
No matter	157	43,9

Attention and concentration problem		
Yes	231	64,5
No	123	34,4
Sleep or drowse while studying		
Yes	129	36
No	228	63,7
PSQS total score		
≤ 5 good sleep quality	111	30,9
> 5 bad sleep quality	246	68,8
ESS total score		
< 10 normal	258	72,2
≥ 10 excessive daytime sleepiness	97	27

73.7% of participants indicated that they slept for 5-8 hours at night. 48.3% of participants answered the experience of sleep interruption as “varying”. 47.2% of them answered the question of “waking as rested” as sometimes. 78.8% of them expressed that they would a clock to wake up and 42.7% of them indicated that they woke up immediately when the clock went off. It is seen that 56.7% of participants don’t fall asleep immediately when they go to bed. While 46.4% of participants expressed that they studied at night, 43.9% of them answered the question as “It doesn’t make any difference”. It was found out that 64.5% of them had attention and concentration problem while studying. 36% of them said that they slept or drowsed while studying.

Point average of ESS ($p=0.020$) and PSQS ($p=0.007$) of participants growing in a city was found significantly higher than metropolitan.

PSQS point average (0.011) of the ones describing the health condition as “moderate” is significantly higher than the ones expressing as “very well”.

PSQS ($p=0.000$) point score of the ones smoking by the ones consuming tea/coffee and using sleeping pill and more than one stimulants simultaneously (grouped as other) is significantly higher.

PSQS ($p=0.007$) point scores of the ones not doing exercise are significantly higher than the ones doing exercise regularly or irregularly.

PSQS ($p=0.001$) point average of the persons feeling themselves more alive in the evening is significantly higher. 60.6% of the participants expressed in this way and indicated that they preferred completing what should be done at night.

PSQS ($p=0.000$) point averages of the students sleeping for 3-4 hours at night are significantly higher than the ones sleeping for 5-8 hours and more than 8 hours.

Both PSQS ($p=0.000$) point averages and ESS are significantly higher in the persons expressing that their sleep was interrupted at nights than the ones not having interrupted sleep ($p=0.022$) and having sometimes ($p=0,006$).

Both ESS ($p=0.019$) and PSQS ($p=0,000$) point averages of the ones expressing that “I don’t wake up as rested” are significantly higher than the students expressing that “I wake up as rested”

PSQS ($p=0,012$) point averages of the students saying that “I wake up after delaying the clock for 2-3 times” are significantly higher than the ones saying that “I wake up after delaying the clock for once” and “I wake up immediately”.

PSQS ($p=0.000$) point averages of the ones saying “I don’t wake up immediately” are significantly higher.

ESS ($p=0,004$) and PSQS ($p=0.000$) point averages of the students having the problem of attention and concentration are significantly higher.

ESS ($p=0.000$) and PSQS ($p=0.014$) point averages of the students saying that “I sleep/drowse while studying” are significantly higher.

It was found out that 68.8% (246 persons) of the participants had poor quality sleep and 27% (97 persons) had excessive daytime sleepiness. Moreover, total time of waking within the day was determined as 16 hours in the rate of 20.1%. 21.2% of participants expressed that they went to bed at 01:00 and 20.4% of them said that they woke up at 08:00 in the morning. 58.4% of the participants expressed the main complaint as “weakness”.

Conditions associated with exposure to electromagnetic fields of the students are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Sleep Scores and Electromagnetic Field Exposure Status of the Students

		Number	Percent (%)
Daily computer usage	0-4 hours	266	74,3
	5-8 hours	70	19,6
	>5-8 hours	21	5,9
Mobile phone usage on average in a day (calls only)	0-30 minutes	163	45,5
	30 minutes-2 hours	108	30,2
	2-4 hours	36	10,1
	4-8 hours	22	6,1
	> 8 hours	28	7,8
Mobile phone usage on average in a day (apart from making phone calls)	0-30 minutes	34	9,5
	30 minutes-2 hours	78	21,8
	2-4 hours	81	22,6
	4-8 hours	90	25,1
	8-16 hours	60	16,8
	>16 hours	14	3,9
Usage of headphones	Yes	33	9,2
	No	217	60,6
	Sometimes	105	29,3
Having a TV in the	Yes	70	19,6

bedroom	No	285	79,6
Having a cordless phone in the bedroom	Yes	37	10,3
	No	320	89,4
Having a computer in the bedroom	Yes	280	78,2
	No	77	21,5
Fall asleep with the lights on	No	273	76,3
	Yes	51	14,2
	Sometimes	33	9,2
Distance from mobile phone while sleeping	< 0,5 meter	136	38
	0,5 - 1 meter	142	39,7
	1 - 3 meter	65	18,2
	> 3 meter	13	3,6

74.3% of participants reported daily computer use as 0-4 hour, 45.5% of them reported daily time of speaking on the mobile phone as 0-30 minutes, 60.6% of them said that they did not wear headphone while speaking on the mobile phone. It is seen that 21.8% of participants use mobile phone other than daily speaking for 30 minutes-2 hours, 22.6% of them use for 2-4 hours and 25.1% of them use for 4-8 hours. While 79.6% of them don't have TV in the bedroom and 89.4% of them don't have wireless home phone, 78.2% of them have computers in the bedroom. About the distance from mobile phone while sleeping, 39.7% of them answered as 0.5-1 meter. 76.3% of students reported that they slept in the dark.

ESS ($p=0,024$) point averages of the participants using computer for 5-8 hours a day are significantly higher.

ESS ($p=0.000$) and PSQS ($p=0.000$) point averages of the participants speaking on the mobile phone for 4-8 hours and more than 8 hours a day are significantly higher than the ones using for 0-30 minutes.

PSQS ($p=0.019$) point average of the ones leaving any light or bedside lamp on while sleeping are significantly higher than the ones sleeping in the dark.

PSQS ($p=0.000$) point averages of the participants keeping the distance from the mobile phone while sleeping as 0-0,5 m and 0,5-1 m are significantly higher compared to “1-3 meters”.

Discussion

Exposure to electromagnetic field is inevitable because of the electronic devices we use in increasing variety and time in our daily lives and education in parallel with fast increasing technological advances. Negative effects of being exposed to electromagnetic field affecting health and study order of the students are observed with especially sleep problems and biorhythm defined as physical, emotional and mental disharmony.

Sleep quality point averages of the students was found as 68.8% as bad in our study. In studies carried out Altintas et al. (2006), Saygili et al. (2011), rate of university students with poor quality of sleep were found as 54.4% and 59% respectively. In the international studies, it is seen that rate of poor quality of sleep is between 53% -57.5% (Cheng et al., 2012; Lemma et al., 2012; Suen et al., 2008). One of the most distinct reasons of it is the long-term computer use and in this study, it is seen that persons using computer for 5-8 hours a day have poor quality of sleep. Similarly in the study performed by Kocoglu and Arslan (2011) with high school students that it is noted that computer use for playing a game is 2 hours and above a day and it is among risk factors determined for daytime sleepiness state. In another study conducted by Joo et al. (2005) in Kore with college students that students being excessively sleepy in day time use computer 25 minutes more than the students not being sleepy.

When the sleep quality is poor, excessive daytime sleepiness and dozing off while studying are expected cases and it was determined as 27% and 36% respectively in this study. Tran et al. (2014) reported daytime sleepiness prevalence as 27.9% in university students. In another study carried out by Lovato et al. (2014) with university students, 53.6% of students had a nap during the day and were more sleepy than the others.

Sleeping being very significant in the daily life cycle is affected by biological rhythms of the individuals directly. Biological rhythm of every person is different; persons being able to wake up early in the morning prefer early time of the day for working and studying because they are tired and sleepy later in the day. Individuals feeling themselves active and fit in late hours at night prefer sleeping in the morning. If these preferences do not match with the business

and education life of the person, biorhythm will be affected and compliance problem will occur. In this study, the rate of students feeling more alive at the evening hours and preferring completing things to be done at night was found as 60.6%. Night chronotype rate is 13% in the study performed by Tran et al. (2014). The rate we found in this study is close to the rate of students with poor quality of sleep and it makes us think that students have difficulty in receiving education in the daytime.

Weakness and tiredness in the rate of 58.4%, headache in the rate of 45.8% and stinging, itching and hydration in eye in the rate of 22.9% were detected. In the study conducted by Ozen et al. (2002) about exposure of university students to electromagnetic field and use of mobile phone, headache depending on mobile phone use was determined as 24.3% and sleep problem as 8.3% and sensitivity to noise and difficulty of hearing was determined as 7.2% and tiredness was determined as 15.7%. Similarly, in the study carried out by Noland et al. (2009) with adolescents, rate of tiredness of the ones having sleep problem was reported as 93.7%. Results show that computer-mobile phone use of students and habit of sleeping in illuminated environment at night increases exposure to electromagnetic field and leads to above-mentioned complaints in addition to sleep problems.

Excessive use of mobile phone can lead to nervous system complaints and complaints related to cognitive abilities such as sleep-wakefulness, attention and memory. It was determined that radiofrequency waves transmitted from the mobile phones may affect cognitive functions negatively because of the exposure of some regions of the brain (Eliyahu et al., 2006). It was found out in this study that long-term mobile phone use affected daytime sleepiness and sleep quality negatively. Similarly, in a study carried out by Murdock et al. (2016) with the young people between the age of 18-29, a significant relation between following notifications in the mobile phone at night and forcing himself to control them and poor quality of sleep was found. Following the messages at night leads to more interruptions of sleep.

In this study, 60.6% of the students stated that they did not wear headphone while using mobile phone. Similarly, in the study carried out Ergin et al. (2014) with high school students it was found out that 76.1% of participants did not wear headphone.

Some students tend to sleep so close to their mobile phones on the nightstand or under the pillow. And mobile phones radiate electromagnetic radiation when they are on. In the study found out that the persons keeping the distance between the mobile phone shorter than one meter had poor quality of sleep. No study supporting this information was seen. However, in a study of Loughran et al. in 2005, it was seen that electromagnetic field exposure was related to REM sleep latency.

It was determined in this study that students smoking, consuming coffee/tea, using sleeping pills and students having more than one of these habits had poor quality of sleep. It is reported that caffeine drinks make sleeping difficult and interrupt sleep (Shcao et al., 2010) and deteriorates the sleep quality (Walsh et al., 1990).

It was determined in this study that sleep quality of the ones not doing exercise was worse than the ones doing exercise. Similarly in the study carried out by Aktas et al. (2015) with the individuals between the ages of 20-65, it was determined that level of sufficient physical activity of the participants was very low and approximately half of them had poor quality of sleep. In another study conducted by Nojomi et al. (2009) with students of school of medicine in Tehran, it was concluded that sleepiness was more widespread in students doing less exercise.

Conclusion

In the study, it was found that exposure to electromagnetic field has bad effects on circadian rhythm and sleep quality that can lead problems with attention and concentration. It will be good to inform the students for reducing the complaints and increasing the awareness about this issue. For this purpose, it is recommended that training programs on healthy living behaviours and conscious use of devices propagating electromagnetic wave should be planned.

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**DESIGN IN INTERIOR ARCHITECTURE/DESIGN AND:
THE REAL LIFE**

Murat Özdamar
Department of Interior Architecture and Environmental Design
Faculty of Art, Design and Architecture
Bilkent University
TURKEY
omurat@bilkent.edu.tr

Abstract

The Interior Architecture/Design is a process of dreaming and thinking. It is one of the most heart-warming, and on the other hand, most uplifting of professions; “*we have lots of things in our minds*”, and having them on the drawing paper or on screen with the computer environment, which is the way to share it with colleagues and the relevant people around. However, according to me, the profession comes alive when the imagination turns to reality, so, that is why it is called as “*the real life*”.

The active processes and the real cases of the profession should be shared with the students and they should immediately have the ability and knowledge about drawing those decisions and/or modifications, by free-hand during the presentations or during the production periods.

By having the questionnaires and surveys with the interior architects/designers, business executives and customers the main question “Is the interior architects/designers feel equal to the task during the realization and production period?” is asked. With the help of the question and questionnaire(s), it will be a chance to discuss about the things those should be looked after and maintain some basic things with the technological changes/innovations. By this way, arranging the courses and/or procedures within the courses according to the daily conditions and requirements within “the real life” is discussed.

Keywords: Interior Architecture, Design and Reality, Interior Architecture and Education, Presentation Techniques, Technology in Education.

1. Introduction

One of the foremost requirements of an Interior Architect/Designer within his/her profession is “to make the design”. It also reveals the designer continually renew himself/herself, and keep abreast of requirements, materials and systems that can be used to get on with this profession.

IFI (International Federation of Interior Architects / Designers) was founded in 1963 and describes that;

“Interior designers and interior architects synthesize human and environmental ecologies and translate science to beauty addressing all the senses.

The practitioner listens, observes, analyzes, improves and creates original ideas, visions and spaces that have measurable value.”

“The responsibility of the interior designers’ and the interior architects is to define the practice and the required expertise, educate ourselves and the public realm as experts in the built environment.

The responsibility of the interior designers and the interior architects is to advance the profession and advocate the social well-being.”

and,

the profession provides leadership and utilizes an iterative and interactive process that includes discovery, translation and validation, producing measurable outcomes and improvements in interior spaces and in the lives of the people who use them.

This process delivers economic, functional, aesthetic and social advantage that helps clients to understand the value of their decisions and enables better decisions those are beneficial for the users and the society.

It is recommended that the profession becomes a trusted voice, and develops multiple research models in the context of physical, emotional and behavioural patterns of users.

By defining the problems related with the functions, the interior architect/designer can level the interiors by researching and adding creativity in order to solve the problem, because of that the interior architect/designer deals with the space analysis, space designs, site checking, building systems, aesthetics, constructional information, materials, relative equipment and equipment providence information.

“The interior architect/designer should be the one who has the ability, knowledge, and the experience for preparing the drawings and the documents for the interior spaces.”

Advancing technology and building materials always gives the opportunity to go further in the work of interior architects/designers. Therefore, it can move through the research for the design knowledge, and the gained knowledge will be real progress for the interior architects/designers.

2. To Design - To Create

Interior architectural design is intertwined with everything about people's lives and accordingly, interior architects/designers deal with reality. This is not just on paper or on computer screen, beside those, people working on the materials and techniques will be implemented through a combination for the cooperation, thus, it is a versatile profession.

During the process, the interior architects/designers deal with the employer(s), the customer, and with practitioners and industry people who are continuously together. The interior architect also negotiates with all and fulfils all the conditions that need to be made.

The management of the interior architect/designer shapes the construction site or the production way; and the work goes on according to the interior architects'/designers' management. So, this shows us that designing is not the only work for the interior architect/designer, with the control of the work the project should snap to life.

3. Life Cycle of the Interior Architecture/Design

The students of the profession have to fulfil the requirements and see these in order to try them out during their educational period, so as to be aware of the professional life. The nodes within the courses at schools are mostly getting on with the “creation phase”, that is the priority of the profession.

In doing so, the student designers have two ways to communicate; verbal and visual language. This is by the fulfilment of the necessary conditions, by putting forward the design and by this way the assessment is open to interpretation.

In order to create/make a design which is going to be evaluated, the problem should be well defined, and there should be the necessary research on the topic or topics. So the students need to learn or must have experience about the information collection methods or research methods in order to have the needed information about the subjects.

However, I do not think that it can be done only by visiting and collecting information on the internet, as that is often the case today. In order to get on with a topic or topics, besides information technology, the students should get on with the experienced people on topics and/or with the related companies in order to get information which is about the reality.

Thus, by this way the evaluation process of the project will be filled with so much information during the assessment. However, the fact should not be ignored; the eloquence of the designer has an important place in the description and presentation phase of the project.

Moreover, Dodsworth has identification about the subject;

"That's the nature of a good relationship; with customers, the designer will be required to establish an emotional connection, and in some cases, to establish a good client-designer relationship is more important than having either a brilliant resume or portfolio." (2011)

That concerns the conceptual stage of the project, giving the major decisions. It is created when the main terms are in the process, and the contract will be held after those.

Such time is one of the most important periods within the design process; like the emphasis in the teaching stage and the creation needs to focus on having or drawing "sketches". That is, from decision to life, the preliminary work for the creation of the design.

"Sketch is creation a self-directed action of the designer. Sing the song alone, as reading poetry or dancing.

That is a self oriented means of communication of the designer, a common language; the signs do not fit the style or system. In this sense, the drawings are notes of the interior architect/designer taken on paper." (URAZ, 1999)

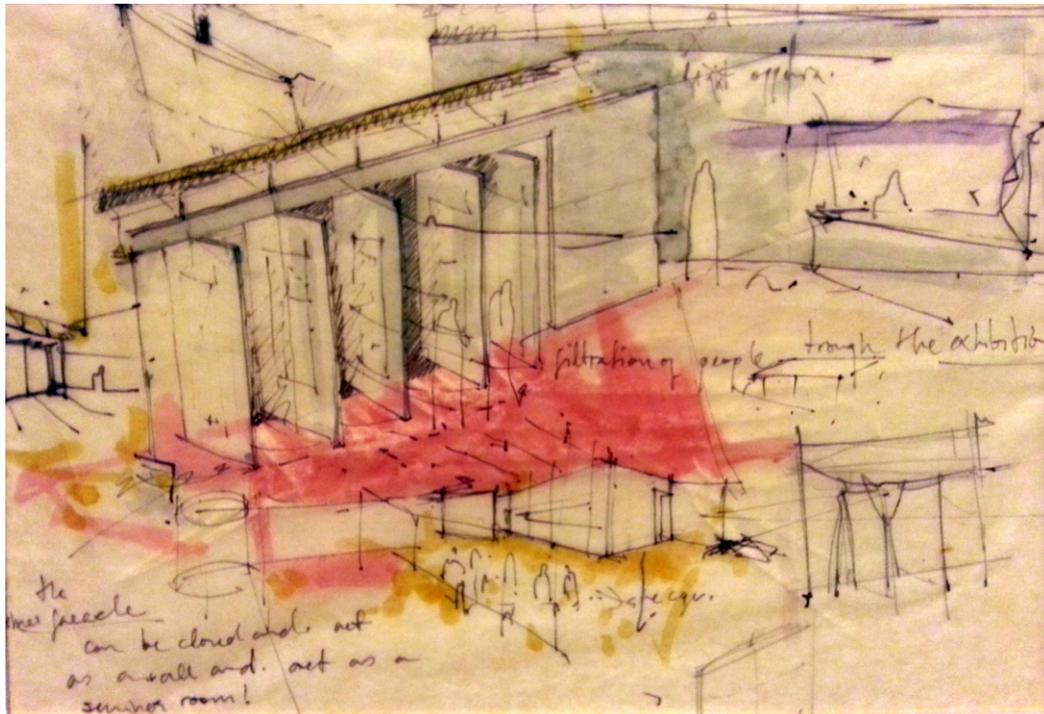


Figure 1: Sketch Drawing, Fitness Centre Indoor Facility, 2015.

Photo: Murat Özdamar

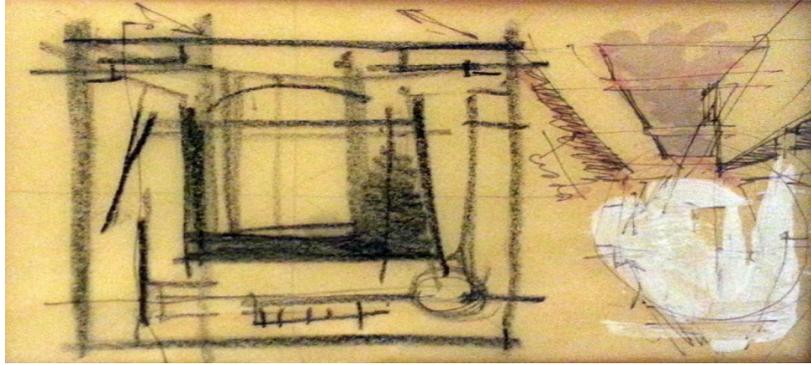


Figure 2: Sketch Drawing, Circulation-Concept, 2015. Photo: Murat Özdamar

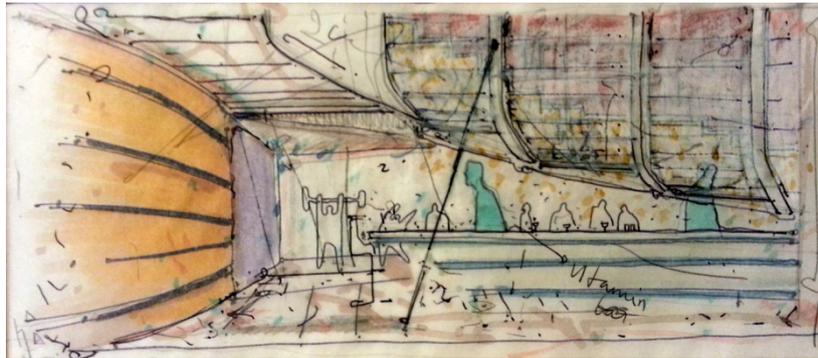


Figure 3: Sketch Drawing, Reception, 2015. Photo: Murat Özdamar

Thus it continues with the work of the designers ideas in search of access to accurate design by comparing within each other.

As a result of this process, designers must bring ideas and thoughts into our way of mutual technical agreement with drawing techniques. This will reveal the relationship of the mentioned ideas and projects to reality.

4. Presentation and "The Reality"

It certain that people cannot be expected to understand the language that we use in designers' midst, which are on ideas and comments with technical drawings of the designs. That is why, beside the technical drawings like plan, reflected ceiling plan, sections and elevations we have to get on with three dimensional drawings, animations and/or models, which are the ways for perception and spatial plan, to get the appreciation of the jury or the customer.

"The project is the presentation of the design work, and the designer actually has to use the necessary techniques in order to make the sale and by this way must put forward the convincing points of his design." (Dodsworth, 2011)

This shows that; with his/her drawings and presentation, the designer may direct the people within the design. The designer knows the parts which have importance, or which are unstable parts within his/her own project. So according to that, the designer chooses the way for the presentation.

"Presentation techniques, begins with the entrance to the meeting on time and in an appropriate way, including issues such as dressing; all can be summarized as to have a good impression on the people." (Dodsworth, 2011)

So the first step of the design process (in fact it is a never-ending process in our minds) ends or should end within the designer's mind, and this means getting a step forward with reality. Now, the technical issues will begin to be dealt with according to the reality.

The transformation of the idea/dream to reality will cause satisfaction for designers. For this, the designer will not be alone during that period. This is the important part of the real life that has to be talked during the educational period of the profession.

It can be solved technically with the professionals involved within the manufacturing. They will come together with the meetings and interviews to talk about the things in order to manufacture or build. So there has to be documents in a language that can be understood

by all of them, which is the "technical drawings" that should be prepared.

"Technical drawings and scale are certain in context; they describe the depth, width and length, and the relationship between the designed items. These drawings show all the relations, but the goal is to reflect the technical issues; that is not for presentation."
(Dodsworth, 2011)

Presentational drawings will always be in the conceptual environment requirements. To have the designed a thing in the real life, the plan, section and elevation drawings will always be needed. This requirement, starts with the learning process of the interior architect/designer, and will continue throughout their whole professional life,, and beside these, three-dimensional representations and expressions, which may be both in the computer environment and in drawings/sketches by hand. Another addition to these; the "model", which can be a powerful way to have the expression of the third dimensional way of the design.

The technical drawing is used as a mandatory within the entire design disciplines, but according to the standards and systems of each profession.

As it is within multiple sources; the scales of the interior design and architecture with the metric system are;

Layout and placement plans, 1/200 and 1/100;

Floor plans, sections and elevations, 1/100, 1/50, 1/20;

System details, 1/10, 1/5, 1/2, 1/1.(Turkey Chamber of Interior Architects, 2009).

The drawings are created with the necessities of the interior architecture and the projects should be readable by each profession related with it. This means that, those things are not only for the interior architecture as profession, but also for the other related professions.w

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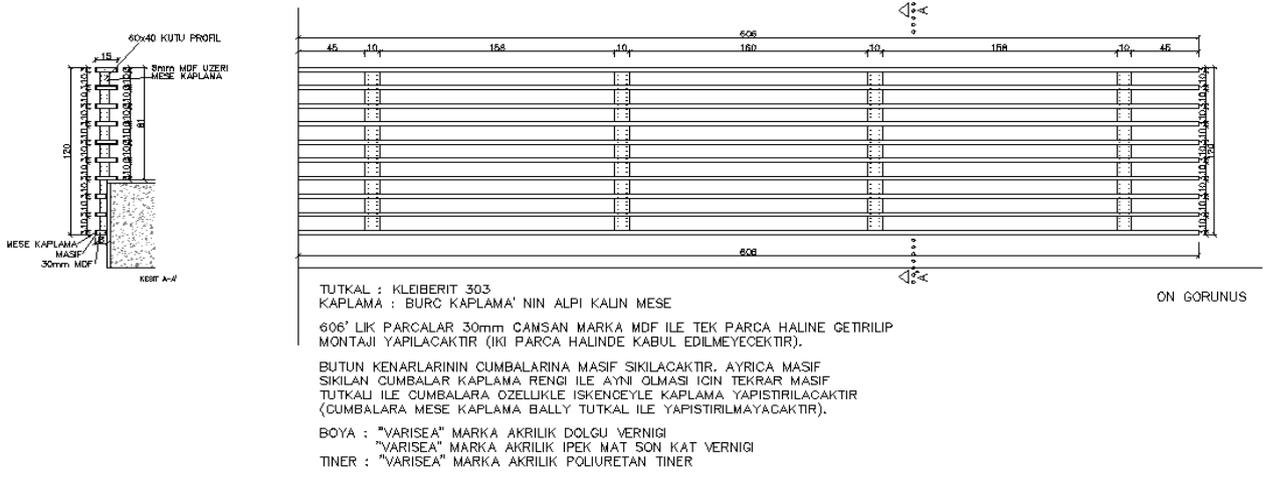


Figure 4: Production Drawing, A Handrail Design, 2009.

Photo: Murat Özdamar



Figure 5: Handrail, 2009.

Photo: Murat Özdamar

Then the interior architects/designers used to deal with the said projects, practitioners with the necessary documents for communication to be performed, and the drawings must be created according to that. According to interior architects/designers, the implementation stage is usually considered as the hardest part, as it is a long process.

According to the needs, the interior architect/designer has to create a good form of management at this stage; work distribution should be shaped according to the work program done by the interior architect/designer, and by that way, the old articulation comes alive, "Being faithful to the promise", which is an important part of the professional life.

In order to complete the job in a proper way, the interior architect/designer must constantly work on follow-up issues to meet the expectations. The interior architect/designer should be working and controlling both for the workshop and the manufacturing progresses made in the construction environment.

So the interior architect/designer is a person getting together for practicing with the manufacturers during the construction, for appropriate revisions which are done directly with them; it also comes to life with onsite application or detail drawings. Instant designs are made by free-hand quickly and actively with their details also.

While doing so, the interior architect/ designer must be able to move in two ways; firstly, the two-dimensional drawings of the details discussed, the second is to draw it in three dimensional ways, which is clearly going to be more understandable. It is also the interior architects/designers' ability to make hand drawings and to have knowledge about the going processes. And with the computer technology and programs today, we can have very realistic views related with the project; but in the manufacturing process or during the meetings, the interior architect/designer cannot ask for a period and say, "You will be waiting, and I am going to draw it on the computer drawing program".

Such distress or problems will be solved at that time "instantly" with the sketch drawings by the interior architect/designer and the professional people around there, so the ideas come together.

Interior architect/designer should be able to use technological products developed for these, but should also have knowledge and skills in order to draw it by hand. For this, it is certain that they should be able to take the courses according to the drawing types during the learning process, but in order to get further, beside the courses, the students should continue with the sketches in order to educate themselves.

In another word; "practising". The students have to take a sketch book with them, and should have the courage to draw a scene that they have seen at that moment, in that sketch book.

Residential renunciation in the shortest way, "I cannot draw" is a defence. But the people themselves must always be open for research, work and applications in order to improve.

No one can do something in a perfect way at the first time, but the experiences have an important place here. The students or interior architect/designer candidates should work on the subject for several times in order to fulfil the expectations and to learn to do it which is a degree of commitment of the subject and profession. This applies both for the computer and hand drawing environments.

5. Reality With The Main Question

According to the basic idea; the question of “Do The Interior Architects/Designers Feel Equal To The Task During The Realization And Production Period?” is studied with the survey.

The questions were;

- Name, Surname;
- Profession;
- The School/University Graduated From;
- Professional Working Period (not for customers);
 - 0-1 year
 - 1-2 years
 - 2-5 years
 - 5-10 years
 - 10 + years
- Who is dealing with the manufacturing consent;
 - Interior Architect/Designer
 - Manufacturing Firm Owner
 - Sub Contractor
 - Head Workman/Foreman
 - Other (Please explain/write).....
- Who is giving/dealing with the Production Drawings;
 - Interior Architect/Designer
 - Manufacturing Firm Owner

- Sub Contractor
 - Head Workman/Foreman
 - Other (Please explain/write).....
- Who is dealing with the Production Details;
 - Interior Architect/Designer
 - Manufacturing Firm Owner
 - Sub Contractor
 - Head Workman/Foreman
 - Other (Please explain/write).....
- Production Drawings/Details;
 - Production drawings/details according to the problem during production
 - No production drawings/details, just estimation during production
 - Other (Please explain/write).....
- Production Drawings/Details,
 - Sketch drawings on that time
 - Sketch drawings after a period of time
 - Computer aided drawings after a period time
 - Other (Please explain/write).....

The survey was done with the Interior Architects/Designers, Interior Architectural/Design Students, Business Executives and Customers, and according to their considerations;

According to the survey, the following decisions have to be attended to within the educational period;

- Professional experience is really important and valid within Interior Architecture/Design for the educational development,
- The “personal confidence” has an important material particular in the profession,
- The new Interior Architects/Designers hesitate to be closely involved with their decisions related with the productions,
- The new Interior Architects (Especially 0-1 /1-2) hesitate to give detailing drawings related with their profession/responsibility,
- By the 2-5 years the Interior Architects/Designers do not hesitate to begin to give detailing for the productions,
- Especially the newcomers hesitate to have hand-drawings during the productions,
- The new comers generally try to have the job as “being done by somebody else”,
- The new comers hesitate to get on with the constructional/production drawings/sketches,
- Production Details and Drawings should be valued during the educational period

6. Result

In the professional life, regardless of each person's profession, I believe that “they must be continually working in order to proceed”. Interior architecture/design has also values for its own conditions. It is significant that we should achieve these values further by handling of necessity in time.

It is certain that, the interior architect/designer must be aware of these values and must have them by the time. Not having those values will give us the problem of “*not being advanced on the subject*”.

To have this in the real life, the students should learn about the real professional life that they will be facing with, within the educational period. They should know about the current conditions about the profession and the needs and expectations within it.

This means that, the necessary arrangements should be made within the course plans in order to investigate about the professional life; especially, the way of having changes with the decisions about the designs/productions and sharing those determinations instantaneously during a meeting, a production or a manufacturing process. Because of this,, the students of interior architecture/design should gain the ability and knowledge about drawing those decisions and/or modifications as soon as possible by free-hand during the presentations or during the production periods.

Thus, while working on the design, having the knowledge and ability to get their decisions on a paper instantly will also strengthen the relationships within the educational and professional life. This will make the new interior architects/designers move a step forward within the educational period.

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The Effects of Applying Critical Thinking Skills on EFL Medical Students'

Argumentative Writing

Zahra Shahsavar, PhD
English Language Department
Shiraz University of Medical Sciences
Shiraz, Iran
Shahsavar@sums.ac.ir

Nasrin Shokrpour, PhD
English Language Department
Shiraz University of Medical Sciences
Shiraz, Iran
Shokrpourn@gmail.com
(corresponding author)

Abstract

Despite the importance of argumentative writing in education, most tertiary level students still cannot write effectively or persuasively. They often do not know how to support their claims, justify their reasons, and use logic in their writing. These debates imply the lack of critical thinking (CT) skills in students' writing. This study tried to investigate if language instructors can provide considerable opportunity for the practical attainment of CT skills to improve students' argumentative writing. The participants were 67 medical students who were required to take an academic writing course at the English Language Department of Shiraz University of Medical Sciences. Students were divided randomly into two groups of experimental and control while CT skill training were applied only to *the first group*. The Cornell CT Test Level X (CCTT-X) and the Holistic CT Scoring Rubric were used to evaluate students' CT ability and their quality of thinking in their argumentative writing, respectively. Students' argumentative writing scores show that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group in writing. This study have some implications for teachers who do not know what CT skills are and how these skills can be implemented in teaching or training setting to improve students' writing.

Keywords: argumentative writing, critical thinking, training CT skill, CT holistic scoring, EFL learners

Introduction

Argumentative writing has been recognized as an essential skill expected of students. Students need the art of argumentation in various writing activities to be successful in their academic careers, answering exam questions, working on their theses, and writing academic papers (Stapleton, 2001). Although writing an argument is a challenging task, most students are not aware of the significant role of argumentation in writing. They do not figure out the concept of argument, evaluation and analysis in their writing (Wingate, 2011). In fact, what good argumentative writing requires is the ability to think critically to provide logical reasons.

This is where most students fall short (Paul & Elder, 2003; Shameem & Zaidah, 2003; Wingate, 2011).

To remove this barrier, some researchers have encouraged the use of CT skills to improve students' writing. They believe that writing can express students' ideas effectively if instructors train them to apply CT skills constantly in their writing (e.g., Shameem & Zaidah, 2003; Dixon, Cassady, Cross, & Williams, 2005; Shahsavar, Tan, Yap, & Bahaman Abu Samah, 2013; Talha Abdullah Al Sharadgah, 2014).

To this end, some researchers have focused on training different aspects of CT skills in education (e.g., Mayfield, 2007; Shahsavar, 2014). According to Mayfield (2007) observation, reasoning, assumptions, and credibility are essential elements of CT which may improve students' writing. Observation is "a process of sensing, perceiving, and thinking" which allows students not only see details to solve problems or arrive at insight, but also gain new knowledge (p.38). Apart from observation, good writers should apply imagination or reasoning to elaborate the situation in which the facts are not accessible or determined. Moreover, students need reasoning to arrive at "conclusions, judgment, or inferences from the fact or premises" in their writing (p. 352). They have to learn CT skills to avoid making wrong assumptions in their writing. In fact, good argumentative writing should not rest on wrong unexamined assumptions. Credibility is another crucial aspect of CT skill which shows the quality of being believable or truthful. In writing, judging about credibility depends on "judgments about whether, and to what extent, to believe someone else's assertion" (Ennis, Millman, & Tomko, 2004, p. 44).

In another study, Duron, Limbach, and Waugh (2006) provided a 5-Step CT Model which can be applied "in any classroom or training setting to help students gain CT skills" (p.161). In this model, the first step shows learning objectives. The second one refers to developing thoughtful questions to enhance students' interaction. The third step refers to practicing active learning such as reflective teaching which addresses what students learn, how they learn, and what else they should learn. To accomplish step four, instructors should try to refine their course frequently and make sure that their teaching methods can promote students' CT. The last step refers to providing feedback and assessing students' performance to improve their learning quality.

As noted above, in spite of the importance of presenting CT in an argumentative writing, many students do not know how to apply CT skills in their writing (Vyncke, 2012). To fill the gap, this study tried to investigate if language instructors can provide considerable opportunity for the practical attainment of CT skills in students' argumentative writing. The research questions (RQs) are as follows:

RQ1. Can training CT skills promote medical students' argumentative writing?

RQ2. Is there a significant difference between *students'* argumentative writing scores in the experimental and the control group?

Methodology

Participants

This study employed a quasi-experimental design. It comprised 68 university medical students (both males and females) aged between 21 and 23 years. All students enrolled in an academic English writing course at the English Language Department of Shiraz University of Medical Sciences. EFL medical students admitted to this university are required to take the course as a compulsory three-unit credit before their graduation. Students were randomly divided into two groups: the experimental group (19 males and 22 females) and the control group (18 males and 17 females). The former was taught CT skills while no treatment was given to the latter.

Prompts

In this study, three controversial argumentative prompts were administered to students who enrolled in an academic writing course in both groups. The prompts were selected based on the students' interest and instructors' ideas who had experience in teaching academic writing. For writing each essay, the time interval of two weeks and the average passage *length* between 250-300 words were considered.

Procedure

In this study, the writing classes met twice per week and each session took approximately 90 minutes. The course was lasted for 16 sessions in four months. The key elements of the schedule taught to both groups were as follows: (a) teaching grammar, (b) teaching academic writing such as process writing, pre-writing, the structure of a paragraph, the development of a paragraph, opinion paragraph, and comparison/contrast paragraphs. Both groups were taught by the researcher who had more than three years of *teaching academic writing experience*. In each session, about 15 minutes were *allocated to training CT skills* to the experimental group while the control group used the ordinary method.

Training CT skills

A 5-step model developed by Duron et al. (2006) was applied to implement CT training through students' writing. The first critical step in the model (i.e., determine learning objectives) was applied to explain the purpose of the research to the students. To implement the second step of the model (i.e., teach through questioning), Socratic questioning was taught to organize students' thoughts in writing (Paul & Elder, 2007). Having introduced a list of Socratic questions taken from Shahsavari and Tan (2013, pp. 18-19), the researcher asked students to practice Socratic questions in class. In the third step of the model (i.e., practice before you assess), multiple aspects of CT skills (i.e., observation, inference, reasoning, assumption, and credibility) were taught to students. To accomplish this step, after a comprehensive review of CT skills (e.g., Stapleton, 2001; Hyland, 2002; Akindele, 2008), the guideline was provided for students to apply aforementioned CT skills to support their arguments. In the fourth step (i.e., review, refine, and improve), the researcher provided a feedback from students. For example, she asked them to read the passage and identify different CT skills. In the final step (i.e., provide feedback and assessment of learning), she tried to evaluate if students applied CT skills in their writing.

Instrument

To measure students' CT ability in both groups, we applied the Cornell CT Test Level X (CCTT-X) developed by Ennis and Millman (2005). The CCTT-X is a multidimensional CT test which shows a clear picture of people's CT ability in four dimensions such as induction, deduction, observation and credibility, and assumption. It includes 76 questions, five of which are sample questions and the rest ($n = 71$) are test questions which should be answered in 50 minutes. The internal consistency of each dimension is .71, .69, .82, and .55, respectively, which shows a moderate to high level of internal consistency among items (Ennis, et al., 2004).

Moreover, the Holistic CT Scoring Rubric developed by (Facione & Facione, 2014) was applied to evaluate students' quality of thinking shown in their argumentative writing. This holistic rubric analyzes writers' evidence, arguments, viewpoints, conclusions, and results critically. It constructs four levels of performance to evaluate students' CT in their writing ranging from strong (4) to significantly weak (1). The validity and reliability of each rubric was judged by the Kappa Statistic. Inter-rater was applied by researchers to make objective judgment in their scoring.

Data collection and analysis

We analyzed the data after collecting students' essays and administrating the CCTT test in the last session. An *independent t-test* was conducted to investigate *students' CT ability* in both *groups*. As shown in Table 1, there was a significant mean difference in students' CT ability between two groups ($t(65) = 5, p < .05$). The higher positive criticalness was found in students' CT ability in the experimental group after they were trained CT skills.

Table 1. *Summary of the mean differences of the CCTT-X test between two groups*

CT aspects	M		SD		Sig-t
	G1	G2	G1	G2	
Whole	20.00	26.89	9.60	14.04	.007

Note: G1= control group; G2=experimental group

To reply RQ2, we applied an **independent sample t-test** to evaluate students' thinking quality in their argumentative writing scores. A significant difference between students' argumentative writing scores in both groups ($t(65) = 8.93, p < .05$) indicates that in the experimental group, students applied more CT in their writing (see Table 2).

Table 2. *Evaluating students' thinking quality in their argumentative writing scores*

Quality of thinking	M	SD	Sig-t
Control group	6.23	1.48	.00
Experimental group	9.02	1.08	

Discussion and Conclusion

This study tried to investigate if language instructors can provide considerable opportunity for the practical attainment of CT skills to improve students' argumentative writing. The results of this study show that training CT skills can improve students' argumentative writing. The findings support previous research that showed a close relationship between CT and writing (e.g., Tessier, 2006; Quitadam & Kurtz, 2007; Talha Abdullah Al Sharadgah, 2014). According to Vyncke (2012) students need to apply CT in their argumentation to become successful in improving their academic writing.

Another finding is that adopting CT approach in students' writing is not possible unless the *instructors provide* direct instructions and guidelines to teach students CT skills (Paul &

Elder, 2003). The result is consistency with other studies which indicate that instructors have a main role in preparing university students to meet their writing needs (e.g., Davidson, 1998; Vyncke, 2012).

The findings of this study support earlier research conducted by Vyncke (2012) who argues that students need to learn CT skills to apply them in their writing. If they learn CT skills, they can get benefits to think critically in writing arguments. This finding can be explained from a pedagogical perspective that, what seems essential is not only a definition of CT or an argumentative writing. Instructors should clearly inform students about the importance of understanding CT skills. They have to train students how to apply these skills in their writing.

The results of this study show that applying CT skills can improve students' argumentative writing. However, students are not able to promote their CT skills on their own. They require instructors' guide to train them on various CT skill to think logically, analyze and compare, question and evaluate their thinking in argumentative writing (Korkmaz & Karakus, 2009).

The findings of this study have some implications for instructors who do not know what CT skills are and how these skills can be implemented in teaching or training setting to improve students' writing. In this study, we investigated the impact of training CT skills on students' argumentative writing. *While a matter of using CT skills may not be limited to students' argumentative writing; students can apply CT abilities not only in learning their academic subjects but also in various aspects of their life* (Shahsavari, 2013).

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Social Gender Inequality in Terms of Academic Signs in Higher Education of Turkey: Horizontal and Vertical Differentiation

Mehmet Akif SÖZER*

Burcu SEL**

Abstract

Higher education institutions are intended to meet modern days' requirements, based on with scientific elements, initiators and models for other social settlements and expected to have required culture knowledge and climate, with gender equality. However, gender inequality continues to exist as a subject that shows itself in the education system in a common and prominent way and stands out globally. This study aims to investigate the social gender inequality in higher education system of Turkey in terms of academic signs horizontally and vertically. The population of the study is limited to 109 state universities, 84 foundation universities and 8 foundation vocational school of higher education, which are the three types of educational institutions in Turkey. Rather than sampling, it aims to reach all the population, and the data is obtained from YOK statistics from 2014-2015 educational year. Supplementary data were obtained from OSYM, TUSİAD and YOK. After the analysis of these data, it is understood that rate of women's graduation and participation and the rate of participation in the workforce and academia are low. In addition, higher education statistics in Turkey reveals the increase level on social gender inequality in terms of the participation in authority/judgement department, assignment in administration process and preferences in academical discipline fields.

Keywords: equality of opportunities in education, education and woman, social gender inequality, higher education.

*Assoc. Prof. Dr. Gazi University, Gazi Faculty of Education Email: akif@gazi.edu.tr

**Teacher, Ministry of National Education

INTRODUCTION

Developing and changing global processes have made the power of competition in all countries measurable with social and human funds. Therefore, higher education has become the focus of all countries owing to the increasing anticipation for universities which takes the main role in development of the human/social funds and rising participation in workforce²⁶. While the interest for higher education is increasing, the number of the elements who depend on the higher education on social and individual basis has started to diversify, the responsibility and liability of higher education has increased and has become a global rather than a territorial concept.. The increasing interest for higher education has discussed the principles and standards of higher education, its administration and finance, and its internal and external quality in terms of qualitative and quantitative dimension. Especially, the multiple responsibility of higher education has expanded the social scope of these discussions. These discussions that intensified in the world and Turkey have started to include especially some social factors beyond financial and academic concerns. While developed countries see higher education quality and finance as main problems more, developing countries, besides these problems, see dissemination of education and inequality concerns as basic problems (Tansel 2003).

The government's duty is to ensure permanency of education and equality to access to this education in order that individuals, who form society, can adjust themselves to the modern changes and alternations in the world, and can acquire a free personality and gain functionality in socio-economic systems. It is required that everybody should be able to participate in different stages of education system equally in the society. The terms "equality" and "accessibility", which are secured by the constitution are directly related to the basic qualities of the higher education system. In the light of these two terms, each investment on the system of higher education provides the participation of everybody in the scope of the target population of the education by expanding the vision of education. However, this situation cannot easily take place, especially when it comes to the access to higher education and equality. The inequality that is formed based on sometimes territorial/local factors, sometimes on financial factors, and sometimes on gender, poses some obstacles for access and equality. The gender inequality problem continues to exist as the most common and significant kind of inequality because it appears in each stage of education (Maya,2013).

Social gender is an important analytical tool that mediates the sexual division of labor, learning hierarchy and questioning inequality (Ecevit and Katkiner; 2012, p.26). The term "social gender" not only offers an insight into the social facts which form society, but also gives rise to the term "social gender equality", emerging from social dynamics, like the roles of man and woman, internalizing and transferring of these roles and renewing roles. Gender equality, the equality between men and women, includes the idea that every human being, man or woman, has his/her own freedom to improve themselves and to make a selection without stereotypes, gender roles and prejudice (UNESCO; 2000, p.5). However, the term "social gender" has created a lower social status and a special area, which is restricted

²⁶Especially the countries, which have younger population like Turkey, can compete in certain areas on a global scale, and this is related to the participation in workforce after higher education. It is found out that the rate of participation in workforce increases in parallel of the raise in education level. For instance, when %70 of women graduated from higher education institutions participated in workforce in 2002, this rate decreased to %12 for the women who graduated from lower than high school level. (Eğitim ve İnsangücü Çalışma Grubu Raporu, 2004 Türkiye İktisat Kongresi, p.7.).

through the concept of gender for women, based on the hegemony of men, and has continued to exist since primitive societies. Social gender inequality, including sexism and inequality, is not a new term in the literature. On the contrary, it is a complex term whose effects have been witnessed in many areas of social life for a very long time. It is well-known fact that there has always been an unequal division of labor due to gender role differentiation between men and women, and this unequal division of labor has been the source of social gender inequality, which is accepted as one of the most important dimensions of inequalities existing in today's society (Suğurve Gönç-Şavran;2006, p.196). On the other hand, societies expect both men and women to behave appropriately according to social gender classes by ascribing stereotyped behaviors and responsibilities and by minimizing the above-mentioned freedom. In this sense, gender roles, forcibly created by society, increase sexism and prevent men and women having equal rights and status. "A person's social gender role" intervenes in access most of social opportunities, and affects the ability to benefit from government sources and services. Cultural tendency, which is a propulsive force, in this regard, draws the lines of above-stated access. The biggest tendency to gender gap occurs in the countries where the most powerful cultural preferences are in favor of boys (EFA; 2003-2004, p. 18). Gender based roles bring disadvantages in access and equality, especially in the countries like Turkey, in which masculine values, a result of society system, are dominant.

We can see that gender inequality, taking attention on a global scale, is the priority problem of many countries. Finland, which, as known, encourages gender equality in every part of the society, is a country that promotes higher education. However, woman academicians are exposed to gender inequality on a high level even in there (Husu,2000). In addition, the same issue in West African countries is much worse. The gender inequality in Tanzania, Ghana, Nigeria and Togo has been increasing since 1960, due to marriage at early ages, child slavery, kidnapping and poverty (Tuworve Sossou,2008). All differentiations based on gender prevent the equality to access to social resources and services, especially educational resources and services, and to benefit from them in each social layer. From this point of view, we can face the problem of differentiation based on gender at every level of education system, especially at the higher education level. In a study which aims to create a projection from 1985 to 2025, the percentages of female students participating in higher education have been found, and Korea 38% and Turkey 43% were the two lowest. This rate is expected to be 40% for Korea, 43% for Turkey in 2025, and this is far below the average (OECD, 2008). According to the data of higher education gender inequality index (2000), Turkey is one of 50 countries in which the rate of male registration to higher education institutions is high (EFA, 2003-2004,p.77). Turkey is 120th of 136 countries in World Economic Forum 2013 Global Gender Gap Report.

Studies about gender inequality in education need be analyzed to find out the reasons for these negative results in terms of gender inequality. Especially in higher education, the level of gender inequality in mechanisms of authorization and decision-making is extreme. Ayyıldız, Ünnü, Baybars and Kesken (2014) explained the fact that there is not enough participation in the mechanisms of authorization and decision-making in the universities of Turkey, due to factors like lack of mentor support, the conflict between family and business life, stereotypes for women, the dominance of masculine culture etc. The management staff in both state and private universities is dominated by male employees, while the inequality in

administrative systems continues. Women in leader positions mostly work in small and low prestige schools (Bilen-Green, Froelichve Jacobson, 2008). The number of females in management staff, especially in higher education is still low despite the discussions focused on equality. This case restricts females' voice in arranging external controls, like educational economy, policy and legal arrangements, and internal controls, like usage of sources and environment and creating programs and staff (TÜSİAD ve KAGİDER, 2008,p.67). On the other hand, it is clearly seen that inequality still continues in spite of the increase in number of females, within the research of social gender in distance university system. In brief, the open university system can include low and average income groups, who can be counted as relatively lucky, but the women who are "dirt poor", "rural victims" and "surrounded by patriarchy" are excluded from this system (Suğurve Gönç-Şavran,2006, p. 214).

It is revealed in many researches that there are gender stereotyped career choices considering career development and field selection as part of gender inequality. While women tend towards the fields that are labeled "female" by society on the basis of gender in the beginning of field selection or career process, men tend towards the fields that are defined as "male", and a relatively wider range of other fields compared to women. In the European Union and Asian countries, when the most preferred fields by female students in higher education level are health sciences, social sciences, language and culture, economics, department of law and art, the least preferred fields are engineering, maths, science and natural sciences (Merter,2007). Another issue that should be pointed out is the role of gender inequality in education in development process. When the body of literature is analyzed, it stands out that there are few studies about the effect of social gender inequality in education on development process. Klasen and Lomanna (2009) stated that it is important to eliminate the inequality in economic development, and women have more economic gain than men when educational gains are compared in terms of economy.

Aim of the Study

Gender inequality is one of the most important problems in higher education which should be resolved considering the cases mentioned above. The reflect of patriarchal tendency on higher education in Turkey, academic stereotypes related to female gender, role conflict based on gender, and forces to which women are exposed on individual and institutional basis cause this problem to become deeper. Research shows that gender inequality remains when it comes to field preference, career development, schooling rate, staff, management roles, economical gain etc. However, it can cause distance from this study's primary objective if each one of these factors is discussed in the same study. Therefore, gender inequality in higher education is analyzed in two dimensions as vertical and horizontal differentiation, so qualitative boundaries of the study are drawn. This study aims to reveal social gender inequality in higher education system in Turkey, as vertical and horizontal basis, as part of academic indicators. Within this scope, three basic questions are asked:

- 1) What tendencies affect the female participation rate in higher education and academic staff within the context of gender inequality?
- 2) What is the current situation regarding participation rates and preferences of men and women in different higher education fields?

3) What kind of tendency does women's participation rate in academic workforce in higher education show in terms of professional hierarchy?

METHOD

To describe and analyze the current situation in the research, qualitative research model has been adopted. According to Yıldırım and Şimşek (2005, p. 19) in qualitative research, qualitative data collection methods like observation and document analysis are used, and these are studies that follow a qualitative process which perceptions and events are put forward in a realistic and wholesome manner. The target population is the 109 public universities, 84 foundation universities and 8 foundation vocational schools in Turkey. The aim is to reach target population without sampling. For this purpose, document analysis technique was used from the qualitative research model. In document analysis, accessing to documents, checking the authenticity of the documents, understanding the documents, analyzing and using the data steps are followed (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2005). Firstly, the literature review took into consideration of the data from UNESCO 2000, EURYDICE 2009 and EFA 2003-2004, then to find reliable sources, official YÖK statistics, periodicals belonging to ÖSYM and TÜSİAD 2000 report were used. The data, as in line with the purpose of the research, was analyzed and systematized in the horizontal and vertical differentiation dimensions. The Official websites of government agencies and the ratio of men and women in different fields, which was acquired by the required literature review, are tabled in vertical dimension and the differentiation in academic staff and educational units are shown in vertical dimension.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Vertical differentiation in higher education ;while the number of women graduates outnumber men, the representation of women at the doctoral level are fewer and even fewer women are in senior positions at universities. Thus, the vertical differentiation means less representation of women at high levels in professional hierarchy (Eurydice, 2009, p.118). In particular, vertical differentiation in higher education includes the gender differences in participation and graduation numbers. Additionally, women not being adequately represented at decision-making and authority mechanisms in academic staffs is directly related to vertical differentiation. Therefore, the distribution of the female-male ratio in academic staff, the female to male ratio in the academic staff of private and public universities are analyzed according to education units.

Table 1. Percentage of Women in Academic Staff by Years(2009-2015)

	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012	2012-2013	2013-2014	2014-2015
Title	W	W	W	W	W	W
Professor	27.8	27.7	28.2	28.4	28.7	29.3
Associate professor	31.9	32.3	31.9	32.4	33.9	34.2

Asst. Associate professor	35.4	35.5	36.3	37.2	38.9	39.5
Lecturer	38.8	39.1	38.8	39.5	43.4	43.3
Expert	44.8	45.1	47.7	47.9	48.8	48.9
Research Assistant	47.9	48.1	48.7	49.1	49.4	49.8

Source: created by compiling ÖSYM 2009-2013 periodicals (<http://www.osym.gov.tr/belge/1-128/sureli-yayinlar.html>) and the YÖK higher education statistics (<https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr/>)

Table 1 indicates the percentage of women in academic staff between the years of 2009 and 2015. Looking at the data from a hierarchic point of view, it is seen that women are represented the least in professor title and even though there is an increase it should be noted that it is not enough. There is only a 1.5% increase from 2009 to 2015. Women are best represented at the Research Assistant level. In addition, the rate of increase in the number of women in research assistant status is 1.5%. It is clear that as you go higher up the hierarchy, the ratio of women and the representation of women is decreasing. When you look at the overall view, even though there is a positive disposition, the increase in the ratio is small. In some countries, various studies are conducted in order to overcome gender gap in the hierarchy of the academic staff. In some European Union countries, gender quotas ensure gender equality in higher education management staff. Some countries have regulations for this purpose. In Sweden, when employing teaching staff, if there is an equality in competence, women whose representation is lower could be preferred by court ruling. (Merter, 2007, p.241).

Table2. Percentage of Women in Academic Staff in Public and Private Universities

	PRIVATE		PUBLIC	
	1999-2000	2014-2015	1999-2000	2014-2015
Professor	16.1%	26.3%	24.2%	29.8%
Associate professor	36.6%	36.1%	29.9%	34.1%
Asst. Associate professor	40.2%	45.6%	29.6%	38.1%
Lecturer	46.6%	56.5%	33.8%	39.6%
Expert	58.1%	48.2%	42.6%	49.1%
Research Assistant	45.8%	60.5%	38.0%	49.0%

Resources: created by compiling ÖSYM periodicals (<http://www.osym.gov.tr/belge/1-128/sureli-yayinlar.html>) and the YÖK higher education statistics(<https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr/>) .Private vocational schools are kept out of statistics.

Table 2 shows that compared to public universities, private universities have higher ratio of women in academic staff. This is directly related to increasing number of private universities, the fees, employment strategies of the universities, qualities and quantities of the field of the position. On the other hand, just like it was in the public universities, it should be noted that in private universities too, as we go higher on the staff status women's representation gets lower. Also in the foundation universities, the least representation is in the the professor staff and the most representative rate seems to be in the expert and research assistant staff.

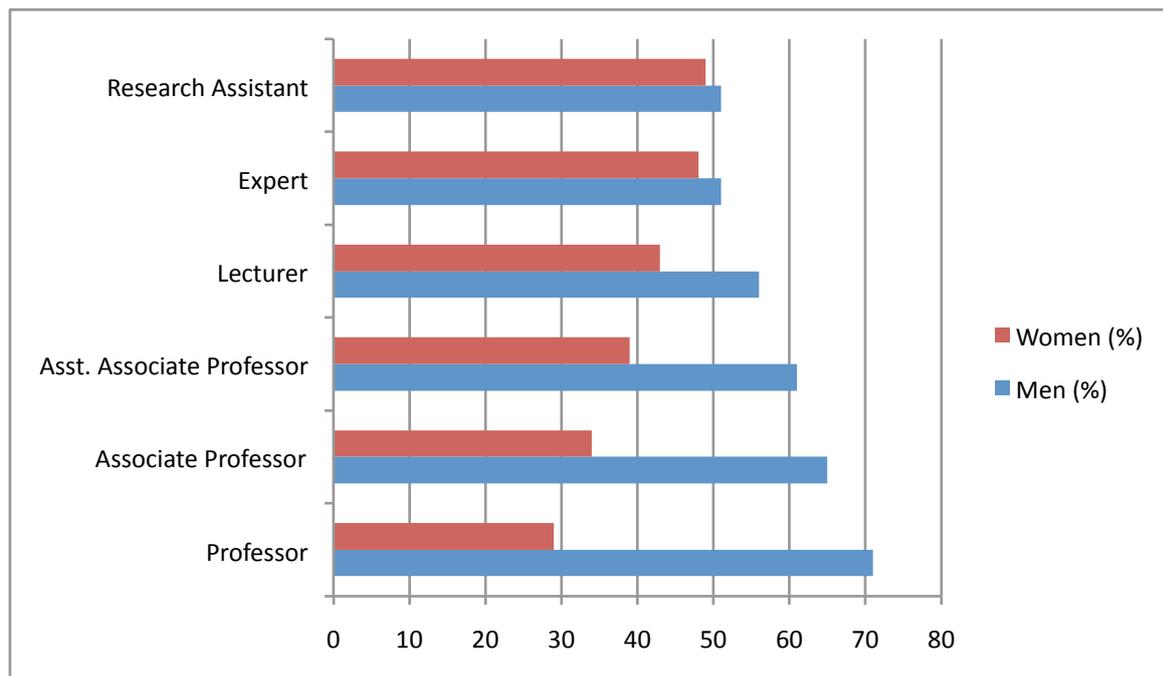


Figure 1. Percentages of men and women in the academic staff for the 2014-2015 academic year

Source: It was created by compiling YÖK Statistics of Higher Education (<https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr/>)

As seen in the Figure 1, it is found that in all academic staff of 2014-2015 year, female ratio is lower than male ratio. The only female ratios that was close to or equal to the male ratio was in expert or research assistant status, and in the other titles, the difference keeps getting bigger. It is possible to say that as we go higher in the hierarchy the structure that is based on gender equality gets weaker and the process works against women. Even though numbers are very close in expert or research assistant staff, as we go higher in the hierarchy this difference gets bigger, and the reason for that is because of the male hegemony women cannot progress in their academic career, despite that there is no laws against it.[2] This trend towards the masculinity has prevented women's right to get higher statue positions. This has prevented the right to settle in the masculine trend women's top team. Surely not only between traditional masculine atmosphere at the academy staff are located in the same team

for the same management, even serving as individual men and women may show the effect even sexist. When a male academician is a head of department or a rector, he is seen as "power and prestige" oriented, and his female counterpart is seen as "bureaucracy and service" oriented (Friedman, 2011).

Table 3. Percentage of Female Students by Education Institutions

	2004-2005	2009-2010	2014-2015
Associate	43.1%	46.9%	47.2%
License	43.6%	44.6%	45.7%
Master	42.8%	46.5%	41.3%
Doctorate	39.9%	43.6%	41.7%
Open Education *	44.3%	45.1%	46.4%
Secondary education	36.4%	40.2%	40.4%

Resources: It was created by compiling ÖSYM periodicals (<http://www.osym.gov.tr/belge/1-128/sureli-yayinlar.html>) and the YÖK higher education statistics (<https://istatistik.yok.gov.tr/>).

* Distant education percentage is calculated as undergraduate distance education and vocational distant education degree.

According to Table 3, in the years 2005, 2010 and 2015 distance education and vocational schools are the levels where the women are most represented, and evening education level is where they are the least represented. This case is consistent with TÜSİAD (2000) and TÜSİAD and KAGİDER (2008) reports. The most important reasons why the women are less represented in the evening education are because of late class hours, it is socially inappropriate for women to go to school in the evening hours and evening schools are more costly in terms of tuition. The high presence of women representation at the highest distant education and vocational schools could be explained by the high presence of women who cannot reach the higher education's socio-economic levels. Moreover, according to Suğur and Gönç-Şavran (2006), some of the female students in distant education chose their school willingly but some of them chose it because of mandatory reasons, such as financial difficulties, marriage at early age and gender. In addition, the non-compulsory attendance can be seen as an advantage for the female children in low-income families who have to work.

While vertical differentiation is the wording relating to the representation of the hierarchy in the women academic staff, the horizontal differentiation is described as the difference

between men and women in choosing training courses and fields of study in higher education (Eurydice, 2009, p.117). Many European countries are more interested in horizontal than vertical differentiation and it is a case where the choice of work areas and disciplines differs between men and women. It can be summarized as while women do not favor the fields like engineering and science and men do not favor fields like education, health and art.

Even in the countries where women participation in higher education is rising rapidly, women still favors different areas than men (TÜSİAD and KAGİDER, 2008). The main underlying reason for this is the traditional perception of identities and gender roles of youth and its parallelism with their orientation tendencies. Stereotyped social norms and expectations intensify this trend. Especially the forcing socially labelled jobs in the form of "women's job" or "men's job" during the transition process from secondary education to higher education as status, financial income and career concepts brings the gender gap in higher education and concentration in specific areas.

Table 4. Percentage of Female Students by Education Field

	2004-2005	2009-2010	2012-2013
Language and Literature	65%	64%	63.5%
Math-Science	44.1%	53.3%	58.1%
Health Sciences	57.8%	55.8%	46.4%
Social Sciences	46.7%	53.7%	56.5%
Applied Social Sciences	46.6%	49.5%	52.1%
Technical Sciences	22.7%	27.8%	29.7%
Agriculture and Forestry	31.2%	37.4%	39.1%
Art	52.4%	51.2%	53.6%

Source: compiled from the data of SSPC periodicals (<http://www.osym.gov.tr/belge/1-128/sureli-yayinlar.html>) . The data from 2014-2015 could not be reached.

The areas that women heavily preferred are shown in Table 4, as language and literature, arts, health sciences and social sciences. The areas that have the lowest proportion of female representation are technical sciences, agriculture and forestry. On the other hand, the interest of women in areas like health and language and literature are getting lower and their interest in areas like agriculture and forestry and technical sciences rose comparatively. The data in Table 4 is directly related with society's stereotypes about women. Socially labelled jobs in the form of "women's job" or "women's work" are heavily preferred, as opposed to areas with more masculine tendencies. Depending on gender, midwifery, nursing, are acceptable as the fields of work for women, while business, economics and engineering departments are acceptable as the fields of work for men. This case is not only presented in Turkey but all over the world, as shown in the UNESCO 2009 report, and the rate of women who graduated from engineering departments are shown as 19% in Israel, 26.9% in Russia and 28.4% in Romania. Again in the UNESCO 2009 report, the data shows that the rate of women who graduated from education departments are 88.1% in Israel, 84.2% in Russia, 60.6% in Romania. In Merter's (2007) comparative research about schooling of women between European Union and Asian countries, female students tend not to favor maths and sciences, and favor language and literature, health and social sciences more.

RESULT

Internalized and stereotyped gender roles that are created in the society, status that is attributed to the women, inadequate laws and regulations, gender gap which is supported by some tiers of society, are individual or corporate pressures against women, together have brought gender inequality which is a versatile and a sociological phenomenon. This research reveals that even though it is relatively declined in the past years, gender inequality still keeps its presence at various areas and higher education in Turkey.

The elimination of gender inequalities based on academic indicators will play a major role in elimination of gender-based segregation occurring in other social political or economic systems. In this sense, to eliminate the inequalities particularly in higher education strong state politics should be developed, public awareness must be created and with a holistic approach, these policies must be supported. Many studies show that education is not always enough in the struggle of women against the socio-cultural structure and indeed there is a pressure and a profile against women in society. Women's free career development should be supported by cleansing the society from stereotypes related with woman especially by using social policy mechanisms.

To avoid gender gap in field preference in higher education and advancement in academic staff, before everything else, a qualified policy and strategy should be defined and carried out at an individual, corporate and national level. For this purpose, women's studies that are based on positive discrimination should be prepared and supported financially in Turkey. In Sweden, higher education institutions which increase their women student and academic staff numbers receive a 30,000 Euro reward (Merter, 2007, p.242). The financial support that is given to universities when they act according to gender equality should be given not only for student and academic staff numbers, but also for the number of women who joins to scientific research programs. Gender inequality should not only be considered important in academic staff or in education institutions, but also in scientific research. The women in

advanced level of scientific research programs in Turkey in the year 2000 is found to be at 36% and in the year 2015, which shows an unacceptable level of gender inequality (EFA, 2003-2004, p.80).

When the areas in higher education that are highly populated by women examined, it is clearly seen that the main policy should be fighting against gender roles and stereotypes. The patriarchal culture, socio-economic conditions and career choices driven by sexism force women to concentrate in certain areas in college level. For this purpose, necessary measures should be taken with gender sensitive laws. The important issue that should not be forgotten here is that in gender equality policies the focus should not be on "women" or "men" concepts, but on balancing the existing inequalities.

To create gender equality in horizontal differentiation, especially in higher education, a dynamic process should be created not only in higher education but a process should be created that also covers the secondary education. Preventing occupational segregation based on gender is directly related to vocational guidance in secondary education. To increase socio-economical, cultural and educational awareness about gender equality, it is necessary to create a nationwide public awareness. It is possible to see that how government policies and dominant family ideologies interact with each other and affect men's and women's careers in many different ways. Even though in its core the pressure and oppression of gender inequality happens implicitly, to overcome it, gender equality should be integrated in education programs. In this context, in a workshop organized by Council of Higher Education called Gender Equality Sensitive University, the result report suggested a compulsory subject to be added to the university curriculum called "National Gender Equality". In the scope of gender equality, the concepts that should be presented to students at an early age should not only presented to them in higher education but also in elementary and secondary level as an interdisciplinary subject.

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The World is My World: An Exploration of the 21st Century Language Learner

Havva KURT TAŞPINAR
General Linguistics PhD Programme
Dokuz Eylül University, TURKEY
havvakurt@iyte.edu.tr

Abstract

This study reveals student perceptions of what a “language” is, who a “language learner” is, and how vital it is to learn English in the 21st century, in a technology institute where the medium of instruction is English. The study also explores students’ expectations regarding the curriculum and role of instructors throughout the language learning process. Students’ short-term and long-term educational goals were explored as well. Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. Various instruments including questionnaires and post-interviews have been used. The interviews have been carried out with the students who have reflected a more critical viewpoint in their responses on the open-ended questions in the questionnaires. The data analysis unveiled striking results on the 21st century language learner and language learning.

Key words: 21st century skills, education, language learning, student perceptions, student expectations

Introduction

The 21st century skills

21st century skills emerge as a set of cognitive and non-cognitive skills, and are considered to be essential for success, not only in academic contexts and but also in employment (Greiff, Niepel and Wüstenberg, 2015). These skills can be named higher-order thinking skills and complex cognitive processes. In the past, it was the industrial production that was deemed vital; however today, the production of information is on stage. Therefore, “the intellectual capital of citizens” is the triggering force for the 21st century (Şahin, 2009: 1464). In order to be able to competently solve the problems of the new -postmodern- world, it is a must for people to have the high level thinking skills, through which they can utilize the knowledge and skills they have. These learning skills can be summarized as “information and communication skills, thinking and problem-solving skills, interpersonal and self-directional skills” (Şahin, 2009: 1464). Today, not only researchers but also policy makers have the concepts of creativity, problem solving, and information and communication technology (ICT) literacy on their agenda.

These skills have become vital recently due to the increase in factual knowledge and highly specialized content expertise. As a result of this situation, policy makers have developed some assessment programmes, including The Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) since the high-level thinking skills are also at the core of education. In addition to the domains of science, mathematics, and reading, PISA now focuses on the 21st century skills, among which creative problem solving in collaborative and team settings can be listed, because these skills are relevant across all domains mentioned. Besides being

relevant to large-scale assessments and educational policy issues, the 21st century skills are also central for today's workforce. (Autor, Levy, & Murnane, 2003; cited in Greiff, Niepel & Wüstenberg, 2015). Although there have been a number of rigorous empirical research studies, there are many issues to be unveiled as a result of high diversity and constant changes having a domino effect on all domains. The world of the 21st century requires the capacity to cope with uncertainties, opportunities, and qualities for effective lifelong learning as a vital life skill (Deakin & Wilson, 2005). More research should be done to further investigate the 21st century skills including problem solving, science inquiry skills, creativity, learning-to-learn, and ICT literacy and their relevance and benefits answering the question of how these skills can be fostered. Only in this way can the millennium learners be equipped to face the challenges of the future.

The 21st century skills and education

According to Prather (1996), the 21st century would pave the way for the rebirth of sociology, as it always does in times of social upheaval. As a result of the social crises caused by these radical changes in every aspect of life, social theorists have attempted to reveal the sources of these social problems. However, most importantly, this also has led to a crisis in especially higher education, which is the last step to equip students with the required skills to face the challenges of this new century. In this sense, an answer should be sought for the question of "what action are we willing to take now to improve the preparation of future students?" (Prather, 1996: 437). Prather poses a more important question: "Are we prepared to teach in the 21st century?" In this regard, Prather (1996) states that sociologists have to investigate tools to search for solutions to overcome this educational crisis. Prather suggests using Smelser's (1963) value-added theory of collective behaviour as the framework. Smelser's framework-value-added theory of collective behaviour- suggests five stages and provides descriptions of events that have to be examined as evidence (Prather, 1996: 438) The stages in the framework are as follows: *Stage 1*. Structural conduciveness: general unrest related to fundamental structural factors such as economic conditions. *Stage 2*. Structural strain: strain occurring because of conflicting values of diverse groups, especially new vs. old groups. *Stage 3*. Generalized beliefs or rumours: beliefs that incite flames. *Stage 4*. Precipitating factors: incidents that trigger social action. *Stage 5*. Mobilization for action: people begin to take social action which may be constructive or turn destructive. For stage 1, economic recessions, job layoffs, downsizing of economic organizations, shortage of educational funds, increase in poverty can be given as evidence. New immigrant groups vs. established is advantaged groups struggling for control in schools; affluent suburban schools vs. impoverished ghetto schools; voucher vs. public; English only vs. bilingual are indicators of stage 2. For stage 3, unsafe schools, schools that are not maintaining academic excellence and schools that lack moral standards, and incompetent

teachers are on the evidence list. Lastly, the potential evidence for stage 4 involves frustration over the low scores on achievement tests, anger concerning affirmative action, and possible impact upon admissions. Based on evidence, sociologists describe the social situations and shed light on social changes being observed, potential future problems, and potential crises in education. Without taking these into consideration, the fact that education is being devalued cannot be faced and measures cannot be taken to overcome this problem.

Teaching in the 21st century

“After decades of drift, decisive action is required to raise teaching to the front rank of professions. Only by modernisation can we equip our nation for the new century. I hope you will join us in meeting this challenge” (Tony Blair, DfEE, 1998a, Foreword; cited in Furlong, 2008:727). It has been explicitly stated in Blair’s quote that educational reforms can be accomplished only if the profession of teaching can be modernised. That is, it has to become a ‘21st century profession’ (Furlong, 2008: 727). Education has a central role in the modern world since there is constant competition between nations, and teachers are at the heart of education (Lauder et al. 2007, cited in Furlong, 2008). Education is the key concept to guaranteeing national prosperity, social justice and cohesion. Thus, “teaching has to become a ‘21st century profession’ on the creation of a highly skilled workforce with the knowledge, enterprise and insights required to attract the global supply of high-skilled, high-waged employment” (Furlong, 2008: 728).

Two studies from literature show how crucial teachers’ role is in this century. The study by Day and others (Gu & Day, 2007) was conducted in England with 300 teachers across 100 schools (cited in Furlong, 2008: 735). The researchers document that at the beginning of 2000s, a majority of teachers had to face professional challenges, such as “the intensification of performativity and a challenge to some of their traditional educational values”. To cope with this problem, most teachers could adapt to the new environment with “their sense of vocationalism, their personalised commitment to their students, even if they disagreed with the broad thrust of the education policy they were required to implement” (cited in Furlong, 2008: 735). In the second study-the Teacher Identities Project- which was conducted in nine schools in London, 70 teachers’ and eight school principals’ experiences have been analysed (Moore et al., 2002; cited in Furlong, 2008: 736). The study revealed that most teachers perceived and described themselves as both pragmatic and eclectic. Teachers also mentioned that they had modified their previous practice to adapt it to the expected teaching practice in the current policy. The teacher education program at the University of Maryland-Baltimore County has also been investigating new ways to increase students’ opportunities for intellectual and social development. The program mission highlights “(a) that teaching is a profession for which disciplinary knowledge is as critical as knowledge of pedagogy, human development, learning theory, and methods of inquiry; and (b) that social responsibility is at

the core of teaching” (Hrabowski, Lee & Martello, 1999: 295). The following six areas are emphasised in the curricula: “(1) developing teaching expertise; (2) providing prospective teachers with school-based preparation; (3) nurturing their decision-making, reasoning, problem-posing, problem-solving, and inquiry skills; (4) preparing them to work effectively both on behalf of and among diverse student populations (5) fostering an ethic of social responsibility; and (6) cultivating both habits and attitudes of reflective thought.” In this regard, it can be stated that teaching expertise is multifaceted. In addition to the knowledge of subject areas, the knowledge of how children grow, learn, and develop is also required. To develop the teaching skills of prospective teachers, the curriculum should focus on the development of some basic skills, which include reasoning, decision making, problem posing, and problem solving. As Dewey (1900) stated “reflective thought” is inevitable in teaching and emphasised “openmindedness, wholeheartedness, and responsibility” (cited in Hrabowski, Lee & Martello, 1999: 298). Indeed, these make the profession of teaching unique.

In brief, only through education can the lives of students and teachers be transformed. Therefore, in order to meet the challenges of the future and the “brave the new world”, the profession of teaching and the role of the 21st century should be redefined.

New millennium learners

The changes accompanying the new century has put the spotlight on students. As important stakeholders in education, their perceptions, ideas, opinions, needs and expectations should be taken into account. With the question “Are students prepared for higher education?” in mind, the characteristics of the 21st century students should be considered in planning and implementing higher education. Listed in Table 1 are descriptions about 21st century students compiled from the literature with comments from educators. (Editorial Projects in Education, 1994; cited in Prather, 1996).

Table 1. *Characteristics of the 21st century college student*

-
- | | |
|--|---|
| • Used to entertainment in classroom. | • Fewer are politically active or interested. |
| • Media-oriented = their culture. | • Less deference shown towards authority. |
| • Short attention span. | • Less respect shown to fellow students. |
| • Not comfortable with writing or reading. | • Have work experience. |
| • Decreased quantitative skills and critical thinking. | • Have credit cards and debt. |
| • Competent with computer and video equipment. | • Many are not physically fit. |
| • Consumer-oriented. | • Increase in students from dysfunctional/ violent homes. |
| • Few behave as if school is high priority. | • Increase in students experiencing poor |

economic conditions.

as only chance for success.

- Highly motivated and dedicated: see school
-

In addition to these characteristics, the 21st century students are likely to be skilful in using different computer applications and telecommunications and are more interested in the visual and audio media than print media. Prensky (2001) calls college students *Digital Natives* as these students have spent only 5,000 hours of their lives reading. For playing video games and watching TV, on the other hand, they have spent more than 30,000 hours (cited in Şahin, 2009). Plus, they are more aware of social issues and may represent the first member in their families to attend college. Based on the given information, it is apparent that these students are highly motivated to acquire higher education; however, they should be guided in terms of the means to accomplish their goals. That is why educators have a central role in not only teaching but also mentoring and guiding students. Higher education institutions should take action to improve education and meet the needs of these students.

Needs of new millennium learners

In *Do You Want Your Students to Be Job-Ready With 21st Century Skills?* Kivunja (2014a) mentions the “Partnership for Teaching 21st Century Skills” (P21) reported by Trilling and Fadel (2009) in which the skills young people need in the 21st century as individuals, citizens and workers have been listed (cited in Kivunja, 2015). These skills are elaborated in four domains. The researchers report that the four domains are the Traditional Core subjects and Skills domain, the Learning and Innovations Skills domain (LIS), the Career and Life Skills domain (CLS), as well as the Digital Literacies Skills domain (DLS). Apart from the traditional core skills of literacy and numeracy, new pedagogical approaches put the emphasis on these skills. The pedagogical shift inevitably involves teaching skills such as critical thinking and problem solving, effective communication, collaboration, creativity and innovation (Kivunja, 2014a, Kivunja 2014b; cited in Kivunja, 2015). The 21st century -Information Age- requires effective participants to be equipped with the skills of critical thinking, problem solving, communication, collaboration, flexibility and adaptability to be better-educated individuals and successful and prosperous citizens. Therefore, it is crucial that education providers, particularly those in the higher education, give the new millennium learners the opportunity needed to learn these skills.

This is not a new idea since it was highlighted early in the 20th century when American sociologist and philosopher Eric Hoffer (1902 – 1983) admonished, “In times of change, learners inherit the earth, while the learned find themselves beautifully equipped to deal with a world that no longer exists” (Goodreads, 2014, n.p. para. 1). However, it is even more significant today than it was then because of the greater speed and magnitude of flexibility and changes occurring in the Information Age fuelled by technology (Kivanju, 2015: 3).

Learning revisited

The desired form of 21st century learning can be defined as lifelong learning, since it is the form of learning regarded 'transformative' through which all types and classes of learning can be realised (Deakin & Wilson, 2005). Transformative learning is the essential ingredient for sustainability. It is intentional and continuous- that is it is the form of learning that takes place throughout the life span. Lifelong learning includes becoming the lead actor in the learning process by taking the responsibility for learning, being self-aware, learning to learn and being reflective as well. However, lifelong learning is a personal but not a private activity. Also, for lifelong learning, the process of learning itself is the reward; therefore, an extrinsic reward is worthless for the learner who pursues learning for the sake of learning itself (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Taşpınar, 2004). It is the form of learning in which significant others are also valued as in the theories of Dewey and Vygotsky. Therefore, it can be stated that relationships of learning are of utmost importance (Deakin & Wilson, 2005).

Due to new information systems and the rapid innovative changes, global and local distinction has become obsolete, which requires the 21st century learners to have the critical capacities such as knowledge processing, manipulation and transmission rather than the accumulation of data and the rote transmission of facts within the context of narrow specialism. Thus, the future is promising for those who have ideas, knowledge and creativity. That is why the goal of education 'should be the development of understanding which can be applied and extended by taking it into spheres of thought and action which, in the real world, demand intelligent behaviour' (Bently, 1998: 19; cited in Deakin & Wilson, 2005). Hence, the application of knowledge in the real world raises the issue of how valuable knowledge is. In the light of these, contemporary education should redefine the capacities and competencies required since with the development of capacity to learn and to pursue learning is the essence of living in this century. Only in this way all students can become productive citizens in a democratic society (Stallings, 2015).

Research questions

1. How do English preparatory school students define “language”, “ideal language classroom”, “ideal curriculum”, “the roles of the teacher” and “the roles of the students” in the 21st century?
2. How do English preparatory school students best learn as 21st century language learners?
3. Which language skills/areas are deemed the most important?
4. Which factors are deemed more important in the language learning process?
5. Which groupings/pairings are preferred more in the language learning process?
6. What are English preparatory school students’ short-term and long-term goals?

7. What are English preparatory school students' sources of motivation for/while learning English?
8. How do English preparatory school students define the characteristics of the 21st century teacher and learner?
9. What are the English preparatory school students' strengths and weaknesses in terms of language skills/areas?

Method

This study focuses on students' perceptions of 21st century learning, learner-teaching roles, and language at a state technology institute -the most advanced model of technical universities in today's world and the only one in the country- where the medium of instruction is English. 17 A1 level preparatory class students volunteered to participate in the study. Table 2 shows detailed information regarding the participants.

Table 2. *Participants of the study*

Age	18	19	20	22							
Number of Students	10	4	2	1							
Gender	Male			Female							
Number of Students	9			8							
Educational Background	State High School	Anatolian High School	Private High School	Science High School	Anatolian Teacher High School						
Number of Students	2	9	2	1	Students						3
Department	ME	MBG	FE	CE	CoE	EEC	A	CRP	M	P	
Number of Students	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	2	2	2	
Time Spent on Learning English	> 8yrs.		8 yrs.	7yrs.	1 yr.	2,5 mo.s					
Number of Students	3	7	1	2	4						

ME: Mechanical Engineering, **MBG:** Molecular Biology and Genetics, **FE:** Food Engineering, **CE:** Civil Engineering, **CoE:** Computer Engineering, **EEC:** Electrical-Electronics Engineering, **A:** Architecture, **CRP:** City and Regional Planning, **M:** Mathematics, **P:** Physics

12 of the respondents (N=17) reported that they like learning English. However, 3 students reported they do not like learning English. Only two students stated that they do not like learning languages in general but want to learn English.

Instruments

Questionnaires were administered in Turkish. The questionnaire consisted of two parts. 6 items in the first part were aimed to solicit personal information about the students. 22 items in the second part of the questionnaire, which were open-ended items and ranking items, aimed to reveal students' opinions on the (language) learning process.

Data collection

The questionnaires were administered on November 16, 2015. 17 students out of 24 students volunteered to take part in the study. Two students whose answers reflected a more critical viewpoint in the questionnaires were interviewed on January 11, 2016.

Data analysis

The results of the study were analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively. Through a qualitative method of content analysis, students' responses to open-ended answers were translated into English and thematically categorized by the researcher. Frequencies were computed to identify the tendency for the ranked items. Each item was analysed separately. 360 responses which produced important observations were analysed across the data set. No responses were produced for 14 items. Male students' responses represent 52.9% of all responses, female students' responses produce 47.05% of the responses. The results of the questionnaires will be analysed under 15 sections below.

Results

The definition of language in the 21st century (Q1): In Table 3 students' definitions are listed.

Table 3

The definition of language in the 21st century
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• One of the most important criteria that enables us to communicate with other people• A communication tool that enables us to have a different perspective and learn more about the society whose language we learn-it is very difficult to learn• A communication tool that changes with the economic, political, social, cultural and technical structure of a specific time period

- A group of vocabulary items and grammatical structures that is required for communication
- A tool through which we can express our feelings, thoughts and behaviours, the same feelings and thoughts can be expressed through different languages
- A language means to be able to learn about the different culture and lifestyle of the society in which it is being spoken
- Something that is needed for self-expression.
- A tool that has been created by societies in order to communicate with each other
- A language is not something that should be learnt by a person to improve herself, it is a must for better job opportunities.

While communication and interaction were emphasised in the majority of definitions, in some responses, culture, different lifestyles, economy, politics, self-expression, and job opportunities have been highlighted. As global citizens of the dynamic and constantly changing world, students are aware of the fact that language is like the glue of this new world.

The role of teacher/learner/course materials in the language learning process (Q2/3/5)

In questions 2-3-5, students were asked to define the role of the teacher, learner and course materials in the language learning process. Students' definitions regarding these can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4

The role of the teacher in the language learning process
• As students do not try to improve themselves, we can only learn what the teachers teach. T > S
• Teachers have an extremely important role as language learning and speaking requires confidence, so teachers should provide a good classroom atmosphere and be friendly and supportive. T > S
• Teachers have the most important role: s/he is the one that will make us enjoy learning a language with her energy and pronunciation. T > S
• Different from children, we need a schedule to learn a language and the teacher provides us with this schedule. T > S
• With effective teaching strategies, teachers should generate students' interest and enhance their motivation by making them love the language. T > S
• Teachers are 'the building blocks' in the language learning process. T > S
• Teachers should make us love the language and get rid of our anxiety. T > S
• Teachers share their knowledge and experience with us, that's it! If we like the language we are learning, we can improve ourselves more! S > T

- Teachers should only teach us the rules and vocabulary items, s/he cannot teach us everything, but it is the students who should learn! **S > T**
- Teachers should share their experiences with us and guide us. **S > T**
- Teachers should teach just the grammar rules and vocabulary items, we cannot learn the language as long as we use it in our daily lives. **S > T**
- Teachers should provide the basic knowledge and skills. It is the students' responsibility to improve themselves. Teachers just help to accelerate this process and help it to be a structured one. **S > T**
- Teacher is the most important factor in the process, but the students are more important. **S > T**
- Teachers are as important as students. Teachers should share their experience with the students. **T=S**
- Teachers should provide us with a good atmosphere to learn a language and make us have language learning as part of our daily lives.
- Teachers should teach us not only academic but also daily language.

The role of the learner in the language learning process

- Students have a very important role: they should listen to the teacher very carefully and improve themselves by taking the teachers' experiences into consideration.
- Students should be motivated and alert to learn the language during class. They should practice the language by watching TV series and reading English books.
- Students should recycle what they have learnt and use them in their daily lives for better learning.
- Without effort outside class, students cannot learn no matter how good the teachers are.
- Students should not have prejudice. They should be as active as possible for permanent learning.
- Students should use appropriate materials for more effective learning.
- Students should be confident and come up with some strategies to learn new words. They should not be passive and shy.
- Learning English should be a way of life.
- 60%-70% of the responsibility belongs to the student. The student who knows what s/he wants can learn the language in a very short time.

The role of the course materials in the language learning process

- I think materials are the most important factor in language learning. I do not think one can learn a language without any materials.
- Materials should provide students with effective learning opportunities. When students believe that they are learning the language, they can have higher levels of motivation.

- There is no need to follow the materials strictly.
- Audio-visuals and appealing materials should be used to supplement the course books as they help us easily remember.
- Materials with a lot of activities, books that require us to speak and games such as Scrabble and Taboo should be used.
- I do not think that course materials are that important.
- Materials that reflect the daily language use such as the Internet, websites, films and newspapers should be used more.

In 7 responses, it was stated that teachers have a more important role in the language learning process. However, in 6 responses, students reported that it is the student who should take the responsibility for the learning process, as 21st century learning requires. A majority of the students implicitly report that learner autonomy and active learning should be at the core of language learning in the 21st century. Only in this way can they be a part of this global world through exchange programs and career mobility and be able to apply their knowledge. This also explains why they need more authentic materials rather than course books that are strictly being followed by teachers.

Effective classroom atmosphere and ideal classroom in the language learning process (Q4/8): In questions 4 and 8, students were asked to define the effective classroom atmosphere. Table 5 presents student responses.

Table 5

Effective classroom atmosphere
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The classroom atmosphere should trigger student participation. • The teacher should have a good rapport with students. • Students should respect other students and be tolerant. • Students who have the same proficiency level should be in the same class. There should not be any students who are more proficient in the lower level classes. • Ambitious and motivated students make language learning easier. • Classes should be technologically well-equipped. There should not be too many students in the same class. • The atmosphere should be relaxing and encourage students to be active. They should have fun while learning. • Students should be able to learn from each other. • The target language should be used as much as possible.

- All students in the class should actively participate in the class so that the teacher can help correct the mistakes. Some students who are shy like me should try to get over this problem and participate more.
- Group works and speaking activities should be frequently used.
- Students' mistakes should be regarded as a part of learning.
- All students should take learning seriously. Learning a language requires concentration.

Ideal language classroom

- Daily language use should be taught through a variety of listening activities.
- In an ideal class, students' language proficiency levels should be similar.
- In an ideal class, first grammar and new vocabulary items should be taught. Also, students should be provided with a lot of listening and speaking activities
- It should be fun. There should be a lot of group works, presentations, and debates in class.
- Writing should not be the most important skill. All aspects of the language should be emphasised. More time should be spent on speaking activities, watching movies, and listening to songs. Phrasal verbs and idiomatic expressions should also be taught.
- There should not be too many students in the class. All the students should actively participate.
- The teacher should have a positive rapport with students.
- The physical environment of the classroom is important.
- Classmates should be respectful, supportive, and eager to learn.
- Only the target language should be used to communicate.
- The activities should be fun. A lot of visual materials such as pictures and videos should be used.

Nearly all students stated that the classroom atmosphere is of great importance in the language learning process. They reported that they are more likely to actively participate in the lesson when there is a positive learning environment and the teacher has a good rapport with students. Students also mentioned respect, support and fun as key concepts. In this sense, the language teacher should make sure that there is a relaxing and encouraging classroom atmosphere where there is group cohesion and a lot of collaboration and as a result more learning.

Effective learning strategies (Q6): Table 6 presents student responses regarding their learning strategies.

Table 6

Effective learning strategies
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Audio/visual materials help with mental representations which promotes permanent learning. • I can remember the words/expressions more when I hear them while communicating in English that's why I like speaking more. • When daily language use is presented. • When I'm active in class. In this way, I can use trial and error as a learning strategy. • By writing and by analyzing the formal and informal language use. • By listening and experiencing, when I see or use the new words in different contexts. • When words are structurally analyzed and examples from real-life are presented.

Students learn better when they see the relevance in what is being taught. When real-life language use is presented, they are more likely to have higher levels of motivation. They participate more and as a result, they learn more. Nearly all students report that being active in class is the best strategy in learning a foreign language. That's why they report they should speak more and analyze more. In the 21st century, the language learning process is not considered a spoon-feeding process any more.

The uniqueness of the language class (Q7): Table 7 shows student responses on the uniqueness of the language class.

Table 7

The uniqueness of the language class
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As language learning is multifaceted, respect and participation are especially important. • It is definitely unique. Language learning is not as easy as studying another subject. • It is different. Students should be informed about the curriculum and syllabus. Otherwise, they may not be able to follow the order of topics/structures/subjects that are being taught. • A language can be learnt by experiencing it. Although we have been learning Turkish for 18 years, there is a lot more to learn. • While learning a language, we try to learn the culture as well. We, in a way, change our lifestyles. • In mathematics, by learning the formulas by heart, you can answer the questions. But learning a language requires a lot of knowledge. I think you should live abroad in order to be able to fully learn it and fluently speak it.

- In an ideal language class, language should be used as if a group of people are having a chat with each other outside the class using the target structures and vocabulary items naturally.
- Students should be responsible for their learning in an ideal language class. If we try hard, we can learn a language more.
- Although there are rules to be learned while learning a language, language learning is not theoretical. It requires practice.
- I do not think it is different. In high school, we used similar course books. The only difference is that we have more speaking practice here.

Student responses show that most of the students think leaning a language is more unique and challenging than learning any other subject. They think that language learning requires students to participate in class activities and practice, that is, to experience it.

Important factors in the language learning process (Q9): Table 8 shows students' perceptions of the most important factors in the language learning process.

Table 8

Ranking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<i>f (N=17)</i>										
Teacher	4	*8	2	0	2	0	0	0	1	0
Student	*10	3	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Classroom atmosphere	3	1	*7	4	0	2	0	0	0	0
Curriculum	0	1	2	1	1	3	2	3	1	3
Technological facilities	0	1	1	1	2	3	*5	1	2	1
In-class activities/tasks	0	1	0	3	3	3	3	1	1	1
Extracurricular activities	0	1	1	0	3	2	2	2	*4	2
Online activities	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	5	*7
Self-study outside school hours	0	0	2	*7	1	1	1	2	1	2

Note: 1= the most important, 10= the least important

Student responses show that the most important factors in the language learning process are teacher, students, classroom atmosphere and self-study outside class hours. 58.8 % of the students reported that students have vital role while learning a language. 47% of the

students reported the teacher to be the second most important factor while learning a foreign language.

Preferred pairings/groupings in the language class (Q10): In Table 9, information on students' preferred pairings and groupings is presented.

Table 9

Ranking	1	2	3
<i>f (N=17)</i>			
Individual work	*7	2	8
Pair work	3	*10	4
Group work	*7	5	5

Nearly half the students prefer working individually or in groups, which shows that students value teamwork, cooperation, and collaboration. 58.8 % of students consider pair work an alternative to individual work and group work.

Important language skills/areas and relevant skills for the students' department (Q 11/19):

Table 10 presents the language skills/areas that are deemed important by students.

Table 10. *Important language skills/areas (Q11)*

Ranking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>f (N=17)</i>							
Vocabulary knowledge	*10	1	3	0	3	0	0
Pronunciation	1	1	2	4	1	1	*7
Grammar	2	4	0	2	2	4	3
Reading comprehension	1	4	3	3	1	4	1
Listening comprehension	2	4	3	1	*5	2	0
Writing	0	0	1	5	3	3	5
Speaking	1	3	*5	2	2	3	1

Note: 1= the most important

10 out of 17 students consider vocabulary knowledge the most important language area. 7, on the other hand, report pronunciation as the least important language area. Grammar, reading comprehension and listening comprehension were also regarded as important.

When the productive skills were compared, speaking was reported to be more important than writing. Writing was ranked in the top three only in one response.

Table 11. *Relevant language skills/areas for the students' departments (Q19)*

Skill	f (N=17)
Reading comprehension	4
Listening comprehension	3
Writing	4
Speaking	4
Listening & Speaking	1
All skills	1

Considering their departments, students reported reading comprehension, writing and speaking as the most relevant language skills/areas. Only 1 student considered all skills to be equally relevant. The department-related requirements may have influenced students' perceptions as they are expected to write reports such as lab-reports and feasibility reports in their departments.

Students' strongest and weakest language skills/areas (Q12/14): In Table 12, information regarding students' weakest and strongest language skills/areas is presented.

Table 12 (Q13)

Skill	f (N=17)	Reason
RC	7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By seeing the words, I can guess their meanings. • I can make associations. • I like reading, it is good way of personal development. It is fun. • I have hearing loss, I have a good vocabulary knowledge. • I can make inferences by reading the whole text although I do not understand the all the words.

LC	2	• I watch a lot of TV series in English.
W	3	• I like using the structures/expressions/ phrases that I have just learnt while writing. • I have time to think, plan, and check.
S	1	• I have been playing and trying to understand the stories in computer games since I was a kid.
G & V	4	• It is like mathematics, similar to learning formulas. It is easier to learn since I have mathematical intelligence. • They are the first steps in learning a language, especially when practiced while reading and writing.

RC: Reading comprehension, LC: listening comprehension, W: writing, S: speaking, G: grammar, V: vocabulary

Nearly 50% of the students have reported reading as their strongest language skill. Grammar and vocabulary and writing were also reported as skills which students thought they were good at. Speaking, however, was reported by only one student as the skill that s/he thinks s/he is good at. As Table 13 shows, students need to improve their speaking skills.

Table 13 (Q14)

Skill	f (N=17)	Method
LC	5	• By listening to music and watching videos.
W	3	• By studying individually. • I have time to think, plan, and check.
S	12	• By speaking with foreigners/ native speakers. • By having practice in class. • By watching TV series, movies, keeping vocabulary journals. • I have been playing and trying to understand the stories in computer games since I was a kid.
V	1	• By using effective strategies (e.g. vocabulary journal).
P	1	NA
G	1	• By studying individually.
All skills	1	NA

P: pronunciation

Reason for learning English (Q13)

Table 14

Reason for learning English	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To be able to read international magazines, keep up to date with my future career and current issues. • To improve myself in any subject. • To be able to speak an international language both at school and work. • To be a part of the academic world. • To go abroad in the future. • To learn how people express the same things in a different way, how speakers of a different language think. • To see how people with similar thoughts and ways of thinking communicate in a different language. • To be able to communicate with native speakers/people effectively. • To realize myself. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To be a part of the global world. • To have a better career. • To realize my goals (i.e. international). • To be more equipped after graduation. • To learn about different cultures and meet new people. • To be able to go abroad on exchange programs such as Erasmus. • To have an academic career. • To be able to access more resources. • Learning English is a must. It is the lingua franca. • I will need it throughout my life, especially for my career. English is spoken in the countries that I am planning to go to. • For personal development.

Student responses reveal how important it is to learn a foreign language in the 21st century. Although some of the students have personal reasons to learn English, most of the responses show a desire for different forms of integration into the new world. 12 out of 17 students reported that they would learn English even if they were not enrolled at an institute where the medium of instruction is English. Only 1 student stated that he would not learn English if this were the case.

Students' short-term and long-term goals (Q15/16): Students' short-term and long-term goals are listed in Table 15.

Table 15

Students' short-term goals (Q15)	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To pass the preparatory class. • To have a good command of English at the end of the preparatory year. • To improve my English in order to be able to express myself very easily. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To improve myself in my career. • To learn technical English. • To graduate from college in 5 years' time.

- To go abroad on Erasmus.
- To have a high graduation grade.
- To have an MS (e.g. at METU).

Students' long-term goals (Q16)

- | | |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To accomplish great things. • To have a native-like fluency in English. • To learn other foreign languages such as German and French. • To be a successful mathematician. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To realize my dream of working abroad. • To have a PhD abroad. • To have a good career. • To be able to graduate from college before the expected time. |
|--|--|
-

In the short term, learning English and being able to speak it fluently, passing the preparatory class and graduating from college are among students' priorities. In the long-term, they are planning to achieve more, which indicates that most of them are goal-oriented students. Their long-term goals are mostly career-related.

Sources of motivation (Q17): In Table 16, students' sources of motivation are listed.

Table 16

Students' sources of motivation

- | | |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language learning process itself. • I motivate myself. • My department & Instructors in our school. • Understanding the English TV series and songs. • Activities & computer games. • Motivation? I have no. • My dreams/future goals e.g. career-related. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Getting good exam results. • Having the feeling that I am learning. • Being persistent-never giving up. • Thinking that most of my friends will be attending language courses after graduation. • Being able to learn more. • Career-related goals. • The fact that learning English is a must. |
|--|---|
-

The sources listed in Table 17 indicate that some students are intrinsically motivated while others are extrinsically motivated. The responses show the value of the "individual" who is the decision-maker in the language learning process and actively makes choices. They take the responsibility of their own learning.

The effect of learning English on students' lives (Q18): Table 17 shows reported positive and negative effects of learning English on students' lives.

Table 17

Positive effects of learning English

- To meet new people from different countries and learn about different cultures.
- To be able to use the English resources effectively.
- To be able to understand the songs, videos, and movies.
- To translate the sentences into English while speaking outside class.
- To be able to obtain first-hand information about foreign countries.
- To be able to communicate more easily.
- To be able to obtain more job opportunities.
- To be able to understand the movies without subtitles.
- To learn a new thing= English.

Negative effects of learning English

- Negative effects on the use of L1

To have less time to spend on scientific issues as it is an intensive program and learning English requires a lot of practice.

Students mostly reported positive effects of learning English on their lives. They stated that learning English is a tool that helps them to be a part of the world around them and understand it better, which is an inevitable need in the 21st century.

Curriculum and extracurricular activities (Q20): In Table 18, information on students’ perceptions of the curriculum and extracurricular activities is given.

Table 18

Curriculum/ Extracurricular Activities	Definitely no.	No.	Partly yes.	Yes.
Meet Students’ Needs				
F	1	3	1	5
Suggestions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More games & activities to practice daily language use. • More worksheets. • More hours for the Listening & Speaking course. • Impromptu speeches. 			

Students' responses reveal that the majority of the students think that their needs are being met. However, they state that more importance should be given to listening and speaking skills and more production.

The characteristics of the 21st century teacher/learner (Q21/22): In Tables 19 and 20, the characteristics of the 21st century teacher and learner based on student responses are listed.

Table 19

The characteristics of the 21st century teacher (Q21)	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses technology effectively. • Is able to teach daily language use. • Is well-educated and knowledgeable. • Gives importance to personal development, keeps up-to-date. • Uses a variety of course materials. • Has good communication skills. • Communicates with students not only in class but also outside the school hours. • Is a more effective teacher. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Benefits from all the facilities provided. • Has positive rapport with students. • Is friendly. • Fosters learner autonomy so that students can improve themselves more. • Arouses students' curiosity. • Make use of online newspapers, magazines, songs, and movies more. • Empathizes with students.

Table 20

The characteristics of the 21st century learner (Q22)	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is talkative. + • Is good at using technology. + • Is eager in doing everything. + • Has high self-confidence. + • Can easily access English materials. + • Is impatient. _ • Is less motivated. _ • Is mostly passive during classes. _ • Is addicted to technology and easily distracted by technology. _ • Is easily bored. _ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is lazy. _ • Has a shorter attention span leading to less concentration. _ • Has less interest and seriousness. _ • Has less imagination. _ • Cannot learn words permanently as technology makes learning new vocabulary items very easy. _ • Is direct-gives quick responses. 0

The responses show that they expect the language teacher in the 21st century to be technology-literate, knowledgeable not only in the language but also in world issues. Students also highlight the importance of teachers' having good communication skills and good rapport with students. In terms of the learner characteristics, they report more negative characteristics. Although they believe students have high self-confidence and motivated to do new things, students mention the negative effects of technology on them as 21st century learners.

Discussion

The study reveals significant findings on the perceptions of the 21st century language learners in a state technology institute where the medium of instruction is English. Despite being A1 level students, their responses show that most are goal-oriented and autonomous. Different from the traditional language learning settings, they believe that a more student-centred language teaching pedagogy will be more fruitful. Rather than memorizing rules, they value active learning which requires students' participating in class by using, applying, and experiencing knowledge. Also, they are aware of the fact that language learning also takes place outside the classroom and a lot of meaningful practice is needed for better learning.

Conclusion

As Kivunja states (2015: 9) Information Age requires well-educated employees who can demonstrate mastery of a variety of skills, such as information and communication skills, thinking and problem-solving skills, interpersonal and self-directional skills. Equipping the actors of the future with these skills will make them better educated individuals and better citizens who will be able to contribute more to commerce and civil life in the Digital Economy of the 21st century. Higher education, as the last step, should provide the learners with the opportunity of being competitive and flexible in the 21st century Digital Economy, by including these skills in their curricula. Besides these skills, being language-skilled is also crucial in the more flexible world of the future which will introduce the concept of career mobility. As stated in Itani, Jarlstrom & Piekkari (2015: 376), "a boundaryless career is becoming a privileged opportunity for the linguistically competent and highly educated male elite in Western multinationals", which suggests that language-skilled respondents are more likely to be more mobile compared to those who are less proficient in a language. In a nutshell, the profession of teaching, especially language teaching, should be reshaped in the light of these so as to meet the new needs of the new millennium learners who will shape the future of the "brave" new world.

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Evaluation of TheReadiness of Vocational School of Health Services' Students

Funda İfakat TENGİZ, MD, PhD

Lecturer Dr.- Co Author
Vocational School of Health Services
Izmir University of Economics
Turkey
funda.tengiz@ieu.edu.tr

Sevil TELLİ

Lecturer- Author
Vocational School of Health Services
Izmir University of Economics
Turkey
sevil.tell@ieu.edu.tr

Hasan DURMUŞ

Lecturer- Author
Vocational School of Health Services
Izmir University of Economics
Turkey
hasan.durmus@ieu.edu.tr

Türkan Alkan ÖZBAY

Lecturer- Author
Vocational School of Health Services
Izmir University of Economics
Turkey
turkan.ozbay@ieu.edu.tr

Ezgi ORAL

Lecturer- Author
Vocational School of Health Services
Izmir University of Economics
Turkey
ezgi.oral@ieu.edu.tr

YavuzSelim SÜRAL, MD

Lecturer Dr- Author
Vocational School of Health Services
Izmir University of Economics
Turkey
selim.sural@ieu.edu.tr

Hatice AYAN

Lecturer- Author

Vocational School of Health Services

Izmir University of Economics

Turkey

hatice.ayan@ieu.edu.tr

İlgi ŞEMİN

Professor Dr- Author

Vocational School of Health Services

Izmir University of Economics

Turkey

ilgi.semin@ieu.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

The evaluation of students' readiness can contribute to education in many ways, such as ensuring the development and the adequacy of education, and the quality of the program.

The aim of this study is to measure the levels of readiness of the Vocational School of Health Services' students in the mentioned fields.

The research was a cross sectional study. "Metacognitive Awareness Inventory(MAI), Communication Skills Assessment Scale(CSA), Problem Solving Inventory(PSI), Self-Assessment Form(SAF)" were used as data collection tools. Data were collected using the self-filling technique at the beginning of the 2015-2016 academic year. Voluntary consent was given.

Research was carried out with first year students of seven different programs. All students enrolled in the program (n=156) were included in the study. Data were collected from 146 students, two who were repeating the first year were excluded. Access rate was 92.3%.

The mean age was 20.27 ± 3.78 (min:18-max:9). 70.8% of students are female. 50%, 43.8%, and 5.6% of students grew up in a city, town, village respectively. 36.8% of students' mothers graduated from primary school, 38.2% of students' fathers from high school. 34% of students graduated from Anatolian High School.

Students' mean score for CSA, MAI, PSI and SAF was 100.78 ± 16.12 (min:58-Max:120), 191.25 ± 38.48 (min:108-max:245), 132.83 ± 33.02 (min:32-max:173). 80.85 ± 20.43 (min:29-Max:107) respectively.

KEYWORDS: Vocational School of Health Services, Readiness, Cognitive Skills, Problem Solving, Communication Skills, Self-Assessment.

INTRODUCTION

Maturation brings new competencies and also the readiness required for individuals to gain new and more complex patterns of behaviour. However, readiness involves not only the maturation level of the individual, but also prior learning, interests, attitudes, motivation level, talents and general health status (Senemoğlu, 2012). At this point, Bloom's statement "Readiness is background of the students" is relevant. A successful academic environment may be made possible by introducing a mastery learning model based on the status of readiness into the educational system. One of the prerequisites for mastery learning is determining students' level of readiness (Pinar, et. al., 2014). At this stage, the determination or measuring of readiness emerges as a critical issue.

It is assumed that higher education student has gained some proficiencies throughout his academic life, and the education program is structured accordingly. The aim is for students to have achieved the following skills on from the vocational school of health services:

- To have the required contemporary theoretical and practical knowledge in the relevant field.
- To be able to meet the physical requirements of the field, and be familiar with the required material and technology, and be able to use these appropriately.

- To have the competency to recognize and analyze problems, and develop solutions in the field.
- To be able to satisfy requirements through innovative thinking.
- To be able to communicate effectively.
- To take responsibility and work cooperatively in practical application.
- To be able to discuss and evaluate the scientific data based on of knowledge of the field.
- To realize the importance of lifelong learning, to be aware of the need to follow developments in science and technology, and to engage in self development.

Some different evaluation methods need to be developed to measure these competencies. Metacognitive awareness, communication skills, problem solving, self-assessment and vocational skills may be used for evaluation of the readiness in these skills. The concept of metacognitive awareness is important for the operation of mental processes such as understanding, interpretation and making inferences (Bakioğlu et. al., 2015). Communication skill is a skill which is required to improve coping strategies in order to deal with problems more effectively and to meet professional requirements. Many previously studies show that the development of effective communication skills by health professionals has a positive effect on patients (Daniel 1988, Evans et. al. 1998). Problem-solving is necessary to overcome challenges, problems and obstacles in daily life. The majority of energy and time are spent on problem solving processes (Korkut, 2002). Self-assessment skill refers to a person's ability to determine subjectively his/her own general abilities and skills (Köydemir, 2006). An individual's positive or negative assessment and perception of self is considered as self-assessment.

The evaluation of students' readiness can contribute to education in many ways, such as ensuring the development and the adequacy of education, and the quality of the program.

A teacher who understands the needs of students can increase the efficiency of education by providing an appropriate learning environment and learning activities in accordance with these requirements.

The aim of this study is to measure the levels of readiness of the students in the above mentioned areas through Metacognitive Awareness Inventory (MAI), Communication Skills Assessment Scale(CSA), Problem Solving Inventory (PSI), and Self-Assessment Form (SAF).

METHODS

The research was a cross-sectional study, in which data were collected from Vocational School of Health Services, İzmir University of Economics (IUE) at the beginning of the 2015-2016 academic year. The population of the research consists of all students of the Vocational School of Health Services.

As mentioned, the research included all students at Izmir University of Economics, Vocational School of Health Services. "Metacognitive Awareness Inventory, Communication Skills Assessment Scale, Problem Solving Inventory, Self-Assessment Form" were used as data collection tools. Research data were collected at the beginning of the academic year in

one session using the self-filling technique, overseen by the researchers.. Voluntary consent was given by all students. The data in this study will be used only for research purposes.

Metacognitive Awareness Inventory (MAI): MAI was developed to assess metacognitive awareness by Schraw and Dennison (1994) and contains 52 items. This inventory has Likert type ratings as (1) Never, (2) Rarely, (3) Often, (4) Usually and (5) Always.

The original form of Metacognitive Awareness Inventory consists of eight sub-factors located below two dimensions. As the first dimension, knowledge of cognition consists of information about the individual's cognitive processes and learning strategies, and which of these strategies are more efficient in specific circumstances. Cognition has three dimensions: declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and situational knowledge. Regulation of cognition, as another basic dimension, is the knowledge of planning the learning processes, using learning strategies, and the assessment of learning and error correction. Regulation of cognition has five subscales: planning, following, evaluation, managing and debugging of information (Schraw & Dennison, 1994).

Problem Solving Inventory (PSI): PSI was developed by Heppner and Petersen (1982). The Turkish adaptation was produced by Sahin, Sahin and Heppner (1993). Problem Solving Inventory (PSI) is a Likert-type scale, designed to elicit an individual's self-perception and problem solving skills. The Inventory consists of 35 items. Higher scores show lower problem-solving capabilities.

Communication Skills Assessment Scale (CSA): Communication Skills Assessment Scale was primarily developed by Korkut (1999) for high school and college students, after which validity and reliability studies were conducted for adults (Korkut, 1999). The scale consists of 25 items, 5-point Likert-type has been configured and the highest score of the scale is 125, the lowest is 25. The higher the score, the better the perceived communication skills (Korkut, 1999; Ozan, 2008)

Self-Assessment Form (SAF): In the preparation of the form, the learning objectives were considered to be the skills required for the program of the Vocational School of Health Services. Students assessed their skill level as follows: 1: very poor, 2: poor, 3: medium, 4: Good, 5: very good, or FY: I have no idea.

Data analysis was performed using SPSS for Windows 21.0 package program. Descriptive data for statistical analysis, percentage and mean, standard deviation, one way ANOVA was used.

RESULTS

The research was carried out with first year students of seven different programs of the Vocational School of Health Services (Medical Documentation and Secretariat, Elderly Care, First Aid and Emergency Care, Medical Imaging Techniques, Opticianry, Child Development, Physical Therapy). All students enrolled in the program (n = 156) were included in the study. Data were collected from 146 students, two students who were repeating the first year were excluded. Access rate was 92.3%. Table 1 shows the number of students for each program of Vocational School of Health Services.

Table 1: *The Number of Vocational School of Health Services Students Who Attended the Study*

Programs' Names and The Number of Students		
Programs	Number of Students	Percent (%)
Elderly Care	16	11.1
Medical Documentation and Secretariat	24	16.7
First Aid and Emergency Care	21	14.6
Physical Therapy	18	12.5
Opticianry	20	13.9
Medical Imaging Techniques	21	14.6
Child Development	24	16.7
Total	144	100

Table 2 gives information about the students' gender, their place of origin, parents' education, and their High Schools.

Table 2: *The Demographic Data for Students of Vocational School of Health Services*

The Demographic Data of Students			
		Frequency	Percent (%)
Gender	Female	102	70.8
	Male	42	29.2
Grown up	City	72	50.0
	Town	63	43.8
	Village	8	5.6
	Unknown	1	0.7
Mother's Graduation	Primary school	54	37.5

	Mid-term school	31	21.5
	High School	40	27.8
	University	19	13.2
Father's Graduation	Primary school	31	21.5
	Mid-term school	27	18.8
	High School	55	38.2
	University	30	20.8
Graduated High School	Anatolian High School	49	34.0
	Vocational High school of Health	26	18.1
	Vocational School of Girls	24	16.7
	Vocational School of Technical	4	2.8
	High School of Trade	1	0.7
	Others	3	2.1
	Vocational High school of Health	37	25.7
TOTAL		144	100

The mean age was 20.27 ± 3.78 (min.18-max.39). 70.8% of students are female. 50% grew up in a city, 43.8% in a town, 5.6% in a village. 36.8% of students' mothers graduated from primary school, 38.2% of students' fathers from high school. 34% of students graduated from Anatolian High School.

The mean score of Communication Skills Assessment Scale was 100.78 ± 16.12 (min: 58 - Max: 120), the mean score for Metacognitive Awareness Inventory was 191.25 ± 38.48 from (min 108 - max : 245), and mean score for Problem Solving Inventory was 132.83 ± 33.02 (min:32 – max:173). The mean score of Self-Assessment Form was as 80.85 ± 20.43 (min: 29 - Max :107).

There was no significant differences among mean score of communication skills Assessment Scale (CSA), Metacognitive Awareness Inventory (MAI), Problem Solving Inventory (PSI) in subgroups of hometown (city-town or village) ($p > 0.05$). Mean scores for Self-Assessment were 82.66, 82.71 and 73.33, for students from cities, towns and villages respectively. Students from villages had significantly lower scores ($p = 0.024$).

On the other hand, correlations between parents' education and PSI, SAF, MAI and CSA showed no significant difference. No significant difference was found between high school

type and the Inventory scores. Table 3 shows the relationship between the mean scores of the scales used in the study and the demographic data.

Table 3: Relationship Between Mean Scores of The Scales and Demographic Data

		CSA		SAF		PSI		MAI	
		Mean± SD	p	Mean± SD	p	Mean± SD	p	Mean±S D	p
Grown up place	City	102.84 ±14.14	0.70 6	82.66± 15.26	<0.0 5	137.95 ±22.14	0.67 7	112.77± 17.62	0.307
	Town	104.0± 10.60		82.71± 17.44		139.11 ±21.17		117,50± 15,14	
	Village	106.13 ±13.97		73.33± 5.57		145.43 ±13.66		110.40± 23.99	
Mother's Graduation	Primary school	104.26 ±10.48	0.89 6	81,40± 15.02	0.46 6	142.33 ±18.69	0.43 6	114.28± 18.461	0.714
	Mid-term school	103.83 ±11.31		78.92 ±19.03		139.24 ±19.58		117,74± 12,807	
	High School	102.32 ±17.27		85.69± 15.50		134.19 ±22.67		114.61± 19.05	
	University	104.33 ±8.49		82.65± 14.54		138.72 ±26.48		111.47± 14.76	
Father's Graduation	Primary school	103,13 ±10.89	0.91 1	83.64± 12.89	0.82 7	144.20 ±20.12	0.72 3	112.31± 17.25	0.568
	Mid-term school	102,92 ±12,09		79.21± 24.11		141.23 ±22.35		119.38± 14.15	
	High School	104,64 ±14,48		82,52± 14.53		137,90 ±21.21		115.32± 17.44	
	University	103,00 ±11,29		81.88± 14.77		131,80 ±20.67		113.00± 17.53	
Graduated High School	Anatolian High School	102.62 ±11.97	0.46 6	83.31± 14.13	0.29 4	137.80 ±22.19	0.86 7	113.45± 18.88	0.193
	Vocational High school of Health	100.84 ±11.99		95.00± 17.02		138.67 ±17.34		111.10± 21.30	
	Vocational	107.09		82.96±		139.50		121.25±	

	School of Girls	±9.78	11.07	±18.44	10.66				
	Vocational School of Technical	104.50 ±6.76	81.33± 2.31	126.25 ±26.80	109.50± 14.85				
	High School of Trade	112.00 ±4.36	62.67± 17.21	139.00 ±29.82	125.67± 7.37				
	Others	103.94 ±15.67	77.52± 19.21	141.03 ±23.20	109.97± 15.32				
Gender	Female	103.46 ±10.71	0.78 7	82.55± 16.77	0.6	140.67 ±21.25	0.09 7	116.68± 15.11	0,03
	Male	104.10 ±16.41		80.71± 13.65		133.69 ±20.63		108.89± 20.45	

Although mean score for CSA, SAF, PSI made by Independent Student t-test showed no difference according to gender ($p > 0.05$), there was significant difference between MAI and gender of students ($p = 0.03$). Mean score for male and female students was 108.89 and 116.68, respectively.

The correlation and R^2 values between the mean scores for MAI, PSI, CSA and SAF gave the results below: There is a strong correlation between MAI and CSA scores (Pearson: 0.72 and $R^2:0.53$), a weak correlation between PSI and MAI scores (Pearson: 0.49 and $R^2:0.24$), a weak correlation between PSI and CSA scores (Pearson: 0.42 and $R^2:0.17$), a weak correlation between MAI and CSA scores (Pearson: 0.35 and $R^2:0.12$), a very weak correlation between PSI and SAF scores (Pearson: 0.23 and $R^2:0.05$) and a very weak correlation between CSA and SAF scores (Pearson: 0.20 and $R^2:0.04$).

DISCUSSION

In order to evaluate the readiness of Vocational School of Health Services Students' at the beginning of the academic year, their metacognitive awareness, communication skills, problem solving skills and self-assessment skills were assessed using the Metacognitive Awareness Inventory (MAI), Communication Skills Assessment Scale (CSA), Problem Solving Inventory (PSI), and Self-Assessment Form (SAF). We investigated the levels of metacognitive awareness, problem solving skills, communication skills, and self-assessment of their professional skills, and relation between these.

Although there was no significant difference between mean scores of CSA, SAF, PSI according to gender ($p > 0.05$), MAI scores were higher in females ($p = 0.03$). When examining the relevant literature, gender difference was found in some studies. They found that female students use metacognitive learning strategies significantly higher than male students (Rozendal, Minnaert&Boekaert, 2001; AktürkveŞahin, 2010), but others reported no significant relationship (Özsoy, Çakıroğlu, KuruyerveÖzsoy, 2010; Bakioğlu, 2015). In our study, there was no statistically significant difference between males and females in problem-solving scores, in contrast to Korkut (2002), who found higher scores for males. The lack of significant differences between males and females may be attributed to the

equality of opportunities and similarities in the socialization process in the context of the university in the study.

There was no significant correlation between the education level of parents and students' mean scores for PSI, SAF, MAI and CSA. Similarly, Korkut (2002) found that education level of parents is not correlated with students' problem-solving skills. Our analysis shows no significant difference in mean scores of PCI, SAF, MAI and CSA according to high school type. This is in contrast to Korkut (2002) who found higher scores in super high school graduates. Korkut (2002) concluded that students in super high school had more advanced problem-solving skills. The differences between Korkut (2002) and the current study can be explained by recent changes in the entry criteria of schools, resulting in schools becoming similar to each other in terms of student profile.

Mean scores for Communication skills were relatively higher in our study. However, it is important to select appropriate methods to further improve these students' skills during the educational process. Also, with this type of communication skills assessment scale, students assessed themselves; however, evaluation methods other than self-assessment such as 360-degree assessment may be more reliable. We plan to introduce new evaluation methods at the end of the course..

Students' mean scores of self-assessment form which contain questions about program objectives were low. Lower self-assessment scores of students, particularly at the beginning of the school year, is expected. Higher scores are expected to be observed at the end of the course.

There was a positive correlation between metacognitive awareness and communication skills scores. It can be assumed that metacognitive awareness enables greater understanding of the self and others, and it can improve communication skills. We found a positive correlation between MAI and PSI scores which are both related to cognition, Bakioğlu also found similar results (Bakioğlu, 2015). There was a very weak correlation between self-assessment and communication skills scores, and also between communication skills and problem solving skills scores. Communication skills are needed to understand the self, so it may be related to self-assessment. Communication skills are also important in solving interpersonal problems, therefore correlations are expected.

CONCLUSION

It would be useful to know the level of students' readiness at the beginning of their education to organize and evaluate curriculum. The next study, planned as a continuation of this research, aims to collect data at the end of the academic year and to assess the outcomes achieved in this period. Thus, we aim to understand the gains during the courses and make the necessary improvements by revising the program.

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Social Phobia in Higher Education: The Influence of Nomophobia on Social Phobia

Dr..Şengül UYSAL
Kılıçoğlu Anadolu Lisesi,
Turkey,
sengultokgoz70@gmail.com

Yrd. Doç Dr. Hamit ÖZEN
Educational Faculty,
Eskişehir Osmangazi University,
Turkey,
hamitozen@hotmail.com

Dr. Canan MADENOĞLU
Salih Zeki Anadolu Lisesi
Turkey,
cmadenoglu@gmail.com

Abstract

The purpose of the study was to determine the level of nomophobic and sociophobic behaviours of young adults and to consider the degree to which being nomophobia relates to social phobia. The research was carried out through relational survey method and the questionnaire approaches over the research population, that is, higher education students at ESOGÜ. Nomophobia (NMP) questionnaire developed by Yıldırım and Correia (2015) and the fear of positive evaluation scale (FPES) developed by Weeks and et al. (2008) were used to identify potential correlation between nomophobia and social phobia levels wit to what extent nomophobic behaviour of young adults forecast their social phobia. Descriptive statistics, correlation and regression analysis were applied to dependent and independent variables. For computing SPSS 19.0 statistical software was used. The research concluded that nomophobic behaviour of young adults predict their social phobia levels to a small extent. That is, when nomophobia level increases, their social phobia level is predictable with the increase concerned.

Keywords: nomophobia, social phobia, college students

Introduction

A phobia is a type of anxiety disorder, usually defined as a persistent fear of an object or situation in which the sufferer commits to great lengths in avoiding, typically disproportional to the actual danger posed, often being recognized as irrational. In the event the phobia cannot be avoided entirely, the sufferer will endure the situation or object with marked distress and significant interference in social or occupational activities (Bourne, 2011, p.50–51). Social Anxiety Disorder, also known as Social Phobia, involves intense fear of certain social situations, especially situations that are unfamiliar (Hockenbury, 2013). Social phobia (social anxiety disorder) is the most common anxiety disorder and the third most common mental disorder in the population. If untreated, the disorder typically follows a chronic, unremitting course, leading to substantial impairments in vocational and social functioning

(Hofmann, & Bögels, 2006). People with social anxiety disorder have difficulty forming and retaining personal and social relationships, have higher risk of leaving school early and obtaining poorer qualifications, experience impairment in their daily functioning including work/school performance and social life, and report an important reduction in their quality of life compared with people without the disorder (Aderka, et al., 2012, p.394)

People with social anxiety are often seen by others as being shy, quiet, backward, withdrawn, inhibited, unfriendly, nervous, aloof, and disinterested. This disorder is not simply shyness that has been inappropriately medicalized (Gold, 2014, p.258). The anxiety can interfere significantly with daily routines, occupational performance, or social life, making it difficult to complete school, interview and get a job, and have friendships. People with social anxiety disorder may be afraid of a specific situation, such as speaking in public. However, most people with social anxiety disorder fear more than one social situation (Goldberg, 2014).

Paradoxically, people with social anxiety want to make friends, be included in groups, and be involved and engaged in social interactions. But having social anxiety prevents people from being able to do the things they want to do. Although people with social anxiety want to be friendly, open, and sociable, it is fear (anxiety) that holds them back (Richards, 2013). Although they recognize that the fear is excessive and unreasonable, people with social anxiety disorder feel powerless against their anxiety. They are terrified they will humiliate or embarrass themselves. They also incur considerable healthcare costs, especially relating to the use of primary care services, experience high levels of productivity losses and receive higher social benefits compared with people in the general population (Patel, Knapp, Henderson, Baldwin, 2002). It has been shown that as the number of social fears increases, so does health service utilisation. The presence of comorbid psychiatric disorders increases usage of health services, and productivity losses (Acartürk, de Graaf, van Straten, Cuijpers, 2008).

Cognitive-behavioral models propose that fear of negative evaluation is the core feature of social anxiety disorder. However, it may be that fear of evaluation in general is important in social anxiety, including fears of positive as well as negative evaluation. According to the model put forth by Gilbert (2001) and colleagues (e.g., Trower & Gilbert, 1989; Trower, Gilbert, & Sherling, 1990) social anxiety is directly related to agonistic threat interactions in humans. The purpose of social anxiety is to avoid unnecessarily challenging the dominant member of a social group, while simultaneously remaining within the safe confines of the group. Thus, Gilbert (2001) proposes that social anxiety is an evolutionary mechanism that facilitates non-violent interactions between individuals. In outlining his ethological-psychobiological model, Gilbert suggested that, "Those who feel inferior may fear increases in status that might bring them into conflict with others, or they may fear that any gains could not be maintained or defended in the future" (2001, pp. 742-743). Gilbert dubbed this concept the "fear of doing well" (p. 742). Furthermore, consistent with Gilbert's (2001) interpretation, Wallace and Alden (1995, 1997) reported that socially anxious individuals who were exposed to positive social signals via structured social interaction roleplays rated their social performance positively and consequently worried that others would expect more of them. However, they also believed that their typical performance would not change. As a result, unlike persons without social anxiety, they worried that initial positive appraisal would

lead to future negative appraisal. Weeks and his colleagues (2008) developed the Fear of Positive Evaluation Scale (FPES) to report socially anxious individuals.

With the changes of technologies, new challenges are emerging on a daily basis and new kinds of phobias have emerged, the so-called techno-phobias. It is, however, arguable that the word "phobia" is misused and that in the majority of cases it is only a normal anxiety (Bragazzi, & Puenete 2014). The mobile phone is among the technological tools with the greatest presence in the market (Choliz, 2012). Moreover, recent developments of new operating systems, abundant applications, and competition between vendors have facilitated a remarkable growth in the number of users (Park, Kim, Shon & Shim, 2013, p.1764). Mobile phones have become an essential part of modern human life. They have many attributes which makes them very attractive to both young and old. There has been an increasing trend in the use of mobile phones among students. While the mobility of smartphones provides apparent benefits and enable individuals to satisfy their basic needs, it may also induce some problems associated with smartphone use (Kang & Jung, 2014, p, 376).

However, despite the fact that it is an extraordinarily useful tool and facilitates the performance of numerous social and personal functions, uncontrolled, inappropriate, or excessive use of mobile phones can give rise to problems in interactions with parents and in other areas (Choliz, 2012). By preventing people from working or studying, addiction can cause harm to both individuals and society (Bianchi, & Phillips, 2005). People have become so dependent on them that discovering it is out of charge or simply misplacing it sends stress levels soaring. Its physical characteristics as well as the psychological processes involved in its use explain both the fascination it elicits, and the abuse or dependence it can provoke or encourage in adolescents. (Choliz, 2012)

According to Bianchi and Phillips (2005) psychological factors are involved in the overuse of a mobile phone. These could include low self-esteem, when individuals looking for reassurance use the mobile phone in inappropriate ways, and extroverted personality, when naturally social individuals use the mobile phone to excess. It is also highly possible that nomophobic symptoms may be caused by other underlying and pre-existing mental disorders, with likely candidates including social phobia or social anxiety disorder, and panic disorder.

Millions apparently suffer from "no mobile phobia", which has been given the name nomophobia. It is the fear of becoming technologically incommunicable, distant from the mobile phone or not connected to the Web" (King, Valença, & Nardi 2010, p. 52). Nomophobia is considered a modern age phobia introduced to our lives as a by product of the interaction between people and mobile information and communication technologies, especially smartphones (Yıldırım, Correia 2015a, p. 130). Although nomophobia does not appear in the current DSM-V, it has been proposed as a "specific phobia", based on definitions given in the DSM-IV (Diagnostic & Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 4th Ed) (Bragazzi, & Puenete 2014).

Anxiety is provoked by several reasons, such as the loss of a mobile phone, loss of reception, and a dead mobile phone battery. Some clinical characteristics of nomophobia include using the device impulsively as a protective shell, as a transitional object or as a means for avoiding social communication, having one or more devices with access to

internet, always carrying a charger, and experiencing feelings of anxiety when thinking about losing the mobile, avoiding as much as possible the places and the situations in which the use of the device is banned (such as public transit, restaurants, theaters, and airports), keeping the mobile phone always switched on, having few social face-to-face interactions, which would lead to anxiety and stress. They prefer to communicate using the new technologies and look at the phone's screen to see whether messages or calls have been received (Bragazzi & Puenete 2014, p. 158).

The term, an abbreviation for "no-mobile-phone phobia", was coined during a 2010 study by the UK Post Office who commissioned *You Gov*, a UK-based research organization, to look at anxieties suffered by mobile phone users. The study found that nearly 53% of mobile phone users in Britain tend to be anxious when they "lose their mobile phone, run out of battery or credit, or have no network coverage". The study found that about 58% of men and 47% of women suffer from the phobia, and an additional 9% feel stressed when their mobile phones are off. The study sampled 2,163 people. Fifty-five percent of those surveyed cited keeping in touch with friends or family as the main reason for anxiety when they could not use their mobile phones (Dixit, et al., 2010).

The patients with social phobia disorder generally protect themselves from situations where they are exposed, such as when public speaking, presenting papers, or participating in social groups. Using PC is comfortable way to attempt to establish the social and personal relations they desired. They observed that people with social phobia who developed a dependency on communication through mobile phone or PC as a form of relating to the outside world to reduce stress and to avoid direct social relations (King, Valença, Silva, Baczynski & Carvalho, 2013). Highly socially anxious individuals then transfer most of their social activities, including the formation of strong friendships, into the online world, where they feel safer and more comfortable than in real world. At the same time, these individuals deem themselves more successful in computer based communication than in real, face-to-face communication (Shalom, Israeli, Markovitzky, & Lipsitz, 2015) and communicate with a higher number of people online than face-to-face (Lee & Stapinski, 2012).

There are several studies related to nomophobia and social phobia separately. In this context, in order to supply more and detailed information on stated topics, to supplement to small number of research study results, it was aimed to determine the level of nomophobic and sociophobic behaviours of young adults, and to consider the degree to which being nomophobia relates to social phobia.

Method

The research was carried out through relational survey method and the questionnaire approaches over the research population, that is, higher education students at ESOGÜ. Since the whole population was accessible, no sampling method was used. After missing values due to participants were eliminated, data from 265 of 280 students were used in this study.

Nomophobia (NMP) questionnaire developed by Yıldırım and Correia (2015b) and the fear of positive evaluation scale (FPES) developed by Weeks and et al. (2008) were used to identify potential correlation between nomophobia and social phobia levels, i.e. the extent to which nomophobic behaviour of young adults predicts their social phobia. Descriptive

statistics, correlation and regression analysis were applied to dependent and independent variables. For computing SPSS 19.0 statistical software was used.

Findings

Of the participants, there are 173 (65.3%) females and 92 (34.7%) males. The distribution of class level groups is as follows: level 1; 62.6% level 2; 17.7% level 3; 17.4% level 4; 2.3% In terms of mother's literacy, 29.1% (77) are illiterate; 38.1% (101) have primary school diploma ; 12.5% (33) have secondary school diploma ; 17% (45) have high school diploma ; 3% (8) have bachelor degree; .4% (1) have post graduate degree. For fathers; 1.28 % (3) are illiterate; 25.7% (68) have primary school diploma; 14% (37) have secondary school diploma ; 35.8% (95) have high school diploma ; 10.2% (27) have bachelor degree; 1.5% (4) have post-graduate degree.

Nomophobia

The responses of the students were summarized with means to explore their nomophobic behaviors. Briefly, it was found that, not being able to communicate, losing connectedness and not being able to access information cause students to feel panic, worried and even anxious. T test was conducted to examine the effect of gender on nomophobic behaviour of young adults. There was no statistically significant difference between groups in their nomophobic behaviour ($p=.286$). One way anova test was conducted to examine the effect of class level on nomophobic behaviour of young adults. Following one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), it is possible to explore further and compare the mean of one group with the mean of another using Fisher's Least Significant Difference (LSD) test. When compared the NMP level of the class levels, it was seen that 4th level class students' NMP level was higher than that of the 2nd. Another comparison pinpointed that the 1st class level students' NMP ratio was lower than the 2nd. The effect of family income on nomophobic behaviour of young adults was analysed using one way anova test. Following one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), it is possible to explore further and compare the mean of one group with the mean of another using Fisher's Least Significant Difference (LSD) test. When compared the NMP level in terms of family income, it was seen that the greater the family income, the higher NMP ratio. As a result of one way anova test, it was seen that the effect of parents' literacy on nomophobic behaviour of young adults was not statistically significant between groups in their nomophobic behaviour ($p=.246$ & $p=.471$).

Social phobia

The responses of the students were summarized with means to explore their social phobic behaviors. The highest ones are item 10 (I often feel under-appreciated, and wish people would comment more on my positive qualities), item 7 (If I was doing something well in front of others, I would wonder whether I was doing "too well."), item 6 (I would rather receive a compliment from someone when that person and I were alone than when in the presence of others) and item 9 (I don't like to be noticed when I am in public places, even if I feel as though I am being admired). T test was conducted to examine the effect of gender on sociophobic behaviour of young adults. There was no statistically significant difference between groups in their sociophobic behaviour ($p=.823$). One way anova test was conducted to examine the effect of class level, family income and parents literacy on sociophobic behaviour of young adults. The effect of father's literacy on sociophobic behaviour of young adults was found to be statistically significant. Following one-way analysis of variance

(ANOVA), it is possible to explore further and compare the mean of one group with the mean of another using Fisher's Least Significant Difference (LSD) test. When compared the NMP level in terms of father's literacy, it was seen that students whose father is illiterate have lower sociophobia level compared to those whose fathers has a post graduate degree.

Table 1. *Pearson Correlation on the Relationship between Nomophobia and Socialphobia.*

		Nomophobia Total	Socialphobia total
Nomophobia total	Pearson Correlation	1	,162*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,008
	N	265	265
Socialphobia total	Pearson Correlation	,162**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,008	
	N	265	265

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

This test revealed a Pearson correlation coefficient, which is a measure of linear association between two variables. The value of the Pearson r indicates the strength of a linear association. The closer the Pearson r value is to 1, the stronger the positive correlation between the two variables. Conversely, the closer the Pearson r value is to -1, the stronger the negative correlation is between the two variables. Finally, the significance value is an indication of whether or not the degree of correlation is statistically significant. A significance value less than 0 is an indication of a statistically significant correlation between the two variables.

(Spatz, 2001). A correlation coefficient of 0 to 0.29 is considered low; correlations of 0.30 to 0.69 are considered moderate; correlations between 0.70 and 1.0 are considered strong (Warner, 2008). The Pearson r = .162 and the significance value of .008 lower than .05 indicating the statistical significance.

Tablo 14. *Linear Regression using Total Nomophobia to Predict Total Social Phobia*

Variables	B	StdE	Beta	t	p
Socialphobia	2.330	.129	.16	18.062	.000
Nomophobia	.122	.46	.16	2.656	.008

R: .162, R² (corrected): .026; F: 7.052; P<.005

According to table ... there is a low but significant level of correlation between social phobia and NMP (R=.162, P<.005). Besides NMP regresses 2.6% of Social phobia. [R= .162, R²=.026, F=7.052, p<.05).

Results and Discussion

There is little information about the nomophobia level of University students in Turkish context. According to the research, the sample screened consisted of 34.7 % males and 65.3% females. 173 Females showed nomophobic behaviour of 2.9 out of 5, and 91 males showed nomophobic behaviour of 2.4 out of 5. The result of the study shows that this disorder is much more prevalent among the study group of women than men. Another study found that 53% males and 47% females were found to be nomophobic. Besides, their study shows that nomophobic behaviour is equally prevalent among the study group irrespective of gender (Dixit, Shukla, Bhagwat, Bindal, Goyal, Zaidi & Shrivastava; 2010). Our research showed that 173 females had social phobia level of 2.7 out of 5 for , and 91 males showed social phobic behaviour of 2.7 out of 5. The study again showed that social phobic disorder was seen among females much more than males.

The objective of the research was reached that could reveal a social phobia disorder that produced the dysfunctional behaviors. Daily excessive use of the smart phone, tablets etc. , for establishing personal and social relationships through the internet and to escape from reality revealed the existence of a social phobia disorder. Our study revealed a low but significant level of correlation between nomophobia and social phobia disorder (R=.162, p<.005) and nomophobia regresses 2.6 percent of social phobia level (R²=.026, F=7.052, p<.05). King, Valença, Silva, Baczynski, Carvalho and Nardi (2013) stresses that in the case of the patient with SPD, the role of internet and communication dependency causing nomophobia is more closely related to using those devices to avoid direct personal relationships rather than a pathological dependence on the device.

As for social phobia level, a very high level of social phobia symptoms was found among the young adult students on our campus, according to mean score from the scale. Social phobia mean was found 27 in females and 26 in males. Stewart and Mandrusiak (2007) study supports our findings and they found social phobia level as 25 in males and 20 in females. There are several potential explanations for these findings. One possibility, that there is an epidemic of social phobia on our campus, seems unlikely. From our perspective, the most plausible explanation stems from consideration of the nomophobia, which caused students

to be alone in real social life. Thus, we must begin to look for other possible reasons, and conduct further research to shed light on our students' reports of high levels of social phobia symptoms.

We searched for the effect of class levels of students on nomophobia level. We found that fourth class students have higher level of nomophobia than second class students. Furthermore, second class students also have higher level of nomophobia level than first class students. So, this finding supports our idea that campuses, together with students' daily and social life, is a source which creates social phobia. According to a research completed in Iraq, results showed 44% of the study sample showed symptoms of social phobia. The rate of social phobia is higher in females than males with ratio of 3.5:1 (Hummadi and AlQbaidi, 2014). It can be inferred that Iraq represents a model of the challenging mental health needs of children in conflict-affected, low-income countries. Long-term instability, violent conflict and wars undermine health and mental health status in Iraq, particularly of children, who form half its population. Raising the level of knowledge and recognition of children's psychological health in this country has been difficult. Countries must be careful about their social life if they want to raise healthy, mindful and highly motivated for successful generations for their future.

Technology helps us stay connected and informed. Who can even imagine life without the Internet in their hands or being able to text to reassure their mothers. When technology does everything, however, it's easy to become dependent on it. And now, researchers are beginning to wonder if our tech addiction is improving or reducing our quality of life. With a phone in our hands, it is possible to find a date for a history paper without a book or library. But despite having these shortcuts, students are still spending the same amount of time on homework today as they were 30 years ago, when smartphones were unknown. The lack of difference can be accounted for by the time spent checking any notifications we get, just as a little break." A "little break" may sound harmless, but more is happening during that brief digression than you think. It is true that each beep, chime, or chirp seizes your attention, triggering your fight-or-flight response, acting as a an alarm bell. It's designed to pull your thoughts away from whatever you're doing so you can focus on the "life-or-death" situation in front of us (Kaminsky, 2015). The results of the research are suggestive of the existence of mobile phone dependence among college students. The data is indicative of nomophobia as becoming the emerging problem of the modern era. Multicentric studies are required to evaluate the problem in reality, and thereby take appropriate steps to tackle the growing problem that threatens to disrupt human life.

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Whose responsibility is it in Higher Education to develop undergraduate students' notion of democratic citizenship?

Rhian Webb,
School of Foreign Languages,
Middle East Technical University,
North Cyprus Campus,
Rhian@metu.edu.tr

Troy Sarina,
Faculty of Economics & Business,
Macquarie University,
Australia,
Troy.sarina@mq.edu.au

Abstract

In an era of globalisation, nation states are under increasing pressure to shape sustainable societies and economies. As a result, governments continue to advocate for a reassessment of the role that universities can play in developing students who are able to demonstrate democratic citizenship by their application of democratic principles. This paper introduces the notion that although universities actively promote their ideals to students about raising their awareness of becoming ethical, socially and environmentally responsible citizens, clear leadership and guidelines regarding how to motivate students to incorporate and apply these ideals in their studies remains much more problematic for teaching staff.

This Case Study provides an in-depth analysis of how Third Space Theory has been applied to an Australian university context in order to develop two modes of instruction which have been designed to enhance first year students' competencies in democratic principles and citizenship. This paper concludes that despite the participants of this study encountering some success in raising awareness of these modes of instruction and their benefits to students, further institutional refinements need to occur before pedagogical approaches to develop democratic citizenship can be more widely taken up by Faculty and students. If this can be achieved, higher education providers are much more likely to influence how graduates exhibit their competencies in democratic engagement with others and the world around them.

Keywords: Democratic Education, Graduate Capabilities, Guided Inquiry, Debates

This piece of action research casts a pedagogical lens on how higher education institutions can provide university students with a progressive education in areas related to democratic citizenship. We consider that a university's curriculum can be instrumental in this matter

because students can be guided and supported by the curriculum in a way that fosters their personal growth as well as learning. Like many universities around the world, the Australian university presented in this Case Study provides guidance to students and teaching staff by setting out some of the wider goals of receiving a higher education. Many university leaders are explicit about the ideology surrounding the types of capabilities they believe that students should develop while studying their degree subjects. For instance, Macquarie University (2015) sets out its ideals by stating:

We want our graduates to have respect for diversity, to be open-minded, sensitive to others and inclusive, and to be open to other cultures and perspectives: they should have a level of cultural literacy. Our graduates should be aware of disadvantage and social justice, and be willing to participate to help create a wiser and better society.

While we appreciate the value of the University's descriptions regarding what it means to function as an engaged and ethical citizen, it is interesting to note that there isn't any mention of developing students' understanding of democratic citizenship or democratic principles. The University, does however, mention social justice. This indicates that the University considers it important for students to learn about the distribution of wealth, opportunities, and privileges across global societies. It is worth pointing out that awareness, knowledge and understanding of social justice and injustice is not learnt automatically by students enrolled on a degree course. So who teaches them about this and how are students being taught? Likewise students' awareness, knowledge and understanding of democratic citizenship need to be cultivated if they are to be adequately prepared to function effectively as engaged and ethical citizens. We argue that one of the main purposes of a higher education is to develop students' thinking, knowledge, attitudes and interpersonal skills in matters related to democratic citizenship, which we refer to collectively as democratic competency. This study is anchored in approaches to democratic citizenship as developed by Klemenčič (2008, p. 2), who argues that despite the concept of democratic citizenship being difficult to define, there does seem to be two useful notions which help to raise levels of consciousness in this area: 'knowing how to act and knowing how to be'. Knowing how to act entails students understanding the social and political structures that govern society whereas knowing how to be targets students' ability to engage and assess values underpinning society. Klemenčič (2008, p. 4) argues that for university students to successfully evolve into democratic citizens they need to develop civic competencies, that is, using interpersonal skills to enable their capabilities to interface effectively with members of society and public institutions. An additional component to democratic citizenship is to develop students' cognitive competencies, such as, their critical thinking by offering them regular opportunities to apply their own constructs of knowledge in problem-solving (Klemenčič, 2008, p.4). This approach to personal development aims to better equip students with competencies that enable them to fully engage in a democratic fashion with a wide spectrum of communities, organisations and corporations; and thereby increase their proficiency to be able to deliberate and sensitively debate extremely diverse and complex issues in local and global societies. Relying on the work of Bok (2008), Klemenčič also suggests that a crucial component of developing these specific types of cognitive competencies is to ensure that students become much more explicitly aware of the ethical and democratic dimensions of their professional and personal decisions. In doing so, they are likely to become more conscious of their own personal growth in areas related to ethical and democratic behaviours.

We argue that specific modes of instruction aimed at supporting students' self-development in democratic competency is absent from the University's undergraduate curriculum. To explore this further, this research study was set up in order to achieve a better understanding of how pedagogical approaches and techniques targeting self-development in democratic competency can be introduced and embedded into an undergraduate degree course. By presenting this Case Study, the authors wish to demonstrate that specific modes

of instruction can be very effective at developing undergraduate students' competencies in democratic citizenship. We propose that the modes of instruction used in this study can foster students' motivation for personal growth in democratic competency, such as, discovering what it means to live as engaged and ethical local and global citizens. Moreover, this Case Study illustrates what can be achieved, when pedagogies designed specifically to enhance democratic competency are introduced into a large first year undergraduate course, and in doing so we have illustrated some ways to determine the effects these modes of instruction are having on students and teaching staff. Furthermore, this study adds contextual examples and insights which contribute to the growing body of research conducted on the theme of whose responsibility is it in Higher Education to educate university students, irrespective of their chosen degree, about democratic cultures, democratic citizenship, human rights and sustainability. To highlight the significance of this issue in higher education, The Council of Europe (2006, p.3) announced a call for action that encourages all higher education providers and those students who study in them to:

1. 'become aware of their responsibilities as educated citizens, for the development of their societies, the values of democracy, human rights and social, environmental and economic sustainability; and,
2. take action in their local as well as in the national and global communities to put these principles into practice;
3. encourage education for democracy in the curriculum and all aspects of institutional life;
4. assume responsibility for the future of their universities and colleges'.

The next part of this paper presents the Case Study in detail, and demonstrates some of the specific aspects concerning how educational theory has been used to develop pedagogical approaches, techniques and modes of instruction to strengthen students' capabilities in democratic competency.

University Case Study - The Australian Context

This paper pays particular attention to the experiences that an academic member of staff and a learning and teaching specialist had when embedding modes of instruction targeting democratic competency within the context of a first year course in Human Resource Management. In 2012, the University added a program into the undergraduate curriculum which has been designed to increase undergraduate students' participation and engagement (PACE) in national and international organisations. This course is usually taken for credit as an elective in either a student's second or final year of their undergraduate degree. It can also be taken as a co-curricular course without credit. Each PACE course offers an academic framework which can include any of the following experiential components: work-integrated learning, practicum, field trip, group project for corporate business and community development projects and internships. It is widely acknowledged by the University community that PACE contributes to the University's popularity with students and this acknowledgement is backed up by annual national surveys, which demonstrate that Macquarie University has been rated as Australia's sixth most preferred university for recent school leavers (UAC, 2016). Since PACE was introduced, there has been a hive of interest among academics and teaching professionals concerning the practicalities of introducing and embedding pedagogies, which cultivate students' capabilities for when they graduate. One of the University's key pedagogical aims was to 'integrate graduate capabilities into the specific context of a discipline or program to ensure a major impact on teaching and learning' (Winchester-Seeto and Bosanquet, 2009, p. 510). As a result, the technique of embedding modes of instruction that served this aim was put higher up on the University's learning and teaching agenda. This was when the notion of embedding pedagogies that

targeted the development of students' competencies and skills became popular at the University. To illustrate, in 2012 each Faculty was able to access the advisory services of a Learning Skills Advisor, who was initially tasked, on a part-time basis, to embed a variety of modes of instruction and resources targeting the development of students' competencies and skills during their undergraduate studies. Each advisor worked closely with Faculty members to introduce and embed pedagogical techniques that were specifically designed to develop and enhance the competencies and skills perceived to be of importance to each Faculty's cohort of students. The impetus for this action research study was initiated in 2012 when the Course Convenor for an undergraduate introductory course in Human Resources Management approached a Learning Skills Advisor to undertake a needs analysis of the range of academic literacy skills that students would need to satisfactorily complete the course. The results from the needs analysis showed that specific modes of instruction would need to be introduced and embedded into the course in order to encourage students to enhance their intellectual competencies in critical thinking, information literacy skills in secondary research and argument-building, such as: presenting, defending and modifying intellectual ideas and arguments. The following section of this article outlines the convergence between the theoretical use of Third Space Theory and the real-life application of the theory in this Case Study's educational setting and context.

Applying Third Space Theory to develop students' democratic competencies

To demonstrate how students' democratic competencies were developed during their studies on the management course, we present a Third Space Theory, which is considered by a growing number of researchers as an educational theory (Soya, 1996; Gutiérrez, 2008, Moje et al, 2004). Third Space Theory is a useful framework to describe in-between spaces, where the First and Second Spaces overlap to generate a hybrid known as a Third Space. In this sense, the application of Third Space Theory in education explains the unique qualities and experiences each learner and teacher has as they move in and out of these in-between spaces. To illustrate, a Third Space can open up at the interstices of learners' everyday knowledges used in their First Space at home and the Second Space of academic knowledge typically encountered at school. Maniotes (2005) has conceptualised a Literary Third Space Theory whereby school pupils aged between 9 and 10 were supported by their teacher during their class discussions to include the First Space of personal knowledge as way to develop their own critical perspectives about the set literature from the Second Space of the examination syllabus. The result was that a hybrid Third Space was encountered which 'zeros in on the linking space between students' prior knowledge and their experiences and the information they seek and find' (Kuhlthau and Cole, 2012, p. 6). First and Second Spaces can be conceptualised as two different, and possibly conflicting, spatial groupings. To reduce conflict, the in-betweenness of a Third Space offers educators and learners the opportunity to interact physically, mentally and socially in a way that opens up the possibility for positive transformation.

For Becker and Couto (1996) the most effective way to teach democracy in any educational setting is to explicitly use teaching techniques which convincingly convey a sense of democracy with the class. This hints at the very real possibility that students need to perceive democratic principles being consistently applied around them if they are to benefit from these modes of instruction. Yet how can this goal be achieved when teaching a large student cohort? It is our view that Third Space Theory has proved to be an extremely useful mental construct to facilitate the process of introducing and embedding modes of instruction which motivate students to more fully engage with the concepts of democratic citizenship without being explicitly informed by their lecturers that they are doing this. In other words, a Third Learning Space needed to open up so that students and teachers could more easily realise the transformative potential of the hybridity between the First Space of students' personal knowledge systems and the Second Space of the University's curriculum and scholarly practices. The first specific mode of instruction that utilised Third Space Theory

was introduced in 2013 whereby students enrolled on the course were required to complete a debating assessment. The debating activities introduced into the assessment schedule and tutorial program were drawn from the course literature in a way that highlighted the interaction between people, processes and institutions. The aims of the debating assessment were as follows:

- to expose students to some of the principles of democracy and democratic citizenship, such as, the freedom of speech and listening to people from different cultures, races, religions, and ethnic groups, so that they become more tolerant of and engaged with other people's points of view; additionally students were required to undertake peer assessments of each other's efforts during the debates in order to raise awareness of their own strengths and weaknesses as well as to provide informative feedback to each other about how to improve;
- to encourage students to create a Third Learning Space in which they are more able to contribute to each other's understanding of democratic principles and democratic citizenship. Students were actively encouraged by lecturers and tutors to utilise their prior First Space knowledges and experiences to help them direct the ways in which they seek, process and generate information so that they are better able to consider the greater issues relating to societies' systems, processes and institutions as well develop the ability to use Second Space scholarly research practices to build logical, persuasive arguments that address the course's major topics;
- for students to consider some of the ethical consequences of their decisions and argument making processes by encouraging them to shape the ways in which they contribute to each other's understanding of democratic citizenship. Lecturers and tutors encouraged students to frame their insights, perspectives and arguments by offering a critical perspective on the authors or scholars' ideas while also engaging with each other's views. We consider this aspect to be an essential part of any democratic process.

The Course Convenor was concerned that if students didn't receive sufficient learning support, they would find the debating assessment too challenging and they may not achieve their learning aims. Therefore, to ensure that students were more likely to achieve the aims linked to the debating assessment, the Course Convenor took a Third Space approach to introduce the second mode of instruction, which is referred to as Guided Inquiry. Kuhlthau, Maniotes and Caspari (2007) have provided a very useful model to describe how Guided Inquiry can be used by educators in their own educational contexts and settings. This model enabled the Course Convenor, lecturers and tutors to support and guide students through the newly introduced debating assessment regime. Of primary importance in the Guided Inquiry mode of instruction is for students to develop the requisite digital information search skills to efficiently and effectively conduct secondary research investigations. The Course Convenor invited two of the Faculty's learning support specialists to work closely with the course's teaching staff and students to form a conceptual Third Learning Space in which students were encouraged, motivated and supported to become more confident at integrating their First Space real world experiences and findings with their Second Space curriculum and academic studies. The Learning Skills Advisor assisted the Course Convenor in designing student-centred assignment tasks which were supported by a variety of face-to-face and digital learning resources which were produced to suit a range of learning preferences. The Research Librarian demonstrated to students a wide variety of research tools that were available to them to conduct their research projects to a high standard.

By carrying out this research study, we considered we could gain a better understanding of how Third Space Theory could facilitate a greater understanding of how to develop students' competencies in democratic citizenship and democratic principles in a university setting. To achieve this, we performed our analysis on data collected from five subsequent semesters.

Our data sets were generated from students' formal course evaluations (questionnaires), tutors and lecturers' informal feedback to the Course Convenor (student observations and focus groups) and the researchers' professional evaluations (semi-structured interviews and critical reflective narratives). Our initial findings have identified two distinct types of outcomes from introducing and embedding the debating and Guided Inquiry modes of instructions. The first group focuses on the positive outcomes (the enablers) relating to developing students' democratic competencies and the second group focuses on the negative outcomes (the inhibitors). Each group of findings is considered in turn.

Enablers:

1. Students considered that they had improved their self-awareness of their civic and cognitive competencies and gained a fuller understanding of the institutional processes and actors that influence the world of work in an Australian context;
2. Students have enjoyed exploring the course's key topics and concepts by taking part in the debates;
3. The integration of learning support services from the Research Librarian and Learning Skills Advisor offered students substantial opportunities to receive expert advice on how best to reach their learning outcomes;
4. Students appreciated how the lecturers were able to relate theoretical concepts to real world contexts which assisted students in the process of developing their own personal and unique constructs of the world;
5. The debates encouraged students and lecturers to create a Third Learning Space which helped them to learn how to make relevant and meaningful links between the current Second Space university curriculum and the future Second Space world of work. Many students commented on how much it helped them to better understand what it means to be a professional person in their chosen field.

Inhibitors:

1. Students require supplementary development in how to work more collaboratively in small groups;
2. Students require further development in two to three key stages of the digital information search processes deemed necessary to complete their assignments to a high standard.

In order to scale up the level of student participation in building awareness of democratic competence in this management course, the following operational decisions intend to be implemented in the next delivery of the course:

- Provide students with the opportunity to select and create a personalised learning activity which requires students to actively participate in deliberating the complexities and ethical consequences of their strategic choices when it comes to the design of work systems and interaction with other stakeholders in society, such as, government, law-makers and worker representatives;
- Embed exercises within the course design that target the 4 D's of democracy (diversity, dissent, deliberation and decision making) so as to improve the manner in which students conduct teamwork and enhance their collaboration skills (DDA, 2016). This should more effectively prepare students to explore projects/assignments in the course in a mature manner while also encouraging students to develop their interpersonal capabilities as democratic citizens in a variety of local, regional, national and/or international contexts.

Conclusion

The researchers have perceived that the promotion of the value of democratic citizenship and its ideals serves to bring about greater levels of self-awareness of education for democracy among students and educators, particularly when one regards universities and colleges as exemplars of democratic institutions. In addition to this, we consider that if all students are to benefit from the University's educational ideologies concerning graduate capabilities then the University's undergraduate curriculum needs to be improved so that it explicitly contributes to the process in which teaching staff pursue these goals, perhaps, as seen in this Case Study, by providing academics with access to expert guidance and mentors. We propose that a Third Space approach to delivering the curriculum can also be used to provide support to teaching staff who are responsible for delivering the curriculum and are often tasked with the challenge of introducing and embedding new modes of instruction into their courses. In this Case Study, we learnt that not only did the learning support specialists provide guidance and encouragement to students but they also provided pedagogical support to lecturers and tutors.

Our research demonstrates that the application of Third Space Theory is a powerful way of ascertaining how undergraduate students' awareness of, and engagement with concepts, topics and issues relating to democratic citizenship can be stimulated in a higher education context. It was seen that by encouraging students to create their own perspectives and criticisms in a Third Learning Space, they were more able to connect together the concepts associated with democratic principles and citizenship, and also they actively practised the types of civic and cognitive competencies that are required to function as a dutiful and democratic citizen.

This Case Study has helped to identify some of the initiatives that Faculty members have utilised to promote and enhance students' awareness of democratic citizenship and the competencies that are typically associated with receiving a higher education. It is necessary to point out the fundamental importance each educator's ideologies play when deciding how best to equip students with democratic competencies. This is because of the variability of ideals which may differ slightly or even considerably from person-to-person and country-to-country. However, regardless of the differences and similarities between individuals' democratic ideologies, a unifying perspective of this is to remember that the main purpose of developing democratic competencies in undergraduate students is to give them the confidence to use democratic principles, as a core foundation, to question wisely, to vocalise their concerns ethically, and to attempt to evaluate and refine the communities, institutions and people around them in order to build and sustain democratic cultures. Surely, this is every democratic citizen's responsibility.

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