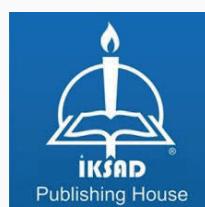


# **EDUCATIONAL**

**AND SCIENCE OCCURRED IN  
TURKEY BETWEEN THE YEARS OF  
1980 - 2000**

**EDITORS**

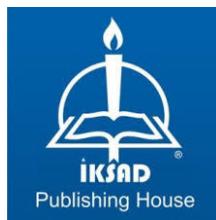
**ÖZKAN AKMAN / TAHİR GÜR**



EDUCATIONAL  
AND SCIENCE OCCURRED IN  
TURKEY BETWEEN THE YEARS OF  
1980 - 2000

**EDITORS**  
*ÖZKAN AKMAN*  
*TAHIR GÜR*

2020



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## **PROEM**

Educational sciences is a science associated with many fields. While educators examine and organize and re-organize the system that will educate future generations, not only other scientific fields but also past knowledge and experiences contribute to educational science. While these sciences and sub-branches are researching tools, knowledge and applications that will increase the quality of education for human beings; technology develops by being influenced by society, state, politics and other developments in the world. This development is an on-going process and education and human beings are in mutual interaction. After the Declaration of Republic of Turkey, founded in 1923, made a series of reforms in education and for modern educational practices. Efforts to improve the education of the country have continued and reached today. Education in Turkey, as one of the largest organizations in the country today with over 20 million students and over a million teachers, it is still in a very active developmental area with its problems, development efforts. The socially and politically painful environment of the 1970s was relatively eliminated with the 1980 military coup. However, while the negative effects of the coup continued for years in the society and administrative structure, movements to return to democracy were observed in this period. However, with the elections held earlier than in their exact time, a stability could not be achieved in governmental organizations, ministeries, and education. Between the years of 1980 and 2000, there were important problems in the education system such as transition to eight-year compulsory education, the extension of schools and education, structural change requirements, content and program development, as well as changes in courses, programs and training of teachers at all levels of education. It is also a period when perspectives change in the field of education with frequent government changes. This book was prepared as part of a series, with the contributions of experts who dealt with developments in the field of education from different angles during this period. It is expected that the developments, problems and changes in this period will contribute to the literature with the re-evaluation of educational scientists working in different fields with their perspectives. Hoping that this collection, which contains evaluations that shed light on that period, will be useful to all researchers from various areas.

EDITORS  
**ÖZKAN AKMAN**  
**TAHİR GÜR**

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## EPISODE 1

# A NEWSPAPER'S VIEW ON EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS BETWEEN 1980-2000 IN TURKEY: EXAMPLE OF MILLİYET NEWSPAPER

**Assoc. Prof. Dr. Tahir GÜR**

*Gaziantep University*

## INTRODUCTION

In this section, based on the articles and news of newspapers on education between 1980 and 2000, the newspaper perspective on the problems of education in that period will be discussed. For this, first of all, the context in the relevant period was explained and then the problems, the way the problems were handled and were taken into consideration.

### **Education in Turkey during the period 1980-2000**

After the Republic of Turkey was proclaimed in 1923, it made a series of innovations for adaptation to the modern world. Those related to education among these innovations can be counted as the establishment of the Ministry of National Education, the letter revolution, and the consolidation and nationalization of the school system. Much hard work has been done to increase the literacy rate, rearrange and disseminate schools, and increase the level of culture and well-being of the people, which was low when the Republic was founded. In order to increase the education level of the crowded, peasant, and poor population, the number of primary, secondary, and high schools has been increased, as well as public education and widespread educational institutions, and village schools have been expanded in low-population settlements. In particular, it has been tried to increase the literacy rate with literacy mobilizations for adults who cannot attend school at school age. Since the first years of the Republic, education has been tried to be given to large audiences that can be expressed in millions, while new schools have been opened in accordance with rapid population growth. Turkey especially reached the population whose primary and secondary education-age population can be expressed in 10 millions in the early days of the republic and the state has tried to develop systems and understandings that can be enough for this population.

### **Administrative changes in education**

Looking at the state administration, the 1980 military coup took place after a very depressive year. But in the years following this military coup, there have been very rapid administrative changes and elections. After the military coup of 1980, 13 governments were established until 2000, and 11 national education ministers took part in these governments. Frequent government and ministerial changes made it difficult to stabilize the Ministry of Education and education, and increased and enlarged the problems related to education, and turned education into a huge problematic system. In this scope, Cihaner Keser (2014) explain main incidents and developments of that era as following paragraphs:

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In the Turkey Government Program dated September 12, 1980 - December 13, 1983, which is the first government after these administrative changes and the 1980 military coup, it was mentioned that efforts would be made to promote national culture and art values (Ministry of Culture, 1990; 199). In the program, it was explained that national education, which forms the basis of unity and integrity, was given importance and its regulation was aimed. It was announced that studies would be carried out on the National Education Basic Law and the Universities Law (Kantarcioğlu, 1998; 82). In addition, the program emphasizes the theme of raising workforce for the development of the country like all previous governments, it was declared once again that vocational and technical education would be emphasized, and in accordance with the spirit of the period, teachers, school administrators and associations would be excluded from politics (Dağlı & Aktürk, 1988; 19). During this government period, the Higher Education Law was accepted on 04.11.1981 and entered into force by being published in the Official Gazette dated 6.11.1981. The Higher Education Council, established within the framework of this Law, started its activities as a supra-university regulatory institution.

Education policies are shaped with the aim of adopting Ataturk's principles and revolutions and raising generations that are aware of Turkey's interests (Education in Development Plans, 1993b; 179). In the plan, it was foreseen that the knowledge and skills to be acquired by the students should be life-oriented, the young people who would leave any level of education should gain professions by applying education programs within the formal education system, and taking measures to increase the quality at every level of education (Education in Development Plans, 1993; 180). In the programs of the Second Özal Government, which came to power during this plan period, between December 21, 1987 - November 9, 1989, and the Akbulut Government, dated November 9, 1989 and June 24, 1991, the previous government's program was almost completely repeated, and no improvement was observed.

In the Seventh Demirel Government Program dated November 25, 1991 and June 30, 1993, culture, arts and education programs were mentioned as follows: An education policy that is secular, universal, republican, promoting national culture, creative and based on free thinking was envisaged (Ministry of National Education, 1993; 72).

In the Program of the First Yılmaz Government on June 24, 1991 - November 25, 1991, it was stated that the responsibility of the experienced knowledge society to cause a new structuring in education is undertaken and that national culture will be given more intensely in all educational institutions (Ministry of National Education, 1993; 69).

In the Seventh Demirel Government Program dated November 25, 1991 and June 30, 1993, culture, arts and education programs were mentioned as follows: An education policy that is secular, universal, republican, promoting national culture, creative and based on free thinking was envisaged (Ministry of National Education, 1993; 72).

It was explained that the government will encourage the development of the national culture, as well as reach universal values and products and regard the national culture as a goal to contribute to the common values of humanity (Kantarcioğlu, 1998; 88).

In the three Çiller Government programs, which were in power from 30 June 1993 to 6 March 1996, the aim of the government was explained as the strengthening of the democratic culture of the country within the participatory and pluralist democratic system based on tolerance and mutual consensus (Kantarcioğlu, 1998; 90).

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In the Program of Second Yılmaz Government dated March 6, 1996 and June 28, 1996, it was stated that higher education would be reorganized, the Council of Higher Education would only be responsible for ensuring coordination, and the necessary legal arrangements would be made to establish private universities (08.11.2013, <http://www.tbmm.gov.tr/hükümetler/hp53.htm>).

The Erbakan Government Program dated 28 June 1996 - 7 July 1997, which is the coalition government established by the Welfare Party with the Right Way, adopts the principle of protecting, developing and spreading national culture, and in addition, it does not differ from the standard programs of previous governments (Kantarcıoğlu, 1998; 92). In the Third Yılmaz Government Program dated July 7, 1997 - January 11, 1999, YÖK (Council of Higher Education) would be transformed into an inter-university coordination institution, universities would be given full autonomy, students would be represented in university administrations. Necessary measures would be taken to bring the quality of teaching in universities to international standards, to quickly close the gap of faculty members and to meet the resource needs of universities. It would enable universities and research and development institutions to access information resources electronically and rapidly at international and national level; all kinds of support would be provided for the rapid completion of the National Academic Network and Information Centre, which would support the integration of teaching and research on the one hand, and joint research on the other. The efforts to introduce traditional and contemporary arts of the world countries to our people would be supported and importance would be given to exhibiting Turkish works abroad. All the heritage of Anatolian culture and civilization would be evaluated with the same importance and equality. All measures will be taken to identify, preserve, and promote our historical and cultural assets, including our works abroad. (08.11.2013, <http://www.tbmm.gov.tr/hükümetler/hp55.htm>). This plan includes full autonomy of universities and bringing the quality of education to international standards (Ministry of National Education, Research and Planning Coordination Board, 1998; 106).

## **Situation in Education**

Discussions and studies in the field of education between 1980-2000 were discussed in this study on coping with education problems and teacher education. Accordingly, Turkey had a very high population of primary and secondary students when it came to the 1980s. That is, the number of preschool students was around 100,000. The number of students in primary schools was seven million and in secondary schools around 5 million. While there were 1.25 million students in high schools, half a million students were receiving education in universities. The total number of teachers and lecturers was around 413 thousand. Total students were around 12 million. The total number of schools was around 64800 (State Institute of Statistics, 1982; State Institute of Statistics, 1989a; Student Selection and Placement Centre, Ministry of National Education, 1989). The number of universities, which was 19 in 1980, increased to 27 in 1981 and has continued to increase with a trend that has come up today.

The activities of education with the widest participation in Turkey, making recommendation decisions, and conducting the highest discussions are the National Education Councils. Ministry, teachers and faculty members attend those Councils. Councils have been held since the establishment of the Republic of Turkey, and their decisions and recommendations are discussed and echoed both in politics, in the press and in society. Among the biggest changes in the field of education between 1980 and 2000, compulsory education was determined and taken in the field of teacher training.

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With the model adopted at the 10th National Education Council during the period under this study, basic education is envisaged as a compulsory eight-year education level between the ages of 6-14 that prepares the student for higher education and predisposes to the profession (Ministry of National Education, 1982; 320). Later, with the Law No. 2842 of 16.6.1983, which amended the National Education Basic Law, the age limit was changed to 6-14, and the term “Primary Education Institutions” was used instead of the words “Basic Education Institutions” (Erdoğan Kamil, 1989; 35- 37).

Teacher training was also addressed in the 10th National Education Council, in the light of the principle of “teacher training based on higher education”, with the decision number 41 dated 1982, two-year “Education Institutes”, which train primary school teachers, took their place in the new system under the name of “Education High Schools” (Ataünal A. 1994, p.47). In the XII National Education Council (18-22 July 1988) regarding the training of primary school teachers, the opinion “Education High Schools should be increased to 4 years and teacher high school graduates should be taken to the Department of Primary Education with a certain quota and score advantage.” has been put forward (Ataünal A. 1994 p.55). In 1987, the Marmara University Rectorate was asked to prepare a 4-year curriculum for the Council of Higher Education Higher Education Schools in order to increase the education level in accordance with the requirements of the age in teacher education and to provide integrity. The Marmara University Rectorate sent the draft program prepared in 1987 to the Council of Higher Education and suggested that it be put into practice as of the 1989-90 academic year. The Presidency of the Council informed the concerned that the duration of the “Education Schools” was increased to 4 years since the 1989-90 academic year, with the letter dated June 7, 1989 and numbered 1823 (Ataünal, 1994; 60). Finally, with the law number 3837 dated 11 July 1992, the Education Schools were transformed into Education Faculties and unity in the field of teacher training was ensured (Ataünal, 1994; 62).

### **Education according to newspaper reports**

Within the period covered by this study, around 10 news or columns were received and analyzed for each year. In this study, 180 news and column articles were examined and the sample was determined with half of the news (80) and half of the column (80). While the column is selected, the distribution of the newspaper’s permanent writers and guest writers has emerged as 55 permanent writers and 35 guest writers. In this section, first of all, content analysis and classification were made, prominent topics were given with percentages, and three sample news and columns were specified. Later, the way newspapers deal with the issue of education was examined through discourse analysis.

It is necessary to group and codify the news articles and columns selected from the aforementioned period of time in order to determine which subjects are concentrated on and what is happening. Content analysis method was used for this. First, news and columns were examined, divided into groups and coded. Afterwards, the summary of the news and columns included in each coding was sent to the field expert and arrangements were made according to their opinions. As a result of these transactions, the distribution of news and column articles according to the topics is as follows. Since some news and column articles have qualities that can be counted in more than one coding, they have been placed in more than one coding group that authors and field experts find appropriate and agree on.

**Table 1.** Distribution of news and columns by subject

Subject header	Type			
	News	Percentage	Column	Percentage
Innovation and change	7	4	9	6
Legislation affairs	14	10	18	14
Administrative problems	26	18	21	16
Philosophy ideology and vision	14	10	12	9
Teacher training	7	4	6	5
Systemical problem	18	12	14	11
School infrastructure problem	8	5	4	3
Student success	7	4	10	7
Personnel	11	7	5	4
Social-economic problem	8	5	7	5
Organization problems	8	5	7	5
Relations with politics	24	16	20	15
Total	152	100	133	100

When the distribution of news and columns by subjects is analyzed in Table 1, it can be seen that the relationship between education management and politics in the news is in the first place with a rate of 34 percent in total. Similarly, it is seen that these issues are mentioned in the columns with a rate of 31 percent. In the period that is the subject of this study, there was a coup d'état and it was determined that the problems related to education, including administration and politics, were dealt with more frequently as there were frequent government changes(Milliyet, 1996a; 1997a; 1999) in the following periods. These are followed by systemic problems, philosophy, ideology and vision (Milliyet 1980a, 1997b, 1993), with a total of 22 percent in the news and 26 in the columns. In other words, about half of the news and columns have dealt with problems and issues related to management and perspectives. Again, issues related to legislation, which are close to these issues, were included in 10-14 percent of both news and columns (Milliyet 1989, 1991, 2000). In addition to these, it has been determined that systemic problems are also included in news and columns by around 10 percent (Milliyet, 1994,1987,1996b).

**Table 2.** Perspectives in news and columns

Subject header	Perspective					
	Critical	Percent-age	Recom-mendation	Percent-age	Unbi-ased	Percent-age
Innovation and change	13	6	11	11	2	5
Legislation affairs	26	11	6	6	2	5
Administrative problems	39	17	17	16	3	7
Philosophy ideology and vision	19	8	12	12	3	7
Teacher training	10	4	4	4	4	10
Systemical problem	28	12	12	12	3	7
School infrastructure problem	10	4	3	3	4	10
Student success	14	6	8	8	3	7
Personnel	11	5	6	6	4	10
Social-economic problem	13	6	7	7	7	17
Organization problems	12	5	6	6	2	5
Relations with politics	38	16	8	8	4	10
Total	233	100	101	100	41 375	100
	62		27		6	

---

In this review, the perspectives in news and columns were examined. Critical, propositional and unbiased perspectives determined together with field experts were determined as the main points of view. While examining according to these points of view, more than one point of view was determined in some news and columns and analysis was made accordingly. Opinions and information containing these points of view were identified in 375 locations in total. While 233 of these, that is, 62 percent, were within the critical point of view, 27 percent of them were considered as recommendation and 6 percent were unbiased. In short, it has been determined that the critical perspective is the dominant point of view in these news and columns.

In an article (Milliyet, 1980b) in the first year of the period in which this study is examined, it is complained that stability could not be achieved in the education system due to the frequently changing governments and that no system could be established. At the end of the period examined, it is seen that it ended with an article stating that the education situation is very bad in all, let alone achieving the desired goals in education (Milliyet, 2000). In fact, most of the articles and news written in the period between these two articles pointed to problems and issues in this manner. In this news and columns, the main topics are listed with combinations made with field experts, but not limited to these: innovation, change, reform, legislative affairs, administrative procedures, philosophy, ideology and vision, teacher training, systemic problem, school infrastructure problem, student success, personnel problems, financial problem, social-economic problem and organization problems. The emergence features of this newspaper's discourse in the context of the column and the topics covered in the news were examined by the discourse analysis technique which is a separate research technique. Discourse analysis, which has an increasing importance in social sciences, is seen as one of the interpretive and qualitative research methods. Qualitative research investigates what "facts, concepts, social reality and social world" mean for people living in it. Parallel to this, discourse analysis explores how socially emerging truths, values, facts, power and ideas emerge, are maintained, shared, their conflicts and how they are evaluated. Discourse analysis is a description, generalization or rather a generative and reflexive research method (Parker, 1992, p. 6 cited in Gur, 2013).

Discourse analysis sees discourse as the most important element of the social world, as a method that examines how language creates the "phenomenon" and argues that the social world can only be understood by studying discourse (Phillips & Hardy, 2002). Discourse analysis aims to reveal the rules, structures, and situations that produce and maintain discourse. It is preferred to traditional methods because it deals with the event or subject studied with a more in-depth understanding and examines human phenomena in a more holistic and context (Fairclough, 2003). Discourse analysis, which examines the discourse that reflects people's knowledge, values, opinions, beliefs, social relations, evaluations, psychological and social backgrounds, personalities, identities, intentions, judgments and perceptions to the use of scientific research, is a method that is used in more research and more scientific fields (Gür, 2013).

In this study, 180 of the news and columns on education published in Milliyet newspaper between 1980 and 2000 were selected as discourse and examined by critical discourse analysis method. The following conclusions were reached from the examination of this discourse:

- 
1. In the time period covering the years 1980-2000, which is the subject of this study, as in the content analysis made above, it is seen that the critical perspective and language are dominant in the analysis made with discourse analysis. While the severity of the criticism was seen lightly after the 1980 coup, it stands out as quite strong towards the 2000s.
  2. In the classification of news and column articles, more attention is drawn to the problems in education management and decision-making mechanisms, while it is seen that problems such as student achievement and teacher training are less frequently mentioned. In fact, when these problems, which are too much to be separated from each other, are related to each other's reasons or consequences, from a holistic perspective, it is seen that there were problems in all areas of education in those years.
  3. There is an approach that recommends and demands constant changes for the solutions of the problems, but finds changes frequently and excessively. In fact, it is clear that problems and solutions cannot be properly addressed and examined. All authors and those interviewed expressed their own problem and solution suggestions according to their point of view. Continuous change desire and efforts led to incomprehensible discussions in education in this period, which can be called very problematic. As a result, a chaotic structure consisting of causes, consequences, suggestions and personal points of view is reflected in the discussions.
  4. The newspaper reflected its point of view in the selection of the people who contributed to the topic, content, and opinion. It put forward his statist and Kemalist perspective in all these preferences. In addition, while clearly revealing the point of view on religious issues in education, it did not give the society the right or opportunity to speak against those who disagreed (Milliyet, 1988). So from time to time, only one-axis discussions were included.
  5. During this period, due to the number of problems and the constant change of administration, there is no attitude to take the side of any government or its candidate, but periodic tendencies stand out. But for reflecting on problems and waiting for solutions, the critical line has generally remained.

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## EPISODE 2

### NATURE AND TEACHING OF SCIENCE

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#### INTRODUCTION

Awareness of the importance and comprehensibility of science and the nature of science has been a process that has been going on since the beginning of the 20th century. However, since the concept of “understanding the nature of science” did not really enter the literature at the beginning of the century, teaching the various characteristics of science was chosen as a target in science education. The study conducted by Kimbal in 1968 is one of the significant researches on the nature of science in the literature. In this study, Kimbal touched on the nature of science as a concept and made this concept enter the literature.

Efforts to understand the nature of science can be traced back to the early 1900s (Lederman, 1992). However, a common definition of the nature of science has not been made by scientists until now. Lederman and Zeidler (1987) said: “The nature of science is the values and assumptions peculiar to the development of scientific knowledge.” According to Lederman (1992), the nature of science is the beliefs and values in the process of accessing the nature, scope and source of knowledge or in the development of scientific knowledge. The nature of science is the integration of science and philosophy, history, sociology and psychology in order to understand the fundamental values and assumptions found in the development of scientific knowledge (Lederman, 1992; McComas, Clough, & Almazroa, 1998; Abd-El-Khalick & Lederman, 2000a). McComas et al. (1998) explains the nature of science as “The nature of science is a blend of features of various social sciences which includes science philosophy, science history and science sociology unified with the psychology for explanation of topics such as what science is, how it works, how scientists work as a social group, how society guides scientific efforts and reacts to such efforts”. It is possible to define the relationship of these disciplines with science as follows: While philosophy deals with what science is and how it works, sociology examines who scientists are and how they work and psychology analyzes the characters of scientists (Can, 2005; Şimşek, U., Küçük & Topkaya, 2012; Akman, 2016).

According to Taşar (2003), the nature of science covers “what science is, what the role of science is, who scientists are and what roles they play, accurate scientific evidences, observations, facts, rules, laws, scientific method and how science is done.” Schwartz (2004) states that the nature of science today is far from the traditional positivist perspective that defines science as phenomenon which is objective, subject to authority and independent from cultural influences and that it is defined in a post-modern framework based on the studies of philosophers such as Kuhn and Hanson and the relative structure of science (Aslan, 2009, p.20). As emphasized in these definitions, science does not consist of only facts, theories and laws. Science as a social activity includes many

factors such as the scientists who conduct research, the attitudes and understandings of these scientists, the methods and processes they use, and the society they live in. In other words, science is more than what is often reflected on us (Mathews, 1998; as cited in: İrez & Turgut, 2008).

(Çepni, 2007) The main purpose of teaching the nature of science is not to teach students philosophy as a field in itself; It is to help students realize the processes in the development of scientific knowledge (McComas, Clough, & Almazroa, 2000). Driver, Leach, Millar, and Scott (1996) explained why it is important to understand the nature of science under five headings as follows:

*Utilitarianism*: Understanding the nature of science is essential for understanding science and managing technological objects and processes in daily life.

*Democratic*: Understanding the nature of science is essential to making reliable decisions on socio-scientific matters.

*Cultural*: Understanding the nature of science is essential to determining the value of science as part of contemporary culture.

*Moral*: Understanding of the nature of science is necessary to understand the rules used in shaping traditional moral values for society.

*Science Teaching*: Understanding the nature of science is necessary to facilitate the learning of science-based subjects (Lederman, 2007).

### Dimensions of the Nature of Science

In the studies on the nature of science, there is no widely accepted definition. However, studies have been made on the nature of science and scientific knowledge, and the dimensions of the nature of science that scientists in this field agree on are presented in Figure Table 1. (Ryan and Aikenhead, 1992; Smith and Scharman, 1999; Lederman, Abd-El-Khalick, Bell and Schwartz, 2002):

**Table 1.** Elements of the Nature of Science Commonly Included in Studies

Researchers Conducted the Study	Elements of the Nature of Science										
	Changeability	Experimentality	Theory Requirement	Imagination and Creativity	Social and Cultural Effect	Theory and Law	Observation and Inference	Dependence of Elements on Each Other	Lack of Scientific Method	Science and Technology	Inability to Answer All Questions
<b>Abd-El-Khalick, Bell&amp;Lederman (1998)</b>	X	X		X		X	X				
<b>McComas (1998)</b>	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X

<b>Khishfe &amp; Abd-El-Khalick (2002)</b>	X	X	X		X
<b>Schwartz, Lederman &amp; Crawford (2004)</b>	X	X	X	X	X
<b>Lederman (2007)</b>	X	X	X	X	X
<b>Bell (2009)</b>	X	X	X	X	X

## 1. The Experimental Nature of Scientific Knowledge

Science is partly based on observation of the real world. The validity of scientific claims is determined by observing the events. Scientists cannot access many events in nature through direct observation. Observing nature is limited by our understanding and measurements, and the results we obtain are shaped by existing experimental studies and mostly based on basic assumptions based on measurements (Önen, 2011). Scientific approaches to science have common features, scientific explanations are supported by empirical evidence and are testable in nature (NSTA, 2000).

## 2. The Changeable Nature of Scientific Knowledge

All types of scientific knowledge (hypothesis, theory, law) can change in situations such as obtaining new data, reinterpreting previous studies from different angles, reconsidering old studies with a different method, and collecting data using more advanced technologies (McComas, 1998).

Although scientific knowledge is reliable and maintains its position, it is never absolute or absolute. Facts, theories, and laws change. The imprecision of science is not just due to the fact that scientific knowledge is dependent on experimental, creative, social and cultural elements. Contrary to popular belief, scientific hypotheses, theories and laws can never be proved by empirical evidence (Popper, 1963).

## 3. Observation-Inference Relationship in Science

Observation and inference are related but not the same. While the systematic examination of an object, event or reality in order to understand its qualities is observation, inference draws conclusions about the reasons of the data obtained as a result of these investigations and to make comments. Inferences should be logical and consistent with the observations on which they are based. Scientists' explanations about the world originate in part from what they think and observe (AAAS, 1993). Observations are statements about natural phenomena obtained with our sense organs. They are descriptive statements that observers can agree on relatively. For example, it is an observation that the Sun rises from the east every day. However, inferences are statements about events that cannot be reached with our senses. The statement that the reason the sun rises from the east every day is that the Earth rotates around its own axis in the west-east direction and completes its daily movement in 24 hours is an inference.

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#### **4. Scientific Theories and Laws**

Theories, laws, and hypotheses are types of scientific knowledge that are as much different as they are interrelated. Hypotheses are provisional ideas about a situation that are suggested and waiting to be tested. It is a well-constructed internally consistent system of explanations that contain facts, inferences, scientific predictions and tested hypotheses within theories, and has the power to explain certain aspects of nature or the physical universe (NRC, 1996; Khalick, 2006). Laws are definitions of the relationships between observable phenomena. While laws define the relationships between observable phenomena, theories are inferential explanations for observable phenomena (Lederman, 2007).

For example, Boyle's Law describes the relationship between pressures and volumes of gases at constant temperature. Theories are used to explain scientific laws. For example, Boyle's Law can be explained using molecular kinetic theory. In this regard, students think that there is a hierarchical superiority between scientific laws and theories, and if there is evidence, which is a false belief, they believe that theories will turn into laws over time. In fact, laws and theories are different kinds of information and do not translate into each other.

#### **5. Scientific Knowledge Is Loaded With Theory**

Scientists' theoretical and disciplinary statements, beliefs, prior knowledge, upbringing, experiences and expectations affect their studies. All these factors constitute a mindset that affects the problems that scientists will examine, how they will conduct their investigations, what they will observe and how they will explain their observations. This explains the role of theory in the formation of scientific knowledge. Against this general belief, science can never start with impartial observations, and observations are always initiated and directed by someone (Akt; Yıldırım, 2002; Popper, 1992).

#### **6. Imagination and Creativity in Science**

As can be understood in Einstein's statement "Logic takes you from point A to point B, and imagination takes you everywhere", creativity and imagination play a role in the development of scientific knowledge (NSTA, 2000). Scientific knowledge is created by investigating the logical causes of human imagination and events in nature. This creation is based on the observation of nature and the interpretation of these observations. The production and development of scientific knowledge includes human imagination and creativity as well as observation of nature. Contrary to popular belief, science is not lifeless, completely reasonable, and sequential activities. The explanations, inventions and theoretical issues contained in science are made as a result of the personal creativity of scientists. For example, again Einstein's words "Imagination is more important than knowledge. Because when knowledge is limited, imagination covers the whole world" reveals the importance of imagination in the development of scientific knowledge.

#### **7. Social and Cultural Nature of Scientific Knowledge**

Although science strives to be impartial, there is always a subjectivity in the development of scientific knowledge. Theories, beliefs, and previous knowledge, education, and experiences adopted by scientists affect their studies (NSTA, 2000). In addition, the social and cultural environment plays an effective role in the development

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of scientific knowledge. Scientists are influenced by the expectations, value judgments, wishes and needs of the society in which they live (Akerson et al., 2006; NSTA, 2000).

Science is an activity carried out by scientists in the society they live in. For this reason, science interacts with the culture and structure of the society it is in. These influences include social structure, different power sources, politics, socio-economic factors, philosophy and religious beliefs. Just as science is affected by the values of society, so is society affected by science. For this reason, there is a mutual interaction between science and society.

### **The Importance of Teaching the Nature of Science**

One of the most important themes in fundamental reform studies in science education is science literacy (Project 2061; AAAS 1990 and NRC 1996). While it is possible to make various definitions of science literacy, the most widely used of these definitions defines science literacy as the ability to access and use information, one of the building blocks that form the basis of lifelong learning and learning (AAAS 1990). Science literate individuals, on the other hand, are defined as individuals who can access information that rapidly changes and come across in various formats from various sources, use information and share information when they need information.

Scientific literacy in general is: “Understanding the nature of science, having scientific processing skills, positive attitude towards science, having basic scientific knowledge, understanding the relationship between science and society” (Weld, 2004). In general, it is possible to say that scientific literacy can be defined as:

- To understand the nature of science,
- To have scientific processing skills,
- To develop a positive attitude towards science,
- To have basic scientific knowledge,
- To understand the relationship between science and society (Weld, 2004).

A strong positive relationship has been built between students' knowledge of the nature of science, one of the sub-dimensions of scientific literacy, and their attitudes and behaviors towards learning science (Hogan, 2000).

The Royal Society (royal society) in England, which is a society similar to AAAS (American Association for Advancement of Science), which continues its studies on education in America, defined scientific literacy in three dimensions:

1. Understanding the content of science, events, issues, principles and theories.
2. Understanding scientific inquiry and the scientific approach to inquiry. The ability to describe scientific work and to separate scientific knowledge from non-scientific knowledge.
3. Understanding science as a social enterprise (Driver, 1996; as cited in, Macarоglу, 1999: 29).

Next Generation Science Standards for kindergartens, primary schools, secondary schools and high schools [Next Generation Science Standards, NGSS], which was

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conducted in 26 States in the USA, was prepared and published on 09.04.2013 with the support, views and contributions of NRC, NSTA, AAAS and Achieve. According to NGSS (2013), three dimensions are defined based on the nature of science myths and the nature of science elements.

1. Scientific and Engineering Practices: The emphasis in this dimension is not just engineering, but its aspects that develop scientific thinking such as patterns, theories and models. In this sense, it will be easier for students to establish meaningful relationships between science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) fields and their daily lives.
2. Crosscutting Concepts: These are similar concepts and practices in various fields and their relations with each other. These are patterns, similarity and diversity; Cause and effect; Scale, rate and quantity; System and system models; Energy and issue; Structure and function; Stability and change. What is important here is that these concepts in various fields of science are given to students in a direct-reflective manner, helping them to create an interrelated organizational scheme.
3. Disciplinary Core Ideas: This dimension mentions the importance of field knowledge on the subject. In NGSS (2013), four important features related to this dimension are listed, these are: Being an organized key concept of a discipline or having wide importance in many science or engineering disciplines; providing a key tool in researching and understanding complex ideas and solving problems; the connection of social or personal interests that relate to students' interests and life experiences, or require scientific and technological knowledge, and the ability to be learned and taught at many levels at an increasingly deep and philosophical level. Since the integration of these dimensions prepares the ground for learning and teaching the nature of science, it is emphasized in the mentioned NGSS (2013) that knowledge of the nature of science is needed in carrying out more research and activities. Again, in NGSS (2013) mentioning that raising science literate people who understand the nature of scientific knowledge is one of the main objectives of high school science education, the validity of the changeable nature of scientific knowledge in all disciplines is also emphasized in the light of new evidence (cited in: Özcan, 2013, NGSS, 2013).

Understanding the nature of science includes understanding the scientific processes, the ways of scientific thinking, the aims of scientists in doing science, their future goals, how science, technology and society influence and nurture each other. In addition, individuals who can understand the nature of science will be able to be scientifically literate. Driver summarized why we need to understand the nature of science with a few ideas (Cited in: Macaroglu, Sahin, Baysal, 1999, 56). The study states that, people need to understand the nature of science:

1. If they want to understand science and technological objects we encounter in daily life
2. If they want to make socio-scientific issues meaningful for them and participate in the decision-making process on them
3. If they want to see science as an element of contemporary culture

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4. If they want to consciously understand the norms and values put forth by the scientific community about the nature of science
  5. If they want to be successful in learning the content of science.

## **Teaching Methods of the Nature of Science**

Although there is broad agreement on what types of approaches can be used to teach teachers and students the nature of science and what types of approaches might be more effective, there are different opinions about the classification of these approaches (Abd-El-Khalick and Lederman, 2000; Khishfe and Abd-El-Khalick 2002 ; Köseoğlu, Tümay and Üstün, 2008). While the approaches used in teaching the nature of science are divided into two groups by some researchers as implicit and explicit-reflective approaches (Abd-El-Khalick and Lederman, 2000; Akindehin 1988; Bybee, 2001; Eick, 2000; Schwartz, Lederman & Crawford, 2004; Solomon et al., 1992), there are also researchers who divide the approaches used in teaching the nature of science into three groups by adding the historical approach in addition to these two (Khishfe and Abd-El-Khalick, 2002).

### **1. Indirect Approach (Implicit)**

In this approach, it is advocated that individuals' understanding of the nature of science will develop spontaneously when they participate in scientific research without directly mentioning the nature of science, that is, when individuals engage in scientific research activities. The indirect approach emphasizes the necessity of doing science, participating in scientific studies and teaching process skills in order to understand the nature of science. Researchers who adapt the indirect approach to their lessons usually aim to teach the nature of science with the help of scientific process skills, scientific research activities, or certain characteristics they manipulate into the learning environment (Abd-El Khalick & Lederman, 2000).

McComas (1996) stated that in the indirect approach, students will learn by doing science best, and that no extra effort is needed. This approach, in which there is no additional effort in learning the nature of science, is described as limited by some researchers, since it does not focus directly on the nature of science (Lederman, 1992; Abd-El-Khalick & Lederman, 2000a; Moss, 2001). The indirect approach was included in the program content in the program studies conducted in the fields of physical sciences study program (The Physical Science Study Curriculum) (PSSC) and the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study (BSCS) in the 1960s and 1970s. However, the results obtained revealed that the indirect approach was not effective in developing the understanding of the nature of science. Despite these results, the view that individuals can improve their understanding of the nature of science by engaging in scientific research activities and taking part in the indirect approach still maintains its validity. However, understanding the nature of science should be considered as a cognitive learning outcome and taught individuals with a direct approach (Khishfe & Abd-El Khalick, 2002).

### **2. Direct and Reflective Approach (Explicit-Reflective)**

In the Direct and Reflective Approach, it is argued that learners' views on the nature of science should be developed and "It should be a planned process, not as a side effect or as a secondary product". In this approach, elements of the nature of science are treated like other science subjects, principles, theory and laws, and special effort is

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made to teach the nature of science. Various materials and activities, covering elements of the nature of science, are organized and implemented during the lesson. Learners are expected to make inferences about the nature of science in the activities carried out in the classroom, and as a result, learning environments where the elements of the nature of science can be discussed clearly. In addition to this, learners are expected to associate the gains they have gained from the activities with the studies made by scientists and to make reflections.

Akerson and Abd-El-Khalick (2003) stated that pedagogical strategies in education should be transformed from an indirect approach to a direct reflective approach. It is stated in researches that teaching with direct reflective approach is more effective than both indirect and historical approach (Köseoğlu et al., 2008; Khishfe & Abd-El-Khalick, 2002; Önen, 2011; Özcan, 2013). Abd-El-Khalick (2001) used a direct reflective approach for teaching the nature of science within the physics course organized for prospective classroom teachers of the American University of Beirut. He found that participant views developed significantly regarding the nature of scientific knowledge: transitory, experimental, theory-laden, inferential, imaginative, and creative. In addition, it was observed that participant views developed regarding the relationship between theory and law and the difference between observation and inference. The researcher states that the direct reflective approach is quite successful for teaching.

In our country, the subject of the nature of science has been included in the 9th grade class program of the biology course from the academic year of 2013-14 with the statement of "Teaching the nature of scientific knowledge was included directly in the biology curriculum as a separate subject, and in other units in the program, the continuity of the teaching of the nature of scientific knowledge was ensured by supporting activities such as examining the history of science, conducting scientific studies or examining scientific studies". The extent to which the implementation of the program contributes to the views of biology teachers and secondary school 9th grade students on the nature of science, as well as the effect of additional activities based on the process with a direct reflective approach and distance education of teachers has not been investigated. In this respect, the research will contribute to the literature.

### **3. Historical Approach**

In this approach, worksheets such as scientific developments occurring in the field of education, the studies of scientists working in this field, life stories, society and culture where they live, anecdotes from their lives are used in order to develop the perspective of the nature of science. In this way, it is aimed that students perceive that scientific knowledge can change, that the conditions of the society in which scientists lead their lives can shape their work and that different societies contribute to the development of science. The History of Science Cases for High Schools (HOSC) and Harvard Project Physics (HPP) course are known as two important programs developed based on the historical approach (Khishfe and Abd-El-Khalick, 2002). However, in the research conducted by Wieder (2006), it was determined that the historical approach is an effective method in terms of time, but it is not important enough in the associations that students have made regarding the nature of science. Also, some researchers have argued that the studies conducted in this approach can also be done with direct and indirect approaches.

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## Evaluation of the Nature of Science

In studies on the nature of science, the subject of evaluation is trying to make sense of the learning outcomes filled in by learners during the study. Although many tools have been developed in the literature to evaluate the nature of science, their validity is still a topic discussed in the literature. The most important scales can be shown as VNOS-A, VNOS-B, VNOS-C, VNOS-D, VNOS-E, VOSTS, NSKS. These assessment scales consist of Likert-type scale items, open-ended questions with paragraphs, multiple choice and / or multiple choice questions. In addition to these scales, perhaps the most important evaluation technique in terms of the nature of science is interview (semi-structured etc.). Aikenhead (1988) made evaluations as follows in his study on these 4 assessment techniques.

**Likert-type scales:** Answers reached with this scale only suggest an estimate of students' beliefs. The chances of making an accurate assessment in the real sense are very low. The uncertainty often reaches the level of 80%.

**Scales consisting of open-ended questions with paragraphs:** In this scale, the uncertainty for the answers reached varies between approximately 35% and 50%, which makes it better than the Likert-type scale. The uncertainty here stems from the tendency of some students to write incomplete or incomprehensible paragraphs.

**Scales consisting of multiple-choice and / or multiple-choice questions:** The uncertainty is at the level of 15% to 20% in the experimentally obtained multi-choice evaluation.

**Interview:** Interviews are probably one of the most understandable and most accurate evaluations. However, in this assessment technique, the researcher needs a lot of time to collect and analyze data. The uncertainty is about 5% (Aikenhead, 1988).

The measurement tools used to determine the views on the nature of science are given in Table 2 in detail (Önen, 2011).

**Table 2.** Measuring tools used to measure views on the nature of science

YEAR	MEASURING TOOL	RESEARCHER(S)
1954	Science Attitude Questionnaire	Wilson
1958	Facts About Science Test (FAST)	Stice
1961	Test on Understanding Science (TOUS)	Cooley & Klopfer
1962	Processes of Science Test	BSCS
1966	Inventory of Science Attitudes, Interests, and Appreciations	Swan
1967	Science Process Inventory (SPI)	Welch
1967	Wisconsin Inventory of Science Processes (WISP)	Scientific Literacy Research Center
1968	Science Support Scale	Schwirian
1968	Nature of Science Scale (NOSS)	Kimball

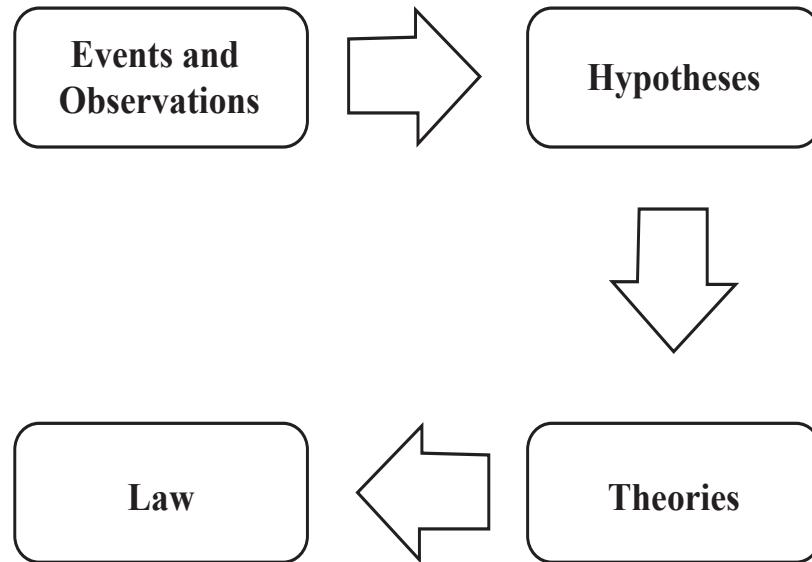
<b>1969</b>	Test on the Social Aspects of Science (TSAS)	Korth
<b>1970</b>	Science Attitude Inventory (SAI)	Moore & Sutman
<b>1974</b>	Science Inventory (SI)	Hungerford & Walding
<b>1975</b>	Nature of Science Test (NOST)	Billeh & Hasan
<b>1975</b>	Views of Science Test (VOST)	Hillis
<b>1976</b>	Nature of Scientific Knowledge Scale (NSKS)	Rubba
<b>1978</b>	Test of Science-Related Attitudes (TOSRA)	Fraser
<b>1980</b>	Test of Enquiry Skills (TOES)	Fraser
<b>1981</b>	Conception of Scientific Theories Test (COST)	Cotham & Smith
<b>1982</b>	Language of Science (LOS)	Ogunniy
<b>1987</b>	Views on Science-Technology-Society (VOSTS)	Aikenhe
<b>1990</b>	Views of Nature of Science A (VNOS-A)	Lederman & O'Malley
<b>1992</b>	Modified Nature of Scientific Knowledge Scale	Meichtry
<b>1995</b>	Critical Incidents	Nott & Wellington
<b>1998</b>	Views of Nature of Science B (VNOS-B)	Abd-El Khalick, Bell, & Lederman
<b>2000</b>	Views of Nature of Science C (VNOS-C)	Abd-El Khalick& Lederman
<b>2002</b>	Views of Nature of Science D (VNOS-D)	Lederman & Khishfe
<b>2004</b>	Views of Nature of Science E (VNOS-E)	Lederman

### Myths of the Nature of Science

Studies on teaching the nature of science show that there are some problems in this regard. One of the most important of these problems is that both learners and teachers have false beliefs about the nature of science. These false beliefs arise from causes such as the professional experience of the teachers, the expectations for the learners, and the insufficient education for the nature of science (Schwartz, 2007).

Fifteen different false beliefs about the nature of science have been stated in the literature and these beliefs have been defined under certain headings in the study of McComas (1998).

***Myth 1 Hypotheses Become Theories, Theories Become Laws:*** In this myth, there is a belief that a scientific idea follows a developmental sequence from one to another with increasing evidence and finally comes to the law, which is the most advanced step (McComas, 1998, p.54 and 2002, pp. 431-432).



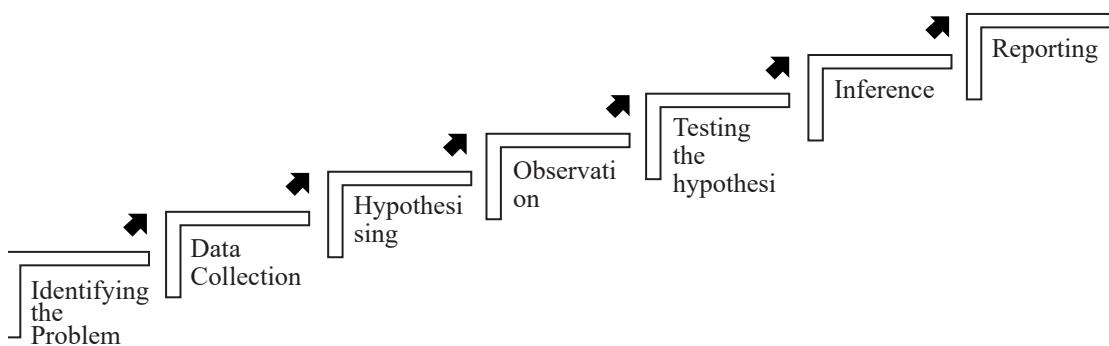
**Figure 1.** False hierarchical relationship between events, hypotheses, theories and law.

According to this myth, hypotheses and theories are less reliable than laws. Theory and laws are two very different types of scientific knowledge, but the error in this matter causes the theory and laws to be described as two different forms of the same knowledge structure. Of course, there is a relationship between theory and law, but this relationship is not that one constitutes the other. Laws are generalizations of events or principles in nature, and theories are explanations of these generalizations.

**Myth 2. Scientific Laws are Certain:** This myth contains two elements, individuals rarely understand that all knowledge in science is changeable, even if they believe that scientific laws and theories are of equal importance. Sometimes they consider the proofs in science equal to proofs in mathematics (McComas, 1998, pp. 54-56 and 2002, p. 432).

**Myth 3. Hypothesis is an Information-Based Estimate:** There are at least three definitions of the term hypothesis. For this reason, it can be abandoned, relocated, or at least used carefully. The term hypothesis can be expressed in multiple definitions, including generalizing, predictive and explanatory hypotheses.

**Myth 4. The Existence of a General and Universal Method:** There is a false belief that there is only one scientific method carried out by scientists and followed in a certain order while conducting a scientific study. The fact that the scientific method suggested by Peorsan only as a scientific method was mentioned in the resources of science lessons led to the formation of this false belief without being aware of it.



**Figure 2.** Scientific method steps [Adapted from McComas (1998, p. 57).]

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**Myth 5. Carefully Collected Evidence Result in Definitive Information:** All researchers, including scientists, collect and interpret experimental data during a process called induction. This is a technique by which pieces of evidence are collected and studied until a new law is discovered or a new theory is invented. However, even if there is superior evidence, this technique is not a guarantee for the production of precise information due to the induction problem (McComas, 1998, pp. 58-59 and 2002, p. 434).

**Myth 6. Science and the Methods of Science Provide Definitive Evidence:** The general result of a scientific research is that products must be valid. However, science tends to change as new knowledge is acquired. Scientific endeavors are generally considered successful to the extent that they can produce products (McComas, 1998, pp. 59-60 and 2002, pp. 434-435). In other words, this myth focuses on the fact that science and its methods provide concrete outputs or evidence for which there is no debate.

**Myth 7. Science is Methodological rather than Creative:** According to this myth, although scientific pursuits cannot guarantee success, the awareness of induction and the collection and interpretation of some data used as raw materials in forming theories and laws are mandatory procedures in the formation of these scientific endeavors (McComas, 1998, p. 60-61 and 2002, p.435).

**Myth 8. The Methods of Science and Science Can Answer All Questions:** Science philosophers find Karl Popper's falsifiability principle useful in providing a functional definition of science. For example, the law of gravity can be falsified by finding objects that move differently with respect to gravity (if found one day).

**Myth 9. Scientists Are Neutral:** According to this myth, scientists carry out all their studies in an open minded and impartial manner, in order to reach precise facts (Palmquist & Finley, 1997). Scientists are no more objective than other people. Scientists are careful when analyzing data and drawing conclusions. However, this fact does not make them completely objective. Indeed, the philosophy and psychology of science defends this fact.

**Myth 10. Experiments are the Main Ways to Access Scientific Knowledge:** Because of this myth, students associate science with experiments throughout their school life. Correct experiments include methods consisting of control and experimental groups and aims to find the cause-effect relationship. Of course, accurate experimentation is the most useful tool in science, but it is not the only route. Many notable scientists use non-experimental techniques to advance knowledge. In fact, it is not possible to make an accurate experiment due to the insufficiency of control variables in many disciplines (McComas, 1998, p. 64 and 2002, pp. 437-438).

**Myth 11. Scientific Results Are Revised for Accuracy:** This myth frequently describes the methods used by other students to repeat the laboratory reports while preparing them. This type of result instills in students the idea that scientists also control each other's work. While this kind of thinking is helpful, it is rare that the results obtained are checked by different people. The most important reason for this is that scientists are busy and budgets are not enough. This type of control is usually done when the current paradigm conflicts with the results obtained (McComas, 1998, p. 65 and 2002, p. 438).

**Myth 12. New Scientific Information Are Directly Accepted:** According to this myth, when much more correct (!) And new interpretations are made for scientific

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evidence, these comments are immediately responded to and accepted by the scientific community. In other words, a new idea that is not far from the expectations of scientists, especially if someone from the field speaks, this idea will find its place in scientific journals without encountering too many problems (McComas, 1998, pp. 65-66 and 2002, p. 439).

**Myth 13. Scientific Models Represent Reality:** This belief is accepted by both scientists and other people in society, and this is due to the philosophical view of realism and instrumentalism. Realism is a state of what science produces and allows accurate predictions to be produced. One of the main limitations in science is that the nature of the “correct” reality is never known. Because there is no one who can answer these questions and knows everything. Science wants to answer the questions of the world and get as close as possible to the truth. However, there are no signs to show that the results reached by scientists are correct.

**Myth 14. Science and Technology are Identical:** Most people believe that science and technology are the same concepts, and therefore television, rockets, computers and refrigerators are science or applied science (McComas, 1998, p.67 and 2002, p.440 ).

**Myth 15. Science Is A Solo Endeavor:** According to this myth, great scientific discoveries are made alone by great scientists, so that Nobel prizes are awarded to individual scientist achievements rather than research groups. Therefore, science is a work done alone and individually (McComas, 1998, p. 68 and 2002, p. 440).

### **Teaching the Nature of Science Associated with Biology Course Topics**

Teaching the nature of science is generally carried out with activities developed for the nature of science (Lederman & Abd-El-Khalick, 1998, p. 4). However, in particular, teachings of the nature of science integrated or associated with the content of a science subject will be more useful and more relevant. Teaching the nature of science associated with the content of a science subject is one of the important points researched by many researchers in the literature (Abd-El-Khalick and Lederman, 2000b; Abd-El-Khalick, 2002; Niess, 2005; Akerson et al., 2006; Hanuscin et al. , 2006; Schepigie, 2006; Khishfe and Lederman, 2006). The most important advantage of teaching the nature of science associated with the content of a science subject is that it helps learners to learn meaningfully about science content (Sarikaya, 2013). However, deficiencies such as planning errors in time and insufficient preparation for the lesson can turn this advantage into an undesirable situation such as not being able to learn the science content or the nature of science sufficiently (Abd-El-Khalick, 2002).

As a result, the concept of the nature of science can be simply explained as a field that tries to understand questions such as what is science, how scientific knowledge is obtained, how science society formed by scientists is organized and how societies and science mutually effect each other. As it is tried to be explained in this definition, science does not consist of only facts, theories and laws. Science, which is carried out as a human activity by scientists, includes the attitudes and understandings of scientists, their preferred methods and approaches, and the societies of which scientists are members. For this reason, education in science is not just about understanding and learning the information revealed by science. In addition to these, it requires supporting the social applications offered by science to humanity, understanding the thinking processes and skills used by science and the limitations of science.

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## EPISODE 3

# POLICIES FOR SELECTING, TRAINING AND APPOINTING SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS IN TURKEY BETWEEN 1980 AND 2000

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## INTRODUCTION

For a country to achieve sustainable development, it is very important that all institutions of that country work in harmony according to a certain system and support each other. Education, with its direct impact on human resources of all institutions, also has great importance for all societies. Education, on the one hand, helps individuals socialize, discover their interests and abilities, acquire professions, and develop from various perspectives, on the other hand, helps societies to transfer cultural heritage to future generations, to develop economically, to have a stable political structure, and to raise good citizens.

Education should be considered as a process that starts from birth and continues throughout life. Several factors affect the education of the individual in this process. First of all, the family in which an individual is raised is very important for the education of that individual. Individuals receive their first education in the family, and the educational process at school in later life becomes successful to the extent that it is supported by the family. Therefore, the second and important station in the lifelong education process is schools. It can be said that from past to present, schools have not been the only option for education but have been the most approved option by people and societies. This situation can be evaluated depending on many factors. Schools are the places where individual and social goals related to education are achieved in a planned manner. Along with the globalization process, schools are expected to raise global citizens with the necessary qualifications in terms of international competition, economic and cultural cooperation, technology and information exchange, and environmental protection (Şışman, 2018).

To achieve individual and social goals and raise qualified students in schools, which are an open social system, the physical and personnel needs of schools need to be met effectively. It can be said that physical elements in a school such as schoolyard, canteen, cafeteria, transportation, security (such as fire, emergency aid, earthquake), cleaning, information technology, library and media centers, the location, capacity, and outdoor spaces of schools, operation and maintenance of the school building, and areas, classrooms, laboratories, and gymnasiums for disabled individuals (Göksoy, 2017; Topkaya & Yıldız, 2015) affect the learning-teaching processes in schools. However, the quality of educational activities carried out in schools does not only depend on physical infrastructure. Functional educational programs are also very important to sustain educational processes in the desired direction and in a planned manner. The competencies of both teachers and school administrators have undeniable effects on the

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effective coordination, planning, and implementation of physical infrastructure as well as functional educational programs. While teachers' competencies come to the forefront in the implementation of education and training processes, school administrators' competencies come to the forefront in the processes related to school administration.

Schools are organized structures designed to achieve educational goals. To achieve common goals in organized structures, management plays an important role in ensuring cooperation and coordination among people. In achieving these common goals, management decides on the method by which the goals are achieved, the persons who will achieve the goals, how they will collaborate, the division of labor among them, and how the activities will be coordinated (Karip, 2014). School administration, as a subset of educational administration, can be described as the structure that aims to achieve the goals and pursue policies of the school organization and to maintain the school in accordance with the goals and policies of the organization (Demirtaş, Üstüner & Özer, 2007). The school administration plans, supervises, and evaluates educational processes as well as ensures coordination among teachers. When fulfilling these tasks, the school administration determines the positive and negative aspects of the physical and human infrastructure in the school and aims to improve them. Considering the several mechanisms that make up the school administration, it would be wrong to say that the school administration consists only of administrators. Nevertheless, school administrators assume important roles in terms of their involvement in and effects on all administration processes in the school.

School administrators should possess various personal and professional features and qualifications due to the nature of their duties. In schools described as a network of relationships due to their function (Bursalıoğlu, 2015);, administrators' communication skills come to the fore. To be able to carry out administrative activities in the school in an effective way, school administrators should be calm, extroverted, and empathetic individuals who are open to communication, at peace with themselves, and can express themselves effectively and clearly. Administrators are expected to be trustworthy role models for other school employees with their exemplary behaviors. Further, fairness in behaviors and practices is another factor affecting administrative activities. This is because employees' organizational justice perceptions cause positive attitudes and behaviors, and if they do not think that their organizations and managers are fair enough, they may develop undesirable behaviors (Özgan & Bozbayındır, 2011). In addition, school administrators' leadership in matters related to teaching processes, ethics, and professional development are also key elements for the development of the school. School administrators' leadership behaviors are related to their professional characteristics as well as their personality traits. Mentoring teachers about matters related to the teaching profession, considering ethical principles in their behavior at all times, being specialized in technical issues related to school administration, and leading the professional development of school employees are very important issues in terms of school administrators' personal and professional reputation. Açıkalın (2016), who addressed these features as a whole, summarized the characteristics of the modern school administrator as follows: (i) having extensive knowledge of human beings (ii) having effective communication skills, (iii) having dominant leadership traits, (iv) using mother tongue correctly and beautifully, (v) being trained in philosophy, mathematics, and civilization history, (vi) knowing at least one foreign language, (vii) having a command of communication technology, managing information, (viii) being physically and mentally healthy, and (ix) believing in human progress.

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Before discussing the developments about selecting, training, and appointing school administrators that took place in Turkey between 1980 and 2000, we should summarize the trends in training school administrators.

## Models Related to the Training of School Administrators

Considering the policies regarding the training of school administrators implemented since the foundation of the Republic of Turkey, three basic approaches draw attention: *apprenticeship model, educational sciences model, and examination model* (Şimşek, 2004; Recepoglu & Kılınç, 2014; Selvi et al., 2019).

The apprenticeship model is a training process based on experience to be obtained in the school environment without the need for additional training (Dağ, 2015). In this model, school administrators were able to become administrators depending on their seniority in the teaching profession and they learned about school administration by trial and error method or by observing previous administrators (Ağaoğlu, Altinkurt, Yılmaz, & Karaköse, 2012). In the apprenticeship model, it is seen that Article 12 of the Law No. 789 on the Ministry of Education (“Teaching is what really matters in the teaching profession”) was implemented (Balçı, 2008). According to this model, being a teacher was sufficient to become a school administrator. In other words, school administration was not seen as a profession, and the understanding that “management skills are not learned at school” prevailed (Şimşek, 2002). This model was the model implemented for many years in Turkey for training school administrators. It is possible to see the apprenticeship model used until the 1970s as a natural result of the centralist approach of our education system (Balçı, 2008; Akman, 2016). Şimşek (2004) states that our education system is based on centralized foundations as a result of the organization of public institutions and that school administrators act as a representative or officer of the central authority. According to Şimşek, the apprenticeship model, in this aspect, is similar to the administrator training models of countries such as France, Italy, Sweden, and Denmark, which were shaped by the Bonapartist tradition. According to Taş and Önder (2010), the apprenticeship model that was applied for a long time for training school administrators was shelved with the “Regulation on the Appointment and Relocation of the Administrators of the Educational Institutions Affiliated to the Ministry of National Education” published in the Official Gazette dated 23.09.1998 and numbered 23472.

Educational sciences model that emerged in Turkey in the late 1970s as a scientific model regarding the training of school administrators is based on the assumption that management is a scientific field of study and that the persons to be administrators should have scientific knowledge in basic areas related to educational administration (Karabatak & Şengür, 2018). In accordance with this model, “educational administration and planning” undergraduate programs were opened in many education faculties in Turkey, and students graduated from these programs (Okçu, 2011). According to this model, which is also accepted by academic circles, students received undergraduate education in basic areas such as organization, management, and leadership (Şimşek, 2004). According to the educational sciences model, which was defined in the 14th National Education Council held in 1993 as an effective way to train educational administrators (Balçı, 2008), the students to graduate from the “educational administration and planning” department would be appointed as school administrators by the Ministry of National Education; however, this decision has not been fulfilled since that day, and graduates of the department were employed in some teaching fields later (Selvi et al., 2019).

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Finally, the examination model started to be implemented with the “Regulation on the Appointment and Relocation of the Administrators of the Educational Institutions Affiliated to the Ministry of National Education” published in the Official Gazette dated 23.09.1998 and numbered 23472 (Balcı, 2008). With this regulation, some additional criteria (such as having a master’s degree in any field and having a published scientific paper in fields such as education, training, management, and business administration) started to be considered in the appointment of school administrators (Şimşek, 2004). With this model, the “examination” criterion also started to be used for the selection of school administrators, and the first selection examination was held in 1998 (Özdemir, 2009). Persons wishing to become school administrators were required to take this exam. Candidates who succeeded in the exam also had to attend the 120-hour administrator training program (Yaşaroğlu, 2010). Those who successfully completed this program were given a certificate of administration with a validity of five years (Balcı, 2008). Şimşek (2004) argues that this application, which, as a prerequisite, required candidates to obtain at least 70 points from the administrator selection examination, was a mechanism of “weeding out the less qualified candidates” and did not fundamentally change the traditional “apprenticeship model” in training administrators. On the other hand, Taş and Önder (2004) state that this regulation, issued in 1998, can be regarded as the beginning of professionalization of school administrators, as it is the first regulation in the history of Turkish education that envisioned training administrators in the field of management prior to service.

Apart from these models that have been applied in Turkey for training school administrators, we can also mention the “*arbitrariness model*”, which was discussed by Balcı for the first time in the literature (2008). Stating that the regulations issued in 2004 and 2007 first abrogated the 120-hour training program and then the administrator selection exam, Balcı argues that rules and standards were thus removed in the appointment of school administrators.

### **Political Developments Between 1980 and 2000**

The education system of a country cannot be evaluated independently of the political, economic, social, and cultural structure of that country. Because the Republic of Turkey was founded in 1923, it can be said that Turkey’s government system and hence its institutions have not yet reached a fully systematic and institutional structure. As a result, public institutions sometimes entered into each others’ area of responsibility, leading to bureaucratic chaos. Military interventions, especially in politics, have had many negative effects on the education system as well as on the society and politicians. It is known that until 1980, two military interventions, namely 1960 and 1971 military coups, had been carried out in Turkey. Further, on September 12, 1980, the Turkish Armed Forces seized the state administration “to protect the integrity of the country, to ensure unity and solidarity, to prevent a possible civil war and brotherly strife, to re-establish the authority and existence of the state and to do away with the causes that are preventing the democratic order from functioning” (Akyüz, 2007, p. 413). On the other hand, another process affecting Turkey’s education system was initiated by the decisions taken by the National Security Council on February 28, 1997. In addition to these military coups, it is observed that 14 different governments took office in Turkey between 1980 and 2000 (Governments by Parties, 2020). Military interventions and frequent government changes have led to constant changes in the education system and a lack of stability in educational policies.

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The most important information regarding the selection, training, and appointment of school administrators in Turkey between 1980 and 2000 can be obtained from the decisions taken in the National Education Councils and related legal regulations. Below are the decisions taken in the National Education Councils held between these years, the relevant directives and regulations.

### School Administration in National Education Councils

National Education Councils are scientific meetings attended by various circles such as representatives of the Ministry of National Education, scientists, educators, and other institutions related to education, where problems of Turkish National Education are discussed and solutions are proposed for them (Aydin, 2009). The decisions taken in the National Education Council, which is the highest advisory board of the Ministry, are advisory. From past to present day, a total of 19 National Education Councils have been held. The first council was held in 1939 and the last one in 2014. Also, seven National Education Councils were held between 1980 and 2000 (National Education Councils, 2020).

**Table 1.** National Education Councils held between 1980 and 2000

No	National Education Councils	Date
1	10th National Education Council	23-26 June 1981
2	11th National Education Council	8-11 June 1982
3	12th National Education Council	18-22 June 1988
4	13th National Education Council	15-19 January 1990
5	14th National Education Council	27-29 September 1993
6	15th National Education Council	13-17 May 1996
7	16th National Education Council	22-26 February 1999

#### 1) 10th National Education Council

The first council held between 1980 and 2000 was the 10th National Education Council held between 23 and 26 June 1981. In this first council held after the military coup of September 12, 1980, the new Turkish National Education System model was discussed. The problem of training educational administrators was, on the other hand, discussed from a macro perspective during the council, and the responsibility of training administrators was assigned to the central organization of the Ministry of National Education. The central organization was assigned with the duties of collaborating with the institutions involved in the pre-service and in-service training of educational administrators and of determining the standards for the appointment of educational administrators (Çelik, 1990). Although the agenda of the council did not contain any items related to school administration, when the decisions taken are examined, it is seen that two decisions were related to school administration. The Council's decision numbered

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13 stipulated “*In-service training for teachers, administrators, and expert personnel working in existing pre-school education institutions*”. Also, decision numbered 34 stipulated “*Providing in-service training for teachers, administrators, and experts*” (Ministry of National Education [MoNE], 1981). Considering these decisions, it is seen that the council recommended that school administrators receive in-service training and that this task was assigned to the central organization of the ministry.

## **2) 11th National Education Council**

11th National Education Council was held between 8 and 11 June 1982. The council’s agenda focused mainly on teacher training and the problems of educational experts. Throughout this council, ten areas of expertise that should be included in the education system and the titles of expertise to be awarded to those who would work in these areas were determined. In the council, where educational administration was also discussed as an area of expertise, the educational administrator was defined as “an expert qualified in managing educational services in different systems, institutions, and levels, and trained in theoretical field and practice”. Further, the duties of the educational administrator were determined as the following three items (MoNE, 1982).

1. The educational administrator manages the works regarding educational programs, student services, personnel services, budget affairs, and educational buildings, tools, and materials in various educational institutions, schools, education levels.
2. He/she carries out the administrative processes effectively to achieve the educational goals of the institution, school, or education level he/she manages.
3. He/she ensures that the subsystems of the organization he/she manages operate as a whole, in a way to achieve the organizational goals.

Once the duties of educational administrators as an expert were specified, a model for the training of educational administrators was proposed during the council, which sets this council apart from other councils. According to this model, in order to become an educational administrator, it was required to obtain a master’s degree, and individuals who received a bachelor’s degree in educational administration could be appointed as assistant administrators (assistant expert). In this direction, the following two items were included regarding those who would become educational administrators (MoNE, 1982).

1. Those to become educational administrators are required to receive courses, at the undergraduate level, in educational sciences, other sciences fundamental to education, and management sciences. They are required to receive courses such as management science, educational administration, management law, educational inspection, student services management, and personnel services management. Further, they are required to have completed internship programs comprising field studies and practical studies.
2. At the graduate level, they are required to receive application-oriented specialization courses in educational and management sciences and conduct a thesis study.

The 11th National Education Council made significant contributions to the training of educational administrators by considering educational administration as an area of expertise, determining the duties of the educational administrators, and proposing a model for educational administration. However, one of the items included in the resolution

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text of the council under the section “General standards of the teaching profession” was “Those trained in the teaching profession are responsible for education, training and management services when assigned.” This item demonstrates that the council still considered educational administration as an extension of the teaching profession.

### **3) 12th National Education Council**

The 12th National Education Council was held between 18 and 22 June 1988. The agenda of the council was gathered under seven headings: Turkish education system, higher education, teacher training, new technologies in education, Turkish and foreign language education and training, funding for education, and curricula. As can be seen, the council did not specifically address educational and school administration. However, this issue was addressed under the title of teacher training, and the following suggestions were made regarding educational administration (MoNE, 1988).

**Decision No 26.** Adopting educational administration as a branch and training prospective educational administrators to be elected by exam from among teachers in long-term in-service training courses to be determined by the ministry; institutionalizing this situation.

**Decision No 28.** Evaluating in terms of personal rights the success of teachers attending and succeeding in in-service training; making legal arrangements on this subject and considering these evaluations in the promotion to higher positions.

**Decision No 36.** Evaluating and rewarding diligent and successful teachers within the career order and competition system by means of title, salary, promotion to higher positions, and similar ways.

Educational administration, considered as a profession in the 11th National Education Council, was addressed as a branch in the 12th National Education Council. The model of electing people to work as educational administrators from among teachers by exam was adopted. In addition, it was proposed to provide long-term in-service training to candidates who have succeeded in the exam before they become a school administrator and to institutionalize this training. Further, it was emphasized that the personal rights of candidates who have succeeded in in-service training should be improved and this success should be taken into consideration in the promotion to higher positions.

### **4) 13th National Education Council**

The 13th National Education Council was held between 15 and 19 January 1990. All of the agenda items of the council were related to non-formal education: concept, scope, and trends in non-formal education; organization and cooperation in non-formal education; investment and funding in non-formal education; personnel in non-formal education. During this council, no topic was discussed and no decision was taken regarding the training of educational and school administrators.

### **5) 14th National Education Council**

The 14th National Education Council was held between 27 and 29 September 1993. The agenda of this council consisted of two items: management of education and educational administration; preschool education. This council was the first council to address the management of education and educational administration as a separate topic. At the end of the council, the following decisions were taken on this issue (MoNE, 1993).

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**Decision No 2.** The National Education Academy will be made functional. (In terms of Investment, Education, Curricula, and Operation)

**Decision No 3.** Central, Provincial, and Overseas Organizations of the Ministry of National Education will be reviewed, and these will be given a functional structure; legislative arrangements will be made regarding the qualifications, titles, appointments, and relocations of the administrators and experts to work in these organizations.

**Decision No 4.** In educational administration, specialization and hierarchical promotion will be taken as a basis and the powers of the administrators will be increased.

**Decision No 5.** Current educational administrators will be trained in cooperation with universities; those bearing the qualifications that administrators should have will be included in the educational administration program.

**Decision No 11.** For the administrators and teachers to be able to fulfill the duties expected from them, they will receive training before and during service.

The topic of training educational administrators, which was discussed in various councils, was addressed most comprehensively in the 14th National Education Council. The decisions taken at the 14th National Education Council indicate that importance was attached to specialization in educational administration. It was decided to introduce criteria for the selection of educational administrators, to include those bearing these features in the educational administration program, and to increase the powers of the administrators. This decision also indicates that the understanding “Teaching is what really matters in the teaching profession” was no more adopted and that educational administration programs needed to be opened in universities. Further, it was decided that school administrators should be trained before and during service in order to fulfill the duties expected from them.

## 6) 15th National Education Council

The 15th National Education Council was held between 13 and 17 May 1996. The agenda of this council consisted of five items: primary education and orientation, restructuring in secondary education, reorganization of transition to higher education, meeting the educational needs of the society continuously, and funding the education system. Although educational or school administration was not addressed as a separate topic during the council, many decisions regarding these topics were made under the aforementioned agenda items. Under the “primary education and orientation” agenda item, the following decisions were made regarding educational and school administration (MoNE, 1996):

**Decision No 64.** Career, competence, and success should be sought in the appointment of administrators; promotions to higher positions should be based on success and a system.

**Decision No 71.** Educational administration should be perceived as a science, the administrator should be accepted as an education leader that ensures the realization of organizational goals, it should be known that this field requires specialization, and educational administration should be made a profession.

**Decision No 72.** Educational administration should be based on the experience of teaching.

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**Decision No 73.** The educational administrator should receive postgraduate education, prospective educational administrators should be selected based on objective criteria, and their personal rights should be arranged according to their work and education level.

**Decision No 74.** A balance should be struck between the authorities and responsibilities of the school administrator.

Under the “restructuring in secondary education” agenda item, the following decisions were made regarding educational and school administration (MoNE, 1996):

**Decision No 24.** Appointment by proxy should not be applied in the central and provincial organization of the Ministry of National Education.

**Decision No 25.** Problems related to the personal rights of educational administrators and teachers should be resolved; their salary and additional course fees must be adequate and equal.

**Decision No 30.** Appointment of administrators to high schools and equivalent schools (excluding Military High Schools) affiliated to other ministries should be subject to the Regulation on the Appointment of Ministry of National Education Administrators.

On the other hand, under the “meeting the society’s educational needs continuously” agenda item, the following decisions were made regarding educational and school administration (MoNE, 1996):

**Decision No 3.** The power and responsibilities of the administrators of central and provincial organizations should be redefined taking into account the educational needs of the society; importance should be attached to specialization and experience in appointments to these units.

**Decision No 4.** The provincial organization should be given more power and responsibility; it should be ensured that educators, provincial administrators, and the public participate in the decision-making process.

Although educational and school administration was not included as an agenda item in the 15th National Education Council, important decisions were made regarding these topics under different agenda items. Throughout this council, the requirement of being a teacher in order to become a school administrator was emphasized once again. It was emphasized that the appointment of administrators should be made according to objective criteria and a certain system and that competence and success should be taken into account in this system. It was also stated that educational administration should be perceived as a science, and educational administration should be made a profession. It was noted that educational administrators should, therefore, receive postgraduate education. Finally, it was stated that the personal rights of school administration, which was proposed to be made a profession, should be improved.

## 7) 16th National Education Council

The 16th National Education Council was held between 22 and 26 February 1999. The main topic of this council was “vocational education.” The agenda items of the council were as follows: the predominant restructuring of vocational and technical

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education in the secondary education system; vocational training and employment in schools and businesses; training teachers and administrators for vocational and technical education; transition to higher education without examination in vocational and technical education; funding of vocational and technical education. Under the “training teachers and administrators for vocational and technical education” agenda item, the following decisions were made regarding educational and school administration (MoNE, 1999):

**Decision No 28.** Teachers and administrators, if needed, should be employed locally on a contract and school basis.

**Decision No 41.** Performance evaluation criteria should be developed for teachers and administrators; their current registry reports should be compiled according to these criteria and be transparent.

**Decision No 44.** In-service training needs should be determined with appropriate methods and techniques; the administrators, educators, and those to be trained should be selected considering these needs.

**Decision No 50.** In-service training programs attended by administrators and teachers should be reflected in their personal rights and, by being credited, taken into consideration in graduate education.

**Decision No 52.** The qualifications required of administrators at all levels of vocational and technical schools should be determined, and their job descriptions should be made.

**Decision No 53.** Pre-service and in-service training for administrators should be designed in a planned manner and continuously in cooperation with universities and other organizations.

**Decision No 54.** Through collaboration with universities, current administrators should be enabled to participate in educational administration certificate programs and subsequent graduate programs within a project within a maximum of 5 years. -

**Decision No 55.** The convenience provided for teachers who have master's degrees in educational administration and public administration when being appointed as a school administrator should also cover those who have a master's degree in other areas of administration. The administrators to be appointed to vocational and technical education schools should be required to have a bachelor's or master's degree in educational administration.

**Decision No 56.** Relocation and dismissal of administrators should be based on objective criteria and public interest should be respected.

**Decision No 57.** Unnecessary employment of administrators in central and provincial organizations should be avoided.

**Decision No 58.** Personal rights of administrators should be improved.

**Decision No 59.** It should be ensured that parents, teachers, students, and local administrators, as well as employer and employee representatives, participate and contribute to school administrations.

Considering the decisions taken at the council regarding the training of school administrators to work in vocational and technical schools, it is seen that different points were emphasized during the council than those emphasized at other councils. It was decided not to employ administrators unnecessarily, and in case of need for administrators, to employ them on a contract basis. It was stated that the qualifications required of administrators should be determined, and their job descriptions should be made. It was proposed that performance evaluation criteria should be developed for administrators and that their registry reports should be compiled transparently according to these criteria. Important decisions were also made at the council on the training of administrators. The decisions taken underlined that the training of administrators should be planned, continuous, and professional. It was emphasized that in-service training to be designed for administrators should be tailored to their needs. In addition, during the council, decisions regarding the postgraduate education that administrators should receive were made. It was decided that the administrators to be appointed to schools should be required to have a bachelor's or master's degree in educational administration. Finally, it was noted that a participatory management approach should be adopted in school administration.

### **School Administration in Directives and Regulations**

This section of the study discusses the regulations for selecting and training school administrators specified in directives and regulations and examines the provisions in these legal regulations. Legal regulations made between 1980 and 2000 are given in Table 2.

**Table 2.** School administration in the legal regulations made between 1980 and 2000

No	Regulation/Directive	Date
1	Directive on the Appointment and Relocation of School Administrators of the Ministry of National Education, Youth, and Sports	1985
2	Directive on the Appointment and Dismissal of Administrators of the Provincial Organizations Affiliated to the Ministry of National Education, Youth, and Sports	1986
3	Regulation on the Qualifications and Appointment of the Administrators of the Institutions Affiliated to the Ministry of National Education	1990
4	Regulation on the Appointment of the Administrators of the Institutions Affiliated to the Ministry of National Education	1993
5	Regulation on the Appointment of the Administrators of the Institutions Affiliated to the Ministry of National Education	1995
6	Regulation on the Appointment and Relocation of the Administrators of Educational Institutions Affiliated to the Ministry of National Education	1998
7	Regulation on the Appointment, Evaluation, Promotion, and Relocation of the Administrators of the Ministry of National Education	1999

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## **1)Directive on the Appointment and Relocation of School Administrators of the Ministry of National Education, Youth, and Sports issued in 1985**

This directive, which entered into force on March 28, 1985, with the approval of Vehbi Dinçerler, then Minister of National Education, Youth, and Sports, was also published in the Journal of Communiqué dated May 6, 1985. The directive stipulated that persons to be appointed as school principals should be employed in the central and provincial organizations of the Ministry of National Education, Youth, and Sports, but when it is necessary, those working outside the central and provincial organizations of the Ministry could also be appointed to A-type schools by taking into account the principles determined. The following qualifications were determined to be sought in persons to be appointed as school principals from within the organization (Article 4): *being in the education and training services class or bearing the qualifications sought in the persons to be employed in this class; being no more in the probationary period in education and training services class (having passed the teacher certification test); having a “good” overall degree of success for the last three years of service according to the results of the registry or inspection reports; not having been sentenced to imprisonment (except for negligent offenses), even if it is not to the extent that it prevents his/her employment as a civil servant and not having received a severer disciplinary punishment than the “deduction from salary” punishment within the last five years of service.* On the other hand, the following qualifications were determined to be sought in persons to be appointed as school principals from outside the organization: being no more in the probationary period in education and training service class (having passed the teacher certification test) and meeting the general and specific conditions in the amended 48th Article of Law No. 657 (Ministry of National Education, Youth, and Sports [MoNEYS], 1985).

The qualifications to be sought in persons to be appointed as school principals from within or outside the organization were determined separately according to school types (A, B, C) (Article 5). According to this article, persons to be appointed as administrators to A-type schools must be *“aged 35 years and over, have a service period of at least 10 years, and 5 years of this period must have passed as administrators in the central and provincial organizations of the ministry and other institutions and organizations.”* On the other hand, persons to be appointed as administrators to B-type schools must be *“aged 30 years and over, have a service period of at least 8 years, and 3 years of this period must have passed as administrators in the central and provincial organizations of the ministry.”* Finally, persons to be appointed as administrators to C-type schools must be *“aged 25 years and over, have a service period of at least 5 years, and 1 year of this period must have passed as administrators in the central and provincial organizations of the ministry (If there are no candidates with these qualifications, those who have passed the teacher certification test and are no more in the probationary period can be appointed)”*(MoNEYS, 1985). Article 6 specifies the reasons for preference to be taken into consideration for the persons who bear the above-stated general and specific issues and who will be appointed as school principals from within or outside the organization.

- a)** Having been rewarded with a letter of appreciation or a letter of thanks by the superiors authorized to appoint or by the Governorship and District Governors,
- b)** Having a master's or doctorate degree,
- c)** Having graduated from a school or branch suitable for the service characteristics of the school to which he/she will be appointed,

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- d) Having studied in the field of management or having completed at least 4 months of in-service training on this subject,
  - e) Having a published work in fields related to education, management, business administration, or to his/her own profession,
  - f) To be appointed to schools that teach in a foreign language, knowledge of a foreign language,
  - g) To be appointed to primary schools, having worked as a primary school teacher,
  - h) To be appointed to boarding schools, being married,
  - i) To be appointed to special education schools, having received training, course, seminar, etc. in this field or having worked as a teacher for at least 1 year in relevant schools.

Further, it was stated that for persons to be appointed as chief vice-principals, the requirement to have worked as a vice-principal for at least two years and to have qualifications close to the reasons for preference sought for persons to be appointed as school principals would be sought in addition to the general qualifications listed in Article 4. Also, it was stated that for persons to be appointed as vice-principals, the requirement to have been a successful teacher for at least three years as well as the general qualifications listed in Article 4 would be sought.

When the content of the articles in the directive is examined, it is seen that being employed in the teaching profession was still the prerequisite for being a school administrator. However, it is also seen that promotion to higher positions was based on certain criteria. Having received education or in-service training or having a master's or doctorate degree in management was, albeit not compulsory, defined as reasons for preference for being appointed as a school principal. Despite these issues, no prior education was made compulsory prior to starting the profession, which is noteworthy.

## **2) Directive on the Appointment and Dismissal of Administrators of the Provincial Organizations Affiliated to the Ministry of National Education, Youth, and Sports issued in 1986**

This directive, which came into force on January 31, 1986, with the approval of Metin Emiroğlu, then Minister of National Education, Youth, and Sports, was also published in the Journal of Communiqué dated March 24, 1986. Article 4 of the directive specifying the general requirements for those to be appointed as administrators states that "*Persons currently working in the central and provincial organizations of the Ministry must be appointed to schools and institutions.*" On the other hand, requirements such as the following were included in the directive as general conditions:

- a) Being in the education and training services class or bearing the qualifications sought in the persons to be employed in this class;
- b) Being no more in the probationary period in education and training services class (having passed the teacher certification test),
- c) Not having been sentenced to imprisonment (except for negligent offenses), even if it is not to the extent that it prevents his/her employment as a civil servant and

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not having received a severer disciplinary punishment than the “deduction from salary” punishment within the last five years of service,

- d) For those to be appointed to administrative positions whose conditions are determined by special laws; to meet the conditions specified in these matters,
- e) Not having received a negative registry within the last three years of service according to the registry reports (MoNEYS, 1986).

As in the directive published in 1985, in this directive, too, the special qualifications to be sought in the persons to be appointed as school principals were determined according to the school types (A, B, C) (Article 6). According to this article, those to be appointed as A-type school principals *“must have a service period of at least 8 years, and 4 years of this period must have passed as administrators in the central and provincial organizations of the ministry.”* Further, those to be appointed as B-type school principals *“must have a service period of at least 6 years, and 3 years of this period must have passed as administrators in the central and provincial organizations of the ministry.”* Finally, those to be appointed as C-type school principals *“must have a service period of at least 3 years, and 1 year of this period must have passed as administrators in the central and provincial organizations of the ministry.”* On the other hand, special conditions such as *“having at least 8 years of service”* were specified in the directive for those to be appointed as principals of Medical Vocational High School. Also, conditions such as *“working as an administrator for at least two years”* for those to be appointed as chief vice-principals and *“having a service period of at least two years”* for those to be appointed as vice-principals were specified in the directive (MoNEYS, 1986).

The reasons for preference to be taken into consideration for the candidates to be appointed as administrators to the schools and institutions covered by the Directive are as follows (Article 5).

- a) Having a master’s or doctorate degree,
- b) Having been rewarded with “a letter of appreciation, a letter of thanks, or merit pay” by the minister, undersecretary, governor, or district governors,
- c) Having graduated from a school or branch suitable for the service characteristics of the school to which he/she will be appointed,
- d) Having studied in the field of management or having completed in-service training on this subject,
- e) Having a published work in fields related to education, training, management, business administration, or to his/her own profession,
- f) To be appointed to schools that teach in a foreign language, knowledge of a foreign language,
- g) To be appointed to primary schools, having worked as a primary school teacher,
- h) To be appointed to boarding schools, being married,
- i) To be appointed to physical education and sports high schools, being a physical education teacher, having received degrees in national sports competitions or participating in international sports competitions

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- j) To be appointed to special education schools, having received training, course, seminar, etc. in this field or having worked as a teacher for at least 1 year in relevant schools.

Considering the general and special conditions published in this directive and the reasons for preference to be considered in the candidates to be appointed as administrators, it seems that it has a great similarity with the directive published in 1985. However, unlike the directive published in 1985, this directive does not set an age limit for prospective school principals. Another noteworthy point in the directive is Article 5, paragraph e: "*Having a published work in fields related to education, training, management, business administration, or to his/her own profession.*" This paragraph is particularly important in terms of encouraging teachers, who improve personally and academically and who produce academic works, to become administrators.

### **3) Regulation on the Qualifications and Appointment of the Administrators of the Institutions Affiliated to the Ministry of National Education issued in 1990**

This regulation, which entered into force on August 28, 1990, with the approval of Avni Akyol, then Minister of National Education, was also published in the Journal of Communiqué dated October 29, 1990. The general qualities to be sought in the persons to be appointed as administrators specified by this regulation and the general conditions specified in the directives issued in 1985 and 1986 are similar, except for two articles. These articles are "*Being no more in the probationary period in education and training services class*" and "*To be appointed as administrators to schools and institutions in places other than priority provinces in development, having performed compulsory service*" (Article 7).

As in the directives published in 1985 and 1986, in this regulation, too, the special qualifications to be sought in the persons to be appointed as school principals were determined according to the school types (A, B, C). The regulation states that persons to be appointed to A-type schools and institutions "*must have a service period of at least twelve years and at least six years of this period must have passed at administrative levels,*" persons to be appointed to B-type schools and institutions "*must have a service period at least nine years and at least three years of this period must have passed at administrative levels,*" and persons to be appointed to C-type schools and institutions "*must have a service period of at least six years and at least three years of this period must have passed at administrative levels*" (MoNE, 1990). On the other hand, while the persons to be appointed as chief vice-principals must have at least three years of service and at least two years of this period must have passed at the administrative levels, the persons to be appointed as vice-principals must have served as teachers for at least two years (Article 10).

The reasons for preference to be taken into consideration for the candidates to be appointed as administrators to the schools and institutions covered by the Regulation are as follows (Article 9).

- a) Having graduated from the National Education Academy,
- b) Having a master's or doctorate degree,
- c) Having been rewarded with "a letter of appreciation, a letter of thanks, or merit pay" by the minister, undersecretary, governor, or district governors,

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- d) Having received training in the field of management,
  - e) Having a published work in fields related to education, training, management, business administration, or to his/her own profession,
  - f) Knowledge of a foreign language,
  - g) To be appointed to special education schools, having received training, course, seminar in this field or having worked as a teacher for at least 1 year in such schools.
  - h) Having received training, courses, or seminars in their own field.

Considering the reasons for preferences to be taken into consideration in the persons to be appointed as school principals, the article “Having graduated from the National Education Academy,” which is not found in other directives, is noteworthy. While previous directives specify “knowledge of a foreign language” as a reason for preference to be appointed to schools that teach in a foreign language, this regulation specifies it as a reason for preference to be appointed to all types of schools. Further, the training, courses, and seminars that prospective administrators received in their own fields are also stated as a reason for preference.

#### **4) Regulation on the Appointment of the Administrators of the Institutions Affiliated to the Ministry of National Education issued in 1993**

This regulation, which entered into force on April 28, 1993, with the approval of Köksal Toptan, then Minister of National Education, was also published in the Journal of Communiqué dated July 5, 1993. The general conditions sought in persons to be appointed as school principals specified in this regulation are similar to those specified in previous directives and regulations. As an additional condition, this regulation specified “*Having received higher education.*” Also, considering the social and political circumstances of the period, the condition “*To be appointed as principals to the institutions in provinces within the scope of the State of Emergency Region, being approved by the State of Emergency Region Governorship*” was stated. As in the previous directives and regulations, the special qualifications to be sought in the persons to be appointed as school principals were determined according to the school types (A, B, C). The regulation states that persons to be appointed to A-type institutions “*must have a service period of at least eight years and at least four years of this period must have passed at administrative levels,*” persons to be appointed to B-type institutions “*must have a service period at least six years and at least two years of this period must have passed at administrative levels,*” persons to be appointed to C-type institutions “*must have a service period of at least four years,*” and persons to be appointed to special education institutions “*must have worked as a special education teacher for at least five years,*” and “*bearing the qualifications necessary for the school to which he/she will be appointed*” (MoNE, 1993).

The reasons for preference to be taken into consideration in persons to be appointed as school principals specified in this regulation are similar to those specified in previous directives and regulations. However, unlike the previous directives and regulations, this regulation states special conditions such as “having a master’s or a doctorate degree in management,” “to be appointed to foreign language-oriented institutions, having obtained a score of at least level C from the Foreign Language Proficiency Examination

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for State Employees,” and “having received training, courses, seminars in the field of management.” These conditions are important in terms of taking into account the prior knowledge and skills, especially those related to the field of “management,” of the persons to be appointed as school administrators.

This regulation differs from other directives and regulations in terms of the items it contains related to the training of prospective administrators. While previous directives and regulations stipulated no training for school administrators before or after their appointment, this regulation required school administrators to receive in-service training after being appointed. Such in-service training can be seen as important for the training of school administrators. However, the regulation does not contain any information regarding the content and process of the in-service training to be attended by the administrators.

## **5) Regulation on the Appointment of the Administrators of the Institutions Affiliated to the Ministry of National Education issued in 1995**

This regulation, which entered into force on September 1, 1995, with the approval of Nevzat Ayaz, Minister of National Education, was also published in the Journal of Communiqué dated October 23, 1995. The general qualities and special qualities required in persons to be appointed to institutions and reasons for preference to be taken into consideration in persons to be appointed as administrators specified in this regulation are similar to those specified in the regulation issued in 1993. As an additional condition, this regulation specified *“Bearing the qualifications necessary for the school to which he/she will be appointed.”* On the other hand, this regulation does not contain the item, *“To be appointed as principals to the institutions in provinces within the scope of the State of Emergency Region, being approved by the State of Emergency Region Governorship,”* which was included in the regulation issued in 1993. This regulation is also noteworthy with the details it includes regarding the evaluation process of prospective administrators. While the regulation published in 1993 specifies the same items for the assessment of persons to be appointed to vocational high schools as well as to primary schools, secondary schools, high schools, and equivalent schools, the regulation published in 1995 specifies different items for those to be appointed to vocational high schools (Article 17). Finally, like the regulation published in 1993, this regulation also required school administrators to receive in-service training after being appointed (MoNE, 1995).

## **6) Regulation on the Appointment and Relocation of the Administrators of the Institutions Affiliated to the Ministry of National Education issued in 1998**

This regulation, which entered into force with the approval of Hikmet Uluğbay, then Minister of National Education, was published in the Journal of Communiqué dated November, 1998. The general qualities to be sought in the persons to be appointed as administrators specified by this regulation are similar to those specified by the regulation issued in 1995. This regulation introduced the condition of “passing the evaluation test” for persons to be appointed as administrators. In other words, those to be appointed as principals were required to be successful in the exam. To be appointed as an administrator to C-type, B-type, and A-type institutions, candidates were required to score at least 70, 75, and 80 points, respectively, from the evaluation test. Also, persons to be appointed as chief vice-principals were required to have worked as a vice-principal for at least two years while persons to be appointed as vice-principals were required to be no longer in

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the probationary period in the teaching profession. In the case that candidates have the same scores from the evaluation test, the following criteria were specified as the reasons for preference (MoNE, 1998).

- a) Having received postgraduate education (the order of preference is educational administration, public administration, and other fields),
- b) To be appointed as a principal to primary schools, having received graduate education,
- c) Having obtained a score of at least level C from the Foreign Language Proficiency Examination for State Employees,
- d) Having been rewarded with a letter of appreciation or merit pay,
- e) Having attended a course of at least 120 hours in the field of management,
- f) To be appointed to centers of training tools and hardware, being a workshop, laboratory, or vocational course teacher who has received education in physics, chemistry, biology, science, and technical work,
- g) To be appointed as administrators of Vocational and Technical Secondary Education, being a teacher of workshop, laboratory, or vocational course with an undergraduate degree,
- h) To be appointed as a principal to Teachers' Houses and Evening Art Schools, having an undergraduate or postgraduate degree in tourism, hospitality, or business administration,
- i) Having a published work in fields related to education, management, business administration, or to his/her own profession.

Although previous directives and regulations specified “having received graduate education” alone as a reason for preference, this regulation indicated an order of importance for fields of graduate education, such as “educational administration, public administration, and other fields,” which is noteworthy. While the previous two regulations (1993 and 1995) included “having received higher education” as general conditions, this regulation specified “having received graduate education” as a reason for preference to be sought in persons to be appointed as principals to primary schools.

This regulation also stipulated that those who pass the evaluation test would be required to receive in-service training “*to gain properly the competencies for the qualifications, content, and techniques of administration.*” However, as can be seen above (paragraph e), in-service training is stated as a reason for preference, not as an obligation. It was stated that in-service training with different contents could be attended, provided that it is not less than 120 hours, considering the types of institutions. It was also stated that in-service training activities could be carried out in in-service training centers, in places designated for this purpose, or in universities. This regulation also contained detailed information on who would design and develop in-service training. It was stated in the regulation that evaluation tests would be held at the end of such training programs and the candidates who get at least 70 out of 100 points would be considered successful. It was stated that the appointment process of the candidates passing the

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evaluation test would be carried out by the Provincial Directorates of National Education and Governorships. The last chapter of this regulation expresses the standards regarding the determination of the types of institutions, the institutions to which administrators would be appointed independently, and the number of chief vice-principals and vice-principals (MoNE, 1998).

## **7) Regulation on the Appointment, Evaluation, Promotion, and Relocation of the Administrators of the Ministry of National Education issued in 1999**

This regulation, which entered into force with the approval of Hikmet Çetin, then Deputy President, was published in the Official Gazette dated April 30, 1999, and numbered 23681. The purpose of this regulation was to determine the central, provincial and overseas organization administration levels of the Ministry of National Education and the qualifications to be sought in persons to be appointed to administrative positions at these levels. Along with this purpose, it was also aimed to coordinate the transitions between the duties within the scope of the regulation by considering service requirements, career, competence, registry, seniority, examination, and similar criteria as well as to increase efficiency and productivity in service. The basic principles of the regulation to achieve these purposes were as follows (MoNE, 1999):

- a) To provide corporate efficiency and productivity and administrative knowledge, occupational commitment, job satisfaction, and high morale among personnel,
- b) To observe the suitability for the job description, career, competence, registry, in-service training, and seniority in appointments, promotions, and relocations,
- c) To provide and develop career opportunities in administration,
- d) To provide pre-service training,
- e) To ensure that administrators' performances are measured,
- f) To make the evaluation according to the principles of impartiality, reliability, validity, and openness.

This regulation, designed in line with this purpose and principles, addressed the administrative levels in the Ministry of National Education as a whole and stipulated under what conditions and how the transitions between these levels would be. Some articles contained in this legal regulation, which is very important for educational administration, set this regulation apart from other regulations/directives. One of the criteria specified in the regulation to be sought in persons to be appointed to administrative positions is "*Being successful in the evaluation test to be held at the end of the training program envisaged for the position to which he/she will be appointed*" (Article 10). Accordingly, candidates were required to attend a training program prior to appointment and to complete this program successfully. The regulation stated that in-service training would be carried out at the National Education Academy, in-service training centers, or places designated for this purpose, the Public Administration Institute for Turkey and the Middle East, and in universities. It was also stated that persons successfully completing such training programs would be awarded with a 5-year-valid certificate indicating the type and period of the training program and degree of success.

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This regulation is important in that it made vocational training (preparatory training) compulsory for candidates before being appointed to administrative positions in the Ministry of National Education. On the other hand, by creating a ranking among the various administrative positions within the ministry, administrators were given the opportunity to make career plans.

## CONCLUSION

Between 1980 and 2000, Turkey experienced social and political instability. Two military interventions and frequently changing governments in this period hampered stability in education policies. The present study investigated the approach towards school administration with a focus on National Education Councils and legal regulations. Considering the agenda items discussed in the councils, educational administration was dealt with as a topic only in the 14th council. Although some councils addressed school administration as an area of expertise, it was generally seen as a continuation of the teaching profession. In this respect, it is seen that the understanding of "Teaching is what really matters in the teaching profession" is still sustained. It has been stated many times during the councils that objective criteria should be determined in the appointment of school administrators and that the process should be carried out in a transparent manner. It was for the first time during the 12th Council (1988) that it was suggested that school administrators should be selected from among teachers by the exam method. Also, regarding the training of school administrators, different proposals were made. In many councils examined within the scope of the study, it was stated that school administrators should be given pre-service (before they become school administrators) and in-service training. Also, regarding as to how such training would be carried out, it was proposed that cooperation should be established with universities and that training should be organized within the National Education Academy and various units of the Ministry of National Education. However, no proposal was put forward regarding the content and process of such training. Considering the proposals put forward for the training of school administrators, it was proposed that undergraduate courses on management should be designed and undergraduate and graduate departments related to educational administration should be opened.

The issuance of seven different directives and regulations regarding school administration in the 20-year period between 1980 and 2000 indicates that no stability was achieved in this topic, as well. This instability in the appointment of administrators may be associated with frequent government changes. When the directives and regulations issued on school administration are examined, it is seen that the basic condition for being a school administrator in the Turkish education system is to be a teacher. This can be regarded as an obstacle to the professionalization of school administration. When the issued directives and regulations are examined, it is seen that factors such as having received graduate education, having received education and in-service training in the field of management, having a published work, and knowledge of a foreign language are the reasons for preference in the appointment of school administrators. The directives and regulations issued until 1990 mostly focused on the duties and responsibilities of school administrators, but did not focus on how to train school administrators. It is observed that regulations issued especially after 1990 focused on pre-service and in-service training for school administrators. However, such training was mostly stated as a reason for preference, not as an obligation. It was stated that the pre-service and in-service training would be carried out by the National Education Academy, the Public

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Administration Institute for Turkey and the Middle East, by universities and in-service training centers. The regulation issued in 1998 differs from other directives and regulations in that it stipulated an evaluation test for the selection of school administrators. With this regulation, all teachers bearing the specified qualifications obtained the right to take the test for school administration. The regulation issued in 1999 differs from the others in that it addressed the administrative levels in the Ministry of National Education as a whole and created a ranking among the various administrative positions within the ministry. With this regulation, administrators within the Ministry of National Education were given the opportunity to make career plans. This regulation also stipulated that the candidate to be appointed to an administrative position within the Ministry of Education must successfully complete the in-service training program. Thus, in-service training programs became an obligation for candidates rather than a reason for preference.

The councils, directives, and regulations examined within the scope of this study indicate that the approach towards school administration improved from 1980 to 2000. Nevertheless, school administration was not generally considered as an area of expertise. School administration was mostly seen as a continuation of the teaching profession. Usually, there was no need for training before being a school administrator. In this context, it can be said that the “apprenticeship model” was adopted between 1980 and 2000 for the training of school administrators. In other words, it was thought that a teacher with effective teaching skills could also be a successful school administrator. This situation is an important obstacle to the professionalization and institutionalization of school administration. On the other hand, with the regulation issued in 1998, a new perspective was brought to school administration, and the “examination model” was started to be applied. However, the fact that training was not made compulsory in this model for school administrators (to be) appointed can be interpreted as the continuation of the “apprenticeship model.”

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## EPISODE 4

# THE DEVELOPMENTS IN MATHEMATICS AND MATHEMATICS EDUCATION IN TURKEY BETWEEN THE YEARS OF 1980-2000

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## INTRODUCTION

This study summarized the developments in the field of mathematics and mathematics education between the years of 1980-2000 during the journey of our country to become a contemporary civilization starting with the foundation of the Republic. In this regard, the training of mathematics teachers and the changes in mathematics education and mathematics education curricula were also examined to grasp the whole picture besides the scientific work in mathematics.

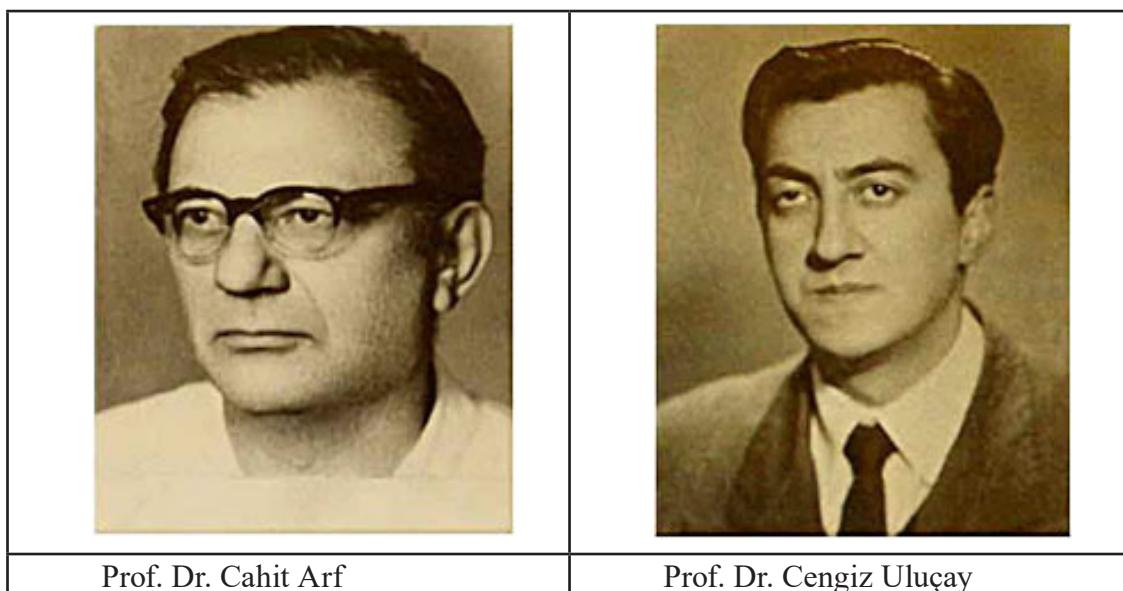
### The Developments in Mathematics

The field of study on advanced mathematics starting with the opening of a three-year mathematics and natural sciences department under Darulfunun in the 1900s turned into an independent mathematics chair affiliated to Istanbul University with the higher education reform in 1933. Since the 1950s, it has been divided into departments such as analysis, algebra, and geometry. After the establishment of the Higher Education Council (HEC) in 1981, those chairs became departments (Altintas, 2001). *The Turkish Journal of Mathematics* was established in 1986 to publish mathematics research by TUBITAK.



This journal continues its publication life successfully.

The number of mathematics departments, which was 19 until the end of the 1970s, reached 27 in the early 1980s and increased to 45 towards the end of the 1990s. Meanwhile, the number of articles written by Turkish mathematics in international journals has increased exponentially. To illustrate, 231 number of published articles between 1973 and 1983 advanced to 590 between 1983-1993, and to 746 between 1993-1999. Thus, Turkey rose to 25<sup>th</sup> place in the world ranking of scientific publications for the field of mathematics (Altintas, 2001). On the other hand two very valuable mathematicians, Prof. Dr. Cengiz Uluçay (1989) and Prof. Dr. Cahit Arf (1997) passed away during this time.



### The Developments in Mathematics Education

Mathematics teachers were mainly trained by three different sources between the years of 1960-80: Education institutes, higher teacher schools, and universities. Higher Education Council was established in Turkey and a comprehensive reform from a centralized point of view was put into practice in the field of higher education with the adoption of the Higher Education Law No. 2547 on November 6, 1981. The mission of teacher training was assigned to universities instead of the Ministry of National Education. Accordingly, universities started teacher training through the faculties of education they would establish under their bodies.

There were 35 institutions at the tertiary level ensuring mathematics education in the United States in 1982 while it had a unit giving mathematics education to 12 institutions. However, there was no one having a Ph.D. in mathematics education in Turkey then. Therefore, instructors who had a mathematics career were asked to focus on mathematics education (Aydin, 1990, p.82).

Although mathematics laboratories, teaching through games and riddles, discovery learning technique, as well as tools such as calculators, computers, overhead projectors, televisions, and videos gained importance in mathematics education technology in the 1980s, they had not been exploited by mathematics teachers during those years (Aksu, 1985, p. 51). Though academic circles showed such a demand for new developments in the world, it was revealed that those cannot be implemented at the school level and teachers cannot integrate new educational technologies into mathematics teaching processes.

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## Postgraduate Studies in Mathematics and Mathematics Education

To reach the postgraduate studies in mathematics in Turkey between the years of 1980-2000, a detailed search was made by picking the department of mathematics on the web automation of National Thesis Center by the Presidency of the Turkish Higher Education Council. According to the search results, it was found that a total of 1770 postgraduate theses were submitted, 450 of which were doctoral dissertations and 1320 of which were master's theses. A quantitative consideration of postgraduate theses according to the date of publication revealed a limited number of theses until 1987. However, a remarkable increase was observed in postgraduate studies in subsequent years.

With the dissolution of the USSR in late 1991, scientists in many disciplines especially in mathematics, physics, and engineering came to Turkey to work in various universities. Undergraduate and postgraduate mathematics content which had highly affected by the areas of expertise of the scientists who came to Turkey to flee from the pressure of Hitler's rule in Germany at the end of 1930 gained different research areas through the scientists from the USSR. It was observed that more than 30 of the doctoral dissertations in mathematics between the years of 1980-2000 were supervised by the scientists from the USSR. Besides, more than 80 of the master's theses were advised by those scientists.

The National Theses Center web automation was scanned with the keywords of "mathematics" and "mathematics education" to reach postgraduate studies in mathematics education in Turkey between the years of 1980-2000.



As a result, it was found that a total of 90 postgraduate thesis studies, 19 of which were doctoral dissertations and 71 of which were master's theses, were completed. It was noteworthy that most of them ( $n = 74$ ) were conducted between 1996-2000 although the first postgraduate theses dated in 1988.

It was revealed that there were changes regarding the selection of research subjects in the field of mathematics education from 1988 to 2000. In this regard, the first salient issue was the inclusion of computer in educational processes as one of the new trends in research areas. Considering the global widespread use of computers and their use in educational processes, it was appreciated that a doctoral dissertation on *computer-assisted mathematics teaching* was conducted at a very early date in 1988 (Bayraktar, 1988). Many more studies followed this study in subsequent years. In addition to computer-aided education, studies examining the effectiveness of new teaching models on mathematics education and teaching also drew attention. In this respect, the adoption of various methods and models in the processes of mathematics teaching and learning at primary, secondary, and higher education levels and their effect on student achievement aroused the researchers' interest. In other words, it was understood that traditional teaching methods were started to be questioned then. Another prominent subject in postgraduate studies in the field of mathematics education and teaching was the curriculum. In this vein, substantial research were made on topics such as gathering common opinions on the curriculum, their appropriateness, and their evaluation.

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The overall evaluation of the research on computer-assisted mathematics education, mathematics education with new methods, and their curriculum indicated that the new developments and trends in the universally renowned countries for pioneering and ground-breaking innovations in science and technology were followed by mathematics educators in Turkey between the years of 1980-2000.

### **A Glance at National Education Councils within the Framework of Mathematics Education**

The National Education Council, which meets at regular intervals under the supervision of the Ministry of National Education of the Republic of Turkey, is the highest advisory body where the present state of the Turkish national education system is opened up for discussion, the experienced problems are discussed and the recommendations were made for their solution. Although the decisions of the National Education Councils are advisory, they are noteworthy as they guide the Turkish education system and policies. Thus, the examination of the decisions in the Councils within the context of mathematics and mathematics education is also significant for this study.

National Education Councils were held seven times in total during the years between 1980-2000.

10. National Education Council	23-26 June 1981
11. National Education Council	8-11 June 1982
12.National Education Council	18-22 June 1988
13. National Education Council	15-19 January 1990
14.National Education Council	27-29 September 1993
15.National Education Council	13-17 May 1996
16.National Education Council	22-26 February 1999

There was no mention regarding the field of mathematics and mathematics education in the 10<sup>th</sup> National Education Council, which was held on 23-26 June 1981 after the military coup of September 12, 1980, and where decisions were taken regarding the overall education system. Mathematics skills were emphasized among the course content and activity categories of pre-school teacher training programs in the 11<sup>th</sup> National Education Council dated June 8-11, 1982, when decisions were taken mainly on teacher training. In the 12<sup>th</sup> National Education Council was held on June 18-22, 1988, the main purpose of primary education was primarily expressed to be “teaching basic mathematics knowledge” to individuals as well as various knowledge, skills, and behaviours based on the redefined concept of “Primary Education”. Secondly, it was decided to establish “Mathematics and Natural Sciences, Social Sciences, and Literature” branches in secondary education institutions and to place the students into those branches starting from the 11<sup>th</sup> grade. Thirdly, a decision was taken to ensure that “science and mathematics lessons be taught in Turkish” in Anatolian high schools. Fourthly, it was agreed to open departments in Education Institutes to train branch teachers such as Science, Social Studies, Turkish, and Mathematics for the second level of basic education or secondary education institutions in addition to primary school teachers. Finally, it was concluded to reorganize the Mathematics and Science course curricula to include the latest developments. No special decision was taken in the field of mathematics and mathematics education at the XIII National Education Council meeting on 15-19 January 1990 and at the XIV National Education Council meeting on 27-29 September 1993. Although there

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was no direct decision on the field of mathematics and mathematics education in the XV National Education Council held on 13-17 May 1996, the issues of transition to the student-centered education model, encouraging students to be acquainted with computers under the roof an education system integrated with technological developments discussed in this Council were remarkable indicators for the change in the overall educational paradigm. Besides, a decision was made that “Turkish language and literature should be included in all fields, and the courses such as mathematics, foreign language, and computer should be weighed in related fields” in the transition to higher education. Finally, there was no mention regarding the field of mathematics and mathematics education in the XVI National Education Council, which was held on 22-26 February 1999 (MNE, <https://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/>).

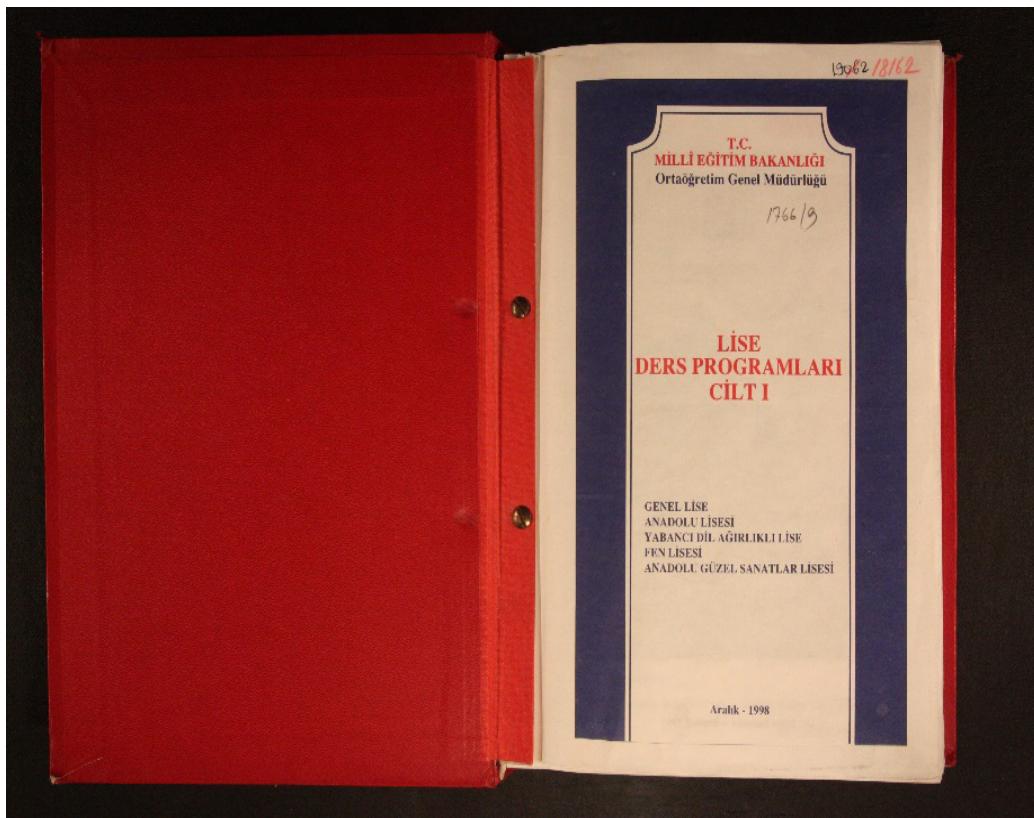
### **The Developments in Mathematics Curriculum**

Primary and secondary education mathematics curricula between the years of 1980 and 2000 were revised in 1983, 1990, and 1998. In 1998, it was named as Primary School Mathematics Lesson Curriculum (Cakmak-Gurel & Coskun-Kandal, 2016).

The 1983 curriculum was put into practice after some preliminary studies since the academic year of 1985-1986 (Demirel, 1999). The 1983 curriculum was too comprehensive to be compared with the previous ones. The objectives of the primary school mathematics course were determined to be compatible with the objectives of the primary school. The objectives were attempted to be measurable by defining them in terms of behaviours. The aims of the curriculum were split into strips which were considered to be the units of mathematics (Argun, Z., Arikhan, Bulut, & Sriraman, 2010; Ergun et al., 2015, p.69-78). Geometry subjects, which were included in the 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> grades in the previous curricula, became the subject of teaching since the first grade. Mathematical terms and symbols were listed under the heading of “the mathematical dictionary signs” at the end of content sharing at the classroom level. It should be emphasized that the 1983 curriculum was prepared according to the integrity of 8-year primary education in mind. As can be seen in the class hour schedule in 1987, the mathematics course was included as 5 hours a week at primary school level and 4 hours at the secondary school level. Mathematics was the most weighted lesson after Turkish in terms of class hours among the courses in both levels of primary and secondary school.

The 1990 curriculum was published under the name of  $5 + 3 = 8$  primary school mathematics curricula (MNE, 1990). It was the first one in which the term primary education was mentioned in mathematics curricula. However, it coincided with the 1983 curriculum to a great extent in terms of directions and recommendations regarding the issues to be considered in the regulation of teaching activities and also in terms of measurement and evaluation. The 1990 curriculum was put into practice in the academic year of 1991-1992. The Ministry of National Education established an Evaluative Commission in 1993 to assess and evaluate its impact. The commission was composed of the program coordinator, academicians from universities, the representative of the General Directorate of Primary Education, and the teachers on duty. The commission firstly examined student achievement to determine the efficiency and effectiveness of the 1990 curriculum and conducted a comprehensive evaluative study including the opinions of Mathematics and Science teachers (as it was identified to be a highly associated field) and inspectors. As a result of this study, it was determined that the number of behaviours listed in the 1990 curriculum was outnumbered (Ergun et al., 2015, p. 69-78).

A newer arrangement was made by removing repetitive goals and behaviours in the 1998 curriculum.



Annual and unit plans were included in the curriculum. The issues that teachers should pay attention to while teaching the units were given under the heading of “General Explanations” (MNE, 1998). Goals, behaviours, and sub-topics were presented for each unit within the scope of unit plans. It can be alleged that the general objectives of the primary school mathematics lesson and the specific goals for each grade level in the 1998 curriculum were substantially similar to those in the 1990 curriculum. However, it was observed that there had been a significant decrease in the number of specified behaviours for goals. Besides, this curriculum differed from the previous ones by including the taxonomic classification of objectives for each grade level (Ergun et al., 2015, p. 69-78).

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## EPISODE 5

### DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES COURSE IN TURKEY BETWEEN 1980 AND 2000

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#### INTRODUCTION

Content or themes related to social studies in Turkey, though not under the name of social studies, began to take place in the last period of the Ottoman educational system. In the Republic of Turkey, social studies had been taught in different courses such as history, geography and civics lessons for a long period of time. In the 1962 Primary School Curriculum, social studies began to take place under the name of "Society and Country Studies". This course had been taught at a pilot level from 1962 until 1968. In 1968, with the introduction of the new curriculum for primary schools, it has undergone a change with regard to its name and Turkey has acquainted with "Social Studies" term for the first time in its history (Saglamer, 1997; Sonmez, 1998; Sözer, 1998; Dilek, 2001; Öztürk and Otluoğlu, 2003; Kılıçoglu, 2009; Kan, 2010; Safran, 2011; Keskin and Keskin, 2013; Inan, 2014; Akman, 2016). As a result of conducted studies in the 1967-1968 academic year, the 1968 Primary School Curriculum was accepted (Cicioğlu, 1985), and it was the longest-lasting curriculum which had been implemented so far (Keskin, 2009, p. 125).

*"The subjects taught under the name of "History, Geography, Citizenship" in the fourth and fifth grades of primary school have been combined into the name of Social Studies, in terms of their close relationships and suitability for the child. These course topics should be taught as a multi-faceted whole"* (Ministry of National Education (MNE, 1968). Aforementioned statements are included regarding the emergence of social studies in the 1968 Primary School Curriculum, which can be considered as the touchstone in terms of social studies. From this point of view, a multidisciplinary approach has been gained towards the social studies course. In terms of secondary school curriculum, it is seen that history, geography and citizenship courses are gathered under the name of social studies in the 1970-1971 Secondary School Curriculum. The reason for combining the mentioned three courses under one name is to emphasize the necessity of giving students positive behavior and character (MNE, 1973a). Thus, social studies has taken place in both primary and secondary school programs in Turkey. Considering the scope of the social studies course, it is accepted as one of the "pivot" courses, such as the life sciences course in the Turkish Education System (Baysal, 2006). In the period between 1968 and 1980, partial changes have been made with regards to the names or numbers of units for the social studies course, but no long-term radical changes have been made. In the post-1980 period, there has been a transition from the social studies course to the "national history, national geography, citizenship" courses. This amendment has caused great harm to the development of social studies course in Turkey (Güngördü, 2001; Topkaya, 2016).

In 1998, with the extension of compulsory education to eight years in Turkey, there have been significant developments with regard to social studies course. In this sense the first comprehensive program changes have been made in 1998 on behalf of the course.

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The rest of the paper will try to examine the changes made between 1980 and 2000 for social studies course with regards to

- ✓ The Developments in Social Studies Course in Primary School Curriculum Between 1980 and 2000
- ✓ The Developments in Social Studies Course in Middle School Curriculum Between 1980 and 2000
- ✓ The Developments in Social Studies Course in Elementary School Curriculum Between 1980 and 2000

## **1. DEVELOPMENTS IN SOCIAL STUDIES COURSE IN PRIMARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM BETWEEN 1980 AND 2000**

Social studies has faced radical changes in the post-1980 period in Turkey. Especially in 1998, the extension of compulsory education to eight years has given birth to the concept of “elementary education”. It can be seen that this change has had an influence on social studies course in terms of its content and the meaning that it carries. Below are the social studies curriculum prepared at primary school level between 1980 and 2000 and the occasional changes.

### **1.1.1990 Primary School Curriculum for Social Studies Course in 4th and 5th Grades**

With the changes made in 1990, social studies course, which is taught three hours per week, has witnessed some changes with regards to its scope and content. In this sense, in 1990, with the decision by the Ministry of National Education Board of Education and Discipline Commission, “Curriculum for Social Studies Course for 4th and 5th Grade in Primary School” has been accepted “to be tried and developed”. It has been decided to implement this accepted curriculum by the 1990-1991 academic year (Ministry of National Education, Journal of Communiques, 1990, p. 457). Below are the objectives according to 1990 Primary School Curriculum for Social Studies Course in 4th and 5th Grades:

#### **Social Sciences**

##### **Objectives:**

##### **At the end of the lesson, students will be able to**

1. In terms of citizenship duties and responsibilities:
  - a. Grow up as good citizens who are devoted to their nation, homeland, Atatürk's reforms and principles, hardworking, researcher, investigator, self-sacrificing, rectitudinous, and excellent human beings,
  - b. Understand that they are the children of a great nation with an honorable past, increase the trust that the nation holds for its future, and gain a character that is ready to do the necessary things to realize the ideals of the Turkish nation,
  - c. Take duties and responsibilities in all directions, have a sense of commitment to family integrity, and develop a sense of responsibility and duty for the welfare and happiness of the family,
  - d. Understand that living in a community is a necessity, the concept of the nation and the character of the Turkish Nation, and strengthen their feelings of love, respect and trust towards the Turkish nation, flag, soldier and army,

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- e. Keep their nation and homeland above all else, and make it a habit and principle to serve with dearness towards their nation and homeland,
  - f. Understand the meaning of the Turkish Revolution, the importance of it in different aspects, the impact which the Turkish Revolution has on the welfare, happiness, and the future of the country, and grow up as self-sacrificing Turkish children who are always dependent on the values of the Turkish Revolution and ready to protect them,
  - g. Adopt the concept of law, and gain the feeling and habit of complying with the law and state authority,
  - h. Understand that today's civilization is the work of a long past, and the service and share of the Turkish nation has in this civilization,
  - i. Recognize the Turkish elders who served our nation and humanity in history, and care for them,
  - j. Know that Republic of Turkey is a national, democratic, secular and social law state based on human rights, and comprehend the features and importance of the republic regime,
  - k. Understand that people need each other; appreciate the importance of participating in group activities and helping others and implement it in real life,
  - l. Recognize the national values such as old and new art, cultural works, museums and monuments around, and learn that they need to protect them.
2. In terms of the relationship of people in the society:
- a. Learn to organize all their works according to the rules of democratic living,
  - b. Adopt that people have mutual rights and responsibilities and must meet each other's views and beliefs with respect and tolerance,
  - c. Learn to work together, take responsibility, cooperate and make decision-making rules,
  - d. Comprehend the basic principles of family, school and community life and the necessity of living in a community,
  - e. Learn to respect the laws and rules and our state agency according to their levels,
  - f. Learn to obey traffic rules.
3. In terms of improving the ability to know the environment, homeland and the world:
- a. Recognize their environment and homeland, and gain general information about Turkey's relationships with its neighbors and the nations of the world,
  - b. Benefit from plans, sketches, maps and graphics by gaining the necessary information,
  - c. Examine the mutual effects of people with each other and their geographical environment, the ways in which human communities live and ways of getting along, become knowledgeable and influential citizens in the economic development of the country,
  - d. Learn to investigate the causes of geographical events and to find out the connections and relationships between these events,
  - e. Understand the importance of environmental protection for today and future.

4. In terms of developing the idea and abilities of economic life:
- Gain the habit of using carefully and protecting their own belongings, school, classroom objects,
  - Gain the habits of being frugal and planned study,
  - Learn basic information about production, consumption and distribution,
  - Recognize the economic values of the near environment and our national resources, and comprehend that protecting them is a duty,
  - Examine the ways in which human communities live and ways of living and the economic dependencies between them,
  - Comprehend the meaning and importance of tourism, especially for our country (Ministry of National Education, Journal of Communiques, 1990, pp. 457-458).

Looking at the objectives in the 1990 Primary School Curriculum for 4th and 5th Grades Social Studies Course, it is striking that they are basically aims to raise “good citizens”. Furthermore, the emphasis on a “national” consciousness also makes itself felt within the objectives. In this vein, it is aimed to create a sense of “national identity” among students through social studies course. In the curriculum, it is seen that there is an instruction in the form of 32 items under the heading “explanations” regarding the teaching of the 4th and 5th grades social studies courses. When these 32 items are examined, it is clearly seen that there are explanations of how the course should be handled, where and what should be paid attention to and which subjects should be emphasized. The units of the social studies course at 4th and 5th grades in the curriculum are given in table 1 below.

**Table 1** Units in the 1990 Primary School Curriculum for Social Studies Course in 4th and 5th Grades

Unit	Primary School 4th Grade	Primary School 5th Grade
1	Where We Live	The Ottoman Empire
2	Our City and Region	Our World, Our Country and Our Neighbors
3	Our Country: Turkey	The Period of Stagnation and Regression for the Ottoman Empire.
4	History, Anatolia in History, Turks and Islam	How Did We Become A Republic?
5	Settlement Of Turks To Anatolia	Global View
6		Democratic Life and Our Constitution

(Ministry of National Education, Journal of Communiques, 1990, pp. 462-474)

When the units in the 4th and 5th grades curriculum are examined, it is striking that there is a very intense content. Furthermore, due to the nature of the social studies course, it is seen that the units and subjects about history, geography and citizenship are interspersed at both grade levels.

The “Primary School Curriculum for Social Studies Course in 4th and 5th Grades”, which was accepted and put into practice with the decision number 62 dated 30.05.1990, has undergone some changes in 1993. The changes made by the Board of Education in 15.03.1993 have been implemented starting from the 1993-1994 academic year (Ministry

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of National Education, Journal of Communiques, 1993a, p. 274). The changes made in the social studies course in 4th and 5th grades in 1993 (Ministry of National Education, Journal of Communiques, 1993a, pp. 274-279) are given below.

- ❖ Another item has been added to the “explanations” section, which consists of a total of 32 items during the period of preparation and implementation in 1990, and the number of explanations has increased to 33. *“The statistical information in the textbooks and the graphics and charts prepared according to the statistical information will be prepared and evaluated according to the latest data.”* statement is included in the 33rd item.
- ❖ Partial changes have been made in the names and scope of the units and subjects at both the 4th and 5th grade courses. In this sense, one of the most noteworthy changes is the replacement of the “Ottoman Empire” unit, which constitutes the 5th grade 1st unit in the 1990 curriculum, as the “Ottoman State”. Instead of the concept of “empire”, the concept of “state” appears in other courses, especially in “national history” course, which has been prepared or updated during this period.
- ❖ Due to the dissolution of the USSR in 1991, the USSR has been removed under the heading “The Neighbors of Our Homeland”, which constitutes the fourth part of the “Our World, Our Homeland and Neighbors” unit, which is the second unit of the 5th grade social studies curriculum in 1990, and Azerbaijan and Georgia have been added instead.
- ❖ The name of the “Collective View on the World” unit, which forms the 5th unit of the 5th grade social studies course curriculum in 1990, has been changed to “Collective View on the Turkish World”. In this vein, the places where Turks live in the world, especially the Turkish Republics, are discussed in details in this unit. Furthermore, the Central Asian Turkish Republics, which gained their independence after the dissolution of the USSR, are discussed in details as well.
- ❖ The name of the “Democratic Life and Our Constitution” unit, which is the 6th unit of the 5th grade in the 1990 Curriculum, has been changed to “Second World War, Democratic Life and Our Constitution”. Thus, the subjects related to the “Second World War” included in the 5th unit of the 5th grade in the 1990 Curriculum have been transferred into the 6th unit with this arrangement.

## **2. DEVELOPMENTS IN SOCIAL STUDIES COURSE IN PRIMARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM BETWEEN 1980 AND 2000**

For many years, secondary school programs were considered as the continuation of primary school during the republic period, however, with the amendment made in the 1970s, secondary schools have been included in secondary education. In this vein, with the decision taken in the 8th National Education Council convened in 1970, the tripartite classification, namely “primary education, secondary education and higher education”, which is still valid today, has been adopted for the Turkish Education System. In this context, secondary school programs form the first step of secondary education. However, considering the concept of 8 years of uninterrupted education, which was first introduced in the “Basic Law on National Education numbered 1739” in 1973, secondary schools have started to be considered as the second stage of primary schools. Although it was decided to extend the primary education to 8 years in the 9th National Education Council held in 1974, it has been implemented in 1998 (Keskin, 2002, pp. 78-79).

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1970-1971 Secondary School Curriculum appears as the last curriculum that was prepared and put into practice on behalf of the social studies course in the pre-1980 period. This curriculum, which was first published in 1973 (Keskin, 2002, p. 266), has remained in practice for a long time. On the other hand, the “social studies” course, which took place in primary school curriculum as of 1968, was first taught in the 1970-1971 Secondary School Curriculum with the same name. This course, which was conducted for three years as a practice implementation in almost 136 secondary schools throughout the country starting from the 1971-1972 academic year, has been decided to be taught in all secondary schools throughout the country <sup>1</sup>as of the 1973-1974 academic year based on the positive feedback from the schools where this course had been implemented as a practice. In this vein, social studies courses in secondary schools have started to be taught 5 hours per week in 1st and 2nd grades of secondary schools, and 4 hours per week in 3th grade of secondary school. (MNE, 1973b, p. 121).

The secondary school curriculum, which was published in 1973 and put into practice as of the 1970-1971 academic year, has remained in practice until 1985 with minor changes (Keskin, 2002, p. 78). In 1985, a regression can be seen with regards to the social studies course.

In this context, for the first time in 1968, the social studies course, which was formed by the combination of history, geography and citizenship courses based on the mentality of collective education in secondary school programme in 1970-1971, was divided into pieces again on this date. In this way, the multi-discipline structure was abandoned, a single-discipline structure was started and three courses were begun to be provided as “national history, national geography and citizenship information”. On the other hand,

“Turkish Republic Revolution History and Kemalism” course took its place in the Turkish Education System with the decision of the Board of Education and Discipline of 08.06.1981 no. 106.

## **2.1.National History Course**

While the content on history subjects was provided as an independent course with a single discipline mentality for a long time in secondary schools in Turkey of the Republic Period, it was started to be provided within the scope of social studies for the first time with 1970-1971 Secondary School Programme. By 1985, the “national history” course found its place in the Turkish Education System after the social studies lesson was divided into pieces again (Turan, 2016, p. 258). Two course hours per week were saved for the National History course at 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> grades of secondary school.

### **2.1.1. 1985 National History Course Curriculum**

1985 National History Education Curriculum was published in the Journal of Communiqués dated 17.06.1985 and no. 2190 with the decision of the Board of Education and Discipline and started to be effective as of the 1985-1986 academic year (Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sports, Journal of Communiqués, 1985a, p. 201). A total of 9 objectives for the Middle School National History Program were specified in the Journal of Communiqués No. 2190, and these goals are as follows:

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<sup>1</sup>It is stated in the Journal of Communiqués of the Ministry of National Education No. 1740 that such a change has been made in order to eliminate the difficulties such as teaching these courses over three books in the form of history, geography and dormitory information separately and subjecting the students to three different exams in order to take notes from a course (MEB, 1973a, p. 121).

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## SECONDARY SCHOOL NATIONAL HISTORY PROGRAM

### **Objective:**

1. To teach students the importance of the Turkish nation in the world history, its honourable past and place in the family of nations, its services to humanity, its great share in the development of world culture and civilisation, and to make their national feelings more conscious and rooted,
2. To make students embrace the intellect and talent of the Turkish nation, its hardworking nature, scientific and artistic love, aesthetic taste, the glory of the sense of humanity and to ensure that these superior features turn into behaviours,
3. To make students become aware that they carry the responsibility of being the children of a great nation with a deep-rooted past that established great civilisations in history; they should give the Turkish nation the place it deserves among the world nations by giving them hope and confidence for the future, and that they must work continuously, “take our national culture above the level of civilisation” in accordance with Atatürk’s directives, and make every sacrifice for this purpose,
4. To develop their ability to think, research and reason by comparing the reasons and consequences of social, economic and political events in past ages to better evaluate today,
5. To make them comprehend Atatürk’s “Peace at Home, Peace in the World” principle and the fact that the independence of our state can only be sustained by not allowing for disruption of our country and nation’s integrity and by being strong,
6. To show students how people who lead the historical events affect the flow of events and history thanks to their far-sightedness, high comprehensive skills, courage, self-sacrifice and deeds or their inability to see ahead and unconscious behaviours,
7. To make them grasp and appreciate not only the national but also the universal aspects of Atatürk and other Turkish elders who guide the society; to state that they have humanitarian duties to our nation and to awaken them with a sense of love, respect and service,
8. To ensure that they understand the value of our national independence and democracy; gain the consciousness and behaviour of protecting our country’s and nation’s integrity and keeping our national interests and democracy at the forefront,
9. To ensure that they establish a connection between the past and the present and have a personality that evaluates the national and international issues that are becoming more and more complex, that can bring them solutions by acting with common sense instead of creating problem and is heart-bound to our national spiritual and material values (Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sports, Journal of Communiques, 1985, p. 201).

When the aims set for the national history course are analysed, it is seen that although the desire for predominantly “national stance” is emphasised, content that guides the students in a universal sense is also contained. On the other hand, the superiority of the Turkish nation and the emphasis of an independent state appear before us within the objectives at almost every opportunity. Nevertheless, the emphasis that both independence and the desire for a peaceful country and the world will be realised by ensuring the integrity of the country and the nation is also contained in the objectives. When the

objectives are considered, it is seen that the desire to raise “good citizens”, which is one of the basic expectations of the social studies course, is also among the basic expectations in the national history course. It is seen that there is a direction in the form of 30 items under the title of “explanations” regarding the teaching of the National History course in the program. When these 30 items are examined, it is seen that how the course should be handled, where and what to pay attention to, which topics are emphasised, and which methods and techniques should be used are clearly indicated. In the curriculum, the units of the National History course at the secondary school levels of grade 1 and 2 are shown in table 2 below.

**Table 2 : 1985 National History Course Secondary School 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> Grade Units**

Unit	Secondary School 1st Grade	Unit	Secondary School 2nd Grade
1	Concepts of History, Calendar, Age, Century	1	Foundation of the Ottoman State
2	Civilizations Established in Anatolia	2	Rise of the Ottoman Empire and the State to Become Empire
3	Central Asian Turks and Immigrations	3	Important Events in Europe in the New Age
4	Islamic History	4	The Ottoman Empire's Stagnation Period
5	Conversion of Turks to Islam and First Turkish Islamic States	5	Regression and Disintegration Period of the Ottoman Empire
6	History of Turkey		
7	Other Turkish States Founded in Central Asia and Near East		

(The Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sports, Journal of Notices, 1985a, p. 203-204)

When we look at the units at the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> grade levels of secondary school in the National History Curriculum, it strikes attention that a chronological order is followed in the first place. With this arrangement, the students' perception of chronological history has become easier. In addition, based on the “national” approach to history teaching, it is seen that the units that reflect Turkish history and culture and such subject within units are predominantly available across the program. Thus, in contrast to the Social Studies Lesson Secondary School Program, which was published in 1973 and put into practice as of the 1970-1971 academic year, Turkish history subjects were predominantly found in the 1985 National History Curriculum instead of General World History<sup>2</sup> subjects.

### 2.1.2 1993 National History Course Curriculum

With the decision of 15.03.1993 and no. 81 adopted by the Ministry of National Education, Board of Education and Discipline, some changes have been made in the Secondary School 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> grade National History Course Curriculum adopted with the decision of 03.05.1985 no. 3 (Ministry of National Education, Journal of Communiqués, 1993a, p. 286). The aforementioned changes have been made on the units; no changes were made in the objectives and explanations part of the course. Secondary School National History Course unit distributions following these changes, which were decided to be implemented as of 1993-1994 academic year within the scope of Secondary School National History course, are given in table 3 below.

<sup>2</sup>In the 1973 Social Studies Leather Education Program, who is at the level of 1<sup>st</sup> grade of Middle School, “Who lived in our country before us, how they lived, Apennial Peninsula and Roman Empire, Europe and Roman Empire in the Middle Ages” etc. The prehistoric periods of Anatolia, Greek Civilization, Roman Civilization, Eastern Rome (Byzantine) and Medieval European History, which are described in the subjects, are not included in this program.

**Table 3**

National History Course Secondary School 1 and 2 after 1993 Change Grade Units

<b>Unit</b>	<b>Secondary School 1st Grade</b>	<b>Secondary School 2nd Grade</b>
<b>1</b>	Central Asian Turks and Immigrations	Foundation of the Ottoman State
<b>2</b>	Islamic History	The Rise of the Ottoman Empire and its Becoming a World State
<b>3</b>	Conversion of Turks to Islam and First Turkish Islamic States	Important Events in Europe in the New Age
<b>4</b>	History of Turkey	The Ottoman Empire's Stagnation Period
<b>5</b>	Other Turkish States Established in Central Asia and Near East	Regression Period of the Ottoman Empire
<b>6</b>		Reform and Innovation Movements in the Ottoman State, The Fall of the State
<b>7</b>		Ottoman Culture and Civilization
<b>8</b>		World War II and XX. Century Turkish World

(Ministry of National Education, Journal of Communiqués, 1993a, p. 286-290)

When the change made in 1993 within the scope of the National History course is analyzed, it is seen that the units at the secondary school first grade level were reduced in the programme, which was accepted and put into practice in 1985. In this sense, the first 2 units (History, Calendar, Age, Century Concepts and Civilizations Established in Anatolia) contained in 1985 National History Course Curriculum were removed with the amendment made in 1993. Another change made in the curriculum is the removal of the Scythians, which is among the first Turkish states indicated to be established in the Central Asia in 1985 curriculum, as well as the Fatimis, shown among the other Turkish States established in Central Asia and the Near East, from the new curriculum. On the other hand, the changes made in the secondary school 2nd grade level are listed below.

- ❖ The name of the unit “Rise of the Ottoman Empire and the State Becoming an Empire”, which is covered in the secondary school 2<sup>nd</sup> grade level in 1985 National History Course Curriculum, was changed. In the Yen program, the unit was renamed as “The Rise of the Ottoman Empire and its Becoming a World State.” Thus, the expression “Becoming a World State” was added instead of the expression that the Ottoman Empire became an “Empire”.
- ❖ Developments for the reform actions of the Ottoman Empire, which were handled separately during its establishment, rise, stagnation and regression periods in the 1985 National History Course Curriculum started to be given under the unit “Reform and Innovation Movements in the Ottoman State, Fall of the State” in the 1993 Curriculum
- ❖ The unit named “The Period of Regression and Disintegration of the Ottoman Empire”, which was included in the 1985 National History Course Curriculum, was changed into the “Regression Period of the Ottoman Empire”. The disintegration process of the Ottoman State was addressed under the unit “Reform and Innovation Movements in the Ottoman State, The Fall of the State”.

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- ★ Pieces of information about culture and civilization, which were handled separately in the establishment, rising, stagnation and regression periods of the Ottoman State in the 1985 National History Course Curriculum, were combined under a unit called “Ottoman Culture and Civilization” in the 1993 Curriculum.
  - ★ The Unit named “World War II and XX” which were not covered in 1985 National History Course Curriculum was first covered in the 1993 Curriculum.

## 2.2. National Geography Lesson

While geographical subjects were taught in secondary schools as a course under the title of geography for a long time in the Turkey of the Republic Period, they were put under the scope of social studies course for the first time with the 1970-1971 Secondary School Curriculum. In 1985, the “national geography” course took its place in the Turkish Education System to be taught 2 course hours per week at the level of 1st and 2nd grade secondary school upon division of the social studies course into pieces again.

### 2.2.1. 1985 National Geography Course Curriculum

National geography course was adopted with the resolution of the Board of Education and Discipline dated 10.07.1985 and numbered 11 and after getting published in the Journal of Communiqué of 08.09.1985 and no.2195, it started to be taught as of 1985-1986 Academic Year (The Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sports, Journal of Communiqués, 1985b, p. 361). A total of 5 objectives were indicated in the Journal of Communiqués no. 2195 for Secondary School National Geography Program. These are as follows:

#### SECONDARY SCHOOL NATIONAL GEOGRAPHY PROGRAM

##### Objective:

1. To make students understand the importance of place and position occupied by Turkey in the world and develop a sense of taking responsibility for the advancement of our country fondly,
2. To teach the ways of living of our people in various geographical regions, the facilities, treasures and touristic richness of our country and its issues stemming from its geographical location, and make them love their homeland and nation,
3. To introduce our country's facilities and resources, instil the idea of avoiding wasting this natural but limited treasures and impose to them that they should conserve Turkey's nature,
4. To teach about the geographies of other countries and regions where Turks live, to show that Turks are a big nation spread across a wide area,
5. To teach about the main agricultural and industrial products and commercial relationships of Turkey (Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sports, Journal of Communiqués, 1985b, p. 361).

When the objectives determined for the national geography course are considered, the emphasis on the “national identity” that is clearly felt in the national history course shows itself. In this sense, it is seen that patriotism and nationalism are tried to be instilled acting on Turkey's geopolitical and geostrategic position. It is seen that an awareness about the Turkish world is tried to be created in students by the statement “To show that Turks are a big nation scattered across a wide area” under the heading “objectives.”

It is seen that there is a directive in the form of 6 items under the title of “explanations” regarding the teaching of the National History course in the program. When these 6 items are examined, it is clearly seen that how the course should be handled, where and what should be paid attention to and which subjects should be emphasized are indicated. The units of the National Geography course in the curriculum at the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> grades of secondary school are shown in the table below.

**Table 4**

1985 National Geography Course Secondary School 1 and 2 Grade Units

	<b>Secondary School 1st Grade</b>		<b>Secondary School 2nd Grade</b>
<b>Unit</b>	<b>Part I: Geography and Our World</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Part I: Geographical Regions of Turkey</b>
<b>1</b>	What is Geography?	<b>1</b>	Introduction to Geographical Regions
<b>2</b>	Cartography	<b>2</b>	Black Sea Region
		<b>3</b>	Marmara Region
		<b>4</b>	Aegean Region
		<b>5</b>	Mediterranean Region
		<b>6</b>	Southeastern Anatolia Region
		<b>7</b>	Eastern Anatolia Region
		<b>8</b>	Central Anatolia Region
<b>Unit</b>	<b>Part II: Our World and Turks on Earth</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Part II: Economic Zones of Turkey</b>
<b>1</b>	Continents and Oceans	<b>1</b>	An Overview of Turkey's Economic Geography
<b>2</b>	Asian Continent		
<b>3</b>	European Continent		
<b>Unit</b>	<b>Part III: Our Turkey</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Part III: Turkey's Strategic Status</b>
<b>1</b>	Overview of Turkey	<b>1</b>	Geopolitical Importance of Turkey
<b>2</b>	Conditions Affecting the Economic Geography of Turkey		

(The Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sports, Journal of Communiqué, 1985, pp. 362-363)

When a look is taken at the units included in the National Geography Course Curriculum for the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> grade levels of secondary school, it can be seen that the subjects of general geography and subjects related to the world geography are covered at the 1<sup>st</sup> grade of secondary school with a “from global to local” approach. It is seen that strategic and geopolitical importance of Turkey are emphasized after the subjects of Turkey’s geography are mainly addressed in secondary school 2<sup>nd</sup> grade units. On the other hand, the unit “Geopolitical Importance of Turkey” covers the internal and external threats to Turkey while trying to instil patriotism throughout the subjects.

## 2.2.2. 1993 National Geography Course Curriculum

Certain changes were made with the decision accepted by the Ministry of National Education, Board of Education and Discipline of 15.03.1993 no.79 in the Secondary School 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> grade National Geography Course Curriculum adopted with the decision dated 10.07.1985 and numbered 11 (Ministry of National Education, Journal

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of Communiqués, 1993a, p. 291). The aforementioned changes were made on the units and topics; no changes were made in the objectives and explanations part of the course. These changes, which were decided to be implemented as of the 1993-1994 academic year within the scope of the Secondary School National Geography course are as follows.

- ★ In the 1985 National Geography Course Curriculum for Secondary School, the sub-titles of the Second Unit of Part II at 1<sup>st</sup> grade level of the Secondary School were altered and “Yakutia”, which was included in the “The main countries and places where Turks live in Asia”, was removed and replaced with the “Russian Federation”.
- ★ Alteration was made in sub-titles of Unit III of Part II at secondary school 1<sup>st</sup> grade in 1985 Secondary School National Geography Course. “Yugoslavia”, which was written under “The primary countries where Turks live in Europe”, was removed and “Bosnia-Herzegovina” and “Macedonia” were added.
- ★ The name of Unit II of Part III at Secondary School 1<sup>st</sup> grade level was changed into “Geographical Factors Affecting Turkey’s Economy” in 1985 Secondary School National Geography Course Curriculum.
- ★ Item II of Unit I of Part II was changed into “2<sup>nd</sup> Industry” at 2<sup>nd</sup> grade secondary school level in Secondary School National Geography Course Curriculum.
- ★ A second unit was added to Part II with the title “European Community and Turkey” at secondary school second grade level in 1985 Secondary School National Geography Course Curriculum. (Ministry of National Education, Journal of Communiqués, 1993a, s. 291-292)

When the change made in 1993 within the scope of the National Geography course is considered, it is seen that it does not contain much difference from the program that was accepted and implemented in 1985. In this sense, while the name of a unit at the 1<sup>st</sup> grade secondary level was changed, a new unit was added at the 2nd grade secondary school level.

### **2.3. Citizenship Information Course**

Every country in the world wants to have its own citizens. For this reason, citizenship subjects have maintained their place in education systems for a very long time. When Turkey is considered, we are faced with a similar situation. In this sense, subjects and content related to citizenship which made itself felt in final period Ottoman education system for the first time were retained in the Turkish Republic period as well. While citizenship subjects in Turkey of the Republican Period were addressed under different names in secondary schools (Domestic Science, Civics, etc.), it was started to be provided within the scope of social studies course for the first time with 1970-1971 Secondary School Program.

#### **2.3.1. 1985 Citizenship Information Course Curriculum**

By 1985, with the re-division of the social studies course into pieces, the “citizenship information” course took its place in the Turkish Education System to be taught as 3-hour course per week at the 3<sup>rd</sup> grade level of the secondary school. The Citizenship Information course was accepted with the decision of the High Board of

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Education and Training dated 10.07.1985 and numbered 10. It was published in the Journal of Communiqués No: 2193 dated 29.07.1985 and started to be provided as of 1985-1986 academic year (Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sports, Journal of Communiqués, 1985c, p. 288). In the Journal of Communiqué No: 2193, a total of 10 objectives were specified for the Secondary School Citizenship Information Curriculum and these objectives were as follows:

#### SECONDARY SCHOOL CITIZENSHIP INFORMATION PROGRAMME

##### Objectives;

1. To make students comprehend that the individual must live in the society and earn them the habit of understanding and co-habiting regularly in various circles of the society,
2. To make students knowledgeable and conscious about the fact that human beings do not have unlimited freedom and that they have to live in harmony with the rules of social behavior that regulate social life,
3. To give students the concept of nation, to earn them the honor and responsibility of being a child of the Turkish nation,
4. To provide students with the awareness of serving the nation and the homeland by creating interest in national and national affairs,
5. To make students comprehend the importance of the Turkish independence and the Turkish Republic that Atatürk entrusted to the Turkish youth, grasp the differences and superiorities of our libertarian democracy regime from other regimes, notably totalitarian ones, and to give students the idea and belief that they should be devoted Turkish children, always ready to protect these values,
6. To make students comprehend the general and basic principles of the Constitution of the Republic of Turkey and evoke sincere devotion to Atatürk nationalism and respect in state authority with liberal democracy, which finds its expression in our constitution,
7. To develop in students the behaviour of respecting the people who have worked in various jobs for the welfare and peace of the society and of fulfilling their duties and responsibilities in order to facilitate the work of these people,
8. To enable students to grow up as individuals who personally experience and practice democracy by providing them with the opportunity to manage themselves within the atmosphere dominated by the democratic mentality and to assume responsibility inside and outside the school,
9. To teach students the necessity of having a profession as a person and a citizen and that an unemployed person will be a harmful element for the society, to instil the belief that every profession is holy and that everyone who carries out any job will be a respectable person.;
10. To make them grasp the value of duties and responsibilities falling on the Turkish nation to materialize the idea of “Peace at home, peace in the World” (The Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sports, Journal of Communiques, 1985c, p. 288)

When the objectives determined for the Citizenship Information course are analyzed, it is seen that emphasis is placed on the duties and responsibilities of individuals as a requirement of existence in social life. On the other hand, the desire to be loyal to the Turkish nation and glorify the Turkish nation with a national perspective makes

itself felt. Another situation that shows itself in objectives is the desire to ensure sincere commitment to Turkish democracy and its constitution. In this sense, the emphasis is placed on the liberty regime of the Turkish state and the desire to make people comprehend its superiority over other regimes is felt. In the purposes, the desire to develop thought and behavior rather than providing information to the students within the scope of the citizenship information course manifested itself clearly.

It is seen that there is a directive in the form of 11 items under the title of "explanations" regarding the handling of Citizenship Information course in the programme. When these 11 items are examined, it is clearly seen that there are explanations on how the course should be handled, the points to which attention should be paid, and the topics that should be emphasized. At this point, the rules and norms that are required to be complied with and adapted to social life are specified. Below are the sections and main topics in the Citizenship Information Curriculum.

**Table 5**

1985 Citizenship Information Course Curriculum Parts and Main Topics

CITIZENSHIP INFORMATION COURSE CURRICULUM			
PARTS		PARTS	
	<b>PART 1</b> “Human and Community”		<b>PART SIX</b> “Constitution”
A	The Obligation to Live within Community	A	Our Constitution
B	Rules Regulating Social Life	B	Legislative Duty of the State
	<b>PART 2</b> “Family”	C	Executive Duty of the State
A	Family Community	D	Judicial Duty of the State
B	Democratic Life in Family		<b>PART SEVEN</b> “Our Basic Rights and Duties in our Liberal Democracy”
	<b>PART 3</b> “Education and Training”	A	General Provisions
A	Education	B	Rights and Duties of People
B	Democratic Life at School	C	Social and Economic Rights and Duties
C	Plan and Planned Work	D	Political Rights and Duties
	<b>PART 4</b> “State”	E	Extraordinary Administration Regimes
A	State and Forms of State	F	Life Service
B	Homeland	G	Our Tax Duty
C	Nation		<b>PART EIGHT</b> “Traffic”
D	National Sovereignty and Political Organization	A	Traffic Department
	<b>PART 5</b> “Democracy”	B	Traffic Rules

A	What is Democracy?	C	Traffic Accidents
B	History of Democracy		<b>PART NINE</b> <i>"Peace at Home, Peace in the World"</i>
C	Democracy Mentality of Today	A	Importance of Peace
D	Threats against our Regime and Existence	B	Ensuring International Peace

(Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sports, Journal of Communiqués, 1985c, p. 289-291)

It is seen that Citizenship Information course in 1985 Curriculum is handled in 9 parts and under these parts as main and sub-topics. When the sections and main titles are examined, it is seen that beside the basic citizenship information topics, the necessities of living in social life are also emphasized. The most specific section that stands out is the ninth section. It is seen that the necessity of ensuring peace inside and outside is emphasized acting on Atatürk's principle "Peace at Home, Peace in the World"

### 2.3.2. 1992 Citizenship Information Course Curriculum

The first curriculum prepared for the "citizenship information" course that was created after the social studies course was divided into pieces in 1985 was the 1985 curriculum. In 1992, the Citizenship Information Curriculum was re-prepared and submitted to the Ministry of National Education. The Citizenship Information course was published in the Journal of Communiqués No 2356 of 13.04.1982 with the decision of the Board of Education and Discipline of 12.03.1992 and no. 45. When the 1992 Secondary School Citizenship Information Curriculum published in the Journal of Communiqué No: 2356 is examined (Ministry of National Education, Journal of Communiqués, 1992, p. 213-219), it is seen that the objectives and explanations titles are given without any changes as in the 1985 Citizenship Information Curriculum. It is seen that some changes have been made in parts, main topics and sub-topics. In this sense, 9 departments in the 1985 curriculum maintained their place with partial changes in the 1992 curriculum. One of the major changes made within the parts is the alterations in the "democracy" title, which is included in the fifth part of the 1985 curriculum. Similarly, the rights and duties of a person in the seventh part were tried to be given in all details. It can be asserted that the 1992 Citizenship Information Curriculum was prepared with a more in-depth and detailed content than the 1985 curriculum.

In this sense, partial amendment was made with resolution of the Ministry of National Education, Board of Education and Discipline of 15.03.1993 no. 82 in Secondary School Citizenship Information Course Curriculum adopted with decision of 12.03.1992 no. 45 (Ministry of National Education, Journal of Communiqués, 1993c, s.290). The amendments concerned were made in subject titles and no amendment was made in objectives and explanations part of the course. When these amendments are considered, which are decided to be implemented as of the 1993-1994 academic year within the scope of the Secondary School Citizenship Information course, it is seen that the content of the subject is expanded in the name of adapting to social life in the "Human and Society" section. Similarly, in Part 5, it is seen that "anarchy and terrorism" topics have been added under the title of "Threats against Our Regime and Existence" (Ministry of National Education, Journal of Communiqués, 1993c, p. 291).

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### **3. DEVELOPMENTS IN SOCIAL STUDIES COURSE IN PRIMARY SCHOOL CURRICULA BETWEEN 1980 AND 2000**

In fact, discussions regarding extension of compulsory education in Turkey to 8 years began as of 1970s. In this sense, relevant resolutions were even made both in 10<sup>th</sup> National Education Council and 12<sup>th</sup> National Education Council (Ministry of National Education, 1981; Ministry of National Education, Youth and Sports, 1988). Again, in the opening speech of 14th National Education Council dated 1993, then Minister of National Education, Nahit Menteş stated: “The plans to extend compulsory education to a minimum of 8 years will continue.” (Ministry of National Education, 1993). After all these preliminary preparations, the transition to eight-year uninterrupted compulsory primary education to be implemented as of 1998-1999 academic year was accepted by the law of 18.08.1997 no. 4306 (Turan, 2016, p. 269).

The transition to eight-year uninterrupted compulsory primary education has become a new benchmark for the social studies course. In this sense, the courses of “National History”, “National Geography” and “Citizenship Information”, which took their place in the Turkish Education system as individual lessons after the disintegration of social information in 1985, were reassembled under the name of “Social Studies”. In this context, it was decided to teach 3 hours of Social Studies lessons in 4, 5, 6 and 7 classes in primary schools starting from 1998-1999 academic year (Ministry of National Education, 1998). Accordingly, a number of arrangements were made regarding the distribution at the class level and the subject and content.

#### **3.1. 1998 Primary Education Social Studies Course Curriculum**

Both national history, national geography and 1190 primary school 4th ad 5th grade Social Studies Course Curriculum, which was accepted and put into practice in 30.05.1990 and where partial amendments were made in 1993, were combined within the scope of 8-year compulsory primary education with the decision of the Board of Education and Discipline of 02.04.1998 no. 62. In this way, “1998 Primary Education Social Studies Course Curriculum” was adopted (Ministry of National Education, Journal of Communiqués, 1998, p. 531). The structure and content of the 1998 Primary Education Social Studies Curriculum are addressed in detail below:

- ★ The program started with the title “objectives of Turkish National Education” unlike the previous curricula. General objectives of Turkish National Education are given under this heading according to National Education Basic Law No. 1739 (Ministry of National Education, Communiqués Journal, 1998, p. 532).
- ★ Explanations title, which was also contained in the previous curricula, took place in 1998 Curriculum as “Explanations on Implementation of the Curriculum.” In this sense, explanations in the form of a total of 43 items were covered for implementation of the curriculum. A chart on signature numbers of course books to be prepared in line with this curriculum was added in item 43 of explanations. (Ministry of National Education, Journal of Communiqués, 1998, s. 533-536). The title of explanations, which was also included in previous programs, was included in the 1998 Education Program in the form of Explanations on the Application of the Curriculum. In this sense, a total of 43 items related to the implementation of the program are included. In the 43<sup>rd</sup> item of the explanations, a table regarding the number of the textbooks to be prepared according to this program was added. (Ministry of National Education, Journal of Communiqués, 1998, p. 533-536)

- ★ In the curriculum, under the heading “General Objectives”, most of the objectives were prepared to be similar to the objectives in previous social studies curriculum. In this sense, 14 objectives under the heading “In terms of citizenship duties and responsibilities”; 6 goals under the heading “In terms of the relationship of people in the society with each other”, 7 objectives under the heading “In terms of their ability to know the environment, homeland and the world”, and finally 7 objectives under the heading “In terms of developing the idea and skills of living economically” were covered (Ministry of National Education, Journal of Communiqués, 1998, p. 537-538). When general objectives are examined, it is seen that citizenship education is kept in the forefront in a content that will meet good citizen expectations. On the other hand, loyalty to the republican regime and the emphasis on democracy clearly found a place in general purposes.
- ★ In 1998 Primary Education Social Studies Curriculum, unlike previous curricula, it is seen that the title of “Special Purposes” is also included. In this sense, special objectives are associated with the units in the program. In 1998 Primary Education Social Studies Curriculum, the distribution of units and special objectives according to the levels of 4-7<sup>th</sup> grades is as follows:

**Table 6**

Social Studies Course, Distribution of 4th and 5th Grade Units

4th Grade		5th Grade	
UNITS	Number of Objectives	UNITS	Number of Objectives
Family, School and Social Life	32	Homeland and Nation	7
Our Immediate Circle	16	How did we meet Republican Regime?	12
Getting to Know our Province and Region	32	Our Beautiful Homeland, Turkey	31
History, Our First Homeland and Anatolia in History	16	Birth and Spreading of Islam and Turks	12
<b>Total:</b>	<b>96</b>		<b>62</b>

(Ministry of National Education, Journal of Communiqués, 1998, p. 541-545).

In 1998 Primary Education Social Studies Curriculum, it is seen that there are 4 units in both 4 and 5 grade levels. On the other hand, within the scope of special objectives, 96 objectives at the 4th grade level and 62 objectives at the 5<sup>th</sup> grade level were planned.

It is seen that the units of the 4<sup>th</sup> grade are prepared based on the principle of “from close to further”. In this sense, in the first unit, starting from the families of the students, their presence in the school and their social life were touched upon. Norms, values and rules to be followed at the point of adaptation to social life took their place in this context. It is seen that the topics that are mainly geography-related are included in the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> unit of 4<sup>th</sup> grade. In the 4<sup>th</sup> unit “History, Our First Homeland and Anatolia in History”, the basic concepts of history are given as well as the presence of Turks in Central Asia

and the states they established there. In the remaining part of the unit, the states founded in Anatolia and the culture and civilization in these states were discussed by touching upon the Ancient Age topics.

When 5<sup>th</sup> grade units are considered, it is seen that within the scope of the 1<sup>st</sup> Unit “Homeland and Nation Love” the national elements are dominant and the love of the country and the nation is tried to be instilled. In the 2<sup>nd</sup> Unit “How Did We Meet Republic?” it is seen that starting from the Mondros Ceasefire Agreement, the National Struggle and the establishment of the Republic and subsequent reforms were detailed in the unit. In the 3<sup>rd</sup> Unit, Our Beautiful Homeland Turkey” the geopolitical and geostrategic position of Turkey are emphasized. In the following part of the unit physical geography structure and environmental (natural environment, environmental issues, natural disasters, etc.) issues were touched upon. The 4<sup>th</sup> Unit, “The Birth and Spread of Islam and the Turks” starts with the general structure of Arabia in the pre-Islamic period and the birth of Islam, continuing with the era of Mohammed. In the remainder of the unit, the political developments in the period of the Four Caliphs, Umayyads, and Abbasids were touched upon and the unit was ended with the Turks converting to Islam, the first Turkish-Islamic States established and the culture and civilization in these states.

**Table 7**

Distribution of Social Studies Course 6<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> Grade Units

6th Grade		7th Grade	
UNITS	Number of Objectives		Number of Objectives
Democratic Life	23	Geographical Regions of Turkey	25
Geography and our World	18	Conquest of Istanbul and the Period to Follow	11
Turkish History	14	Innovations in Europe	5
Mongols and Other Turkish States	6	Ottomans in 17 <sup>th</sup> and 18 <sup>th</sup> Centuries	8
Our Turkey	32	Ottomans in 19 <sup>th</sup> and 20 <sup>th</sup> Centuries	10
Establishment of the Ottoman State	14	Ottoman Culture and Civilization	4
		Neighbours of our Homeland and Turkish World	23
<b>Total:</b>	<b>107</b>		<b>86</b>

(Ministry of National Education, Journal of Communiqués, 1998, s. 550-556).

6 units at the 6th grade level and 7 units at 7th grade level were covered in 1998 Primary Education Social Studies Curriculum. On the other hand, within the scope of special objectives, 107 objectives at the 6th grade level 86 objectives at the 7th grade level were planned.

When sixth grade units are considered, it is seen that the concept of democracy and the necessity of democracy are emphasized in the first unit “Democratic Life”. After the important criteria in the choice of profession and profession were touched upon,

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citizenship rights and duties were dwelled on predominantly in the remaining part of the unit. In Unit 2 “Geography and Our World”, the concept of geography and the necessity of learning geography are emphasized, and continents and oceans are included in the geographical study of the world (shape of the Earth, movements, poles, equator, etc.). At the end of the unit, developments in both science and technology in 20<sup>th</sup> century were covered. 3<sup>rd</sup> unit, “History of Turkey” addressed Turks embracing Anatolia as homeland, Turkish states founded in Anatolia and culture and civilization in these states. In Unit 4, “Mongols and Other Turkish States”, political histories, cultural and civilization structures of Turkish states such as Mongols, Altinorda State, Timur State, Mughal State etc. were touched upon. The political history of the Turkish states and cultural and civilization-related structures have been touched. 5<sup>th</sup> Unit, “Our Turkey” touched mainly upon human geography (population, settlement, economic life etc). 6<sup>th</sup> Unit “Establishment of the Ottoman State” handled the establishment period of the Ottoman Empire and developments experienced until rising period in detail.

As for 7<sup>th</sup> Grade units, the first unit “Geographical Regions of Turkey” addressed the general structure of Turkey’s geographical regions as well as defining geographical region. It is seen that the 2<sup>nd</sup> Unit, “The Conquest of Istanbul and the Period to Follow” addresses the developments in rising period of Ottoman State and conquest movements. In the 3<sup>rd</sup> Unit, “Innovations in Europe” Geographical Discoveries made in Europe in New Age and Modern Age, Renaissance, Reform, Enlightenment Age and Industrial Revolution topics were handled in detail. 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> Units covered the political events and reform movements experienced in Ottoman State from 17<sup>th</sup> century to 20<sup>th</sup> century. Ottoman State was analyzed within the context of culture and civilization (state management, social structure, law, education etc.) in the 6<sup>th</sup> unit. After touching upon Turkey’s neighbours and Turkic Republics that exist in the Turkish world in unit 7, “Neighbours of our Homeland and Turkish World”, other regions where Turks live in the world were handled. The unit was ended with international organizations and the ones, which Turkey is a member to.

When the 1998 Primary Education Social Studies Curriculum is considered in the context of “Special Objectives”, a total of 351 special objectives were determined within the scope of the social studies course in the 4-7 grade period. When the units in the curriculum and topics under the units are examined, it is seen that other social science disciplines, notably content related to history, geography and citizenship, are included in the curriculum in accordance with the multidisciplinary structure of the social studies course.

## **CONCLUSION**

Social Studies course has been accepted as a basic course discipline for the purpose of raising a good citizen in every country where it has been taught as a course since its first appearance in the world. When addressed in terms of Turkey, social studies went through a painful period from 1968, when its name was heard for the first time until the 2000s. In this sense, social studies course, which took its place in primary school curricula in 1986 for the first time and secondary school curricula in 1970-1971 academic year, was fragmented in 1985 in line with the decisions taken in such a way as to comply with the cyclical structure of the relevant period after 1980. With this fragmentation, the

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subjects of history and geography sciences, which form the basis of the social studies course, started to be given in a single disciplinary structure in the form of two new courses: “national history” and “national geography”. On the other hand, the citizenship information required for the “good citizen”, which is among the basic objectives of the social studies course, started to be given under the name of “Citizenship Information” course, which is decided to be taught at the third grade of secondary school.

A second birth virtually happened in the name of social studies course upon transition in 1997 to 8-year uninterrupted compulsory education, which had been debated in Turkey for long years. Thus, the social studies education, which was provided in pieces under different courses since 1985, was reunited under the social studies course as of 1998. With the transition to primary education, also due to the elimination of primary and secondary school concepts, the content was arranged in a spiral and blended manner in four grade levels from the 4th to the 7th grade. In this respect, the subject repetitions encountered in previous education programs were largely eliminated. Due to all these changes, the social studies course took its place among the pivot courses within the Turkish national education system.

Considering the period between 1980 and 2000, the most comprehensive curriculum among the curricula prepared and put into practice in the 20-year period concerned was 1998 Primary Education Social Studies Curriculum. With the aforementioned program, social studies course was placed on a new ground. At this point, with the 1998 curriculum, although raising a good citizen in the social studies course is aimed, the foundation of the citizen model who is devoted to his country and nation, who knows and exercises his rights and responsibilities was laid. Thus, the steps taken in this period provided a basis for the developments to be experienced in the 2000s on behalf of the social studies course.

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## EPISODE 6

# DEVELOPMENTS IN LIFE SCIENCE EDUCATION BETWEEN 1980-2000

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## INTRODUCTION

The phenomenon of education can be expressed in its broadest sense as the process of preparing individuals for life. When the individual is born, s/he receives his/her basic education from the family. Nevertheless, this education is not provided within a specific program, but in the form of transferring the experiences gained throughout their lives and cultural structures of parents or family elders to the new members of the family. This informal transfer of knowledge consists of social and cultural information that will facilitate the individual's adaptation to community life, rather than academic information. The child, who gets his/her basic education from the family, starts his/her formal education in a new social environment by starting school when s/he reaches school age. With formal education, the individual now begins to receive academic knowledge.

Primary school, which is the basis of formal education, aims to provide individuals with the basic knowledge, skills, and behavioral patterns they need to be successful in their lives. The Life Science course, which is among the basic courses in primary school, constitutes an essential point in achieving this goal. Life Science course has a holistic understanding with its multidisciplinary structure. It concentrates on developing solutions to possible difficulties individuals may face in real life.

The relevant experts have defined the Life Science course in many ways. Still, the concept of Life Science should first be explained. Accordingly, Life Science is an interactive process based on natural and human facts and the sum of the gains achieved at the end of this process (Sönmez, 2016). Life Science course, on the other hand, is a course that aims to provide individuals with the necessary skills required to make sense of the processes of life and to create behavioral patterns relevant to their environment in this process (Çelik, 2020). Kaya (2020) defines Life Science course as the product of an effort to present life to students as a whole. Life Science course is a course that shapes the individual's perspective of the world, enables them to get to know their surroundings, and develops various thinking skills (Aladağ, 2016). Baysal (2006) defines Life Science as a course that is based on social and natural sciences, prepares students for life and provides the ground for their next learning by concretely processing life-oriented information suitable for the students' development. As it is seen, although Life Science course is described in many ways, it principally focuses on common concepts. Consequently, in the light of the above information, Life Science course can be defined as the process of providing information of life in line with the cognitive and social development of the child in an order that enables the child to harmonize with his/her environment and make sense of the world.

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When the definitions of Life Science course are scrutinized, it is seen that a specific purpose is tried to be achieved. In this context, it stands out as an essential point what the purpose of Life Science course is. According to Akınoğlu (2004), Life Science course aims to prepare the child for life by revealing the options for determining the most appropriate solution to the several problems s/he may face in his/her struggle for life. Özdemir (1998) explains the aim of Life Science course as preparing the student for life by taking into account the psychosocial situation of the student and ensuring that they enjoy life by developing their self-awareness on their strengths and weaknesses. Sabancı and Şahin (2005), on the other hand, state that in addition to the above objectives, it is intended to raise individuals who have democratic attitudes, love for the country and the nation, and are equipped with national and universal values. When viewed from a broad perspective, it is seen that the aim of Life Science course is not only to prepare individuals for the environment they live in but also to adopt social feelings such as democratic attitude, love of the country-nation and values. In this context, it can be assumed that social changes direct the purpose of Life Science course.

When the aims of Life Science course are reviewed from past to present, it is observed that these goals are shaped according to the social needs appropriate to the circumstances of that day. When we look at the programs that came into force in 1926, 1936, 1948, 1968, 1998, 2005, 2009 and 2018 in the period from the proclamation of the Republic until today, these social requirements are immediately striking.

In the 1926 curriculum, the aim of Life Science course was described as revealing and strengthening the awareness of solidarity and unity among students. Simultaneously, the emphasis was placed on describing the basic principles of the republican regime, making observations, always considering local conditions, and the principle of near and far (Şahin, 2009).

In the 1936 program, several arrangements were made to reinforce the weaknesses of the previous program in meeting social needs with various steps. Besides, it was explained as enabling students to learn and perceive nature and human knowledge, to create an awareness of history, to activate the sense of commitment to the homeland and the nation, without ignoring the development levels of primary school students (MEB, 1936; Şimşek, 2014).

According to the 1948 curriculum, Life Science course is an observation, life, work and experiment lesson. Moreover, under the collective teaching principle, it was deemed appropriate to teach and integrate other courses with the focus of Life Science. In this context, the subjects of Life Science course focus on children's senses directly, moving in a line from their inner circle to their distant environment. This course aims to provide the child's social and natural environment as a whole following his/her development (Kaya, 2020).

The 1968 program remained in practice for about 30 years, becoming the longest implemented program. In this program, unlike the previous one, *the principle of learning by doing-living* was adopted (Binbaşoğlu, 2003), and the *collective teaching* principle, which was deemed appropriate for the 1st, 2nd and 3rd grades Life Science course, was also implemented for the 4th and 5th grades (Şahin, 2009). In this program, the objectives of Life Science course was described in five main items: a) developing skills for knowing the immediate environment, b) adopting civic duties and responsibilities, c)

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understanding human relations in society, d) adopting acting under the requirements of economic life, and finally, e) skills development for living in better conditions (Şahin, 2009; Aladağ, 2016; Topkaya & Yıldız, 2015).

The 2005 Life Science course program was subject to a lawsuit at the Council of State on the grounds that it did not serve the purposes of Turkish National Education adequately and was revised and implemented in 2009 with minor changes in a short period after the Council of State (Akyürek Tay & Baş, 2017) cancelled the program. Consequently, it would be appropriate to consider both programs as a single one rather than evaluating them separately. 2005-2009 Life Science programs start with the general objectives of the Turkish National Education. These programs are based on student-centeredness under the principle of collective education, and active learning related to the principle of being thematic and participation. In Life Science course organized under the collective teaching principle, it is aimed to introduce the child to both himself/herself and the society s/he is a part of with a holistic perspective (MEB, 2005).

When the 2018 Life Science course curriculum is reviewed, it is seen that it has a very versatile structure. In this program, 14 sub-goals were determined based on the general purpose of Life Science course. Also, one of the most striking points of this program is the presentation of root values, which are very crucial in social life. These values indicate the responsibilities of individuals such as justice, friendship, self-control, love, respect, benevolence and patriotism towards other members of the society.

In addition to the programs briefly summarized so far, in the 1998 program, which was published between 1980-2000, there were significant developments in Life Science course as in all courses.

### **General Features of Life Science course in the 1998 Program**

With the 1998 program, 8-year compulsory primary education was implemented. Primary and secondary school programs were also integrated with this application. The general features of the 1998 Life Science program, developed under the influence of the behavioral approach, can be listed as follows.

- In the 1998 curriculum, the primary purpose of Life Science course was announced as developing the knowledge, skills and attitudes required for the student to adapt to society (Bilasa, 2016).
- The student should make efforts that require some cooperation, such as playing games, role-playing and group work, in which social behaviors can easily be acquired.
- In 1998 Life Science curriculum, while writing goal and behavior statements, attention was paid to indicate a single achievement (Mızıkacı & Alkın Şahin, 2013).
- It was regarded that the written goals and behaviors do not overlap each other (Mızıkacı & Alkın Şahin, 2013).
- In the 1998 Life Science course program;
  - 58 target statements for first graders,
  - 86 target statements for second graders,
  - and 90 target statements were determined for the third graders (Akyürek-Tay & Baş, 2017).

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- Depending on social developments, topics such as telephone use, democratic behavior, conscious consumption, self-knowledge, and environmental sensitivity were covered.
  - Since every student is a unique asset in terms of interest, needs, abilities and learning potential, the teacher should adjust the starting point of teaching according to the readiness level of the student (Şahin, 2009).
  - While implementing the program, the principles of from known to the unknown, from near to far, from easy to difficult, from concrete to abstract should be considered (Şahin, 2009).
  - Life Science course should have a parallel structure with other courses.
  - As the 1998 program brought national values to the forefront, it was emphasized that national and religious holidays, local liberation events, celebration days, specific days and weeks, and important anniversaries were taught in the lessons.
  - The subjects did not have to be taught in a particular order. The teacher could add and remove new topics according to the environmental conditions.
  - Although a particular emphasis was placed on assessment and evaluation activities in this program, it was criticized on the grounds that traditional assessment and evaluation methods were used, and that the result rather than the process was evaluated (Kuru, 2020).

### **General and Special Objectives of Life Science course in the 1998 Program**

The 1998 program brought innovations in the objectives as well as in many other fields. As mentioned before, with this program, besides the general objectives, sub-objectives specific to units and subjects were also specified. With the 1998 program, 26 general objectives were stated in Life Science course program. General objectives stated in MoNE Journal of Communiques of January 1998 (<http://tebligler.meb.gov.tr/index.php/tuem-sayilar/viewcategory/62-1998>) are as follows:

- To feel proud to be a member of the Turkish nation
- To be aware of the integrity of the Republic of Turkey
- To adopt the cultural values of the Turkish nation
- To love and respect Atatürk
- To love and respect people
- To feel self-confident
- To make a habit of being in solidarity and cooperation
- To make a habit of creative and critical thinking
- To be aware of the importance of family life
- To be aware of the significance of what the school brings to oneself
- To make a habit of planned work
- To be sensitive to country and world events
- To perceive the relationship of sound and light with hearing and seeing
- To be able to recognize Atatürk's principles and reforms with their basic features

- To be able to identify the substances around
- To be able to know the space
- To understand the importance of tourism
- To understand the effects of natural events
- To be able to obey the basic rules of democracy
- To be able to protect one's health
- To be able to protect living and non-living things
- To be a conscious consumer
- To be able to protect the environment
- To be able to benefit from technological innovations

Depending on the general objectives listed above, when the specific objectives determined for the 1st, 2nd and 3rd grades are examined, it is seen that there are basically similar objectives. In total, 18 particular objectives for the first grade, 21 for the second grade and 22 for the third grade were determined. In the following tables (Tables 1 and 2), common specific objectives set for all three grades and non-common specific objectives are given.

**Table 1.** Life Science course common specific objectives for primary school 1st, 2nd and 3rd grades

1	Respect for the flag
2	Respect for the Turkish National Anthem
3	To love and respect Atatürk
4	To feel the joy of the feast
5	To love and respect people
6	To be able to recognize Atatürk's principles and reforms
7	To be able to know the space
8	To be able to obey the rules of collective life
9	To be able to fulfill one's rights and responsibilities
10	To be able to live healthily
11	To be able to improve one's abilities
12	To be able to protect the tools and equipment used
13	To be able to protect living beings
14	To be able to benefit from innovations
15	To make fair use of time

Source: MoNE 1998 January Journal of Communiques

In addition to the table above, sub-objectives specific to each grade were identified. These sub-objectives specific to grades are given comparatively in the table below:

**Table 2.** Life Science course non-common specific objectives for 1st, 2nd and 3rd grades of primary school

	1st grade	2nd grade	3rd grade
1	Conscious consumer knowledge	To be able to comprehend conscious consumerism	To be able to understand the importance of being a conscious consumer
2	To be able to establish good relationships with people around	To be able to establish good relations with the social environment	To be able to establish good relations with the social environment
3	To be able to protect the physical environment	To be able to protect the physical environment	To be able to improve the physical environment
4		To be able to understand the importance of education	To be able to understand the importance of education
5		Knowledge of the sources of light	Knowledge of the properties of the substance
6		Knowledge of the sources of sound	To be able to understand the relationship between Motion-Force-Energy
7			To be able to protect inanimate entities

Source: MoNE 1998 January Journal of Communiques

When Tables 1 and 2 are examined together, it is seen that 15 of the specific objectives determined for all three grades are common. Besides, non-common specific objectives were also determined, including 3 in the first grade, 6 in the second grade, and 7 in the third grade. However, it would not be wrong to say that these particular objectives are interconnected.

#### **Fundamental differences of the 1998 Program from the previous programs in terms of Life Science course**

In the 1998 program, it is seen that there are some essential differences from the previous programs in terms of Life Science course. The pilot application, in which the suitability of the program was tested, is one of these differences. According to curriculum development studies, it is seen that the idea of the 1998 program started long ago. With these studies, the Ministry of National Education developed the “National Education Development Project” in 1990 and the program, which was piloted in 1993-1994, started to be implemented in the whole country in 1998. However, while only general objectives were presented in the previous programs, in this program, besides the general objectives, appropriate sub-objectives were set for each grade level (1st, 2nd and 3rd grades). Also, depending on these sub-objectives, the Specifications table was used for the first time with the 1998 program. The aim here is to reveal the connection of each unit or subject with the objectives. Again, in addition to the specifications table, assessment tools and examples that can be used under the unit and the specification table within the scope of the assessment application are given. Another innovation is the transition to the framework program. In other words, it provides flexibility in choosing the subject for teachers according to environmental conditions. With this flexibility provided, teachers

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were able to exclude some of the subjects in the program or have the authority to deal with topics not included in the program. When the differences in the class hours were examined, the weekly class hours were reduced in 1998 Life Science course program compared to the previous programs, and it was applied as five hours for all three grades (1st, 2nd and 3rd grades) (Şimşek, 2014; Gündoğan, 2020).

The main differences between the 1968 program, which remained in practice for an extended period of approximately 30 years, and the 1998 program can be summarized. Accordingly, the different aspects of the 1998 Life Science course program from the 1968 Life Science course program can be listed as follows (Güven, 2010; Şahin, 2009):

- The behavioral approach was adopted. By dividing the studied subjects into meaningful parts, attention was paid to the analysis of each piece separately and to ensure that the behaviors revealed accordingly were observable and measurable.
- Thanks to the modular design of the fragmented cases, it was possible to teach each part independently of the others.
- In line with the behavioral approach, the aim of the program was expressed as directly observable and measurable objectives/gains/behaviors.
- The numerical expression of the behaviors and gains aimed was first introduced with the 1998 program. In this context, the number of objectives and behaviors for each grade (1st, 2nd and 3rd grades) was determined. Also, for the first time, teaching materials such as video cassettes and posters were included in this program to be used in classes.
- The program was based on the transfer of knowledge. In the learning-teaching process, the teacher structures the information himself/herself and presents it to the student.
- Unit plans suitable for all grade levels were written in detail.

### **Life Science course contents in 1998 Program**

According to Sönmez (2016), content is the arrangement of units and subjects in a way to reach the targeted behaviors. In other words, it is a tool used to achieve objectives. For achieving the objectives, goals are determined first. Then, the contents for the defined goals are created. Regarding the content, Sönmez (2016) states that content should

- Be compatible with target behaviors
- Be equipped with contemporary, scientific, artistic and philosophical knowledge
- Be suitable for the readiness level of the student
- Move from concrete to abstract
- From simple to complex
- From easy to difficult
- From known to unknown and be organized in a logical consistency.

When considered in the context of the content, Life Science course focuses on the immediate environment of students such as home, family, school, and this course is subject-centered. Under contemporary educational approaches, Life Science is one of the compulsory courses given in the first three years of the school, regarding the principles of

interest, from close to far, from concrete to abstract, from known to unknown. The topics given in this course are of a quality to develop the student in terms of their contents. In this context, the content of the Life Science course is centered on how the child makes sense of the world in the period from birth to school age and contributes to the acquisition of knowledge, skills and values for later periods (Kabapınar, 2019).

**Table 3.** Course Contents in the 1998 Life Science course program;

1st Grade Contents	2nd Grade Contents	3rd Grade Contents
I am starting school	Our school opened	Our school opened
Participation in-class activities and task sharing	Solidarity at school and home	Conscious consumerism and efficiency
Republic Day and Atatürk	Republic Day and Atatürk	Republic Day and Atatürk
I and my family	Let us grow healthily	Where we live
Parts of the year	Vehicles and traffic	Our community life
The Sun and our Earth	Communication	Let us grow healthily
Let us grow healthily	I see and hear	Living creatures around us
Our holiday, April 23rd	National Sovereignty and Children's Day	Earth and the space
Living creatures around us	Living creatures around us	National Sovereignty and Children's Day
On the eve of holiday	Earth and the space	Substances around us
	On the eve of holiday	Motion and force
		On the eve of holiday

Source: MoNE 1998 January Journal of Communiques

## CONCLUSION

It can be said that the primary objective of Life Science course is, in general terms, to make the child an individual compatible with the society they live. This objective was included in the training programs put into practice. However, according to the changing social conditions, it is seen that the objective and content dimension of Life Science course also keeps up with the times. For instance, while concepts related to the Republican regime were included in the 1926 program, economic conditions were mentioned in the 1968 program. Similarly, the use of the telephone in the 1998 program and the inclusion of "root values" in the 2018 program indicate that targets suitable for the conditions of that day were developed.

The 1998 education program stands out as the most critical development of education in Turkey between 1980-2000. The 1998 program, which was influenced by the behavioral approach, brought along significant consequences to Life Science course, as in other courses. One of these crucial developments is that Life Science course includes specific objectives as well as general objectives. Likewise, the table of specifications and new assessment and evaluation approaches can be listed among these advancements. In addition to all these, the belief that the teacher is still at the center of the teaching-learning activities in this program and the idea of transferring the knowledge through structuring it by the teacher can be regarded as points that can be criticized.

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## EPISODE 7

# TEACHER TRAINING POLICIES AND PRACTICES IMPLEMENTED IN TURKEY BETWEEN 1980 AND 2000

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## INTRODUCTION

Education is one of the most important instruments that enable the transfer of the values, culture, traditions, and customs of a nation to future generations and ensure the development of the country by taking into account the changes and developments taking place across the world. Therefore, education is an indispensable tool that has been used since the beginning of humanity. Every education system is expected to reflect the norms of the society to which it belongs and to meet that society's expectations from education (Azar, 2011). Education aims to take the necessary measures for the socialization of our children, who will form our future, to adapt to society, and to establish our future on solid foundations (Akman, Kılıç Çarşanbalı & Alagöz, 2017). The progress and development of societies are directly related to the quality of education. Ensuring quality education requires increasing the qualifications of teachers. The fact that the relationship between quality of education and quality of teachers affects societies significantly has been accepted by researchers (Aras & Sözen, 2012). The teacher, who undertakes the responsibility of realizing the education and training process in the school in line with the aims determined in the curriculum, is one of the important actors in this process (Kara, 2020). Since education interacts with many fields (e.g., social life, law, politics, economy), the quality of teachers, one of the most important stakeholders of the education system, the prestige of the teaching profession, and teachers' status in the society affect the developments in other fields, as well (Bozbayındır, 2019a). This is because the teacher has the power and responsibility to take initiatives for the other components of education. Therefore, the most important element that determines the quality of an education system is the teacher (Özoğlu, 2011). Training teachers has been the main problem in many education systems. Countries should not underestimate the training of teachers, who have an important role in transferring the values of a nation to future generations. The training of teachers should be carried out systematically and according to developments taking place.

The teaching profession is the art of raising good, creative individuals and citizens who are useful for their family, environment, nation, state, and country. Therefore, the economic development, even the future of a nation, country, and state depends, above all, on the success of teachers in their profession (Tekışık, 1987). The teaching profession is a profession for humanity. The importance of training teachers is intertwined with improving their qualifications. According to Atatürk, the Head Teacher of Turkey, it is important to recognize the social value of the teaching profession (Karahan, 2008; Şimşek, U., Küçük, & Topkaya, 2012). To train teachers with the qualifications required by today

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and the future, all components of the teacher training system should be questioned and improved in a process that includes the continuous assessment. The teaching profession and the teacher training process have gained a different meaning in parallel with the rapid increase in the knowledge accumulation brought about by globalization and thus with the changes in lifestyle, technology, and perspectives on life (Azar, 2011). This is because, the importance of manpower, especially the power of knowledge dependent on manpower has increased day by day. The most important component of the education system that improves these powers is teachers. The competitive environment that emerged particularly with globalization brought about the need to raise individuals with superior qualities. Education is the only way to ensure that individuals gain these qualities (Akdemir, 2013). The quality of education and teacher competence are the focal points for individuals to reach the desired level in all development areas, to become beneficial for themselves and their countries, and to grow as independent individuals (Aras & Sözen, 2012).

Teacher training and employment policies implemented to provide teachers, who constitute an important element of the education system, with the qualifications required by our age have changed at an unprecedented rate from the past to the present day (Gül Avşar, 2007). Also, the teaching profession and the quality of teachers have been a frequently-discussed topic in many countries. This reveals the importance of teacher training systems (Aras & Sözen, 2012). Training teachers requires strong teacher training policies. The teaching profession and institutions that train teachers should employ strong strategies (Karahan, 2008). Various models have been used in the historical process in Turkey in training teachers both before and during the service (Azar, 2011). The teacher, one of the most important elements of education, and the training of teachers have been one of the most important issues of the education system in Turkey (Duman, 2009).

As the socio-cultural and economic life improved in the Republican Era in Turkey, the demands of the society from education changed; hence, significant innovations were needed in the education system to meet these demands (Duman, 1988). With the effect of westernization, teacher training has been an important issue in Turkey for the last 150 years, but the desired level has not been reached in both the education of the society and the training of teachers with appropriate qualifications (Saç, 2016). During the Republican era, increasing the quality of teachers was always emphasized in the training of teachers; however, the concern to eliminate the deficiency of teachers, that is, to increase the number of teachers, often prevented the achievement of the desired goals in this regard. Some of the teacher training schools affiliated to the Ministry of National Education were opened without thoroughly examining the status of teaching staff, physical conditions, course materials, and equipment, which negatively affected the training of teachers in terms of quality (Oğuzkan, 1982). It can be stated that the teacher training policies implemented in Turkey between 1938 and 1982 (especially in the 1970s) were generally aimed at increasing the quantity (Bozbayındır, 2019b). The Basic Law on National Education No. 1739 dated June 14, 1973, defined the teaching profession as a specialized profession that takes over the state's education, training, and related management duties. However, the acceptance of the teaching profession as an area of expertise led to significant changes in the training of teachers. In this context, this chapter of the book discusses the practices related to teacher training implemented in Turkey between 1982 and 2000. Depending on the changes in this section, the teacher training process has been evaluated under two separate titles: the 1980s and the 1990s.

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## **Teacher Training Policies and Practices implemented in Turkey in the 1980s**

Significant developments took place regarding the teacher training policies implemented in the 1980s in Turkey. The definition of the teaching profession as an area of expertise in the Basic Law on National Education No. 1739 dated 1973 affected the teacher training process, as well. In the 1970s, the need for primary school teachers was met to a great extent (Bozbayındır, 2019b). Within the framework of the principle emphasized in the Basic Law on National Education No. 1739 that teachers at all levels should receive higher education, the “First Teacher Training Schools” were renamed as “Teacher Training High Schools” from the academic year of 1974-75, and two-year Education Institutes were established to train teachers for the first stage of basic education. Thus, the quality of teachers began to be dealt with at the higher education level (Baskan 2001; Duman, 2009). Initially, graduates of first teacher training schools and high schools were admitted to various departments of education institutes through written exams and interviews. Later, tests and interviews were started to be used as criteria to be admitted to these institutes. Finally, high school graduates were started to be admitted according to their SSPC (Student Selection and Placement Center) test results. Students studying at these institutions received courses related to the teaching profession in addition to their branch courses and were required to do an internship for a certain period (Kavcar, 2002). The total study period of the education institutes established to train teachers for secondary schools was increased to three years at the end of 1969, and four years in 1977. This decision is very important in terms of ensuring that teachers at all levels start the profession with the same academic degree (undergraduate degree) (Baskan 2001; Abazoğlu, Yıldırım, & Yıldızhan, 2016).

As education institutes were built on the buildings of previous teacher training schools, they were easy to establish; as a result, the number of three-year Education Institutes, including Ankara Gazi, İstanbul, Atatürk, İzmir Buca, Balıkesir Necati Education Institutes, was increased in a short time. However, the teaching provided in these institutes lacked quality due to the lack of qualified teaching staff and adequate control. These schools eventually created such a complicated situation that by the 1980s, they constituted the biggest problem for the Ministry of National Education (Ergün, 1987). According to Kaya (1984), at the time when teacher training institutions were affiliated to the Ministry of National Education, especially in the 1970s, there were many complaints about these institutions. The students to be admitted to these institutions were first required to take a composition test with their names written on the paper explicitly, and those who succeeded in this test had to take an interview exam. However, according to the newspaper reports of the time, this system was corrupted as students' political and ideological views were revealed through the interviews and the selection of the students was made according to their political and ideological views (Karasolak, 2017). As a result, education institutes became the centers of student conflicts in the late 1970s. According to a study conducted at the time, 99.4 percent of teachers in teacher training institutions, 94.6 percent of educational scientists, and 92 percent of senior officials of the Ministry of National Education were in favor of the transfer of teacher training from the Ministry of National Education to universities (Uçar, Bakış, Aydin, and Kaptan, 1980, as cited in Okçabol, 2004). With a decision taken in 1980, the name of the education institutes was changed to “Higher Schools of Teacher Training” (Abazoğlu, Yıldırım, & Yıldızhan, 2016). Per the Decree-Law No. 41 dated 20 July 1982, the task of training teachers was taken from the Ministry and transferred to universities, and some of the education institutes were transformed into faculties of education (Okçabol, 2004).

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The developments that took place after 1982 in the teacher training process in Turkey were significantly affected by the 1982 Constitution. The Article 42 of the 1982 Constitution stipulates that education shall be conducted along the lines of the principles and reforms of Atatürk, based on contemporary scientific and educational principles, under the supervision and control of the State. Educational institutions contravening these principles shall not be established.), it is foreseen that teachers responsible for carrying out educational and training services should have the qualifications specified in this article of the Constitution (Gül Avşar, 2007). After the military coup of 12 September 1980, Kemalist discourses came to the fore but liberal practices took place in the Turkish education system. In the 10th and 11th National Education Councils held during this period, important decisions were taken on expertise in education and training teachers (Bilir, 2011). During the 11th National Education Council held between 8 and 11 June 1982, some problems related to teacher training were stated. These problems were as follows:

1. Teachers are trained for various educational stages and types in different institutions with different programs and study periods.
2. Existing teacher training programs are arranged in a way to allow horizontal and vertical transfers (between universities) specified in Article 43 of the National Education Basic Law.
3. The 10th National Education Council adopted integration in educational programs. However, diversity rather than integration is observed in the programs of existing teacher training institutions.
4. In teacher training institutions, general culture, field knowledge, and teaching profession knowledge programs specified in Article 43 of Law No. 1739 are not bound to certain standards. The necessary relationship could not be established between these programs of teacher training institutions and the programs of the educational institutions to which teachers would be appointed.
5. What kind of additional qualifications are to be sought in teachers to work in teacher training institutions and what the education levels of these teachers are to be are not clearly stated.
6. At all levels of our education system, people with an insufficient teaching certificate or no certificate are employed as teachers. Employment of such people as teachers, especially in teacher training institutions, significantly affects the quality of teachers being trained.
7. Substitute teachers are employed at all levels of our education system.
8. Quantitative and qualitative problems in teacher training have been discussed separately until today. Quality has often been compromised to eliminate the shortage of teachers. The accelerated training of teachers, which is known to all, is an example of this. Since these efforts, which were far from solving quality-related problems, were not carried out based on supply-demand balance, they failed to solve quantity-related problems either.

In the 11th National Education Council, the principles of the Teacher Training Model were also determined for the solution of the above-mentioned problems regarding teacher training. These principles were as follows:

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1. According to Article 43 of the Basic Law on National Education, teacher training is considered within the framework of higher education. Accordingly, regardless of the educational stage where the prospective teacher is going to work, he/she should receive a post-high school education.
  2. This law does not stipulate the duration of teacher training. According to the developed model, an undergraduate degree (4-year education) including general culture, field knowledge, and vocational knowledge courses was accepted for each educational stage.
  3. The duration of the program is, undoubtedly, not the only factor that resolves the quality problem. How the duration of the program is spent is even more important. The point to be considered here is that the knowledge and skills required by each educational stage should be provided in the best way to prospective teachers in this period. Emphasis has been placed upon this issue while developing the model.
  4. The integration of educational programs was accepted as a principle in the 10th National Education Council. Accordingly, integration should be adopted in teacher training programs, as well.
  5. Article 43 of the Basic Law on National Education specifies that the training to be received by the prospective teacher, regardless of his/her educational stage, should be arranged in a way to allow horizontal and vertical transfers. Thus, the teacher training program model developed enables horizontal and vertical transfers.
  6. Considering both the economic situation and the geographical location of our country, it is seen that the appointment of a teacher in every teaching field is a waste. For this reason, it is envisaged that each prospective teacher receives an education in an academic minor in addition to his/her major.

When the principles set forth by the 11th National Education Council are examined; they determined the academic standards to be sought in prospective teachers and experts to be appointed to each educational stage, stated that those who meet these conditions can be employed as teachers or experts, and required the teacher training institutions to take into account the issues specified in the council (Duman, 1988). Likewise, the Fourth Five-Year Development Plan (1979-1983) stated the following principles about teacher training:

1. All prospective teachers must receive education in higher education institutions. However, the main source of higher schools of teacher training will be teacher high schools.
2. Considering the capacities of education institutes, a flexible teacher training system will be developed to meet the needs of teachers at different educational stages and the use of excess capacity per other educational purposes will be ensured.

Before the teacher training task was fully transferred to universities, this task was carried out by both higher education institutions affiliated to the Ministry of National Education and universities. Table 1 presents information on institutions that trained teachers in Turkey in the 1982-1983 academic year (Council of Higher Education, 2007)

**Table 1.** Institutions that trained teachers in Turkey in the 1982-1983 academic year

	Institution	Study Period (years)	Program	Number of Institutions
Higher Education Institutions Training Teachers under the Ministry of National Education (1982-83 Academic Year)	Teacher Training Higher School (1)	4	Turkish Language and Literature	10 Schools
			History- Geography	
			Mathematics- Physics	
			Physics- Mathematics	
			Physics- Chemistry	
			Chemistry- Physics	
			Chemistry- Biology	
			Biology- Chemistry	
			German	
			French	
			English	
			Education	
			Art	
			Music	
			Physical Education	
Education Institute	Education Institute	21		17 Institutes
School of Foreign Languages	School of Foreign Languages	31		16 Schools

Training Education Experts and Teachers in Universities	University	Faculty	Department / Program
	Ankara University	Education	-
	Ankara University	Faculty of Lan-guage History and Geography	Pedagogy
	İnönü University	Faculty of Basic Sciences	Mathematics Teaching License Physics Teaching License Chemistry Teaching License
	İstanbul University	Faculty of Liter-ature	Pedagogy
	Middle East Tech-nical University	Faculty of Sciences and Literature	Mathematics Teaching Physics Teaching Chemistry Teaching

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As can be inferred from Table 1, the Ministry of National Education trained teachers in Higher Schools of Teacher Training (training teachers for high schools-4 years), Schools of Foreign Languages (training foreign language teachers-3 years), and Education Institutes (training classroom teachers-2 years). Besides, in universities, students who have completed their undergraduate education in various faculties were allowed to enroll in pedagogical formation certificate programs held by departments of educational sciences. However, it can also be inferred from the table that some universities included programs aimed directly at training teachers.

Although the task of training teachers was undertaken entirely by the Ministry of National Education until 1982, universities were also an important resource for teacher training. Indeed, Istanbul and Ankara Universities trained many teachers in some fields (Council of Higher Education, 2007). Prior to the Law on Higher Education No. 2547 dated 1981, the Turkish higher education system consisted of three different institutions: autonomous universities, specialized academies under the Ministry of National Education, teacher training faculties affiliated administratively and academically to the Ministry of National Education. However, with the 1981 higher education reform, the higher education system was envisaged to be run only by universities (Türk, 2002). With the Decree-Law on the Administrative Organization of Higher Education Institutions published in the Official Gazette dated 20 July 1982 and numbered 17760, teacher training institutions got affiliated to universities. At the stage of gathering all higher education institutions training teachers under the roof of universities within the framework of Decree-Law No. 41 (20 July 1982), four-year education institutes and higher schools of teacher training were renamed as faculties of education and two-year education institutes were renamed as higher schools of education. Also, schools of foreign languages got affiliated to the relevant departments of faculties of education. Besides, Youth and Sports Academies under the Ministry of Youth and Sports were renamed as Physical Education and Sports Departments and got affiliated to faculties of education. The study periods of these schools remained the same (a four-year study period in faculties of education; a two-year study period in higher schools of education). In the academic year of 1982-83, which was the first academic year after the reform, the departments of these faculties were reorganized by taking into account the structure and requirements of the National Education System (Council of Higher Education, 2007). Besides, the transitional provision of the Decree-Law on the Administrative Organization of Higher Education Institutions stated: "Of those who are appointed to a position to be trained as a teacher, those who have not received an undergraduate degree are placed in the relevant universities by the Council of Higher Education to complete their undergraduate education within a maximum of one academic year, provided that their staff registry remains in the relevant ministries." Thus, the teacher training system attained a new status and structure. Higher schools of teacher training and education institutes were reorganized under the name of faculties of education. From then on, teacher training was transferred to universities and teacher employment to the Ministry of National Education (Duman, 1988).

The Council of Higher Education (CHE), which was established with the 1982 Constitution, became the new planning and management center of education institutes affiliated to universities. From that date on, education institutes were transformed into four-year faculties of education to create a standard model. Besides, Higher Schools of Technical and Art Teacher Training, which had been meeting the technical teacher needs of Turkey since the 1930s, were changed as Faculties of Technical Education (Ergün, 1987; Akdemir, 2013). With the Law No. 2547, two-year education institutes affiliated

to the Ministry of National Education were transformed into higher schools of education and four-year higher schools were transformed into faculties of education, which were considered as steps to increase the quality of education. This also points to the increase in the importance given to teacher training (Aras & Sözen, 2012). The transfer of all teacher training institutions to universities provided the teacher training system with an academic structure, status, and mechanism. The diversity seen before 1982 in teacher training institutions came to an end, and certain standards were introduced to teacher training. This new regulation provided a unified, autonomous, and academic structure to the teacher training system. It also led to positive developments such as overcoming the political influence over teacher training institutions, having academic staff with academic careers, and having the opportunity to specialize, research, and publish (Duman, 2009). With the regulation in 1982, specialization in majors deepened, and over time, academic minors were abandoned, and teachers were tried to be trained in only one major (such as physics, chemistry, history) (Güven, 2015). After the teacher training task was undertaken by universities with the legal regulations of 1982, primary school teachers started to be trained by higher schools of education and secondary education teachers by faculties of education (Atanur Baskan & Aydin, 2006). The widespread practice, albeit differences among faculties, regarding the departmental structure of faculties of education until early 1990, is given in Table 2.

**Table 2.** Academic Structuring of Faculties of Education (Between 1983 and 1993) (Council of Higher Education, 2007).

Department	Department/Art Major
Educational Sciences	Education Programs and Teaching Psychological Services in Education Educational Administration, Inspection, Planning, and Economy Assessment and Evaluation in Education Special Education
Science Education	Biology Education Physics Teaching Chemistry Teaching Mathematics Teaching
Social Sciences Education	Geography Education History Education
Turkish Language and Literature Education	Turkish Language Education Turkish Literature Education
Foreign Languages Education	German Language Education French Language Education English Language Education
Music Education	Voice Education Instrument Education Music Theories Education

Art Education	Art Education Graphics Education Sculpture Education Ceramic Education Textile Design Business Education
Physical Education and Sports	Physical Education Sports Education

The decision of the Council of Higher Education dated 12 October 1982 and numbered 82/367 stipulated the establishment of “educational sciences departments” in all Faculties of Education to give teaching knowledge courses. In the following years, educational sciences departments were also started to be established in the faculties of science and letters of universities that did not include faculties of education (Council of Higher Education, 2007). Although all higher education institutions were gathered under the roof of universities with the law numbered 2547 enacted in 1982, Higher Schools of Education, which trained teachers, still provided two-year teaching training. With the decision of the Council of Higher Education dated 23 May 1989 and numbered 89.22.876, the study period of the Higher Schools of Education was increased to four years starting from the 1989-90 academic year (Council of Higher Education, 2007; Kızılçaoğlu, 2005). Increasing the study period of Higher Schools of Education to 4 years not only provided unity in teacher training but also increased the quality of teacher training (Karahan, 2008). Table 3 presents the departments (teaching and educational sciences) envisaged to be opened from the 1983-1984 academic year (Council of Higher Education, 2007).

**Table 3.** Departments envisaged to be opened from the 1983-1984 academic year

Turkish Language and Literature Teaching Program	Music Teaching Program
Art Teaching Program	Geography Teaching Program
Physical Education and Sports Teaching	Mathematics Teaching Program
Physics Teaching Program	Special Education Teaching Program
Assessment and Evaluation in Education	Biology Teaching Program
English Language Teaching Program	Psychological Counseling and Guidance Teaching Program
Educational Programs and Teaching Program	German Language Teaching Program
Educational Administration and Planning	Chemistry Teaching Program
Education Management and Supervisory	Teacher Training and Faculties of Education
History Teaching Program	French Language Teaching Program
Classroom Teaching Program (Higher School of Education)	

Regarding the weight of content categories in teacher training programs, it was stated in the 11th National Education Council that a person to be a teacher should know the teaching profession, field, and general culture. In the 11th National Education Council, it was suggested that the weight of the course contents in teacher training programs should be as indicated in Table 4.

**Table 4.** In the 11th National Education Council four-year undergraduate program course content recommendation

Content Categories	Course Type	Credit	Weight (%)
Teaching Knowledge (Including Practice)	12	36	25.
Knowledge of Field	30	90	62.5
General Culture	6	18	12.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>144</b>	<b>100</b>

The Council of Higher Education, taking into account the decisions of the 11th National Education Council, introduced the pedagogical formation certificate program with the letter dated 19 November 1982 and numbered 220/5880 (Council of Higher Education, 2007). Information on this regulation is given in Table 5. In Higher Schools of Education, Classroom Teaching Program for Higher Schools of Education, developed by the Council of Higher Education, started to be implemented from the 1983-1984 academic year. In this program, 61% of the courses were devoted to general culture classes, 24% to the knowledge of field classes, and 15% to teaching profession classes. Albeit with some amendments, this program was implemented until the academic year of 1989-1990, when the study period of higher schools of education was extended to four years (Karasolak, 2017).

**Table 5.** Pedagogical Formation Certificate Program (19 November 1982)

Course title	Course hour	Semester
Introduction to Teaching	3	I
Sociology of Education	3	II
Educational Psychology	3	III
Educational Principles and Methods	3	IV
Assessment and Evaluation	3	V
Educational Technology	3	VI
Guidance	3	VII
Special Education Methods	3	VII
Educational Administration	3	VIII
Special Education Practices	30 days	VIII
<b>TOTAL 27 hours + Practice</b>		

Less than three years after the regulation regarding the pedagogical formation certificate program, the Ministry of National Education stated in a letter to the Council of Higher Education that there is a need to revise the pedagogical formation certificate program (Council of Higher Education, 2007). Upon this letter, the Council of Higher Education, with the decision dated 27.09.1985 and numbered 85.52.845, reviewed the program in question and made a new arrangement in the program. The courses envisaged to be included in the program are given in Table 6.

**Table 6.** Pedagogical Formation Certificate Program (27 September 1985)

Course title	Course hour
Introduction to Educational Sciences	3
Sociology of Education	2
Educational Psychology	3
General Education Programs	3
Assessment and Evaluation	3
Special Education Methods	3
Elective course (Educational Philosophy, Research Techniques, Program Development, Adult Education, Educational Administration and Supervision, Vocational and Technical Education, Education Planning, Education Economy, Turkish Education History, Education and Development, Educational Technology, Special Education, Educational Tools, Audiovisual Tools and Methods, Statistics, Our Educational Organization and Guidance)	2
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>19</b>

When looking at the programs as a whole, it can be emphasized that the first regulation is more comprehensive and its practice dimension is more weighted than that of the second one. In this context, in the second regulation, the number of credits was reduced from 27 hours to 18-21 hours, and educational technology and guidance courses were removed. This practice continued unchanged in the following years, until the 1998-99 academic year (Council of Higher Education, 2007). The Ministry of National Education held a proficiency exam for the teaching profession several times, with the first one held in 1985. This exam, held by SSPC on behalf of the Ministry, included questions in three areas: general culture, knowledge of field, and knowledge of the teaching profession. The exam was abolished in 1991 due to both the candidates' failure to achieve the desired scores and political reasons (Kavcar, 2002).

The most important drawback of the system that was in practice before 1982 was that teacher training was open to political influence. Transferring the task of teacher training to universities eliminated this drawback. However, the fact that universities took on the task of training teachers at a time when they were unprepared and when they were undergoing a structural change, that they lacked adequate experience in teacher training, that they had an insufficient number of teaching staff, and that there was no continuous and institutionalized cooperation between the Ministry of National Education, which employed teachers, and universities resulted in some problems especially in the first years of this regulation (Duman, 1988; Akyüz, 2007; Duman, 2009). After the affiliation of teacher training institutions to universities in 1982, ministry units and universities started to work with no cooperation between (Binbaşioğlu, 2014). In the 11th National Education Council, important and comprehensive decisions were taken regarding teacher training. The Ministry of National Education seemed to be paying attention to these decisions and demanded universities to implement them (Duman, 1988). During the six years following the transfer of teacher training to the Council of Higher Education, the Ministry of National Education was unable to meet the need for teachers of sufficient number and quality; it, therefore, wanted to undertake teacher training again. This issue was brought up during the 12th National Education Council (18-22 July 1988) but was

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rejected. Thereupon, in line with the council decisions, the General Directorate of Teacher Training and Education was established (1989) to replace the General Directorate of Teacher Schools, which was abolished in 1982. The general directorate in question gave great importance to the issue of establishing healthy and close cooperation between the Ministry and the Council of Higher Education and universities (Kavcar, 2002).

### **Teacher Training Policies and Practices implemented in Turkey in the 1990s**

As universities were not ready for the task of training teachers after the transfer of the task to universities, that coordination and cooperation between universities and the Ministry of National Education were not at the expected level, and that the demands of the Ministry of National Education from universities were not met sufficiently, some radical changes were made in teacher education in the 1990s. The change experienced around the world was reflected in education systems and the Turkish education system was also affected by this change. Many changes have been made in the Turkish education system especially since the 1990s to improve the system. With the regulations on the training and appointment of teachers, it was desired to create a permanent structure in the teacher training and appointment system (Saç, 2016).

The first regulation made in the 1990s was that Higher Schools of Education were transferred to the Departments of classroom teaching under the faculties of education in the 1992-1993 academic year (Baskan 2001). After this regulation, which positively affected the status of classroom teaching, some negative developments also occurred. Since this regulation was not implemented in a planned way, departments of classroom teaching were unable to produce graduates for a few years, causing a serious shortage of classroom teachers (Karasolak, 2017). In this period, the Ministry of National Education stated that since the study period of the Higher Schools of Education was increased to four years, there could be a shortage of classroom teachers and that to eliminate this shortage, graduates with a pedagogical formation certificate (determined by the decision of the Board of Education) may be required to be appointed as teachers, and, for this reason, requested that pedagogical formation courses of at least 26 weeks and 21 credits/hours be opened (Council of Higher Education, 2007). Considering the practices regarding who would attend the pedagogical formation certificate programs, according to the decision dated 03.04.1991 and numbered 37, except for the graduates of Faculties of Science, Faculties of Letters, Faculties of Science and Letters, Faculties of Languages, History, and Geography, Faculties of Fine Arts, Faculties of Engineering and Architecture, Faculties of Agriculture, State Conservatory, and Higher Schools of Education; applications of higher school graduates who do not have a pedagogical formation certificate or who cannot certify that they have taken 21-credit teaching profession course would be accepted "only if the need for teachers cannot be met." However, these teachers were still required to receive pedagogical formation courses during their probationary period. The decision dated 29.12.1993 and numbered 523 stated that, in cases where the need cannot be met, priority is given to graduates who certify that they have taken 21-credit teaching profession courses, and in cases where the need can still not be met in this way, those who do not have a pedagogical formation certificate are appointed, provided that they receive pedagogical formation courses through in-service training during their probationary period (The same practice was also included in the decision dated 21.06.1998 and numbered 218) (Koçak & Kavak, 2014). In the 15th National Education Council, it was stated that, in principle, university graduates with no training in the teaching field should not be appointed to primary schools (as classroom and branch teachers). However, due

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to the huge shortage of classroom teachers and the expectancy that this shortage would increase further in the next few years, it was decided to hold Teacher Training Programs to last for at least one year in the field of classroom teaching to enable the employment of graduates from different departments of Faculties of Education. After Higher Schools of Education were changed as Faculties of Education, new departments for branch teaching were also started to be opened in these schools, which only educated classroom teachers previously (Uygun, 2006, 599, as cited in Gül Avşar, 2007). Between 1992 and 1998, classroom teachers were trained in departments of classroom teaching under the faculties of education (Karasolak, 2017).

Various discussions about pedagogical formation certificate programs arose in Turkey between 1992 and 1994. The Ministry of National Education wrote to the Council of Higher Education several times and pointing to the drawbacks of intensive pedagogical formation certificate courses (40-50 days) opened in the faculties of education of some universities, stated that such intensive approach should be avoided, that such practices would negatively affect the quality of teachers, and that these programs should be organized as at least 26 weeks and 21 credits/hours. In response, the Council of Higher Education paid the necessary attention to the subject and asked universities to comply with the principles and programs determined concerning the pedagogical formation (Higher Education Institution, 2007). During the 15th National Education Council, it was decided that “Pedagogical formation courses organized at universities for higher education graduates in different branches should be terminated.”

In the period until 1997, Turkey’s problem of training a sufficient number of qualified teachers remained unsolved. For this reason, the issue of restructuring faculties that train teachers remained on the agenda since 1982. Therefore, the Council of Higher Education decided that some innovations and changes were necessary for the teacher training system and started a study on this subject in 1996. With the restructuring of the faculties of education in 1997, quality in teacher training was brought to the fore (Atanur Baskan & Aydin, 2006; Azar, 2011). The teacher training and employment system in Turkey entered the restructuring process in 1997 together with problems of planning and inter-institutional cooperation and coordination (Council of Higher Education, 2007).

In the 14th National Education Council held in 1993, it was decided “To establish a Teacher Training Coordination Board to ensure continuous cooperation in teacher training between the Ministry of National Education and the Council of Higher Education.” In the 15th National Education Council held in 1996, it was decided that teachers should be trained in universities, that faculties that train teachers should be opened in developed environments, that primary school teachers (classroom and branch teachers) should be trained together in the same type of institutions, that teaching staff in teacher training institutions should be equipped with practical experience and professional experience, that the teaching staff in institutions that train teachers should preferably be selected from the teachers of the Basic Education Period (pre-school, classroom, and branch teachers) teachers of that institution and they should be provided with a career, that unity should be established in the education programs of faculties of education that train teachers, and that considering the needs of teacher training, the coordination between the relevant higher education institutions and the Ministry should be improved and the flow of information should be increased within this framework. The report published by the Council of Higher Education in 1996 expressed the problems in teacher training and presented solution offers for these problems and stated that faculties of education

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would be restructured: “The quality of higher education depends largely on the quality of primary and secondary education, and the quality of education at these levels depends on the quality of teachers trained in higher education. Considering the necessity of expanding the eight-year basic education, our teacher training system is under review. Eight-year primary education teachers should be selected from the departments of basic education teaching at faculties of education, branch teachers in high schools should be selected from graduates of faculties of science and letters and other related faculties, and trainee teachers should be trained in programs where they will receive education at the graduate level. Our efforts to restructure the faculties of education in this direction are continuing” (Council of Higher Education, 1996).

The teacher training system in Turkish universities was restructured in 1998 as a result of the decisions taken in the 14th and 15th National Education Councils, the issues stated in the report published by the Council of Higher Education in 1996, and the cooperation between the World Bank and the Ministry of National Education (Kavcar, 2002). Important problems arising with restructuring in undergraduate and graduate programs training teachers and the basic needs arising from the contemporary developments and trends in teacher training required the re-designing of these programs (Kızılçaoğlu, 2005). One of the most important reasons for the restructuring of faculties of education carried out by the Council of Higher Education in 1997 was the need for teachers in the secondary stage of primary education. The source of this problem lies in the fact that the academic staff coming to the faculties of education from the faculties of science and letters endeavored to open programs for high school teaching and ignored the need to train secondary school teachers, as they saw secondary education branches closer to their field of study (Gül Avşar, 2007). One of the sub-sections of the National Education Development Project (NEDP), carried out with a loan provided to Turkey by the World Bank, was “Pre-Service Teacher Training.” This section of the project was carried out in cooperation with the Ministry of National Education and the Council of Higher Education. The project started as a three-year project on 1 December 1994, then extended until 30 June 1999. The main purpose of the project was to increase the quality of training provided to teachers to work in primary and secondary schools. Within the scope of this project, program development studies were carried out, the academic staff was provided with the opportunity to conduct research abroad, the equipment in faculties of education was increased, the cooperation between the faculties of education and the application school was increased and a program was developed to achieve this cooperation, standardization and accreditation studies were carried out in teacher training, and the National Committee for Teacher Training was established to ensure the continuity and effectiveness of the reform movement in the teacher training system (Council of Higher Education, 2007). The Ministry of National Education is represented by five members in the National Committee for Teacher Training, which acts as an advisory body in the decisions of the Council of Higher Education regarding teacher training (Türk, 2002). By considering the deficiencies in teacher training practices implemented until 1996, faculties of education were restructured in 1997 and the quality in teacher training was brought to the fore (Azar, 2011). In the document titled “Rearrangement of Teacher Training Programs for Faculties of Education” published in 1998 by the Council of Higher Education, the reasons for the 1997 regulation were specified as follows:

1. Lack of standards in various aspects such as content, number of courses and credits, and practices in schools,

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- 2. Inconsistencies between the content of the courses included in the programs and the content of the teaching area at the relevant school level,
  - 3. Lack of a gradual and complementary logical relationship between among courses,
  - 4. More emphasis placed on theoretical lessons than practice, which is largely neglected,
  - 5. Required courses direct prospective teachers to specialization in a branch of the relevant subject area and the courses on teaching methods are insufficient,
  - 6. The courses offered in the programs are shaped in line with the tendencies and preferences of the faculty members rather than the needs of prospective teachers and the relevant school level, and therefore the number of courses and the compulsory credit load increase significantly,
  - 7. The courses in the pedagogical formation certificate program provide theoretical knowledge in the field of educational sciences, but they are far from providing students with the knowledge, skills, and perspectives required for teaching,
  - 8. Since the compulsory course load in the programs is more than necessary, no time can be allocated for elective courses for students to develop their interests,
  - 9. There are inconsistencies between the whole program and the application in schools.

The teacher training model, which was put into practice in 1997, aimed to reorganize the teaching profession as “teaching technicians.” The restructuring model focuses on training teaching technicians who will perform teaching in certain fields (Üstüner, 2004). With the Rearrangement of Teacher Training Programs for Faculties of Education, first of all, it was aimed to meet the need for classroom teachers and branch teachers for the eight-year compulsory primary education, which entered into force with the Law No. 4306 dated 16.8.1997 and started to be implemented in the 1997-98 academic year, move secondary education teaching to graduate level, and to train more qualified teachers by reorganizing the courses in both undergraduate and graduate teacher training programs (Council of Higher Education, 1998). Important problems arising with restructuring in undergraduate and graduate programs training teachers and the basic needs arising from the contemporary developments in teacher training required the re-designing of these programs (Kızılçaoğlu, 2005).

With a letter dated 6 November 1997 and numbered B.30.0.000.0.01/534-22449 sent to universities, the Council of Higher Education declared that the new regulation studies regarding the faculties of education were finalized and that the new regulation was accepted by the Council of Higher Education Executive Board’s decision dated 4 November 1997 and numbered 97.39.2761, and requested the implementation of the practices in this direction. Besides, information about the principles of application, the names of the departments and programs, the scheme and the non-thesis master’s program were attached to the letter. The following regulations were made regarding the new structure and program envisaged in 1997 (Council of Higher Education, 1996; Council of Higher Education, 2007).

- 1. Throughout the program development studies, the curriculum applied in our schools was obtained from the Ministry of National Education and reviewed,

the education and learning needs of the relevant student group were taken into consideration, and parallelism was tried to be established between the developed programs and the curriculum at the school level and the educational process.

2. Departments and programs were rearranged. In this context, 10 departments and 32 main disciplines (departments) and 29 programs are envisaged within the faculties of education.
3. Two options were envisaged for the training of teachers in faculties of education, which was envisaged to be carried out at the graduate level: The first option (3.5 years + 1.5 years = 5 years): This option refers to the non-thesis master's program run jointly by faculties of education and other faculties (faculties of science and/or letters). Accordingly, students have the right to enroll as students of the faculty of education, but they spend the first seven semesters of their education in the relevant faculty and the last three semesters in their faculties (and the relevant institute). Graduates are eligible for a graduate degree. The second option (4 years + 1.5 years): According to this option, three-semester programs can be designed to train students who graduate from undergraduate programs of faculties other than faculties of education, determined by the Council of Higher Education, as teachers of secondary education. Students who complete these programs are eligible for a (non-thesis) master's degree. This model is based on the recommendations proposed for the United States in the report "A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st century" published by the Carnegie Forum in 1986. The establishment of the "Teacher Training National Committee" with the decision of the Council of Higher Education dated 19 September 1997, the opportunity to take the courses on the knowledge of the field from the relevant departments of faculties of science and letters, and the introduction of 1.5-year non-thesis master's teaching programs based on pedagogical formation courses are developments related to the Carnegie recommendations (Okçabol, 2004).
4. Pedagogical formation courses were re-designed. The previous courses in the pedagogical formation certificate program provided theoretical knowledge in the field of educational sciences, but they were unable to provide students with the knowledge, skills, and perspectives required for teaching. The pedagogical formation courses shown in Tables 7 and 8 were re-designed by taking to the forefront the knowledge and skills related to the real school environment and the teaching profession as well as theoretical knowledge and distributed to undergraduate programs in a balanced manner, in line with the principles of progressiveness and integrity.

**Table 7.** Pedagogical Formation Courses in Undergraduate Programs (1997)

COURSES	Theory-Practice-Credits	Year/Semester
Introduction to the Teaching Profession	3-0-3	1/1
School Experience I	1-4-3	1/2
Development and Learning	3-0-3	2/1
Planning and Assessment in Teaching	3-2-4	2/2
Educational Technologies and Material Development	2-2-3	3/1

Classroom Management	2-2-3	3/2
Special Education Methods	2-2-3	3/2
School Experience II	1-4-3	4/1
Special Education Methods II	2-2-3	4/1
Guidance	3-0-3	4/2
Teaching Practice	2-6-5	4/2
<b>Total</b>	<b>24-24-36</b>	

**Table 8.** Courses in the Non-Thesis Master's Program in Secondary Education Branch Teaching

COURSES	Theory-Practice-Credits
<b>1st Semester</b>	
1. Introduction to the Teaching Profession	3-0-3
2. Development and Learning	3-0-3
3. Planning and Assessment in Teaching	3-2-4
4. Special Education Methods I	2-2-3
5. School Experience I	1-4-3
<b>Semester Total</b>	<b>12-8-16</b>
<b>2nd Semester</b>	
1. Educational Technologies and Material Development	2-2-3
2. Classroom Management	2-2-3
3. Special Education Methods II	2-2-3
4. School Experience II	1-4-3
5. Elective I	3-0-3
<b>Semester Total</b>	<b>12-8-16</b>
<b>3rd Semester</b>	
1. Subject Matter Textbook	2-2-3
2. Guidance	3-0-3
3. Teaching Practice	2-6-5
4. Elective II	3-0-3
<b>Semester Total</b>	<b>10-8-14</b>
<b>Final Total</b>	<b>32-26-45</b>

As can be inferred from Tables 7 and 8, the number of courses and credits was significantly increased compared to the “Pedagogical Formation” courses in the past. Attention was paid to ensure that the courses are parallel to the required courses in the major and that they are arranged in a way that enables the application of knowledge and skills learned in the required courses throughout the learning-teaching process. It was also tried to be ensured that prospective teachers start gaining experience in schools as early as possible and thus get used to the school and classroom environment and get to know the teaching profession closely. Based on the principles of the planned implementation of teaching and relating program development activities at various levels with classroom teaching and assessment, a course on planning and evaluation in teaching was introduced to the program. Also, based on the assumption that in-school practices constitute the

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center of teacher training, practice classes were added to most of the formation courses in the program and in this way, it was aimed to ensure that prospective teachers relate the knowledge and skills learned in the lessons with the real school environment and the education-teaching process and put them into practice.

It can also be inferred from Tables 7 and 8 that through courses that emphasized the use of information technologies in schools and the development of various materials required in teaching, it was aimed that prospective teachers become familiar with various technological devices such as computers, internet, multimedia, television, video, and projector and use them in teaching. A course that emphasized classroom management and discipline was also added to the new formation program. The number of lesson hours allocated to teaching the subject matter was increased, and for prospective teachers to apply in the school and classroom environment the knowledge and skills learned in various subject matters and formation courses and to see the results of their applications, the number of practice lessons was increased, and these lessons were linked with each other. Teachers were now expected to guide students according to the students' interests and skills and to reveal their special education needs. For this reason, a course on guidance was included in the new pedagogical formation certificate program. As a result, the new pedagogical formation certificate program was re-designed by considering contemporary developments and trends in teacher training and the knowledge and skills that prospective teachers need first.

5. The new programs included compulsory Turkish courses as courses with credits and described the courses in detail. With Turkish I: Written Expression and Turkish II: Oral Expression, it was aimed to ensure that prospective teachers in all programs develop effective communication skills in Turkish.
6. Some of the new programs also included academic minors. For example, Social Studies was determined as an academic minor for Turkish Language Teaching, which trained teachers for the second stage of primary education (secondary schools), Turkish for Social Studies Teaching, Mathematics for Science Teaching, and Science for Mathematics Teaching.
7. The new programs included as many elective courses as possible to ensure that prospective teachers could take courses other than their required courses in line with their interests, needs, and skills.
8. In the new programs, attention was paid to the equal distribution of the course loads over the semesters. Students' course load was tried to be reduced to a certain extent only in the last semester. In this way, it was thought that students would be able to make more effective and efficient use of their classroom teaching practice.
9. Compulsory Computer courses were included in all teacher training programs to be received as early as possible. Through this course, it was aimed to ensure that prospective teachers gain basic computer skills and achieve familiarity with information technologies.

Various studies have shown that the new regulation made in Turkey in 1997 regarding the faculties of education had both positive and negative aspects. Let us first discuss the positive aspects of the regulation. According to Eşme (1997), the new practice introduced measures to fill the gap in the training of teachers for eight years of uninterrupted primary education and for the second stage of primary education (grades 6, 7, 8), which was largely neglected in the past (Eşme 1997, as cited in Memduhoğlu & Topsakal, 2008). Also, with the new regulation, teaching programs were gathered under a certain department, resources were consolidated, some teaching programs were shifted

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to the graduate level, and educational programs were standardized to a certain extent (Duman, 2009). According to Kavcar (2002), the positive aspects of the new regulation made in 1997 regarding the faculties of education were as follows:

1. The subject of “special education methods,” which was almost completely neglected in Turkey until then, is addressed. The Council of Higher Education sent faculty members working in teaching departments for primary and secondary education institutions abroad to pursue a master’s and doctoral degree in special education methods, and this is a positive effort.
2. Practicing teaching has been given the necessary importance. The importance and duration of this practice were increased both within the courses at faculties and in the schools of the Ministry of National Education.
3. The standardized program approach can be considered positive because when training personnel for a certain profession, they should be trained with similar programs.
4. The problem of classroom teaching has been given serious attention.
5. The new model introduced positive innovations in terms of the training of teachers for 8 years of uninterrupted basic education. Departments have been opened to train teachers for the secondary stage of primary education, that is, for grades 6, 7, 8.
6. The fact that the model enables students to receive academic minors in addition to the required courses in their majors is a positive step in terms of the realities of our country and meeting the need of teachers.

Kavcar (2002), on the other hand, listed the negative aspects of the new regulation made in 1997 regarding the faculties of education as follows:

1. In addition to the Turkish faculty members whose hiring criteria are not known, foreigners who do not know the conditions of Turkey and who are limited to the practices in their countries were assigned to the study groups for very high fees. It is unclear how expert the hired non-native (British and American) experts are. In this respect, this restructuring, which is not based on our national experience and knowledge of 150 years and emerged as a top-down reform without being discussed enough in academic boards by our own educators, gives the appearance of an “external model.”
2. Systematic biases stand out in the course layouts in the programs. The “general culture” dimension, which is very necessary for teaching, seems to have been ignored.
3. The non-thesis master’s practice introduced by the new regulation seems interesting and attractive at first sight. Postgraduate education can be seen as a factor increasing the quality of secondary education branch teaching. However, this approach is not suitable for Turkey’s realities and conditions. While every university graduate was made a teacher in 1996 without applying any prerequisites, the shortage could still not be eliminated. Now the period required for the graduation of teachers will be extended by 1 to 1.5 years.

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- 4. In our country, there are faculties of education with 4 thousand, even 6 thousand students. It is a big problem to allow all prospective teachers to gain experience in schools.
  - 5. The courses envisaged to be included in the non-thesis master's program are, in fact, undergraduate-level courses. A master's degree or a science specialist diploma cannot be awarded with these courses. If it is attempted, there will be corruption in academic concepts and values.
  - 6. There are some uncertainties about how the field courses and teaching profession courses will be implemented during the five years foreseen for secondary education branch teachers.
  - 7. Besides, it is envisaged that foreign languages, music, art, and physical education teachers, who are also branch teachers, will be trained for all levels of primary and secondary education through four-year undergraduate programs. There is no distinction between primary and secondary education for these branches.
  - 8. Dichotomies and conflicts may arise between teachers who do and who do not do a non-thesis master's degree.
  - 9. 8th-grade branch teachers will not be deemed to have completed their master's degree even though they have taken the pedagogical formation courses scattered throughout the program over the years; on the other hand, 9th-grade branch teachers will be deemed to have completed their master's degree with the same courses taken later and in a short time. This situation will cause injustice.
  - 10. The quality of prospective teachers has not been addressed.
  - 11. The love for the profession, love for the service, professional spirit, and motivation, which have a very important place in teaching, cannot be achieved with the non-thesis master's model introduced.
- According to Üstüner (2004), one of the most important negative aspects of the restructuring in 1997 was the closure of the undergraduate departments of educational sciences, which constituted one of the fundamental pillars of the teaching profession, and, as a result, the employment of faculty members in different departments. Besides, the process of “practice-oriented teacher training” cannot be carried out properly due to the low number of faculty members in faculties of education. Kızılçaoğlu (2005) listed the negative aspects of the new regulation made in 1997 regarding the faculties of education as follows:
- 1. No adequate cooperation was developed with the Ministry of National Education in the restructuring period. Therefore, it cannot be said that various development activities in faculties of education are carried out in a realistic and need-oriented manner.
  - 2. The student can take neither undergraduate nor graduate education effectively. In the one and a half years after three and a half years, the prospective teacher faces the risk of forgetting his/her knowledge about the academic major.
  - 3. Academic minors have been included in some of the new programs. However, this

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practice has led to the insufficiency of field courses in the teaching programs with an academic minor.

4. The new programs included elective courses to ensure that prospective teachers could take courses other than their required courses in line with their interests, needs, and skills. In the determination of elective courses, faculty members' tendencies and preferences were considered instead of students' needs.
5. The faculty members of the faculties of education could not receive adequate training on school experience and teaching practice.

Eşme (1997) listed the negative aspects of the new regulation made in 1997 regarding the faculties of education as follows:

1. The model envisages that field courses will be taken from the faculties of science and letters. However, the fact that faculties of science and letters will have to give education to the students of the faculties of education in addition to their students will cause an excessive increase in the number of students in these faculties, which will inevitably affect the quality of education negatively.
2. Leaving 3.5-year field education in branch teaching to the faculties of science and letters deactivates faculties of education in the education of field courses.
3. The non-thesis master's practice introduced by the model may be seen as an interesting and useful innovation. However, the application will lead to a dichotomy between teachers with and without a master's degree, and increasing the study period to 5 to 5 and a half years will lead to a remarkable decline in student quality.
4. The information of the students of the faculties of education will have to be stored in three different institutions, including their faculties, faculties of science and letters, and institutes. Having the same work done by three different institutions will bring an unnecessary workload, and delays in bureaucratic information exchange between institutions will cause great problems in operation.
5. In the previous model, pedagogical formation courses in faculties of education were distributed to the eight-semester undergraduate program. In the proposed model, this period is reduced to almost one semester in branch teaching. According to the new model, faculties of education will be able to provide education to their students in only one semester of 10 semesters. Students will spend only one semester of the 10-semester education in faculties of education (Memduhoğlu and Topsakal, 2008).

## CONCLUSION

We can state that significant developments took place in teacher training policies and practices in Turkey between 1980 and 2000. In this context, the most important development was the transfer of the task of training teachers from the Ministry of National Education to universities to prevent it from being affected by political changes and influence. This change made to increase the quality of teacher training failed to achieve the desired goals due to the universities' lack of equipment, experience, and teaching staff, as well as the ongoing structural changes in the universities. Besides, inadequate cooperation and coordination between the Ministry of National Education

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and universities were one of the most important problems in the 1980s. Not unexpectedly, these problems arose because no preliminary study and planning were carried out before the change. The Ministry of National Education requested that the decisions taken in the National Education Councils held especially in the 1980s be implemented by the universities. Between 1982 and 1992, prospective primary school teachers received education in higher schools of education (two-year education between 1982 and 1989 and four-year education between 1989 and 1992). On the other hand, between 1992 and 1998, prospective classroom teachers received education in the departments of classroom teaching within the faculties of education.

Since the 1990s, there have been important changes in the Turkish education system in terms of teacher training. The efforts made in these years towards restructuring teacher training within a system draw attention. Due to the extension of the study period of the higher schools of education to four years, these schools failed to produce any graduates for several years, resulting in a shortage of classroom teachers. To eliminate this shortage, the Ministry of National Education requested pedagogical formation certificate programs to be opened. As a result, many people who had not graduated from the department of classroom teaching were appointed as classroom teachers. The years 1992 and 1994 witnessed disputes about pedagogical formation certificate programs. The 15th National Education Council recommended the termination of pedagogical formation courses.

By meeting the need for classroom teachers and branch teachers at the eight-year compulsory primary education level, shifting secondary education teaching to the graduate level, and rearranging the courses in teacher training programs at both undergraduate and graduate levels, teacher training programs in faculties of education were rearranged in 1997 with the aim of training more qualified teachers. With this regulation, departments, programs, and courses in pedagogic formation certificate programs were rearranged, and academic minors were included. Two options were envisaged for training secondary education teachers in faculties of education: The first option was  $3.5 \text{ years} + 1.5 \text{ years} = 5 \text{ years}$ . This option refers to the non-thesis master's program run jointly by faculties of education and other faculties (faculties of science and/or letters). The second option was  $4 \text{ years} + 1.5 \text{ years}$ . According to this option, three-semester programs can be designed to train students who graduate from undergraduate programs of faculties other than faculties of education, determined by the Council of Higher Education, as teachers of secondary education. With the regulation made in 1997, the standardized program approach was adopted, an emphasis was placed on the practice courses, especially the teaching practice courses, and teachers were trained for eight-year uninterrupted education. However, some views about the negative aspects of the regulation were also expressed. These negative aspects were that universities did not participate sufficiently in the preparation of the regulation, non-thesis master's practice would cause injustice among teachers of secondary education and secondary schools, master's degree would lose its importance and value, and the workload of faculties of science and letters would increase.

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## EPISODE 8

# HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF GUIDANCE SERVICES IN EDUCATION IN TURKEY BETWEEN THE YEARS OF 1980-2000

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## INTRODUCTION

Due to the nature of the teaching profession, following and recognizing the student, presenting correct and good information; In the 1980s, people who provided psychological counseling services and worked as a counselor because they only took the guidance course (Özoglu, 1986; cited in Bilgin, 2000). In the 10th National Education Council in 1981, which also aims to promote Turkish National Education, "Guidance and orientation services are emphasized and necessary tools are developed. The decisions of "regulating the student flow rules in line with the council decisions" (MEB, 1981) are handled within the scope of guidance. Some developments in the field of psychological counseling and guidance in our country can be listed as the initiation of Psychological Counseling and Guidance programs at the undergraduate level and the establishment of Psychological Counseling Centers with legal obligation (Kepçeoğlu, 1987).

An undeniable dimension of the support of the 10th and 11th National Education Councils is that universities open Psychological Counseling and Guidance departments at the undergraduate and graduate levels with the Higher Education Law and increase these departments (Poyraz, 2007). The Department of Psychological Services in Education, which was created in integration with the programs in the Department of Educational Sciences of Hacettepe University, was created in 1982 after the Higher Education Law and was carried out with common courses (Özgüven, 1999; as cited in; Bilgin, 2000). This area has gained momentum after this year (Kuzgun, 2002).

The definition of school counselor given under the title of Educational Experts' tasks and forms in the 11th National Education Council held in 1982 is as follows; "He is an expert who helps students solve their education program, career choice and adaptation problems, and guides teachers and parents in educational institutions at all levels" (MEB, 1982). Their duties are as follows:

- To guide students to find aspects that are not yet revealed and open to development, to be aware of their needs and expectations as conscious individuals, to structure the society they live in as they want, and to inform them about education and job opportunities,

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- To learn in detail the characteristics of the students individually using various measurement tools and to interpret them to the student himself,
  - Paying attention to being up-to-date and detailed while announcing the information obtained about education and job opportunities to students,
  - The purpose of using individual or group counseling methods is to ensure that students descend to the membrane of the existing problem and be functional in solving the problem,
  - Bringing together the school-family cooperation and education stakeholders.

According to the model proposed for the training of the expert in order to have the title of school counselor included under the main heading of the task forms of education experts in the 11th National Education Council (1982):

In undergraduate education; Courses such as individual recognition techniques, principles and techniques of psychological counseling, group guidance and group counseling should be taken within the framework of educational sciences, sciences that will be the basis for education and the foundations of guidance. In postgraduate education, on the other hand, specialization courses in the field of school counseling should be taken, the lessons taken should be focused on hypothetical knowledge and practice, and a thesis study should be done. As it can be understood from the model stated in the 11th National Education Council study, it is necessary to get a postgraduate education in order to have the title of school advisor. Those who do not have a postgraduate education but have only completed their undergraduate education will be appointed as assistant school counselors (MEB. 11th Council Documents, 1982). The decisions taken regarding other councils are as follows:

The decision taken in the 13th National Education Council (1990) regarding the appointment of counselors is in the direction of “*the appointment is made based on the criteria in accordance with the qualifications brought by the task and those who have not completed their undergraduate education in this field are not appointed*”.

14. National Education Council (1993), the decision taken on the pre-school education agenda in the thirty-first item, by building “*Preschool Education Centers*”, *providing programs, materials, consultancy and guidance services to teachers under their roof and establishing “Teacher Resource Units” to provide these services.*” Is in line.

If we list the decisions taken in the 15th National Education Council (1996) according to their agendas, the decisions taken under the Primary Education and Guidance agenda are as follows:

- “*Real orientation should be addressed from the ninth grade in guidance services related to getting to know and orienting the individual initiated in the fourth grade.*” (Article 36)
- “*The disciplines to be gained through orientation studies should be in a way that will develop students' time and energy, abilities and skills, and positive business evaluations.* (Article 37)
- “*The execution of guidance services should be carried out by people who have completed at least undergraduate education in the field of guidance and psychological counselling. Guidance services staff should not be appointed from outside the field.*” (Article 38)

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The decisions taken under the Reconstruction Agenda in Secondary Education are as follows:

- “In the orientation that occurs within the guidance system, the main objectives regarding the guidance and psychological counseling services should be determined by the Ministry; Turkey should be developed in accordance with the terms of a more efficient service and organizational pattern.” (Article 38)
- “A balanced emphasis on” Special Education Guidance and Counseling Services “,” Special Education Services “and” Guidance and Psychological Counseling Services “is important for more effective execution of orientation services.” (Article 39)
- “In guidance and psychological counseling professions, manpower planning should be made taking into account regional needs; Arrangements should be made for post-primary schools and programs according to the plan; While creating the programs, job descriptions for guidance and psychological counseling should also be made and occupational standards of these professions should be developed based on job analysis. “ (Article 40)
- “It should be known that guidance and psychological counseling services are not the main tools of manpower planning while helping students orient themselves. In guidance and psychological counseling services, manpower planning should be considered as the services offered to the individual to make appropriate choices within the appropriate opportunities and conditions according to his / her own characteristics and to realize these. In practice, this principle should be taken into consideration, guidance and counseling should not be considered to be equivalent to orientation in terms of meaning, risk-bearing tendencies that will take the weight of services out of “individual development” should be left, orientation should be encouraging rather than coercive. “ (Article 41)
- “Orientation studies initiated since the sixth year of primary education should be continued towards secondary education and higher education, the student assessment system should not be the Student Selection Examination and the Student Placement Exam, and an assessment system that takes into account the educational background and overall development of the students should be developed.” (Article 42)
- “For orientation, guidance and psychological counseling services should be provided with the necessary number and quality of guidance teachers and psychological counselors with sufficient training. Guidance and psychological counseling units should be established for the employment of guidance teachers and psychological counselors in schools or centers where a certain number of schools will be connected. All these services should be based on serious legal foundations within the Ministry. “ (Article 43)
- “In order to better carry out orientation studies and guidance and psychological counseling services, the studies that will be focused on should focus on developing psychological measurement tools and collecting educational and professional information. For guidance and psychological counseling services, out-of-field assignments to school guidance units, guidance and research centers by the Ministry of National Education should be ended. “ (Article 44)

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- “In orientation; It is important to keep the records and information of students in a sound manner and to transfer them between the levels, to ensure continuity between primary and secondary education. Therefore, student collective files, guidance and psychological counseling records and all other related records should be reviewed and arranged in accordance with scientific standards to help orientation. “ (Article 45)
  - “The duties stipulated in the regulations of the Ministry of National Education regarding orientation, guidance and psychological counseling services should be reviewed in terms of contemporary understanding for the school principal, teachers, guidance teachers and psychological counselors.” (Article 46)
  - “Orientation requires new understanding and regulations in pre-service and in-service training for teachers, supervisors and other officials at all levels. For this reason, pre-service teachers should be provided with knowledge and competence in guidance and psychological counseling and other related basic courses, as well as individual recognition techniques and communication skills, and in-service trainings should be provided for actively working teachers for this purpose. (Article 53)

With the decision of the Council of Higher Education with the decision numbered 1430, the name of the Department of Educational Sciences under the name of “Psychological Services in Education” was changed to “Guidance and Psychological Counseling” in order to avoid inconsistencies in undergraduate programs (Silacı, 2010; p. 67- 68). Professional organization was needed in the field of guidance and psychological counseling as in other fields. The need for professional organization is of great importance in order to support professional development, to provide professional solidarity, to seek solutions to problems that arise in the professional field, and to plan and manage scientific activities in this field (Özgüven, 1990). The first foundation established in the professional organization process was established in 1972 under the name of the Foundation for the Promotion of Guidance in Higher Education and the Training of Guide (YÖRET). The YÖRET Foundation suspended its activities for a while and resumed its activities in 1989. Another association established to make effective professional efforts and cooperation in this field is the Psychological Counseling and Guidance Association (PDR-DER), which was established on 03.07.1989 with the code 06-35-038. This association gained a national identity with the decision of the Council of Ministers dated 13.07.1998 and numbered 98/11476 in 1998, when the word “Turk” was added to the beginning of the PDR-DER (<https://pdr.org.tr/hakkimizda/>).

In the Fifth Five-Year Development Plan, under the title of “General, Vocational and Technical High Schools” with the subject of Education, it was mentioned that general high schools will be a preferred type of high school because it provides the need for qualified workforce as well as short-term employment, and it was emphasized that the backlog in higher education can be prevented in this way. The necessity of attaching importance to the quality of these high school types for development is emphasized (DPT, 1985-1989, p.140-147). In the Sixth Five-Year Development Plan, the importance of non-formal and formal education in terms of skills that individuals need to acquire in order to train manpower to meet the needs is emphasized under the title of “Manpower” on Social Economy. The issue of guiding students who do not continue to university after finishing high school according to their interests and abilities in gaining a profession was mentioned (DPT, 1990-1994, p.298-308). It can be said that the frequent use of the term

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“vocational guidance” in development plans gives rise to the perception that the guidance is limited to only guiding the profession. Although vocational guidance is frequently specified in development plans, the desired level in this area has not yet been reached (Poyraz, 2007).

In the 10th National Education Council dated 1981, “Turkish National Education System”, “Education Programs in the Integrity of this System”, “Rules Regulating the Flow of Students” and “Teacher Training” were brought to the agenda, respectively. Guidance and orientation services are also mentioned in these agenda items. Another important issue mentioned is how guidance staff will be trained. After completing the four-year undergraduate education and after the two-year teaching process, the title of science expert It was decided that the title of doctorate will be awarded after three or four years of teaching after completing the science specialty education. It was also decided that the guidance certificate programs should be given to the education, psychology and guidance and psychological counseling departments of universities, the training of the personnel working in this field should be carried out on the job, and the number of working personnel should be equal to one counselor for approximately 200 students.

Counseling services were not brought to the agenda in the 11th National Education Council, and teachers and education experts (their conditions and problems) from the National Education services were the agenda. As can be understood from the subjects, the issue of training education experts has been emphasized and the models offered for expert training have been included. It was mentioned that teachers and specialists should receive in-service training and it was decided that psychological counselors should receive postgraduate education in the fields of “Educational Guidance and Special Education”. The 10th and 11th National Education Councils were effective in the opening of undergraduate and graduate education programs in the fields of psychological counseling and guidance in universities. It is possible to see this effect in the Higher Education Law numbered 2547 and the regulations made in higher education in 1981.

The opinion stated in the guidance activities mentioned under the Education Programs agenda in the 12th National Education Council dated 1988 meeting *“Guidance activities; to provide students with the opportunity to get to know themselves, to acquire the necessary communication, knowledge, skills and abilities in their social relations, and to transfer the knowledge they have learned to their lives”*.

In the first three decisions of the 12th National Education Council, under the subtitle of Transition to Higher Education, “According to the multi-faceted plans to be made in order to reach the national goals in education and training in accordance with the economic and social conditions of our country, providing a good guidance service to our students as of pre-school and In order to ensure integrity in national education, taking guidance and student achievement as a criterion by removing the central examination applied in transition to education levels ”has been included (MEB. 12th Council Documents, 1988). The importance of guidance in basic education institutions was mentioned in the 15th National Education Council (Poyraz, 2007).

Since 1980, with the YÖK law, the field of psychological counseling and counseling has tried to function as Educational Guidance and Psychological Counseling Department within the educational sciences of education faculties. Within the scope of this department, the universities that gave their first graduates in 1985-86, and in

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1983, when 7 other universities opened this department, the Guidance and Psychological Counseling department became widespread. In the following years, this number has seen 29. The Guidance and Psychological Counseling department is currently organized in 29 universities, and approximately 40-50 students graduate from each university each year, and this situation still continues. Most universities that offer undergraduate programs have also organized postgraduate programs. PDR programs in our country are similar in terms of 'course type'. After a general basic education in psychology and related fields in the first two years, the basic courses of the field of PDR and applications in the 4th grade are emphasized. Due to the nature of the training offered, the program is a specialist vocational training program that prepares personnel for the PDR field. However, there were some problems due to the new programs opened in the first years, the lack of lecturers to give their expertise, and the lack of faculties, and the transition period was quite difficult (Özgüven, 1990).

Currently, this situation seems to continue, although it is not as great as it was in the beginning. The main problems of the PDR programs are the lack of a common norm accepted by everyone for the number of credits students take, the lack of suitable conditions and appropriate areas for students, the lack and limited documents and materials to support the teaching part of the education, a common understanding at the application and theoretical level in different programs. It can be summarized as not being able to create.

Developments in the professional field turned out to be very common in the 1980s and 1990s in their practice other than experts in this field. Today, psychologists and psychology consultants, who open private centers to serve, have spread these practices. The Psychological Counseling and Guidance Association, the first organization established by experts in its field, was established in 1989. Guidance and Psychological Counseling magazine, which was the first publication on the subject under the leadership of the association, started its first publication a year later (1990). In addition, the first meeting of the congress, which has become traditional and held every two years, was held in 1991 in the National Psychological Counseling and Guidance Congress. In 1995, it is seen that pioneering publications and association activities started regarding the appointment of psychological counselors to schools as consultants and placing them in a certain orbit. Once again, ethical rules were established to ensure professional standards in the activities of the association. It was stated that psychological counseling training was not a standard, and the first study was published (Etik Kurallar Kitapçığı, 1995).

Although the studies for the reorganization of Psychological Counseling and Guidance undergraduate programs started with YÖK and the World Bank in 1996, this study did not receive much support and was not concluded to an incomplete result. Under the leadership of the association, a meeting was held for the first time at Çukurova University in 2000, attended by PDR department heads and vice-presidents, and the restructuring of undergraduate programs was laid out. These meetings were decided to be continuous, and in the following years, the meetings continued in Konya Selçuk, Denizli Pamukkale, İstanbul Marmara, Trabzon Black Sea, Malatya İnönü Universities, respectively. In these meetings, the implementation of the PDR undergraduate programs within a certain framework, the problems of this field and the solution suggestions for the solution of these problems, and the measures to be made were discussed (Poyraz, 2006).

The decision taken on the 12th National Education Council Curriculum is expressed

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as follows: Guidance activities; It is a set of activities that allow individuals to know themselves and help them gain awareness. At the same time, it allows him to integrate the useful and positive knowledge he has gained into his social relations, reflects this knowledge to his life and plays a major role in providing positive changes in his behavior. In addition, counseling activities allow students to realize themselves (MEB, 1988).

28. A guidance service should be provided in cooperation with families, schools, public and private institutions and organizations, and activities and programs should be organized for the promotion of occupational fields and professions.

29. Guidance training should be taken and implemented by teachers continuously. Occupational promotion for eighth grade students should be focused on, and students should be guided about the most appropriate field. A recommendation decision should be made by considering the personal file of the student, the evaluations and comments made by the teachers and should be notified to the student and his / her parents at the end of the term.

35. Broad-framed training programs for vocational counseling and applied basic vocational promotion; Starting from the first years of secondary education, it should be given in a way that helps students to get to know themselves and their professional orientation according to their interests and tendencies (MEB, 1996).

The problems related to the titles of the psychological counselors and the concept confusion, which have become a problem today, are also encountered in the National Education Councils that have been held since 1939-2010. The title of psychological counselor was not used in the 7th, 8th, 9th and 10th MEB Councils (1962-1981). While making decisions about PDR services, expressions such as “guidance activities”, “guidance services”, “guidance service” and “guidance organization” were used. While the title of “school counselor” was used in the 11th MEB Council (1982); In the 12th MEB Council (1988), “guidance activities” were expressed in the decisions taken, and the title was not included. In the 13th MEB Council (1990), the expression “counselor” was included. In the 14th MEB Council (1993), no title was used, and the concept of “guidance services” was included in the decisions taken. In the 15th National Education Council (1996), where the title confusion was the highest, the titles of “guidance staff”, “guidance teacher” and “psychological counselor” were used separately. The concept of “those responsible for guidance” found its place in the decisions taken in the 16th MEB Council (1999) (Yüksel-Şahin, 2012).

Counseling research centers (RAM) are affiliated to the department established under the name of the General Directorate of Special Education and Guidance Services (1983) under the Ministry of National Education. In addition, the implementation of guidance activities in schools has been systematized (About the Titles of Some High School, School and Faculty Graduates, 1992).

Scientific research meetings, in which guidance and psychological counseling activities in higher education are the subject of discussion, were hosted by Ankara University Faculty of Educational Sciences in 1986 and Bilkent University in 1988 (Kuzgun, 2002). As of 1989, a 4-year undergraduate program will be opened under the name of Psychological Counseling and Guidance, and the decision of universities to graduate from Education Faculties was taken by taking into account the opinion of the Higher Education Council (YÖK), the Ministry of National Education as “consultant”.

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Graduates will be given the title of “guidance counselor” and it has been said that this concept will be included in their undergraduate diplomas. Psychological Counseling and Guidance graduates do not accept the title of “counselor” in the professional community and are still debating (Poyraz, 2007).

In 1996, within the framework of YÖK / World Bank National Education Development Project, guidance and psychological counseling programs were developed and planned to be made nationwide; However, due to the priority given to the fields of the academicians in charge of the programs in which this training is given, there have been differences in the course credits, in the determination of compulsory and elective courses.

Middle East Technical University (ODTÜ) in the world and Turkey's political, social, increase the number of students in parallel to the changes occurring in the economic sphere and development, student issues and psychosocial research needs of the departments, inhibitors has created the need for a new restructuring primarily psychological. Accordingly, a Psychological Counseling and Guidance Center (PDRM) was established within the Health and Counseling Center (SRM) in May 1997 (Gizir, 2005).

In the 12th article of the “Guidance and Psychological Counseling Services Regulation” in the Ministry of National Education, there is the phrase “the problems, early intervention and especially the developmental and protective approach to prevent problems in PDR services in formal and informal education” (Official Gazette dated 17.04.2001 and numbered 24376) A healthy modern education is achieved by making education more efficient and by adopting the principles and principles of psychological counseling and guidance approach (Ültanır, 2005).

Guidance and psychological counseling seminars started in the late 1970s, and the Turkish Education Association held a “Psychological Services and Problems Congress in Education” in 1986, “Counseling and psychological counseling meeting in higher education” through the Faculty of Educational Sciences of Ankara University, then 1991 and 1993. Psychological Counseling and Guidance Association I. and II. “National Psychological Counseling and Guidance Congresses” were held (Doğan, 1996).

The Ministry of National Education established a commission consisting of experts in their field in 1981, and a document titled “Principles for the reorganization of Guidance and Psychological Counseling services in the Turkish National Education System” was created by the commission (Doğan, 1996).

Psychological counseling and guidance undergraduate programs started with the Higher Education Law No. 2547 enacted in 1982, and the master's and doctoral programs were made more comprehensive within the framework of the new law.

It was decided to open a Medico-Social Culture and Sports Affairs Department in all universities in accordance with the 46 and 47 articles of the law numbered 2880 of the Higher Education Law, which was published in 1982. In this law, it has become a legal obligation to establish psychological counseling and guidance centers to provide counseling and guidance services to students in solving the social, sensitive, vocational and educational problems experienced by students within the body of the Medico-Social Culture and Sports Affairs Department of each university. (1984, 3 February). Official

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In 1983, the Ministry of National Education aimed to organize, implement and evaluate the results of guidance services in schools, and for this purpose, the school guidance services directive was put into action (Doğan, 1996).

In 1985, the regulation prepared for guidance services came into force again with the improvements and regulations made (MEB TEB 2201 16.12.1985). (Cited in Doğan, 1996).

In 1985, the same situation was valid for psychological counseling and guidance services, as was done in all departments by the Ministry of National Education in order to increase the quality of studies in education and training.

1989 year in between people working in counseling and guidance department, to increase motivation, began its unity and also to contribute to the counseling and guidance of science by providing professional solidarity and occupation of progress in Turkey for the purpose of guidance and counseling Association study. The Psychological Counseling and Guidance Association regularly publishes a scientific journal of the same name in 1990 to do its first study (Doğan, 1996).

In 1995, through the Psychological Counseling and Guidance Association, the Moral rules booklet was prepared and published for the employees in the field of psychological counseling and guidance in order to guide and guide the employees in compulsory situations they face while providing service, as well as to be a clue against behaviors (Doğan, 1996).

In 1995, with the fund obtained from the World Bank, the restructuring of psychological counseling and guidance undergraduate and graduate and doctorate programs was initiated within the scope of the national education development project (Doğan, 1996).

The General Directorate of Special Education, which was established in 1980 by Law No. 2429, was transformed into Special Education and Guidance Department in 1982 with the Decree No. 179 (Tan, 1999). The Counseling Services Regulation No. 2201, enacted in 1985, has a great place in the regulation and organization of psychological counseling and guidance services. In 1992, the General Directorate of Special Education and Consultancy Services was established with the Law No. 3797, thus special education and guidance services were organized at the general directorate level (Halmatov, 2014).

In 1981, the Board of Education and Discipline established a commission consisting of experts in the field and assigned it to work on the regulation of guidance and consultancy services. As a result of their work, this commission prepared a report titled "Principles Regarding the Reorganization of Guidance and Psychological Counseling Services in the Turkish National Education System" (MEB, 1981). In this report, the importance and necessity of guidance and psychological counseling services in education, aims, principles, current situation and main problems, organizational style, qualifications that the staff should have, etc. matters are covered extensively.

In our country, guidance and counseling services in schools were first started for trial purposes, and approximately 20 years later, a separate unit responsible for organizing

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and managing these services was established. This unit was organized under different names and levels in the following years. In 1983, a regulation called “School Guidance Services Directive” was made by the Ministry of National Education. In this directive, the duties and responsibilities of the guidance personnel named as “coordinator guidance specialist” and “assistant coordinator guidance specialist” (MEB, 1983). A new regulation was prepared by changing the existing regulation in 1986, in this regulation, guidance personnel were named as “coordinator guidance teacher” and “guidance teacher”, and their duties and responsibilities were rearranged (MEGSB, 1986). However, in these regulations, guidance and psychological counseling services in the school were limited to high school level, while primary education was not included.

In the “Secondary Education Committee Report” of the 7th National Education Council, where guidance services are included in a separate section, guidance is defined as a service to recognize students from every angle, to facilitate their adaptation to the environment and to help them draw a path in line with their abilities. In the report, it was suggested that guidance and counseling services should be carried out by “group teaching” method and the functions of the group teacher and the tasks to be done were stated.

The 8th National Education Council in 1970 is considered a very important turning point for guidance and psychological counseling services in schools. Because in this Council, much more importance has been given to the issue of guidance, furthermore, guidance services are considered as one of the main themes. In this context, it was stated in the council meeting that guidance services should be carried out in three programs: 1) Preparing the student for higher education, 2) Preparing the student for the profession and life, 3) Preparing both for the profession and higher education. In addition, it was decided to provide both horizontal and vertical transfer opportunities for each student. Again, in this council meeting, it was decided to establish guidance units in secondary education institutions, to ensure their development, to train the necessary personnel for this and to carry out these activities by the APK Department.

In the 9th National Education Council meeting held in 1974, the decisions of the 8th Council were adopted. At the same time, it was stated that the 9th grade, which is the first year of secondary education, should be an orientation class, in this class, students should be directed to a suitable program in line with their wishes, abilities and their success in related courses, and students should be provided with the opportunity to switch between programs. In addition, it was decided that the counseling course should be the compulsory course of teacher education.

In the 9th National Education Council held, a number of new decisions were made and changes were made, apart from those made in the previous meetings. One of these changes is the improvement of guidance services. A number of collaborations have been decided to make guidance services more efficient. It has been determined that this cooperation will be provided with the establishment of GRCs in all provinces through school directorates. Thus, the necessity of GRCs has emerged to determine the necessary principles for the counseling services in schools to act together and to eliminate the complexities. To these guidance centers established; They have been given duties and authorities such as identifying and solving problems that occur in their region, supporting teachers and administrators in their guidance studies, conducting seminars and consultancy in required fields. Necessary experts were assigned to make these RAMs

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effective and support was provided to meet the necessary needs (Pişkin, 2006). Again in this Council, an arrangement was made in the form of two weekly course hours of guidance course hours in high schools. All high schools, except those with mathematics and science programs, are subject to this regulation. Guiding students in counseling lessons should be in the form of ensuring that the student takes the right decision by taking into account the wishes and academic success of the student, starting from the first periods of his education, starting from the first periods of his / her education, respectively, in the course of counseling. It has been decided to act within (Pişkin, 2006).

Seven years after the last National Education Council, a meeting was held again in 1981. In the meeting held in the X. National Education Council, the issue that is different from other meetings and attracts attention is that the guidance activities previously included pre-school education. At the meeting, a "Student Development File" was created to observe children attending pre-school education, and the necessary tools for observation were emphasized. Again in this Council, the issue of guiding children and directing them appropriately was discussed. The need to organize and develop the methods and tools to be used to make guidance services effective, to make arrangements in multi-purpose high schools and vocational high schools in order to make secondary education more targeted, and the need to have common courses in different schools, as well as to support students' future professional lives and to make them ready for the profession. It was decided to give some lessons that would bring them (Pişkin, 2006).

The XI. This time, the National Education Council made decisions on the fields of expertise that should be found in the education and training process and the titles of the personnel who will be in the determined fields of expertise. It was decided to call the staff specialized in their job, who will guide the individual during his education, as the "School Advisor". To those appointed as school counselors; Duties such as eliminating the incompatibility problems of the students towards their environment, guiding the prospective professional choices of the students, cooperating with teachers and parents and counseling when necessary were defined. In this council, these tasks were determined in detail and a master's degree education with thesis was made compulsory as a criterion deemed necessary to become a school advisor. In addition, it was decided that only people with undergraduate education should become assistant school counselors (Pişkin, 2006).

In the 1970-1971 academic year, the Ministry of National Education made innovations on the "Principles Regarding the Establishment and Duties of the Guidance Services in Secondary Schools" (MEB. Notifications Journal 1619, 1970; Act. Staff in charge of these services are assigned to assist students in their field, department and profession choices and to provide healthy guidance. Then IX. In the National Education Council, a new decision was taken by taking the subject of determining the course time of the guidance services to cover the whole country on the agenda. With this decision, it was determined that the counseling lesson would be made as 2 lesson hours. When the 1974-1975 year, scroll to guidance for the implementation of these practices have been initiated in all secondary schools in Turkey (MEB. Thebes. Magazine 1805, 1975; cited in Ültanır, 2005).

Recent developments in the guidance field with the adoption of the 2547 Higher Education Act made in 1982, Turkey has experienced. With this law, undergraduate level departments called "Psychological Counseling and Guidance" were opened in universities. The department that these departments are affiliated with is determined as "Psychological Services in Education" (Ültanır, 2005).

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1996 to be held in Turkey, supported by the Board of Higher Education and the World Bank within the framework of the National Education Development Project counseling and guidance (PDR) section has been developed (Ültanır, 2005).

## CONCLUSION

Guidance and psychological counseling services in education are provided by experts with the necessary training; It is possible to say that it is a systematic mechanism realized in the light of goals such as helping the individual to discover and understand himself and to bring him to a position to solve his own problems in this direction (Lunenburg, 2010).

Being aware of, thinking and questioning himself throughout his life; As a result of these qualifications, the aim of becoming a person who draws an effective citizen profile has accelerated the development of guidance and psychological counseling services. In this study, the development process of guidance and counseling services in Turkey were examined. Based on this, the decisions of the National Education Council were included, and the plans and regulations of the institutions and organizations mentioned in the study were explained. Although common in the 1950s in Turkey, basic systematic framework, guidance and psychological counseling services in schools and school staff should have been able to be deployed in the 1970s (Nature, 2000). How to train guidance and psychological counseling personnel was on the agenda by the National Education Council, which was held in 1982 by the Ministry of National Education. As a result of the opening of undergraduate and graduate programs in the early 1980's; It is possible to say that at the National Education Council held in 1982, the criticality of the work was realized and specialization in the staff was deemed necessary. In addition, in the 1982 National Education Council; It is seen that the duties of guidance and psychological counselors are described as the choice of profession and the solution of adaptation problems. When the decisions of the National Education Council held in the following years are examined, the goals, objectives and functions of the guidance and psychological counseling services were determined in more detail; It has been observed that decisions are made in a way to define more professional and more complex responsibilities in the job descriptions of the staff who will provide guidance and psychological counseling services. As examined in this study; Especially after the 1990s, relevant MEB regulations and directives, YÖK decisions, academic studies, projects and plans support this situation.

In this context, guidance and counseling process in education in Turkey and performed moves are considered, guidance and counseling services to more over time it is possible to extract much where it's needed. Because it has been seen in the light of the directives and regulations that have been issued, that after the foundation has been established, it is aimed to have a more systematic and more professional structure over the years.

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## EPISODE 9

# DEVELOPMENTS IN TURKISH HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM BETWEEN 1980 AND 2000

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## INTRODUCTION

With the knowledge-based production processes becoming one of the key elements that provide a competitive advantage in the globalizing world, the need for qualified manpower has started to increase day by day. Training manpower with the quality and diversity required by the information society was to a great extent expected from higher education institutions (Kurt & Gümüş, 2015; Yazar & Averbek, 2018). Baskan and Sincer (2014) argue that higher education, considered to be the most important among all levels in the education system, should lead and guide the society. In this context, universities are expected to generate new norms and ideas, make them available for society, and conduct research to obtain new information that can be used for the benefit of humanity. Hence, it is possible to say that universities aim to both produce knowledge and strengthen the national culture.

German idealists, from Schiller to Humboldt, shaped the idea of the university around culture. After Humboldt shaped the idea of the university around culture and linked the university institution directly with the nation-state (Readings, 1996), the modern university started to be seen as an institution that produces common information about the people of a nation and passes them on to new generations (Gür, 2011). Yazar and Averbek (2018) state that universities are important and special institutions developing both financially and socially as a result of the historical, sociological, and economic processes, performing an important function in meeting the need of expert manpower, trained in accordance with certain standards. Furthermore, Yamamoto (2018) states that universities are institutions that provide individual, economic, and social benefits, not only in terms of education but also in terms of research and social service. In light of this information, it can be said that universities undertake an important mission in the raising of qualified human resources that will ensure the development of society and, therefore, the development of countries.

According to Gürüz (2008), universities benefit society by producing new ideas and research and train people in certain professions regardless of their sex. In this regard, with new ideas produced and research results obtained as well as positive effects on the economic, political, and social life of the society, universities have a very important

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place for all countries of the world. In parallel with this importance, there have been important developments in higher education systems worldwide (Ehrenberg, 2006). As in other countries, these developments have led to changes in the Turkish higher education system, as well.

As is known, the higher education system in Turkey is conducted by an administration model supervised by the Council of Higher Education (YÖK). Looking at the period after 1980, it is seen that the differences in the higher education system reached the level that disrupted the social balance and equality of opportunity, and the education provided by higher education institutions had two basic problems: limited capacity and low-quality education (Yavuz, 2012). Law No. 2547 aimed to solve these problems in the higher education system within the framework of modern technology and science as well as development plans. It was also aimed to ensure the wise use of financial resources to meet the needs of the country. Therefore, the Higher Education Law No. 2547 had one basic purpose: to restructure the system to end the chaos that prevailed in the higher education system in Turkey (Baskan & Sincer, 2014). The issue of restructuring higher education was brought to the agenda in the post-1980 period on the grounds that higher education institutions could not function properly due to the variety of institutions and laws, that they splurged money, that they failed to plan the training of human resources to meet the country's needs, and that the quotas required for institutions could not be determined (Korkut, 1992). Additionally, the economic, political, and social problems that arose between 1960 and 1980 revealed the need for radical reform in higher education. Taking these as a starting point, the present study addressed the changes and developments that took place in the Turkish higher education system between 1980 and 2000. These changes and developments are presented under the titles below.

### **The Period After the Law on YÖK/Legal Regulations**

Until 1980, the higher education system included five types of institutional structures: universities, academies affiliated to the Ministry of National Education, two-year vocational schools and conservatories, the majority of which were affiliated to the Ministry of National Education and some were affiliated to other ministries, three-year educational institutes affiliated to the Ministry of National Education, and finally YAYKUR that provided correspondence education (Süzen, 2011). However, the Higher Education Law No. 2547, enacted on November 6, 1981, initiated the academic, institutional, and administrative restructuring process. The regulations introduced by this law are listed below (Başar, 1997; Kaymakçı & Çakır, 2008; YÖK, 1991).

- With this law, all institutions in the Turkish higher education system were affiliated with the Council of Higher Education. Thus, all higher education institutions in Turkey gathered under the roof of the Council of Higher Education; academies were transformed into universities and educational institutions into faculties of education, and conservatories and vocational higher schools (VHS) were affiliated with universities.
- Law No. 2547 brought the YÖK back to the agenda, which was established by Law No. 1750 but was abolished by the Constitutional Court in 1975. The YÖK was defined as an institution with autonomy and a public legal personality and was equipped with broad powers.
- With the said law, the administrative autonomy of the universities was abrogated

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and university top administrative bodies (Council of Higher Education, Supervisory Board of Higher Education, Interuniversity Board, Student Selection and Placement Center) were started to be formed through the method involving partial election and partial appointment. It was decided to determine the entire administrative structure from the university rector to the deans and department heads of the faculties by appointment.

- Non-profit foundations were given the right to establish higher education institutions. The said regulation was introduced before with the Law No 1750 but was later canceled. As a result of this regulation, foundation universities started to be established in Turkey. This development is seen as a result of global efforts for privatization in education, which emerged with globalization.
- The state's supervisory power over universities was increased.
- The number of class hours that faculty members were obliged to attend was increased from 6 to 10 hours.
- Regulations were introduced to make possible the appointment of faculty members in institutions other than their own.
- Research assistantship was introduced instead of assistantship.
- The position of assistant professorship was created. Thus, it was aimed to benefit from the faculty members with a doctorate as faculty members.
- The requirement to know a second foreign language for professorship and to prepare a thesis for associate professorship was lifted.
- It was decided to charge tuition fees from university students according to their departments.

With Turkey's Constitution of 1982, Higher Education Act Law No. 2547 was enacted. Further, with the Decree-Law No. 41, which came into force in 1982, the above-mentioned multi-structured higher education system gathered under the same roof (Korkut, 1992). With the Law No. 2547, the Council of Higher Education (YÖK) was established as a constitutional institution in order to direct the activities of higher education institutions such as planning, regulation, management, teaching, and research (Tokcan & Suleimenova, 2015). The main purpose of the establishment of the YÖK was to coordinate the use of all resources devoted to the education of young people of higher education age. With such coordination, it was aimed to ensure the efficient use of resources, an effective division of labor and solidarity, prevent duplication, ensure a balanced distribution of higher education services nationwide, and plan investments in higher education. YÖK, established by this law, can be considered as an implicit ministry of higher education (Kılıç, 1999).

Another development that took place after the establishment of YÖK was the abolishment of YAYKUR, which provided correspondence education, and the establishment of the Open Education Faculty within Anadolu University in Eskişehir in the 1982-1983 academic year to provide distance education through television broadcast. With the additional articles in the same law, non-profit foundations were granted the right to open higher education institutions, and private higher education institutions were established to operate under the supervision and control of the state. Thus, the Turkish higher education system had a mixed structure in which both public universities and non-profit foundations-owned private higher education institutions started to operate (Kesik,

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2003). In light of this information, it can be stated that radical changes occurred in the Turkish higher education system after the establishment of the YÖK.

### **Developments for Increased Number of Universities**

With the YÖK established in 1981, higher education institutions were restructured with strict centralization, and the Inter-University Board (IUB) was established. Eight new universities were opened after 1982. Some of these universities were established as a result of merging several faculties or vocational schools of higher education (Gündüz, 2015). When these newly established universities are examined, it can be seen that these universities were, in fact, the unification under a single roof of institutions such as academia and vocational schools of higher education already operating. For this reason, the vast majority of universities established in 1981 were established in metropolises where infrastructure was ready. By 1982, Akdeniz University in Antalya, Dokuz Eylül University in Izmir, Gazi University in Ankara, Trakya University in Edirne, Yüzüncü Yıl University in Van, and Marmara University, Mimar Sinan University, and Yıldız Teknik University in Istanbul had been established (Sargin, 2007).

Article 130 of the 1982 Constitution sets forth the basic provision on how to establish universities: “*...universities comprising several units and having scientific autonomy and public legal personality shall be established by the State and by law... Institutions of higher education may be established, under the supervision and control of the State, by foundations in accordance with the procedures and principles set forth in the law as long as they do not pursue profit.*” In accordance with this provision, İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University, the first foundation university of Turkey, was established in 1984.

According to Gündüz (2015), foundation universities play an important role in meeting the increasing demand for higher education. In the late 1990s and early 2000s, there was a rapid increase in the number of foundation universities in Turkey. Initially concentrated in only three major cities (Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir), foundation universities started to be established in various cities of Anatolia later on (Hopoğlu, 2012; Yazar & Averbek, 2018; Topkaya and Doğan, 2020). In addition, the non-formal education practice known by the public as “correspondence education” was abolished in the 1982-1983 academic year, and Anadolu University Open Education Faculty started to provide distance education instead (Doğramacı, 2007). In 1987, Gaziantep University was established with the addition of various vocational schools of higher education and faculties to the Engineering Faculty in the body of Middle East Technical University (METU) located in Gaziantep.

The year 1992 was a spectacular year in terms of both the distribution of the universities across Turkey and the increase in the number of students. With Law No. 3837 enacted on July 3, 1992, one foundation and twenty-three public universities were established in small and medium-sized cities, a large part of which consisted of educational units previously available in those provinces (İşik, 2009). Universities established in Afyon, Aydın, Balıkesir, Bolu, Çanakkale, Denizli, Hatay, Kars, İsparta, İzmir, Kahramanmaraş, Kırıkkale, Kocaeli, Kütahya, Manisa, İçel, Muğla, Niğde, Sakarya, Şanlıurfa, Tokat, and Zonguldak provinces increased the number of universities to 53 (YÖK, 2005; Sargin, 2007). These universities, which were established in 1992, provided university education to smaller provinces with limited potential for development, while

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also contributing significantly to the increase in the number of students. Universities in Afyonkarahisar, Çanakkale, Isparta, Kahramanmaraş, Niğde, Kütahya, Tokat, İçel, and Denizli provinces are among the major universities that attracted attention in the 1990s, especially with their numbers of students. From this point of view, it is possible to say that the year 1992 was a turning point for Turkish higher education in terms of the increase in the number of universities.

The universities established in 1992 were followed by the establishment of one foundation university in 1993, two in 1994, five in 1996, eight in 1997, and two in 1999 (YÖK, 2005). In 1993, Anadolu University was divided into two, and Eskeşehr Osmangazi University was established as the second university in Eskeşehr. On the same date, Başkent, Koç University, and Galatasaray University, the first university to provide education in French, were established (Karasaç & Sağın, 2019).

In summary, the increase in the number of universities across the world was also reflected in Turkey in the 1990s, and both the number of students and the number of universities increased in the early 2000s (Yavuz, 2012). As Yazar and Avarbek (2018) state, Turkish higher education institutions were reorganized on July 20, 1982, within the framework of the 1981 Reform. Some of the academies that operated independently from universities up to that date and some of the higher education institutions affiliated with various ministries were affiliated to the existing universities and some were transformed into independent universities. With this regulation, the dichotomy between university and academy within the Turkish education system was eliminated; the vocational high schools affiliated with ministries were gathered under the roof of universities. Thus, the lack of coordination and unnecessary conflicts among higher education institutions were prevented. During the new organization, besides the faculties that focused on education and research, vocational high schools were also opened which aimed to train manpower and teach skills for certain professions. Further, various institutes were established to offer graduate and doctorate programs. The gathering of higher education institutions in Turkey under one roof has made it easier to carry out higher education activities in accordance with the needs of the society and the goals of development plans. The potentials of higher education institutions, which used to operate in a disorganized manner, were combined to give the Turkish higher education system a sounder structure and a more efficient functioning.

## **Developments in the Funding of Higher Education Institutions**

Increasing demand for higher education and progress in higher education increased the need for resources in higher education (Kurt & Gümüş, 2015). Especially since the 1980s, Turkey, as in the whole world, set off on a quest for the funding of education, and regulations were made on issues such as who would attend higher education, how extensive the higher education services would be, of what quality higher education would be and by which institutions it would be provided, who would cover the cost of higher education, and who would share the benefits of higher education. Thus, in the funding for higher education, a greater amount of private funds or resources were started to be used in addition to public resources (Ekinci, 1999).

The higher education sector in Turkey consists of the YÖK, the state, and foundation universities founded by non-profit foundations. All higher education institutions are administered by the YÖK pursuant to Law No. 2547. The YÖK, an autonomous

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government agency, conducts the planning, coordination, and supervision of universities as well as appoints deans and rectors to universities (YÖK, 2007). The financial needs of the YÖK and public universities are covered by the government every year from the budget of the Ministry of National Education, taking into account the previous year's allowances whereas the funding sources of foundation universities are donations of the founding foundation and tuition fees (Karasaç & Sağın, 2019). Hence, it can be said that the funding sources of universities vary according to the university type. In other words, the needs of public universities are funded by the Ministry of National Education, while the needs of foundation universities are funded by the founding foundations.

Although universities in Turkey have operated as annexed budget institutions for a long time, these institutions have been funded with treasury aids. In the early 1990s, the proportion of treasury aids in the budgets of higher education institutions corresponded to 80-85 percent of the total higher education budgets. Later, the share of revolving funds in the revenues of higher education institutions increased gradually to reach 40 percent (Mutluer, 2008). In this period, the share of higher education allowances in the consolidated budget increased from 3.09% in 1981 to 3.13% in 1982 and to 3.78% in 1983, and then dropped to 3.66% in 1984 and to 3% in 1985 and finally increased to 3.05% in 1986. It is observed that the share of higher education institutions in the consolidated budget increased after 1982 with the newly established universities. Further, a continuous increase was observed in the share of higher education allowances in the gross national product (GNP) in the period between 1982 and 1993. Although this situation indicates the importance attached to higher education, the number of students increasing in parallel with the universities established in this period caused the funds transferred to higher education institutions to be insufficient.

Higher education in Turkey is mainly funded by the state budget. The state not only undertakes this task but also provides support to private higher education institutions. In this period, it is observed that higher education is predominantly funded by the state. Article 55 of the Law No. 2547 specifies the income sources of universities as follows (Meriç, 1998):

- Allowances to be added to the budget every year,
- Aids to the institutions,
- Broadcast and sales revenues,
- Revenues from movable and immovable properties,
- Profits to be obtained from revolving fund businesses,
- Donations, testaments, and other revenues.

The payment made by the public sector to students in formal higher education institutions increased from 439 thousand TL in 1983 to 34.780 thousand TL in 1993. Considering the payments made for open education, this amount increased from 575 thousand TL in 1983 to 21.364 thousand TL in 1993. According to these figures, in the 1990s, spending from public sources per higher education student in Turkey corresponded to 62% to 69% of gross national product per capita (Meriç, 1998).

The Turkish education system maintained its feature of being funded by public resources until the 1990s. However, due to the increase in the education costs of public universities and the insufficient resources to meet these expenses as well as the increase in the demand for higher education, the higher education service considered as a state-

funded service until the early 1980s started to be funded by foundations after these years. According to Turanlı (2003), although the demand for higher education increased in this period, the resources allocated to higher education decreased. As a result, in order to meet the increasing demand, methods such as less costly open education practices or increased quotas for university admissions were started to be implemented, which, in turn, resulted in poor-quality education.

In summary, with the developments in Turkish higher education between 1980 and 2000, changes in the funding of higher education institutions occurred, and despite the fact that higher education institutions were largely funded by the state, with the increasing number of students, foundations also started to take part in the funding of higher education institutions.

### **Developments in Access to Higher Education and Quality of Higher Education**

Higher education institutions, whose number has increased rapidly since 1980, have also led to the emergence of some problems. Indeed, in universities established with an insufficient number of faculty members and inadequate infrastructure, it is observed that the expected level of quality could not be achieved (Karasaç & Sağın, 2019). Also, according to Gürüz (2003), who emphasized that besides quality, one of the biggest problems of the Turkish higher education system concerns access to higher education (2003), as the contribution of higher education became visible in increasing the welfare level of the individual and the society, the importance of higher education institutions has increased in Turkey as in the rest of the world. Therefore, the increase in the number of higher education institutions was also reflected in the number of students. Table 1 below demonstrates the number of students participating in the university entrance exam, the number of students who successfully passed the exam and enrolled in any higher education institution, and the overall success rates between 1980 and 2000.

**Table 1**

*Number of Students Participating in the University Entrance Exam and Entitled to Enroll at University (1980-2000)*

Years	Number of Students Participating in the University Entrance Exam	Number of Students Entitled to Enroll at University	Success Rate (%)
1980	466.963	41.574	8.9
1985	480.633	156.063	32.5
1990	892.975	196.253	22.0
1995	1.265.103	383.974	30.4
2000	1.407.920	439.061	31.2

*Note.* Adapted from “Dünyada ve Türkiye’de Yükseköğretim,” by K. Gürüz, 2003, ÖSYM Yayınları. Copyright 2003 by Kemal Gürüz.

It can be inferred from Table 1 that there is an increase over the years in the number of students participating in the university entrance exam. While more than 460 thousand students applied for the university entrance exam in 1980, this number reached about 900 thousand in 1990 and 1.400 thousand in 2000. The increase in the number of students entitled to enroll in a higher education institution paralleled the increase over the years in supply in higher education.

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With this increase in supply, there have also been serious developments in access to higher education. Indeed, looking at the number of students entitled to enroll at university over the years, an increase, albeit some ups and downs, is apparent. While only 9% of students who took the exam in 1980 were able to enroll in any higher education institution, this rate increased to 22% in 1990 and to 31% in 2000.

It can also be inferred from Table 1 that there was a decline in access to higher education between 1985 and 1990. To eliminate this decline in access, pressures for the establishment of new public universities increased in the early 1990s. As a result of these pressures, 21 new public universities were established in 1992, the year considered as the second period. Unlike the first period, the vast majority of universities established in this second period were established in relatively less developed provinces where no universities were established before. Public universities established in this period played an important role in the increase in higher education supply towards the end of the 20th century (Çetinsaya, 2014).

As is known, the governments of Turkey have constantly felt the public pressure to increase capacity in higher education. Since meeting this demand requires large investments, governments have sought solutions to increase the capacity without making large investments and, as a result, developed two solutions (Hız, 2010): The first one was the development of open education by making physical investments to provide the places and infrastructures required by higher education. The second solution was to improve and extend evening education by evaluating more effectively the existing physical capital and, to a certain extent, human capital with the “Law No. 3843 on Double-Shift Education in Higher Education Institutions” enacted in 1992.

203.442 of 345.200 people graduating from high school in 1993 and 226.183 of 530.800 people graduating from high school in 2000 were entitled to enroll in any higher education institution in formal education. This rate decreased from 59% in 1993 to 43% in 2000. If we add to this number the number of those who waited for at least one year before taking the university exam after graduating from high school and the number of those who were already enrolled in a higher education institution while taking the exam, it would not be difficult to estimate how higher this number would be (Gür & Özoglu, 2015). To put it simply, there have been various developments and changes from 1980 to 2000 in access to and quality of higher education. Based on the data obtained, it can be argued that in this process, with the increase in the number of students enrolled at university, studies on increasing access to higher education and improving quality also increased.

## **Developments in Higher Education Policies**

Like the rest of the world, Turkey also witnessed the rise of a new ideology within the framework of the “structural adjustment programs” implemented in the 1980s. Concepts such as “neo-liberal policies”, “democracy”, “human rights”, “globalization” and “governance” started to be used frequently in Turkey. Parallel to these, restructuring programs started to be implemented in many areas (Hız, 2010). Undoubtedly, the “restructuring” process in education was not independent of other areas.

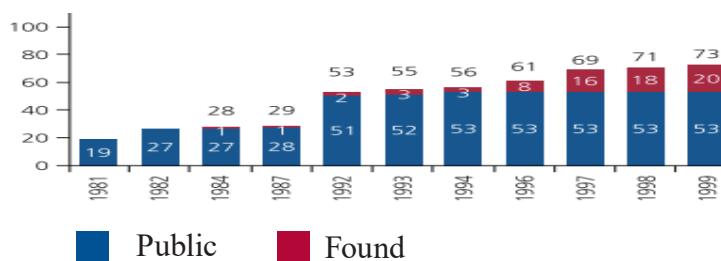
If higher education policies pursued after 1980 are evaluated as a whole, it can be said that the most consistent policy pursued in the Turkish higher education system was, albeit minor exceptions, to increase the supply of higher education to meet the increasing

demand for higher education. It is seen that since the establishment of the YÖK in 1981, different policies have been followed in order to increase access to higher education (Dundar & Lewis, 1999). These policies are examined under four sub-headings given below:

6. The first and perhaps the most effective policy pursued to increase access to higher education was the establishment of new public and foundation universities. The 1982 Constitution first paved the way for the establishment of non-profit foundation universities. However, until 1996, only three foundation universities were established. In the period from 1996 until 2000, more than 20 foundation universities were established, indicating a significant increase in the number of foundation universities (Günay & Günay, 2017). The number of universities in Turkey between 1981 and 1999 is presented in Figure 1 below:

**Figure 1.**

*Number of Universities in Turkey by Years (1981-1999)*



*Note.* Reprinted from “Historical development and current situation of higher education in Turkey.” by D. Günay and A. Günay, 2017, *Yükseköğretim Dergisi*, 7(3), 156–178. Copyright 2017 by the *Yükseköğretim Dergisi*.

It can be inferred from Figure 1 that there was an increase in the number of public and foundation universities established in Turkey from 1981 to 1999. The number of public universities, which was 19 in 1981, increased to 27 by 1982 with the establishment of 8 new public universities. In 1984, İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University, the first foundation university, was established and as of 1992, the total number of universities increased to 53. By 1999, the total number of universities increased to 73, with the highest increase in the number of foundation universities.

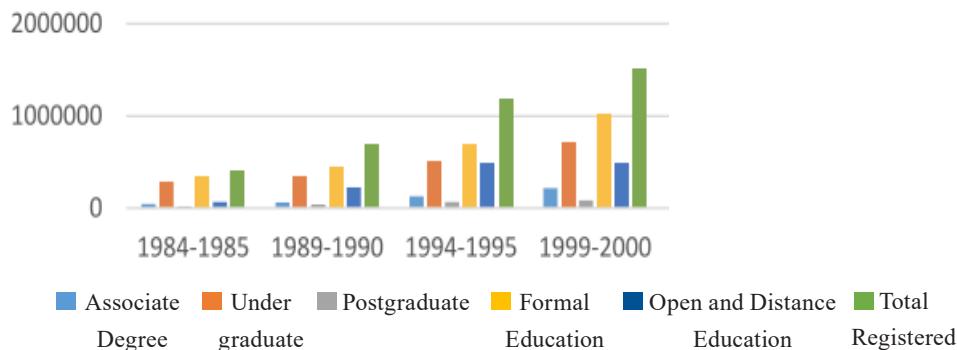
2. The second policy, in addition to the policy of establishing new universities, to increase the supply of higher education was to increase the quotas of the existing universities. By 1980, the quotas of universities fell to 41.174. Since the very first years it was established, the YÖK tried to increase the quotas for the existing universities in almost every period, with some exceptions, by using its regulatory authority over universities (Çetinsaya, 2014). This increase in quotas was achieved not only by increasing the quotas of existing departments or programs but also by introducing new departments or programs.

Along with the increase in the number of higher education institutions, there was also a significant increase in the number of students. The number of students between 1984 and 2000 is shown in Figure 2.

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**Figure 2.**

*The Number of Students in Higher Education (1984-2000)*



*Note.* Reprinted from “Türk Yükseköğretiminin Bugünkü Durumu,” by Yüksek Öğretim Kurulu. Copyright 2005 by Yüksek Öğretim Kurulu.

Figure 2 shows the number of students enrolled in both formal education and in open and distance education institutions between 1984 and 2000. Accordingly, the number of students in higher education institutions increased steadily between 1984 and 2000. The total number of students, which was around 417 thousand in 1984, reached 1.5 million in 2000.

Efforts carried out by policymakers from 1984 to 2000 to increase access to higher education included the establishment of both public and foundation universities, increasing university quotas, opening open education faculties and introducing distance education programs, and increasing the number of associate degrees and vocational schools (Gür & Özoglu, 2015).

**3.** Another policy pursued to increase the quotas of the existing universities was the opening and dissemination of evening programs. Law No. 3843 enacted in 1992 aimed to enable double-shift education in existing higher education institutions. Through double-shift education, it was aimed to use the existing physical infrastructure after normal education hours, to increase productivity and thereby increase the supply of higher education. Although the quotas of the evening programs increased continuously, their share in the total quota of higher education programs providing face-to-face education remained at the level of 25% in the early 2000s (Çetinsaya, 2014)

**4.** Another major policy developed to increase the supply in higher education is the open education system providing distance education. The open education system was launched in 1982 with the undergraduate programs of the Open Education Faculty within Anadolu University. The difficulty of establishing new universities, with its economic dimension and the need for academics, to solve the increasing access problem was shown as the main reason for the development of the open education system. Through associate and undergraduate programs introduced in different areas over time, program types and quotas in the open education system have increased (Gür & Özoglu, 2015). Çetinsaya (2014) states that when the share of students who have recently enrolled in open education in all students who have recently enrolled at university is analyzed by years,

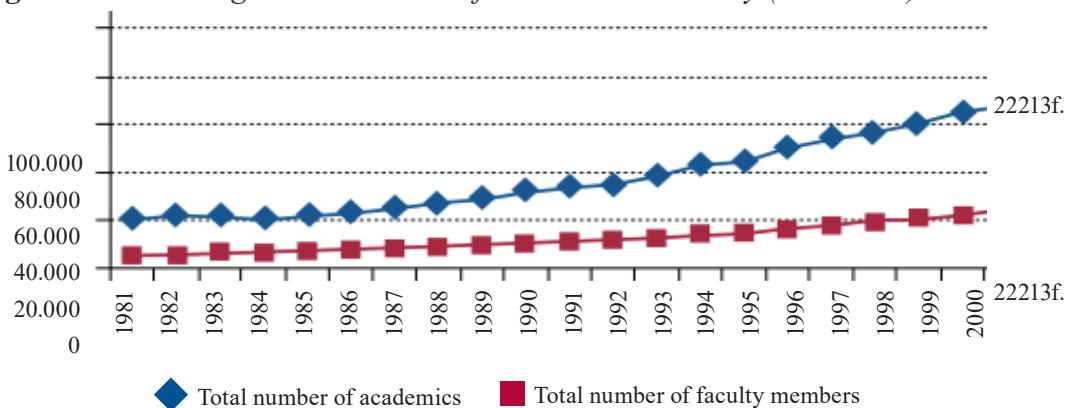
this share decreased, especially due to the increase in face-to-face education quotas of newly established universities. Nevertheless, by the year 2000, open education contained approximately 25% of the new higher education quotas and included approximately 47% of all higher education students.

Overall, it can be argued that the policies pursued to solve the problem of access to higher education institutions have been successful and that there was a serious development in this direction, especially in the late 1990s.

### **Developments in the Number of Academic Personnel**

In the new higher education regulation after 1980, special emphasis was placed on issues such as raising qualified faculty members, increasing the number of teaching personnel, and ensuring a balanced distribution of faculty members in higher education institutions, which are considered as the basic conditions of increasing the quality of education, training, and research studies. As a result of the steps taken in this regard, significant progress was made. One of the important developments in universities between 1981 and 2000 was the changes in the academic personnel. In 1982, a total of 19 Turkish universities had 2.267 professors, 2.540 associate professors, 8.021 assistants, and 133.371 students (Tokcan & Suleimenova, 2015). It is observed that there has been a continuous increase, albeit at different rates, in the numbers of both academics and faculty members after the decline in 1984. The change in the number of academics in Turkey between 1981 and 2000 is given in Figure 3.

**Figure 3. The Change in the Number of Academics in Turkey (1981-2000).**



*Note.* Reprinted from ‘Historical development and current situation of higher education in Turkey.’ by D. Günay and A. Günay, 2017, *Yükseköğretim Dergisi*, 7(3), 156–178. Copyright 2017 by the Yükseköğretim Dergisi.

As can be inferred from Figure 3, there was an increase in the number of academics and faculty members since 1981. It is observed that this increase was more significant in the 1990s. It can be argued that the major reason for this is due to the need for academics and faculty members resulting from the increasing number of universities and students.

It is known that based on the idea that the main factor in raising the quality of higher education is the faculty member, studies have been carried out to increase the number of faculty members and to have more quality faculty members. Before 1987, the training of personnel abroad for various sectors of the country’s economy and for

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the areas required by higher education was carried out by the Ministry of National Education pursuant to the provisions of Law No. 1416 on Students to be Sent to Foreign Countries. With an amendment made in Article 33 of Law No. 2547 in 1987, universities also began to send research assistants abroad. The number of students to be sent abroad every year was determined as 200 pursuant to the agreement reached with the Ministry of Finance. However, with the establishment of 23 new universities in 1992, the need for faculty members further increased, and the provisional Article 24 added to Law No. 3837 stipulated the preparation of a program until 2000. In accordance with the program stipulated by this provisional article, it was planned to send approximately 700 students abroad for this purpose every year (YÖK, 1996).

### **Developments in Research Studies and Scientific Publications**

After 1980, especially in the 1990s, there was an increase in the number of scientific papers, along with the establishment of new universities and the increase in the number of faculty members (Balci, 2002). With this increase, Turkey's ranking in the world in terms of the number of scientific papers also changed.

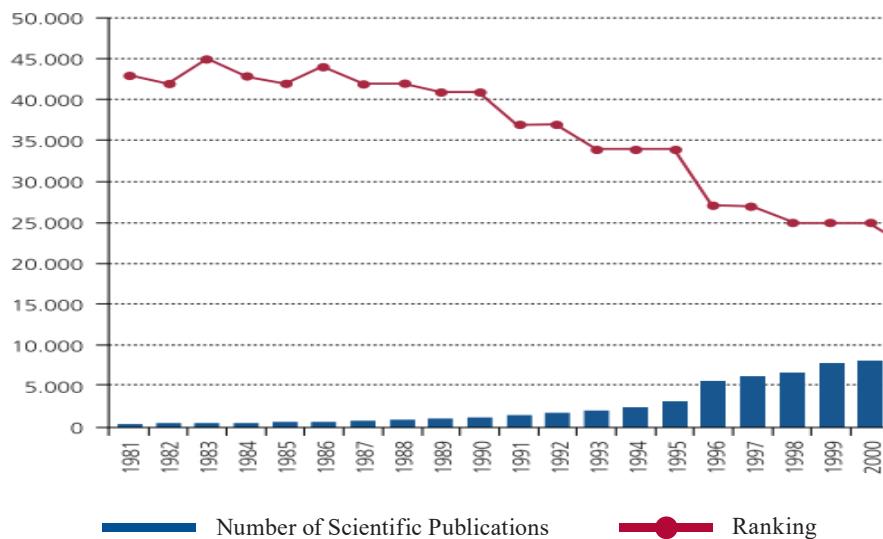
After the second half of the 1990s, various universities in Turkey determined research studies and publications in international journals as the main criterion in academic performance evaluations, especially for decisions regarding academic appointments and promotions (Şenses, 2004). After the second half of the 1990s, various universities in Turkey, when evaluating academic performance, especially in appointments and promotions, required the applicant to have a work published in international journals (Şenses, 2003). Similarly, with the Regulation on the Exam for Associate Professorship issued by the Council of Higher Education on September 1, 2000, having a work published in international journals started to be the main condition for being an associate professor (Ak & Gülmez, 2006). Undoubtedly, all these developments have led to a significant increase in the number of scientific publications.

The number of Turkish scientific publications and Turkey's ranking in the world between 1981 and 2000 are presented in Figure 4 below.

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**Figure 4.**

The Number of Turkish Scientific Publications and Turkey's Ranking.



*Note.* Reprinted from “Historical development and current situation of higher education in Turkey.” by D. Günay and A. Günay, 2017, *Yükseköğretim Dergisi*, 7(3), 156–178. Copyright 2017 by the Yüksekokretim Dergisi.

Figure 4 demonstrates the number of Turkish scientific publications and Turkey's ranking in the world between 1981 and 2000. With a total of 8,044 scientific publications in international journals, Turkey ranked 25th globally in 2000.

Analysis of the number of Turkish scientific publications published in international journals reveals that the number of Turkish scientific publications and thereby Turkey's contributions to world science showed a significant increase from 1981 to 2000 and Turkey climbed up the ranks in the world. According to Ak and Gülmelz (2006), however, an evaluation considering only the number of scientific publications is not a satisfactory evaluation. They argue that criteria such as the number of publications per faculty member and the number of citations to publications should also be considered.

## CONCLUSION

From past to present, universities have undertaken an important mission in the training of qualified human resources to enable the development of societies and countries. In parallel with this importance, there have been important developments in higher education systems worldwide. As in other countries, these developments have led to changes in the Turkish higher education system, as well.

An overall consideration of the developments in Turkey between 1980 and 2000 reveals that with the establishment of the Council of Higher Education (YÖK) in the post-1980 period, changes and developments took place in various areas. In this period, steps were taken to solve two main problems, particularly the limited capacity and low quality of higher education institutions. New universities established in 1982 by merging several faculties or vocational high schools enabled more students to access higher education. Along with the increase in the number of universities, there was also an increase in the number of faculty members. However, the increase in the number of university-age students in the following years made it necessary to increase the number of universities.

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In this context, the year 1992 was a spectacular year in terms of both the distribution of the universities across Turkey and the increase in the number of students. These universities, which were established in 1992, provided university education to smaller provinces with limited potential for development, while also contributing significantly to the increase in the number of students. To meet the increasing demand for higher education in this period, the number of foundation universities in addition to public universities was also increased. Increasing demand for higher education and progress in higher education also increased the need for resources in higher education, and Turkey set off on a quest for the funding of education. For this reason, regulations were made on issues such as who would attend higher education, how extensive the higher education services would be, of what quality higher education would be and by which institutions it would be provided, who would cover the cost of higher education, and who would share the benefits of higher education.

If higher education policies pursued after 1980 are evaluated as a whole, it can be said that the most consistent policy pursued in the Turkish higher education system was, albeit minor exceptions, to increase the supply of higher education to meet the increasing demand for higher education. Policies pursued to increase access to higher education included the establishment of new public and foundation universities, increasing the quotas of the existing universities, introducing and disseminating evening education, and the establishment of an open education system providing distance education.

In the new higher education regulation after 1980, special emphasis was placed on issues such as raising qualified faculty members, increasing the number of teaching personnel, and ensuring a balanced distribution of faculty members in higher education institutions, which are considered as the basic conditions of increasing the quality of education, training, and research studies. As a result of the steps taken in this regard, significant progress was made. One of the important developments in universities between 1981 and 2000 was the changes in the academic personnel. After 1980, especially in the 1990s, there was an increase in the number of scientific papers, along with the establishment of new universities and the increase in the number of faculty members. With this increase, Turkey's ranking in the world in terms of the number of scientific papers also changed.

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## EPISODE 10

### SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER CANDIDATES WONDER WHICH TURKISH REPUBLIC?

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#### INTRODUCTION

The geographical name of the place where the Turks originated and lived today is Central Asia. As a result of the fact that the Turks still maintain their existence in this geography today, and that there are states that still exist independently here, the dense part of the population that they host is turkish, the region is called Turkestan as another name. The beginning of the use of the name Turkestan and its registration by other nations, as it is known, dates back to ancient times. The term "Turkestan", which consists of the merger of the Turkish word with the Persian suffix "istan" and means "the homeland of the Turks", was first used in Armenian sources. It is shown in the form of "Turkastan" in the century. Armenians considered the geographical region inhabited by Turks from Kazan to Hotan as Turkestan. Unlike the Armenians, the Iranians, VI. after the establishment of the Gokturk state in the century, Turan used the word Turkestan, that is, the hometown of the Turks (Gungor, 2011).

Today, Turks in the world live in a fairly wide geography. The geography that we define as the Turkic World constitutes almost the central part of the European and Asian continents, called Eurasia. The area from the Balkans in the West, to the Great Ocean in the East, from the Arctic sea in the north, to Tibet in the South is considered the geography where Turks live extensively on earth (Handbook of the Turkic World, 1992: 5; Dönmez, 1987:1). Within the specified borders, Turks live in about 20 different states, including independent Turkish Republics. Apart from these borders, the number of Turks living in Central, Western and Northern European countries is also increasing every day (Sezer and Topal, 2016:97).

Within these general borders, Turks exist as seven independent states: Turkey, the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, Azerbaijan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Kyrgyzstan and Kazakhstan. This outside the states; Bashkortostan, Chuvash and Dagestan, Gagavuz, Kabarday-Balkar, Karakalpak reconstructive field, the Tuva (Ruby), Uyghur (East Turkestan) including 10 Autonomous Republic and the Nagorno-Altay, Hakas, and Karachay-Cherkessia Autonomous Prefecture 3 to live in (Sezer and Lame, 2016:97).

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The concept of the Turkic world is related to the spread of the Turkish nation in many parts of the world - in very large areas - and similar expressions are used in other nations around the world (Yildirim 2015). From this point of view, the Turkic world is neither a state nor a country. But they are borders that are close to each other and randomly distributed as the sum of Turkish speakers in the world, cross each other like the Rings of a chain, reach fairly wide borders and cannot be expressed by precise lines (Johnson 2001). The concept is also used to describe the Turkish States in Anatolia and Central Asia, the Turkic peoples living in the Caucasus, Russia-Siberia, China and Mongolia, the Middle East, Iran and the Balkans (Taldybayeva 2012: 4). In this context, the geography of the Turkic world is expressed as a mathematical position in the Middle Belt, 2200 km between the North and South, 28 min time difference between the East and West and 20-90 east longitude and 25-55 north latitude is a region (Özey 1997: 2, akt. Sezer, 2011).

Today, while we can reach accurate and precise judgments about Turkestan, which means the hometown of the Turks, and its borders, we cannot reach precise and clear judgments about the borders of the Turkic world, which are widely used today. The uncertainty of what this distinction will be made with, such as the fact that Turks (such as language, religion, race) live in various places today, are effective in this. In this case, the seven Turkish republics that have political independence and have a say in their rule - most arguably - are the Turkic world. We may also include to some extent the autonomous republics and regions in the Russian Federation, Ukraine and the people's Republic of China with partial administrative independence; or we may consider the republics and regions with partial administrative independence as a separate category. This geography is the Turkic world in terms of language, ancestry, land and political sovereignty or administrative autonomy (Özturk and Satan, 2007; Akman, 2016).

Geographically, the Turkic world is located in the middle and southwest of the Asian continent, almost in the middle of ancient land masses. Its connection to the oceans is via the Black Sea, Aegean Sea and Mediterranean Sea via Turkey in the West, and sea transportation is made with connection to the Atlantic Ocean. Since the Turkish countries of Central Asia are connected to each other by land border, they have the convenience of Land Transportation. On the other hand, it is of great importance because it provides the airline connection between the Turkic World, Asian, European and African countries. The Turkic world is located on the Earth, in the Northern Hemisphere according to the equator, and in the Eastern Hemisphere according to the Prime Meridian. As a mathematical location, it roughly forms a rectangle between the longitudes of about 20° East (Balkans), 90° East (Turfan Basin), and the latitudes of 35° North (TRNC), 55° North (Kazakhstan). The width of the rectangle corresponds to a time period of 280 minutes (4 hours and 40 minutes), equal to 70 degrees of longitude. The difference in height in the north - south direction is 20 degrees of latitude, which is a distance of 2,220 kilometers (Özturk and Satan, 2007).



**Map 1. Map Of The Turkic World**

According to the Turkish language institution, curiosity is indicated as a desire to understand or learn something (Web1). At the heart of human learning is a sense of curiosity.

Acting with a sense of curiosity, human beings have found many new inventions and discovered many new places. Curiosity, defined in the dictionary of psychology as the urge to research, study, collect information, especially new and interesting things (Budak, 2005: 500), is a sense of deprivation caused by the lack of access to new information, the gap between existing knowledge and obtaining curious information (Renner, 2006: 305; Transferant, Kurtbash, 2011:21).

Babies have an innate sense of curiosity. At first they explore their bodies and environment. They then start walking and snooping around. They'll be curious. And as they grow, they ask questions. The desire to learn also develops in this way and the foundations are laid(Aksoy,2019).

Professor At Carnegie Mellon University George Loewenstein asks questions to a group of college students and gives them the answers himself. He asks the second group the same questions, but asks students to guess the answers before giving them the answers. At this time, it studies the brain activity of students (with fMRI technology). Because those in the first group immediately learn the answers to the questions, there is no mobility in their brains and they lose interest in the subject. In the second group, a large amount of mobility occurs in the brain. Their minds strive to fill the gap between question and answer. These students also enjoy what they do. Curiosity gives a person energy and pleasure (all discoveries and inventions in the history of humanity have been thanks to curiosity. Because people wonder beyond what they see, they have discovered that the Earth is round; because they wonder why the sun disappears in the evening, the Earth rotates. There's no science without curiosity. It is a person's sense of curiosity that enables the development of new concepts and new theories. "I don't have any special abilities," Albert Einstein said of himself.; I'm just a person with a passion for curiosity."he said (Bozkurt, 2019).

Some studies have been conducted in our country aimed at the knowledge of the Turkic world of university students. Reception (2009) knowledge test of perceptions of the Turkic world of geography education students and open-ended questions, Aksoy and

Karachali (2015) 7. by asking students to find these countries on the mind map of the Turkic World, lame and Sezer (2016) determined the level of awareness of university students about the geography of the Turkic world with map and flag knowledge and with an open-ended question. Apart from these studies, Tuncel (2002) tried to reach the perception of Islam in the minds of students by drawing a map. Unal (2008) Elementary 7. class social studies course “neighbors of our country and the Turkic World” Unit determined the availability level of the maps passing. Tokcan and Balci (2016) determined the level of teacher candidates to determine the states of the Turkic world on the map, while Tokcan and Karaca (2016) examined the flag and capital information of independent Turkish republics of teacher candidates. But since there was no study on the candidate teacher or any group in the literature survey in the direction of which countries they were interested in and wanted to visit from the Turkic world, it was decided to do this study.

### Purpose of Research

The main aim of this study is to reveal which independent Turkish Republic the teacher candidates are interested in, want to visit and the reasons for this.

### Method

This study is structured in accordance with the qualitative research pattern. The method is used research, data analysis, and document review, a research problem about related documents produced during a specific time period or by more than one source in the subject based on an extensive analysis of documents produced at different intervals and the timeframe makes it possible (Yıldırım and şimşek, 2006). Documentary screening documentary observation or document review considered research on the topic of your current records and review documents to enable the general trends on the current situation, features and recognize the opportunity to put forward alternative thoughts and ideas because it is fit for purpose as were used in this study (Çepni, 2018).

### Research Group

In 2018-2019 academic year, 113 teacher candidates who studied social studies teaching at the Faculty of Education of Niğde Ömer Halisdemir university formed the working group of the research. The information of the students in the study group is shown in Table 1

**Table 1.** Distribution of teacher candidates in the study group by gender and class

Grade Level	Female	Male	%
2	21	16	32.7
3	30	12	37.2
4	20	14	30.1
Toplam	71	52	100

In Table 1, 62.8% of the candidates were female (71) and 37.2% (52) were male teacher candidates. 1, which did not take the basic courses related to the “Turkic World”. Class students were not included.

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## **Data Collection Tool**

Apart from class level and gender information as a means of data collection in the study, “which Truk Republic are you wondering, Would you like to see? Why? A data collection paper was distributed, and candidates were asked to write responses on this paper.

### **Analysis of the Data**

The data obtained as a result of the study examined the papers before they were classified as categorical teacher candidates wondering which country, their frequency and percentage is taken, then by examining public opinions about why this country has been trying to bring together what has been answers.

### **Findings**

The findings of the study are as follows.

**Table2.** The curiosity of social studies teacher candidates, Turkish Republics

Country of Wonder	f	%
Azerbaijan	45	39.8
Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus	25	22.1
Kazakhstan	17	15.0
Kyrgyzstan	13	11.5
Turkmenistan	10	8.9
Uzbekistan	3	2.7

Table 2 when I looked at what social studies teacher candidates are more curious about Turkish republics in turn Azerbaijan (39.8%), Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (22.1%), Kazakhstan (15%), Kyrgyzstan (11.5%), Turkmenistan (8.9%) and Uzbekistan (2.7%).

When the answers given by the teacher candidates to the reasons for wondering about these countries were analyzed, the most given answers were as follows.

#### ***Azerbaijan***

Being close to each other, being a fraternal country, two states being a nation

Being close in terms of culture

Beautiful dialects

To support them in Khojaly massacre and Karabakh conflict

#### ***Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus***

For holidays and sightseeing

Beautiful sea and beaches

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***Kazakhstan***

First ancestor

Having a wide and diverse geography

***Kyrgyzstan***

Being one of the first ancestral homelands of the Turks

To see the mountains of God and the lake of light

To get to know their culture

To see the places in Cengiz Aytmatov's novels

***Turkmenistan***

Their culture is close to us

To see historical Turkish cities such as Bukhara, Samarkand

Being the country closest to the way of life of the first Turks

***Uzbekistan***

Because he's curious about his culture

Famous rice

## **Conclusion**

According to the results obtained in the study, it can be said that teacher candidates are curious about Turkish republics and are more curious about closer places, where the priority in seeing them is moving closely, and the desire of Turks to explore their homeland plays a role. About two-thirds (61.9%) of the teacher candidates are interested in the two countries that are close to us, Azerbaijan (39.8%) and Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (22.1%). These results are Aksoy and Karachali (2015), Topal and Sezer (2016); Tokcan and Balci (2016), Tokcan and Karaca (2016); It is compatible with Turgut and Kaymakci (2019)'s work on the Turkic world. Aksoy and Karachali (2015) 7. In their study of the map knowledge of the class students, the country that their students know best on the map is Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus the least known country was Kyrgyzstan. In the research of Topal and Sezer (2016), the country where university students know their place on the map in independent Turkish States is Azerbaijan and Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus the country they knew the least was Kyrgyzstan. Tokcan and Karaca (2016) in their study, Azerbaijan was the country where teacher candidates knew the flag and Capital best; the independent Turkish Republic, where teacher candidates knew both the flag and capital least, was Uzbek. In a study conducted by Tokcan and Balci (2016), the candidates for teachers know their place on the map best in the Turkish Republic Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus after that, the other countries where the students knew their place on the map were Kazakhstan and Azerbaijan in turn.

Turgut and Kaymakci (2019) in their study of the cognitive structures of social studies teacher candidates related to the Turkic world, it was found that the candidates were most likely with Turkey, Azerbaijan and the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus when the words they associated with the Turkic world were examined in terms of frequency frequencies.

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Demirok (2019) in his study, it was understood that the political and socio-cultural perceptions of university students belonging to the Turkic world are high and that their economic perceptions are low. The countries where teacher candidates are most curious are Azerbaijan and Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, where they know the best place in other studies Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus it can be interpreted as the fact that their candidates know their place better, that is, they wonder where they mentally have more information. Azerbaijan and Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus in other countries, cultural proximity and historical ties have come to the fore among the reasons for curiosity. In other words, teacher candidates have shown the cultural situation in the Turkish republics and historical artifacts as a reason to see these places, especially with the influence of their lessons. According to all these results, it shows us that teacher candidates are more curious about the Turkish republics and are more curious about the closer places where the priority in seeing them is moving closely, and that the desire of Turks to explore their homeland and culture also plays a role in their sense of curiosity.

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## EPISODE 11

# DEVELOPMENTS IN THE AREA OF TURKISH EDUCATION BETWEEN 1980-2000

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## INTRODUCTION

Language is the basic symbol of a nation's existence. Language is among the most prominent values possessed by a nation. Language is the reflector of the lifestyle of the nation that speaks it, its culture in the broadest sense, its worldview, the various stages that it has gone through throughout history, and its relationships that is established with other societies (Aksan, 2001.). Language is not an independent phenomenon from the community we live in. (Kaplan, 2003; Gur, 2013). Language not only provides understanding in society but also takes on the task of being a key that opens the door of the future to the cultural accumulation of nations. In this sense, language education gains importance in terms of adapting individuals to society, and society's ability to transfer wholesomely all the knowledge accumulation coming from its history to future generations.

Turkish is one of the oldest languages in the world, with a history of thousands of years (Ağar, 2004; Hengirmen, 2011). The rich written sources left by the Turks within the period, which was followed with written works, are the most important pieces of evidence that Turkish is a medium of instruction (Biçer, 2017). In the historical period, in the states established by Turks, it has been seen that Turkish was taught both as a native language and as a foreign language. However, in the early years of the Republic, Turkish education as the native language in Turkey, and in the 1980s, Turkish education as a foreign language, were granted systematic and programmatic structures. In this sense, Turkish has been seen as an important social value and important studies have been carried out on how to teach Turkish as an official language in schools (Maden, 2017). In line with the views of Atatürk, importance was attached to the effective teaching of the Turkish language at all levels of education, thus, efforts have been made for Turkish to take its place in world languages as a contemporary language of science and education (Akyüz, 2005). This situation has been adopted as a state policy and, as in many countries, programs for Turkish education have been prepared and implemented per the changing and developing world conditions.

In this study, developments and practices in the field of Turkish education between 1980-2000 are discussed. Thus, it is aimed to mirror the studies carried out in these years, in the context of Turkish education as both a native language and a foreign language.

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## **1981 Elementary Schools Turkish Education Program**

1981 Elementary Schools Turkish Education Program was prepared in line with the changing conditions and needs of the period. When these conditions were examined, first of all, with the National Education Basic Law No. 1739 legislated in 1973, the foundations of increasing compulsory education to eight years were laid. In the law, it has been mentioned that the article stating that eight-year elementary education is compulsory for children aged 6-14 and is free in public schools. This situation led to the need to combine Turkish lessons applied in primary and secondary schools and to be performed with the same method (Melanlıoğlu, 2008). Besides, the desire to raise individuals, who think, are sensitive, internalize democratic values, investigate, question, and convey their feelings and thoughts effectively written and verbal, has been stated as the scientific justification for the studies for the development of the 1981 Elementary Schools Turkish Education Program (Sever, 2003; Ferah-Özcan, 2017). The program was published in the Journal of Communiques No. 2098 dated October 26, 1981. The program had consisted of three sections that were first literacy, 1-5th grades Turkish and 6-8th grades Turkish. "The general framework of the program has been established with the headings of general objectives and explanations in the program. Specific purposes and behaviors are presented as comprehension, expression, grammar and writing. Understanding, listening and watching and expression are classified as the written and verbal expression" (Demirel, 1992, p. 32). In this sense, listening took place for the first time as a skill area in the 1981 Elementary Schools Turkish Education Program (Özbay & Melanlıoğlu, 2012). In this context, Turkish education in elementary schools in the program is structured within the framework of four basic language skills and grammar education.

1981 Elementary Schools Turkish Education Program was prepared in line with behavioral theory. It has been seen that behavioral psychology is effective in the program, from behaviors to the learning-teaching process, from measurement and evaluation to the first literacy process. The goals, that students were wanted to gain in the program, have been written in the form of behavior and as concrete as possible (Ferah, 2000). In this sense, taxonomic goals have been determined. Here, the goals are the desired point to be reached at the end of the learning and instruction process, and these goals are ranked as prerequisites for each other from simple to complex, from easy to difficult, from concrete to abstract (Sönmez, 2012). Within this framework, it can be stated that the goals of the 1981 Turkish Education Program were determined taxonomically. In the program, the behaviors to be gained by the students regarding reading, listening, watching, verbal expression, written expression and grammar are determined separately for each grade level. Although it was stated in previous programs that all skill areas in Turkish education were a whole and could not be considered separately, the presentation of the goals one by one under separate headings and on based on grades was made with the 1981 program (Karakuş, 2019).

1981 Elementary Schools Turkish Education Program is the first program prepared by considering all elementary education institutions. Accordingly, the 1981 Turkish Education Program has been published by the Ministry of National Education as separate booklets for the 1-5th grades and separate booklets for the 6-8th grades since 1995, remained in force until 2005, and became the longest-lasting Turkish program of the Republican era. In this respect, the program guided teachers in Turkish education as the native language for many years and formed the framework for Turkish education as a native language.

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## **1981 Elementary Schools Turkish Education Program, Primary Reading and Writing Education**

In the primary reading-writing process in Turkey, different methods were used. "The letter (synthesis) method, the mixed method, the story method, the mixed letters education method, and the analysis method appear as methods used in the historical process in this sense (Çelenk, 2002). After evaluating the different methods used, with the Elementary Schools Turkish Education Program, which entered into force on October 26, 1981, the analysis method was accepted as the only valid primary reading-writing education method. (Şahin et al., 2006). According to this method, the primary reading-writing process was started with short sentences that the student could understand, then the sentences were divided into words, and words into syllables. In the later stage of the process, the students were made to perceive the sounds within the syllables. After all these processes were completed, new words and sentences were formed with the words, syllables and letters obtained as a result of the analysis (Tok, 2001). The use of sentences and words that the students were made to gain with this method, in texts such as stories, fairy tales and rhymes was elaborated, and attention was paid to ensure that the subjects included in the primary reading-writing process attract students' attention.

Criticisms were brought to the analysis method over time. It was stated that the method takes time, and leaving the transition from sentence to word, from word to syllable and from syllable to letter in the process to teachers creates significant differences and confusion in practice. However, there have been major criticisms of the method that students are affected by many stimuli and have difficulty in the analysis process, and students are distracted during the analysis process (Çelenk, 1983; Binbaşıoğlu, 1995; Tok, 2001). The analysis method has been the method used in primary reading-writing education until 2005.

### **The Reading Education in the 1981 Elementary Schools Turkish Education Program**

One of the most important features of the 1981 Turkish Education Program is that it focuses on comprehension and expression. Attributing meaning to the contents read and being able to transfer the understood information to different areas are associated with the reading field (Çarkıt, 2019a). In this sense, reading skill, which is one of the basic comprehension skills, has been heavily included in the program. Teaching the language in its natural environment, making the power of Turkish being absorbed and effectively benefiting from reading skills in this sense, developing the reading habit and pleasure in students are some of the main objectives of the program that become prominent with the reading dimension (Temizyürek & Balcı, 2006; Gur, 2014). Another important feature of the 1981 Turkish Education Program is that it was developed as a need as a result of conducted scientific studies. In the program, it was stated that there may be individual differences between students in the reading process and teachers should consider it. "The types that students like may be different from each other; this is a very natural situation. Forcing them to read works of the same type will have harmful consequences. In any case, the aim is not to stereotype the students, but to develop their personalities by making them gain reading habits. What the teacher will always keep in mind is to determine firstly the child's tendency to read and develop it in that direction" (MEB, 1981: 329).

One of the differences of the 1981 Turkish Education Program from other Turkish programs prepared up to that time is that separate goals for learning fields for all grades were set. Setting goals for reading techniques is also one of these differences. These target behaviors, which are determined for the reading techniques at the level of 6,7 and 8th grades and aimed to make students gain, are given in Table 1.

**Table 1.** 1981 Turkish Education Program 6, 7, 8th Grades Reading Technique Target Behaviors

Grade Level	Reading Technique Target Behaviors
6th Grades	To be able to read an average of 150-200 words opinion text or 350-450 words narrative text meaningfully (paying attention to pause, emphasis and intonation)
	To be able to improve silent reading speed and technique
	To be able to benefit from the contents, footnote, index and dictionary sections in the books
	To be able to benefit from Spelling Book, dictionaries, encyclopedias and reference books
	To be able to follow at least one daily newspaper and weekly or monthly magazine
7th Grades	To be able to choose useful books suitable for their level, to benefit from books
	To be able to read an average of 200-300 words opinion text or 400-500 words narrative text meaningfully (paying attention to pause, emphasis and intonation)
	To be able to improve silent reading speed and technique
	To be able to benefit from the contents, preface, presentation, footnote, index and dictionary sections in the books
	To be able to benefit from Spelling Book, dictionaries, encyclopedias and reference books
	To be able to take notes from what he/she reads
	To be able to gain behavior of following daily newspapers and weekly or monthly magazines
	To be able to choose useful books suitable for their level, to benefit from books.

<b>8th Grades</b>	<p>To be able to read an average of 250-300 words opinion text or 450-550 words narrative text meaningfully (paying attention to pause, emphasis and intonation)</p> <p>To be able to maximize silent reading speed and technique by improving it</p> <p>To be able to benefit from the contents, preface, footnote, reference, index and dictionary sections in the books</p> <p>To be able to benefit from Spelling Book, dictionaries, encyclopedias and reference books; to be able to refer to various resources on the same subject; to be able to benefit from other resources which a source is correlated</p> <p>To be able to take notes from what he/she reads</p> <p>To be able to enroot the behavior of following daily newspapers and weekly or monthly magazines</p> <p>To be able to choose useful books suitable for their level; to be able to understand the methods of benefitting from books</p> <p>Filing, classifying the book and text that he/she reads, and making use of them when necessary.</p>
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When the reading technique goals wanted to be acquired by students in the 1981 Turkish Education Program are examined, it can be stated that the goals are arranged according to the subject area and the development levels of the students are taken into consideration. The behaviors desired to be acquired by students in the context of reading technique were written with the infinitive suffix, and these behaviors generally highlighted the quality of reading. In terms of reading techniques, silent reading was dwelled on and it was aimed to improve students' silent reading speed.

### **The Listening Education in the 1981 Elementary Schools Turkish Education Program**

In the literature, different definitions were made on listening, which is one of the comprehension skills. Listening is the activity of smoothly understanding the message that the speaker wants to give and responding to the stimulus in question (Demirel, 1999). Listening is the process of receiving the sounds heard, constructing meaning and responding to them (Carrier, 1999; Gur et al., 2013). Listening is the whole of the mental processes performed to understand what is heard (Güneş, 2007). One of the basic elements that create bonds between individuals is listening (Çarkıt, 2019b;). Although listening has an important role in the rest of the life of a person who starts hearing sounds in their mother's womb, listening is the least dwelled on among language skills (Brownel, 2016). This is because listening is a skill acquired and used unnoticed. Thus, listening is described as a "neglected" area in both education and social life (Çiftçi, 2001, p. 166). Although it is a neglected skill, listening is the basic step of the process of sense-making of life. According to Sever (2011), listening has an important role in shaping the individual's pre-school knowledge, emotion and thought world. The fact that listening skill is not seen as a neglected skill in the area depends on the planned and systematic execution of the listening education process.

It has been seen that listening, which is described as a neglected skill in the literature, was not included as a skill in any program prepared for Turkish education in the historical process until the 1981 Turkish Education Program. The fact that listening is seen as the same concept with hearing, the belief that listening is an acquired skill is a common opinion, and there are not enough scientific studies conducted in this area, can be shown

as the reasons for this deficiency. In this sense, the 1981 Turkish Education Program is the first program in which listening takes place in the area of Turkish education as a skill field (Özbay & Melanlioğlu, 2012). In this sense, the items related to listening skill in the general objectives section of the program are listed below (MEB, 1981, p.328).

- To make students acquire the power to fully and accurately understand what they see, watch, listen and read
- To make them acquire the skill and habit of expressing what they see and watch, listen, read, examine, think, and plan, in words or writing, accurately and per the purpose.
- To make them acquire listening, reading habits and pleasure, to help them develop their aesthetic feelings.

In the 1981 Elementary Schools Turkish Education Program, the target behaviors of listening/watching technique at the level of grades were included to achieve the general objectives stated above. The target behaviors determined for listening/watching techniques at the 6th, 7th, and 8th grades and aimed to be acquired by the students are given in Table 2.

**Table 2.** 1981 Turkish Education Program 6, 7, 8th Grades Listening/Watching Technique Target Behaviors

Grade Level	Listening/Watching Technique Target Behaviors
6th Grades	To be able to listen to a 20-30-minute speaking, conference, etc.
	To be able to listen to and watch broadcasts of interest on the radio, television, etc.
	To be able to listen to and watch in-class discussion
	To be able to watch a movie, interview, play or performance suitable for his/her level
7th Grades	To be able to listen to a 30-35-minute speaking, conference, etc.
	To be able to listen to and watch broadcasts suitable for his/her level on the radio, television, etc.
	To be able to listen to and watch a discussion, panel
	To be able to watch a movie, play or performance suitable for his/her level
8th Grades	To be able to listen to a 35-40-minute speaking, conference, etc. and to be able to take notes of interesting parts
	To be able to listen to and watch news and broadcasts on the radio, television, etc.
	To be able to listen and watch a discussion, a panel, etc. and ask questions according to the method if he/she recognized.
	To be able to watch a movie, play or performance

When the listening technique goals wanted to be acquired by students in the 1981 Turkish Education Program are examined, it can be stated that the development levels of the students are taken into consideration in determining the goals. According to Özbay and Melanlioğlu (2012), it is stated in the program that the students can listen to 25-30 minutes speech, conference, etc. in the sixth grade, 30-35 minutes in the seventh

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grade, and 35-40 minutes in the eighth grade; however, there is no explanation as to which points were taken into account while determining these durations. However, not including listening/watching methods and techniques in target behaviors is evaluated as one of the important deficiencies of the program in terms of listening education.

### **The Speaking Education in the 1981 Elementary Schools Turkish Education Program**

One of the basic elements of the communication process is speaking. For this, speaking skill is handled in the education process and is included in the main goals of the education program (Çarkıt, 2019c). In the 1981 Elementary Schools Turkish Education Program, the area of speaking is under the heading of verbal expression. “The most common and natural form of understanding is speaking. For this reason, it is necessary to make our children acquire the skills and habits of speaking correctly and properly, explaining what they want to tell in the shortest way and in a way that does not leave a dark point in the minds of the other people ”(MEB, 1981, p. 328). These statements reveal the place and importance of speaking skills in the 1981 Turkish Education Program. Besides, it was stated that there is no verbal expression course alone in the program, that students should be encouraged to speak, and the need and importance of taking examples of those who speak properly and well, creating natural speaking environments, and using certain techniques related to verbal expression were dwelled on (MEB, 1995). However, in the 1981 Turkish Education Program, preliminary studies for speaking education were not included, and conducting preliminary research on the subject of speaking was not mentioned (Eyüp, 2008). This situation is considered in the literature as important deficiencies in the area of speaking in the program.

The general objectives of speaking skills in the 1981 Turkish Education Program are listed below (MEB, 1981, p. 328).

- To make the students acquire the skill and habit of expressing what they see and watch, listen, read, examine, think, and plan, in words, accurately and per the purpose.
- To prompt students to use Turkish consciously, with care and confidence in the development process.

In the 1981 Turkish Education Program, verbal expression (speaking) technique goals were included at the level of grades to achieve the general goals stated above. The target behaviors determined for verbal expression (speaking) techniques at the level of 6th, 7th, and 8th grades and aimed to be acquired by students are given in Table 3.

**Table 3.** 1981 Turkish Education Program 6, 7, 8th Grades Speaking Technique Target Behaviors

Grade Level	Speaking Technique Target Behaviors
6th, 7th and 8th Grades Common	<p>Speaking correctly and properly</p> <p>To be able to participate in all kinds of activities in Turkish lessons, to be able to express and explain the conclusions arrived at.</p> <p>To be able to participate in a discussion properly, without going beyond the subject (by respecting the opinions of others, giving voice to them, etc.)</p> <p>To be able to express his/her feelings and thoughts about the events he/she saw and experienced</p> <p>To be able to explain word groups, proverbs, aphorisms and idioms appropriate to his/her level</p> <p>To get a habit of choosing poetry, to join the choir to portray the poem</p> <p>To be able to play a text that has been put into the form of speech without exaggerating and acting, making the sounds correctly and paying attention to the findings in the activities of impersonation by gamification.</p>
	<p>To be able to describe the immediate surroundings, visited, known village, town, city, etc.</p>
	<p>To be able to describe an event or the place full of action such as a feast, a ceremony, a festival, and what happened there</p>
	<p>To be able to explain what was seen and impressions gained during a trip</p>
	<p>To be able to introduce and summarize a book he/she read or a movie he/she watched to his/her friends, to express his/her thoughts on the book or movie</p>
	<p>To be able to explain observations, experimental results and impressions about lessons other than Turkish</p>
	<p>To be able to explain the natural, social and economic events of the environment</p>
	<p>To be able to speak for an average of 5 minutes on any topic without repeating</p>
	<p>To be able to develop his/her speech according to a suitable plan</p>
	<p>To be able to describe the immediate surroundings, visited, known village, town, city, etc.</p>
6th Grades	<p>To be able to describe an event or the place full of action such as a feast, a ceremony, a festival, and what happened there</p>
	<p>To be able to introduce a known person, an exemplary person; to be able to draw physical and character portraits; to be able to introduce, to describe a tree, an animal, a structure, etc.</p>
	<p>To be able to explain what was seen and impressions gained during a trip</p>
	<p>To be able to make an opening, thanks, apology, and closing speech in front of the class community</p>
	<p>To be able to sort and organize the information collected on different subjects, the notes taken while reading a book; to be able to speak to a community by looking at them or not, but without reading</p>
	<p>If he/she has a talent, to develop this ability in verbal arts activities such as eloquence and reading poem</p>

<b>8th Grades</b>	To be able to speak for an average of 5 minutes on any topic without repeating
	To be able to develop his/her speech according to a suitable plan
	To be able to introduce a known person, an exemplary person; to be able to draw physical and character portraits; to be able to introduce, to describe a tree, an animal, a structure, etc.
	To be able to make statements, criticize and make judgments on a book read, a piece of music listened to, an exhibition visited, a movie, a play, a sketch watched, etc.
	To be able to make an opening, thanks, apology, and closing speech in front of a community
	To be able to make suggestions for a job going to be done
	To be able to manage a community
	To be able to sort and organize the information collected on different subjects, the notes taken while reading a book; to be able to speak to a community by looking at them or not, but without reading
	To be able to express his/her plans and thoughts about his/her further education or life.
	To be able to express his/her thoughts on the problems of the country and the world

When the speaking technique goals wanted to be acquired by students in the 1981 Turkish Education Program are examined, it can be stated that a gradual approach was adopted in determining the goals and the development levels of the students were taken into consideration. However, although the prepared and unprepared speech types are not included in a planned way in the program, it was aimed that the students experience the types of speech that occur in daily life.

### **The Writing Education in the 1981 Elementary Schools Turkish Education Program**

In the 1981 Elementary Schools Turkish Education Program, behaviors and explanations about writing were included under the heading of expression (Temizkan & Atasoy, 2014). Accordingly, it was aimed to improve students' expression skills in terms of both form and content with writing activities (Ferah-Özcan, 2017; Gur, 2015). Writing studies took place in detail in the 1981 Turkish Education Program, in which comprehension and expression skills were prioritized (Şahin & Bayramoğlu, 2016). In this sense, a detailed explanation has been provided for writing practices in the program with content, method, subject titles, the order in which the subjects will be processed, correction and evaluation tables (Temizyürek & Balci, 2006). In the program, writing and written expression educations were considered as one of the most important activities of the Turkish lesson and it was stated that written expression is a complex process. The general objectives of writing skills in the 1981 Turkish Education Program are listed below (MEB, 1981, p. 328).

- To make the students acquire the skill and habit of expressing what they see and

watch, listen, read, examine, think, and plan, in writing, accurately and per the purpose

- To enrich the vocabulary of students with various activities
- To prompt students to use Turkish consciously, with care and confidence in the development process.

In the 1981 Turkish Education Program, to achieve the above-mentioned general objectives regarding written expression practices, written expression (writing) technique goals were included at the level of grades. The target behaviors determined for written expression (writing) techniques at the level of 6th, 7th, and 8th grades and aimed to be acquired by students are given in Table 4.

**Table 4.** 1981 Turkish Education Program 6, 7, 8th Grades Written Expression Target Behaviors

Grade Level	Written Expression Target Behaviors
6th, 7th and 8th Grades Common	To be able to write without making a spelling mistake, to be able to use punctuations correctly and completely
	To be able to explain observations, experiments, conclusions and explanations, even if they are related to lessons other than Turkish, without making spelling and syntax errors and using punctuations correctly and completely
	To be able to gain the pleasure and habit of keeping a book for selected poems
	To be able to develop the ability to write readable, cursive, beautiful and orderly handwriting with all kinds of pens at all times
	If he/she has a talent, to be able to develop this talent in artistic activities such as writing stories and poems
	To be able to explain proverbs, aphorisms, idioms, words, word groups and similes appropriate to his/her level
	To be able to determine the conclusions arrived at in the activities in Turkish lessons
	To be able to, conditionally, correctly make 4-5-sentence paragraphs with sentences of various structures.
	To be able to briefly describe the immediate surroundings, visited, known village, town, city, etc.
	To be able to briefly describe an event or the place full of action such as a feast, a ceremony, a festival, and what happened there
6th Grades	To be able to write private letters, business letters and over-envelopes
	To be able to write a petition, telegram, receipt, deed; to be able to prepare a report on a decision, an incident
	To be able to explain what was seen and impressions gained during a trip
	To be able to introduce and summarize a book he/she read or a movie he/she watched, to express his/her thoughts on that book or movie
	To be able to explain the natural, social and economic events of his/her environment
	To be able to convert an appropriate text into conversations according to the characteristics of the persons.

7th Grades	Conditionally, to be able to form sentences of various structures correctly
	To be able to form 5-6-sentence paragraphs conditionally and to be able to develop the writings according to an appropriate plan
	To be able to describe the immediate surroundings, visited, known village, town, city, etc.
	To be able to describe an event full of action such as a feast, a ceremony, a feast, a festival, the place and what was seen there in 4-5 paragraphs
	To be able to write private letters, business letters and over-envelopes
	To be able to write a petition, telegram, receipt, deed; to be able to prepare a report on a decision, an incident
	To be able to draw physical and character portraits of a known person, an exemplary person; to be able to introduce, to describe a tree, an animal, a structure, etc.
	To be able to express his/her feelings and thoughts about the events he/she saw and experienced
	To be able to explain what was seen and impressions gained during a trip
	To be able to convert an appropriate text into conversations according to the characteristics of the persons.
8th Grades	To organize the schedules of the meetings related to the educational branch works; to be able to write down the decisions taken; to prepare leaflets and announcements on these issues; to be able to link the results to a report
	Conditionally, to be able to use sentences of various structures correctly
	To be able to form 5-6-sentence paragraphs
	To be able to write what is written according to a suitable plan
	To be able to write petitions, telegrams, business letters, private letters
	To be able to draw physical and character portraits of a known person, an exemplary person; to be able to introduce, to describe a tree, an animal, a structure, etc.
	To be able to express his/her feelings and thoughts about the events he/she saw and experienced
	To be able to determine his/her explanations, critics and judgments on a book read, a piece of music listened to, an exhibition visited, a movie, a sketch, a game watched, etc.
	To be able to express his/her thoughts on the problems of the country and the world
	To be able to express his/her plans and thoughts about his/her further education or life.
	To organize the schedules of the meetings related to the educational branch works; to be able to write down the decisions taken; to prepare leaflets and announcements on these issues; to be able to link the results to a report

When the written expression goals wanted to be acquired by students in the 1981 Turkish Education Program are examined, it can be stated that a gradual approach was adopted in determining the goals and the development levels of the students were taken into consideration. Besides, it has been seen that the program aims to make writing

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activities such as petitions, letters, telegrams, and deeds that students will need in daily life.

### The Grammar Education in the 1981 Elementary Schools Turkish Education Program

In the 1981 Elementary Schools Turkish Education Program, unlike other Turkish education programs prepared until then, it was aimed to integrate understanding and expression skills, the basic fields of Turkish, and grammar education (Demir & Yapıcı, 2007). Grammar practices in the program were given in the order from sentence to sound. Although there were differences in the goals announced for the 6th, 7th and 8th grades, it is understood that the subjects were distributed in a way to be repeated in each grade (Ferah-Özcan, 2017). In the 1981 program, grammar was addressed as a skill, and it was stated that grammar should be considered as a skill, not as a structure consisting of theoretical knowledge. In this sense, it was asked to teach grammar in a way that supports other language skills and it was stated that the primary purpose was to gain the ability to use the language correctly (Kutlubay, 2015). In the "Grammar" section of the program, separate special goals were determined for the 1st-3rd grades, the 4th-5th grades, and the 6th-8th grades. Along with specific goals, target behaviors were explained in detail at the grade level. These target behaviors, which are determined regarding grammar education at the level of the 6,7 and 8th grades and aimed to make students gain, are given in Table 5.

**Table 5.** 1981 Turkish Education Program 6, 7, 8th Grades Grammar Education Target Behaviors

Grade Level	Grammar Education Target Behaviors
6th, 7th and 8th Grades Common	To be able to emphasize words correctly in a sentence, to be able to indicate the meaning of homonymous words with emphasis, to be able to show the various meanings of the sentence through an emphasis
	To be able to understand the real, metaphor and term meanings of words; to be able to use words in these meanings;
	To be able to use homonymic, synonym and antonym words
	To be able to use words in sentences according to their tasks;
	To be able to use punctuations correctly and appropriately
	To be able to apply to the Turkish Dictionary, Spelling Dictionary, etc.

<b>6th Grades</b>	<p>To be able to recognize the sentence and absorb its spelling;</p> <p>To be able to recognize and use palatal harmony;</p> <p>To be able to understand the same word is used in which kind (adjective, verb, adverb, etc.)</p> <p>To be able to recognize and use the preposition, conjunction, adverb in a sentence</p> <p>To be able to recognize and use qualitative adjectives and determinative adjectives in a sentence;</p> <p>To be able to recognize and use the pronoun in a sentence</p> <p>To be able to use relative pronoun;</p> <p>To be able to use the “too, so, as well” conjunction correctly;</p> <p>To be able to use the word “with” correctly;</p> <p>To be able to write the interrogative particles correctly;</p> <p>To understand the indicative mood among the tenses and to be able to use them in sentences</p> <p>To be able to use positive, negative and question forms of verbs correctly, to be able to understand their types according to their meanings;</p> <p>To understand regular and inverted sentences</p>
<b>7th Grades</b>	<p>To be able to understand and use idioms</p> <p>To be able to recognize the pronoun in a sentence</p> <p>To be able to recognize and use suffixes that act as pronouns;</p> <p>To be able to evaluate words in sentences according to their structure;</p> <p>To understand the subjunctive mood of the tenses and to be able to use them in sentences;</p> <p>To be able to understand types of sentences according to their meanings and to be able to use such sentences;</p> <p>To be able to understand complementary verbs and the types of sentences according to their verbs and to be able to use sentences in this type;</p> <p>To be able to understand auxiliary verbs and to be able to write correctly in sentences;</p> <p>To be able to understand active, passive, transitive and intransitive verbs;</p> <p>To be able to understand regular and inverted sentences;</p>

8th Grades	<p>To be able to understand and use idioms;</p> <p>To be able to recognize words according to their structure;</p> <p>To recognize adverbs of time, place, direction, quality, quantity, questions in a sentence, to understand their relation with nouns, adjectives, and prepositions, to be able to use them correctly;</p> <p>To understand the simple and compound tense forms of verbs and to be able to use them in sentences;</p> <p>To be able to understand complementary verbs and compound verbs and to be able to write them correctly in sentences;</p> <p>To be able to understand verbs that are reciprocal, reflexive and which gained transitivity and whose degree of transitivity is increased;</p> <p>To understand the order of the items in sentences, the change in meaning according to the order, and to be able to form sentences accordingly;</p> <p>To be able to recognize verbs and to use them;</p> <p>To be able to understand sentences and other sentence types according to their structures and to be able to make sentences in these types;</p> <p>To be able to understand the functions of clauses;</p>
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When the grammar goals of the 1981 Turkish Education Program are examined, it is seen that the subjects are not distributed systematically. It can be stated that this situation creates confusion in terms of grammar education between grades. This confusion, which causes similar things to be said in every grade, rather than progressing systematically in the program, makes itself felt more in grammar issues" (Temizyürek & Balçıcı, 2006).

### **The Status of Turkish Education Departments in Universities Between 1980-2000**

For universities, one of the most important transformations in the area of teacher training occurred in 1982. Considering the characteristics of higher education institutions, the branches of education and their aims, in line with the principle of unity in education and training, education institutes were transformed into education faculties and included in the scope of "Higher Education Institutions" (Aydın, 1998). In the restructured institutions, the "Turkish Teaching" departments were named "Education of Turkish Language and Literature" and aimed to train literature teachers for high schools. By extension, training Turkish teachers for primary schools was neglected in the process, and a program that directly trains Turkish teachers in universities was not included (Güzel, 2003a). This situation has become an important problem for Turkish education. "The Department of Education and Training of Turkish" was opened in the academic year of 1989-1990 to carry out master's degree and doctoral programs affiliated to Gazi University Institute of Social Sciences. Later, in 1992-1993, the "Department of Turkish Teaching" was established for the first time in Turkish universities under Gazi University Gazi Faculty of Education Department of Turkish Language and Literature "(Güzel, 2003b). The primary objective of this program was determined as educating Turkish teachers on subjects such as giving Turkish education to children at preschool, kindergarten, first and second grades of elementary school, to adults, to bilingual persons, to middle and high school students and foreigners coming to Turkey from the Turkic republics (Güzel, 2003a). The establishment of the program is an important step in terms of putting an end to the 10-year pause for directly training Turkish teachers. Later, Departments of Turkish Teachings were established in different universities.

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The Higher Education Institution (YÖK) also changed all of the programs with the project design initiated in 1997 and carried out by the World Bank, and the restructuring that was completed and implemented in 1998 and changed the academic and organizational structure of all education faculties (YÖK, 1998). After 1998-1999, as a result of the restructuring of teacher education, the duty and responsibility of training teachers in pre-service education were given to the Faculties of Education at the higher education level. This structuring stipulates that scientific studies in Education Faculties will focus on teacher training and education, and research in the field of basic sciences should be carried out in Faculties of Arts and Sciences. Departments with a 4-year (8 semesters) education process within the framework of the new regulation consist of Primary Education Department (Preschool, Classroom Teaching, Social Studies, Science and Elementary Mathematics Teaching) Turkish Teaching, Fine Arts, Physical Education Teaching and Foreign Language Teaching programs (YÖK, 1998). With the restructuring carried out in the 1998-99 academic year, the “Social Studies Teaching Department” courses were added to the “Turkish Teaching” program by the Council of Higher Education. The program has been criticized for decreasing both the major area courses and the special area courses when the undergraduate minor courses are added (Güzel, 2003a).

### **Developments in Teaching Turkish as a Foreign Language Between 1980-2000**

Today, although Turkish is spoken in a wide area, Turkey is one of the countries where Turkish is spoken as a native language. The establishment of the Republic and the disintegration of the USSR towards the end of the 1990s brought along a significant increase in the number of people who want to learn Turkish (Özbay & Bahar, 2016). In this respect, Turkey fulfills an important mission in teaching Turkish as a foreign language in the world. In this direction, teaching Turkish as a foreign language has gained more importance day by day. African and Arab countries, Russia and China, especially European countries have an important potential in terms of teaching Turkish (Toprak, 2011). The initiation of the “Turkish World Student Project” in 1991 further increased this potential. With the project, many students from the Turkish world were brought to Turkey by the Ministry of Education for high school, university, master's degree and doctoral studies. Thus, teaching Turkish which is spoken in Turkey and introducing the Turkish culture to young people of Turkic Republics, which gained their independence, and to young people of Turks and relative communities were aimed. Through these young people, the way for the transfer of Turkish and Turkish culture to the new generation and the expansion of Turkish spoken in Turkey was opened (Açık, 2008). Today, the fact that many students from Asian and European countries, particularly from African countries, prefer Turkey for undergraduate, postgraduate and doctoral education, and that besides, the commercial activities with the world countries have developed depending on economic developments has increased the need for teaching Turkish as a foreign language day by day.

Considering the history of teaching Turkish as a foreign language, although there was no systematic practice in this subject until the lectures started to be given within universities in the 1950s, teaching Turkish as a foreign language started to gain importance after these years (Açık, 2008). The 1980s, on the other hand, appear as the years when teaching Turkish as a foreign language began systematically on a world scale. In this respect, Turkish Teaching Centers (TÖMER) established within universities have an important role in teaching Turkish as a foreign language. If the historical course of

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these centers is examined, it has been seen that the first Turkish Teaching Center was opened in 1984, under the Ankara University. Then, in 1992, a Turkish Teaching Center was opened within the body of Ege University, Turkish World Research Institute, and in 1994, a Turkish Teaching Center was opened under Gazi University. In 2000, Istanbul University Language Center was established and went into action. Today, Turkish Teaching Centers operate within the body of many universities affiliated to YÖK. It is possible to summarize the main purpose of these institutions to teach Turkish in Turkey and abroad and to introduce Turkish culture (Arslan, 2012). It can be stated that these institutions also develop their course materials in line with the determined goals. "Hittite Turkish Teaching Set for Foreigners" of Ankara University Turkish Teaching Center and "Turkish Set for Foreigners" of Gazi University Turkish Teaching Center are important in this respect.

The Common European Framework of Languages (CEFR) was developed Reference for by the Council of Europe in the late 1990s as a standard reference resource for the teaching, learning and evaluation of languages (Mirici, 2015). In 2000, it was decided to disseminate this framework program, which aims to describe foreign language teaching principles, language skills and competencies per European standards and to introduce pedagogical practices accordingly (Council of Europe, 2010). This program in foreign language teaching in all European countries including Turkey was accepted as a common reference and this situation has increased the academic studies on teaching Turkish as a foreign language (Üstünel & Aydın, 2009). Today, these studies continue concentratedly.

## CONCLUSION

The education of Turkish as the mother tongue between 1980 and 2000 was carried out in line with the 1981 Turkish Education Program prepared within the framework of behavioral theory. 1981 Primary Schools Turkish Education Program is the first program prepared by considering all primary education institutions. From the behaviors to the teaching process, from measurement and evaluation to the first literacy process, it is seen that the behavioral approach is effective in the program. The program has remained in practice until 2005 and has been in the Turkish education curriculum implemented longest in Turkey. Turkish instruction in the program was planned and implemented as teaching reading, writing, listening, speaking and grammar.

The objectives of the program are written in the form of behavior and as concretely as possible. In the program, objectives related to reading, listening, speaking and grammar are determined separately for each grade level. Accordingly, the 1981 Turkish Education Program was prepared and published by the Ministry of National Education as separate booklets in the context of grades 1-5 and grades 6-8. The program guided teachers in primary education Turkish teaching for many years and formed the framework for Turkish teaching in this period.

In the 1980s, for the first time in the world, teaching of Turkish as a foreign language began systematically. In this sense, Turkish Teaching Centers (TÖMER) established within universities have an important role in teaching of Turkish as a foreign language. If the historical course of these centers is examined, it is seen that the Turkish Teaching Center was opened for the first time in 1984, under Ankara University. Then, in 1992, a Turkish Teaching Center was opened within the Ege University Institute of Turkish World Studies, and in 1994, a Turkish Teaching Center was opened under Gazi University. In

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2000, Istanbul University Language Center was established and started its operations. Today, Turkish Teaching Centers operate within the body of many universities affiliated to Coinsel of Higer Education.

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## EPISODE 12

# DEVELOPMENTS IN SCIENCE EDUCATION IN TURKEY BETWEEN 1980-2000

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## INTRODUCTION

Changes and developments in the political, social, economic, and technological etc. domains throughout history have caused societies to change in a slow or rapid fashion. It is without doubt that these changes have also affected education processes, systems, and programs (Özdemir, 2011). The era between 1980-2000 in Turkish history is known as the era in which the Turkish-Islamic synthesis was officialized and liberal economic transformation started. After 1980, internal developments in Turkey (the Constitution of 1982, September 12 regime and January 24 decisions) and international developments (globalization) caused our country to undergo political and social changes. This transformation was not limited to political and social spheres, and it also affected education institutions (Küçük, 2019). One of the areas in which changes and developments were seen was Sciences. Sciences occupy an important place in the development of a given country. Especially countries who do not want to fall behind in science and technology race attach greater importance to science education and exert efforts to improve the quality of this education (Ayas, 1995). Our country has also exerted efforts towards improving the science education and teaching process in order to keep up with these countries competitively and rapidly-developing and changing science era. Among these efforts are changes and developments in the science education approach, science programs, and science education departments. It has been observed that the approach of providing a scientific approach in science education was abandoned especially after the September 12, 1980 coup (Öztürkler, 2005). In this context, the present study focused on changes and transformations in “science education approach”, “science programs”, and “science education departments” between 1980-2000.

### **Changes and Developments in Science Education Approach**

Reflections of Turkish-Islamic synthesis can be clearly seen in the Fifth Five-Year Development Plan of State Planning Organization (1985-1989) and in the Report of National Culture Specialization Commission (1983). In this report, it was stated that religion should be included in education and all course contents should be harmonized with the religion course (State Planning Organization, 1983). As a result of this, several faiths and sciences intermingled. Content of science programs was prepared and summarized by taking some random topics from previous programs and omitting other topics (Durmuş, 2019). The comprehensive definition of the field in classical science books was found to be summarized in just a few sentences in the new program (Baç & Baç, 1980). In physics curriculum, definition of the field and relationship of physics to other disciplines were not included (MoNE, 1985; İnetas, 1977). Books and curricula

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started with the topic “The Importance of Measurements” and did not include topics such as “What is science?” and “What is physics?” (MoNE, 1992a). The most major change in biology curriculum was in the chapter regarding science. For example, according to the Ministry of National Education’s Supervisory Board Report (1990), the topic regarding “opinions on how life started” that had been in first-grade Biology class was found to be inappropriate and excluded from the curriculum. In addition, only simple creatures were included in the curriculum instead of complex creatures while it is interesting to see that the topic regarding “tissues”, which could be seen as a detail, was included (Yılmaz, 1998). Moreover, it has been observed that some statements included in biology coursebooks were made appropriate for religious content. For example, a book underlined that doubting was important in science; however, it was also stated that doubting everything was an illness (MoNE, 1987: 8). This could be seen as an effort to harmonize some scientific statements in coursebooks with religious content. It is also observed during this era that religious content was included even though it was not in chemistry coursebooks and curriculum (MoNE, 1992b). In short, it could be observed during this era that physics and chemistry coursebooks were just like summaries, that curricula were based on “topic approach” (Turgut, 1989) and that classical curriculum was the focal point. According to Öztürkler (2005), “biological evolution” constitutes an important part of discussions surrounding science education in this era. During this era, a “creation” perspective was added to the chapter regarding the evolution theory in biology coursebooks. According to this perspective, it was stated that there was a Creator. The concept of evolution was regarded as a “belief” or a “claim” (MoNE, 1987: 72). According to Bakanay (2008), content in biology coursebook focus on providing a perspective suggesting that evolution is only a theory. This perspective cause students and teachers, therefore society, to take a negative stance against the theory of evolution. Books that criticize the theory of evolution the most are coursebooks published in the 1990s. While the biology coursebook for secondary education in 1992 did not include any of the 8 key criteria necessary for the scientific explanation of evolution, the biology coursebook for secondary education in 1995 included only 2 of these 8 criteria. After 1997, there were some positive developments on including the theory of evolution in education. For example, the biology coursebook published in 1998 included 3 criteria regarding the theory of evolution while the coursebook for 2000 had 5 of these criteria (Somel, 2007). In brief, the emphasis on national-religious education of the post-coup era in the 1980s was reflected on the content and approach of science education. In addition, with a regulation in 1998, associating some scientific statements with religious content was abandoned. However, the teleological rhetoric was continued in topics such as “the idea of creation”, “scientific method scheme”, and “theory-law relationship” (MoNE, 1998; MoNE, 2000). General characteristics of coursebooks published during this era are as follows (Turgut, 1989):

- Especially Physics and Chemistry coursebooks were just summaries.
- There was no supplementary resource that students could use.
- “Teacher guide books” which could be an important supplementary resource for teachers were not prepared.
- While there were some additions to topics, the majority of topics were comprised of topics included in the modern curriculum. Curricula were based on “topic approach”.
- These curricula are insufficient compared to modern curricula in terms of guiding students towards different learning activities.

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## **Changes and Developments in Science Curricula**

After the adoption of the Unification of Education Law, curriculum development efforts in Turkey could be analyzed under four headings (Ünal et al., 2004). These are:

- The Era Until the Alphabet Reform (1923-1928)
- The Era Until the 1960s (1928-1960)
- The Modernization Era (1960-1984)
- Comprehensive Curriculum Development Activities (1984- )

Under this heading, science education curricula between 1980-2020 will be analyzed. Science education curricula developed during this era could be analyzed under two headings as science education curricula developed “at primary education level” and “at secondary education level”.

### **Science Education Curricula Developed at Secondary Education Level**

Before investigating comprehensive curriculum development activities in our country (1984- ), we should take a brief look at science education curricula during the previous era called the modernization era (1960-1984). Curriculum development activities in our country during this era were mainly based on foreign curriculum development efforts. The effort on renewing science curriculum first started in the United States. Then, European countries, affected by this development, started to renew their science curricula. Our country was not indifferent to these efforts on science education and this also affected Turkish National Education at the beginning of 1960s. This period, in which modern science and mathematics curricula were applied, is known as the beginning of projects period in our country. There are many practices regarding this period in our country. These practices are as follows (Turgut, 1990): Science Education Chapter Project, Science High School Project, BAYG-E-7 Project, BAYG-E-14 Project, BAYG-E-23 Project, and BAYG-E-33 Project. In addition, Course Tools Production and Repair Center was established (1961), Didactic Films Center was transformed into “Film-Radio and Graphics Center” (1963), and scientific content was included in radio programs for schools in order to improve science education. In 1980, protocols regarding science projects between The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey and the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) were not renewed and duties of commission on science and mathematics education development were ended without the support of Ford Foundation. Therefore, modernization efforts on science education ended and were completely abolished in 1984 (Çilenti, 1985). A commission was established by the MoNE, Head Council of Education and Morality, and this commission was asked to evaluate classical and modern curricula. The results of evaluation conducted by the commission can be summarized as follows (Durusoy, 1984):

- It was observed that several topics were not taught in mathematics and science curricula, comprised of many topics.
- It was also observed that modern science education curricula were applied in approximately %37 of high schools whereas classical science education curricula were continued in other high schools.
- Appointment of teachers and managers who were taught according to modern curricula was not attached enough importance.

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- The fact that class size was above 40 students obstructed laboratory activities.
  - Some problems were encountered in forming Circulating Guiding Teams in order to closely follow-up efforts and provide immediate solutions for problems.

According to evaluation results, even though these problems could be solved within the education system, the MoNE decided to abolish these curricula instead of trying to find solutions for these problems (Turgut, 1989). After the abolition of modern science education curricula, a new science education curriculum (MoNE, 1985) was formed. Course content to be taught, coursebook that were written in accordance with course content and experiments were included in this curriculum; however, objectives regarding the content were not explained in detail. In addition, teaching materials, teaching methods, and assessment tools were not explained clearly. In brief, this new curriculum was similar to the classical science curriculum (Turgut, 1990). In the 1990s, as a result of technological and scientific transformations, the MoNE put curriculum development efforts on the agenda again. The National Education Development Project, initiated that year, aimed to make curricula, teaching materials and coursebook more efficient (Gözütok, 2003). In the 1990s, science education was based more on science education approach of pre-1950s curricula, and teaching focused mainly on reading books and verbal methods (Yilmaz & Morgil, 1992). Unlike other curriculum development efforts, an in-depth science education curriculum (chemistry, physics, biology) was developed by Education Research and Development Directorate (ERDD). Unlike other curricula, not only general objectives and topics were included in this curriculum. In this curriculum, objectives and goals were identified for each topic as well as including teacher-student activities and assessment process. General objectives of courses were identified during the curriculum development process while developments in technology and science, needs analysis reports, expert opinions and current curricula and books in the world and in Turkey were also taken into consideration. Goals and behavior were identified in a way that would enable students to use information in the daily life. Therefore, this effort aimed to decrease memorization in students. In addition, activities such as trips, observations, and experiments were suggested according to content in topics. In short, this curriculum focused mainly on methods that would make students more active and enable them to use five senses (Ünal et al., 2004).

### **Science Education Curricula Developed at Primary Education Level**

The need to exert efforts on science education development at primary education level, just like at secondary education level, was put on the agenda in many countries, mainly in the U.S., and these countries put efforts into eliminating this insufficiency. In addition to many European countries, studies on primary education science curricula developed in the U.S. were conducted in our country. When we look at applications in Turkey regarding this curriculum developed at primary education level, we could say that initial studies happened in 1998 on the subject-matter. First of all, in accordance with modern science education approach, the content of science education curriculum was prepared. This curriculum was applied progressively, starting from 1970-1971 school year in secondary schools (MoNE, 1974). This curriculum was evaluated and it was observed that this curriculum was not based on modern science education approach. Therefore, in order to develop a new science education curriculum for secondary schools, a working group was formed in 1973 by Science Education Development Scientific Commission (Demirbaş, 2001). First, this working group analyzed some programs developed in the U.S. such as SCIS and ESS. Some chapters that were found appropriate for conditions

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in Turkey was chosen and a new program called “Integrated Science Curriculum” was formed (Asarkaya, 1981). This curriculum was first applied in some secondary schools in Ankara in the 1974-1975 school year. It could be observed in the 1980s that modern science education curricula were not popularized in primary schools and in high schools. In 1980, results of the evaluation, conducted by the commission established by the MoNE, Head Council of Education and Morality in order to evaluate the present state, underlined that the following regulations should be in place (Sulak, 1992):

- Modern science curricula should not be directly copied from other countries and classical science curricula should not be applied again.
- A science education curriculum should be developed in a way that would encompass both laboratory activities, and observations and experiments in the daily life. To this end, some regulations should be made in terms of laboratory activities in curriculum of institutions training teachers.
- Commissions on science education curriculum development should be formed again in order to make necessary regulations.

Unlike the evaluation results of the commission, The MoNE did not make any changes abolished the Integrated Science Curriculum, which lasted 10 years, the decision of High Council of Education of October 3, 1986, No. 29 (Demirbaş, 2001). After this decision, the science curriculum that was developed in 1974 and did not reflect the modern science education approach was applied again. In the science curriculum of 1997, some regulations were made regarding science course hours. This curriculum was applied for 15 years and abolished with the introduction of Science Education Curriculum of 1992.

### **Science Education Curriculum of 1992**

This curriculum entered into force progressively, starting from the 1992-1993 school year, at all primary school grades. Unlike other curricula, this curriculum included informative and more detailed explanations for practitioners. For example, examples were included in the chapter regarding teaching the course, and assessment questions were included in the assessment part (Çelenk et al., 2000). The general objectives of Science curriculum of 1992 are as follows (MoNE, 1992c):

- Raising awareness on environment and providing a general understanding of human impacts on the environment.
- Providing and developing critical, constructive, and creative thinking skills for students.
- Providing methods such as experiment, observation, research, and analysis in order to yield scientific results for students.
- Demonstrating and interpreting results of experiments, observation, research, and analyses using texts, figures, pictures, remarks, or graphs.
- Grasping the importance of using tools and the ability to use them.
- Providing a daily life use of information and skills in students.
- Grasping the importance of planned studying and the ability to study according to a plan.
- Being able to establish relationships between technology and science.

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- Grasping the importance and impact of technology and science in community development.
  - Having interest in Sciences, following recent developments, and grasping their importance.
  - Understanding features, diversity, interrelationships, and economic benefits of organisms and grasping how to protect these organisms and to get protection from them when needed.
  - Having required information, skills, and habits for a healthy life.
  - Having knowledge of and protecting natural resources.
  - Grasping the structure, types, and features of matter.
  - Grasping relationships between work, power, motion, and energy, and where they are used.
  - Grasping diffusion, refraction, and reflection of light as well as learning how to use light energy and optical instruments.
  - Learning diffusion of sound and where it is used.
  - Learning concepts such as electric charge and electric current as well as understanding where electricity is used.
  - Having a comprehensive knowledge regarding the universe and grasping our place inside the universe.
  - Having knowledge of evolution and genetics.

The general objectives of this curriculum demonstrate that it is based on learning-by-doing and by experience. This curriculum asks teachers to include activities such as experiments and observations for students in science education. Hence, the student will gain skills such as critical and creative thinking, planned studying and using tools. In addition, creative thinking skill on using scientific data will be provided in a student who could express results of experiments and observations with texts, figures, pictures, or graphs. In addition, students are asked to have necessary information and skill on topics such as “environment”, “organisms”, healthy life”, “natural resources”, “matter”, “motion-energy”, “work-power”, “light”, “sound”, “electricity”, “universe”, “evolution and genetics” in this curriculum. Moreover, students are asked to gain association skills on using the information in daily life in order to provide permanent learning.

There are some remarkable differences in the Science Curriculum of 1997 compared to the Science and Natural History of 1968. Some of these differences are as follows (Dindar & Taneri, 2011):

- Its content is richer than the curriculum in 1968. Therefore, since it is focused more on teaching scientific content, this curriculum is found to be insufficient in teaching the environmental, technological, and social dimensions of science.
- In the curriculum of 1968, there are five chapters at 4th-grade level and four chapters at 5th-grade level. In the curriculum of 1992, there are eight chapters both at 4th-grade and 5th-grade levels each. Therefore, the number of chapters is higher in the curriculum of 1992.
- Chapters such as “Human and Environment”, “Light”, “Electricity” and “Energy”

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chapters were added to the curriculum of 1992 at 4th-grade level compared to that of 1968. In addition, the chapter titled “Waters on Earth and Water and Air Surrounding Us” in the curriculum of 1968 was not included in the curriculum of 1992.

- Chapters such as “Diversity of Organisms”, “Human and Environment”, “Sound”, “Light”, “Heat”, and “Electricity” were added to the curriculum of 1992 at 5th-grade level compared to that of 1968. In addition, chapters titled “Our Rich Resources” and “Healthy Growing and Life” in the curriculum of 1968 were not included in the curriculum of 1992.
- Activities and experiments were not included in topics in the curriculum of 1968. Science topics were taught using the laboratory method in the curriculum of 1992. Therefore, the objectives in the curriculum of 1992 such as “grasping the importance of using tools and the ability to use them” and “grasping the importance of planned studying and the ability to study according to a plan” were realized.
- Compared to the curriculum of 1968, there were activities that would enable students to be more active in the curriculum of 1992. However, this curriculum was focused more on scientific activities and was found to be lacking in terms of activities related to technology.

In science education curricula developed after the abolition of modern science education curricula, no explanation was provided regarding detailed objectives of course content, teaching methods, teaching materials to be used, assessment processes, student characteristics, and qualities that teachers should possess. In addition, training was not provided for teachers who would apply these curricula and no study was conducted on trial and revision. Therefore, these curricula were found to be very similar to classical science curricula (Demirbaş, 2001).

### **Changes and Developments in Science Education Departments**

The need for teachers in our country was met by institutions such as training institutes affiliated with the MoNE, higher teachers' training schools, teachers' training schools, village institutions and education departments in universities, starting from the establishment of Republic of Turkey until 1982. Even though science courses had been constantly included in primary and secondary school curricula since 1924, training teachers who would teach these science courses was not attached enough importance. In 1982, the duty of training teachers was assigned to faculties of education. Therefore, these faculties of education started to provide training for science teachers (Chemistry, Physics, Biology) in Turkey in 1982. Those who graduated from these faculties were assigned to high schools and primary schools. Even though graduates of Chemistry, Physics, and Biology departments were trained to be high school teachers between 1923 and 1990, they also worked in secondary schools. In 1992, faculties started to train science teachers that would work only in secondary schools. In addition, with a new regulation of Council of Higher Education (CoHE) in 1998, the duration for departments training secondary school teachers was five years (3.5+1.5) whereas the duration for departments training primary school teachers was four years. Until 1998, only Buca Faculty of Education (since 1992) and Gazi Faculty of Education (since 1991) had trained science teachers. These faculties applied science education curricula that they had developed. These curricula were based more on area courses. When we look at course content in these curricula, we could even say that these were developed in a way that would be focused on training high

school teachers instead of science teachers in primary schools (Meriç & Tezcan, 2005). In the 1998-1999 school year, the science education curriculum, determined by CoHE, was applied in faculties. The curriculum of science education undergraduate program in 1998 is given in Table 1 (CoHE, 1998).

**Table 1.** Curriculum of the Science Education Undergraduate Program in 1998

Semesters	Courses	Semesters	Courses
1st Semester	Physics I Chemistry I Mathematics I Atatürk's Principles and History of Turkish Revolution I Turkish I: Written Expression Introduction to Teaching as a Profession	5 t h Semester	Physics IV Biology III Science Lab. App. I Mathematics V Teaching Technologies and Material Development Elective I Elective II
2nd Semester	Physics II Chemistry II Mathematics II Atatürk's Principles and History of Turkish Revolution II Turkish II: Verbal Expression School Experience I	6 t h Semester	Biology IV Mathematics Teaching Science Lab. App. II Classroom Management Special Teaching Methods I Elective III Elective IV
3rd Semester	Biology I Chemistry III Mathematics III Computer Foreign Language I Development and Learning	7 t h Semester	Science, Technology and Society Special Topics in Sciences I Biology V Subject-Matter Textbook Evaluation School Experience II Special Teaching Methods II
4th Semester	Biology II Physics III	8 t h Semester	Special Topics in Sciences II Guidance

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Chemistry IV	Teaching Practice
Mathematics IV	Elective V
Foreign Language II	
Planning and Assessment in Teaching	

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When Table 1 is analyzed, it could be seen in the Curriculum of Science Education Undergraduate Program in 1998 that Physics I, Chemistry I, Mathematics I, Turkish I, Atatürk's Principles and History of Turkish Revolution I and Introduction to Teaching as Profession courses were included in the first semester, that Physics II, Chemistry II, Mathematics II, Turkish II, Atatürk's Principles and History of Turkish Revolution II and School Experience I courses were included in the second semester, that Biology I, Chemistry III, Mathematics III, Computer, Foreign Language I and Development and Learning courses were included in the third semester, that Biology II, Physics III, Chemistry IV, Mathematics IV, Foreign Language II and Planning and Assessment in Teaching courses were included in the fourth semester, that Physics IV, Biology II, Science Laboratory Applications I, Mathematics V, Teaching Technologies and Material Development and elective courses were included in the fifth semester, that Biology IV, Mathematics Teaching, Science Laboratory Applications II, Classroom Management, Special Teaching Methods and elective courses were included in the sixth semester, that Science, Technology, and Society, Special Topics in Sciences I, Biology V, Subject-Matter Textbook Evaluation, Special Teaching Methods II and School Experience II were included in the seventh semester, and that Special Topics in Sciences II, Guidance, Teaching Practice and elective courses were included in the eighth semester. It could also be said that the curriculum of science education Undergraduate Program in 1998 was focused more on area courses while courses on area training were just a few. It is also observed that the School Experience course is taught in two semesters as "School Experience I" and "School Experience II" and that the Teaching Practice course is taught only in one semester. Therefore, it could be understood that teacher candidates make observations for two semesters and engage in practice for a single semester. In addition, this curriculum included mathematics and mathematics teaching courses. This could be a result of the fact that the concept of undergraduate minors started in 1998-1999 in our country and that mathematics was the undergraduate minor program of science education. In addition, "M.A. with Thesis" and "PhD" programs of science education during this era is given in Table 2 (Meriç, 2004).

**Table 2.** Curricula of “M.A. with Thesis” and “PhD” Programs in Science Education

Courses		
M.A.	1st Semester	2nd Semester
	Advanced Biology in Science Education	Experimental Science Education in Primary School
	Physics in Science Education	Constructivist Teaching Model in Primary Science Education
	Chemistry in Science Education	Concept Development and Concept Teaching in Science Education
PhD	Special Teaching Methods in Science Education	
	Advanced Physics in Science Education	Advanced Chemistry in Science Education
	Environmental Education	
	Advanced Biochemistry in Science Education	Application of Constructivist Teaching Model in Science Education
Special Topics in Biology		

Table 2 demonstrates that both area and area training courses are included in two semesters in science education M.A. and PhD programs.

The development of science education depends mainly on qualified science teachers. The prerequisite for being a qualified teacher lies at receiving a good training. When factors affecting the development of science education in our country are analyzed, it could be said that one of these factors is the fact that students who have academic success in courses such as biology, chemistry, physics, and mathematics do not prefer going to faculties of education. Especially between 1980-1990, in the Student Placement Exam, students with higher scores chose departments such as medicine, engineering, and architecture whereas students with lower scores preferred going to faculties of education. This decreased the quality of teachers who would be trained in faculties of education. To prevent this, the MoNE supported students who preferred going to the faculty of education, especially science education, with non-refundable grants in the 1989-1990 school year. Therefore, the Ministry tried to attract more attention to science education and therefore teaching as a profession (Yılmaz & Morgil, 1992).

## CONCLUSION

After 1980, internal developments in Turkey (September 12 coup, January 24 decisions, and the constitution of 1982) and international developments (globalization) caused many political, social, and education-related changes in our country. Especially during this period, problems caused by the secular-scientific education approach that had been used before September 12, 1980 without any religious emphasis were the focal point. As a result, an education system that was in accordance with Turkish-Islamic synthesis, meaning “combination of Turkish values and Islamic soul”, emerged. This new synthesis caused changes in the student profile that would be trained inside the education system. While there was a student profile, being a part of social progress and a problem solver

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in the 1960s, there was a student profile who was in a constant competition with others and felt the constant need to learn things in the 1980s. One of the disciplines affected by the Turkish-Islamic synthesis is sciences. Therefore, many changes and developments occurred during this era in terms of science education approach, science programs, and science education departments. The most major change in science education approach is related to theory of evolution. The theory of evolution was taught in a narrow sense and the idea of creation was added to the content regarding the theory of evolution. During this era, it was underlined that coursebooks and curricula should be formed by religious individuals, and it was stated that science curricula, developed without considering religious discourse, would create a “religion of science”. It was claimed that this would cause students to embrace the leftist ideology; thereby making them a rebellious and faithless generation. Pre-1980 modern science education curricula were abolished and new science education curricula were developed. Science education curricula developed during this era include curricula developed “at secondary education level” and “at primary education level”. In short, science education curricula developed during this era were very similar to classical science curricula. Unlike other curricula, the Science Education curriculum of 1992 included information and more detailed explanations for practitioners. In addition, this curriculum included activities such as experiments and observations in science education and enabled students to engage in learning-by-doing and by experience. When we look at coursebooks in this era, we could say that they were just summaries based on religious emphasis, that there was no supplementary resource for students and teachers, and that topic approach was used in curricula. The period between 1980-2000 is the period in which many changes and developments occurred in training science teachers. The duty of training teachers was assigned to faculties of education in 1982 and these faculties started to train science teachers (Chemistry, Physics, Biology). Even though graduates of Chemistry, Physics, and Biology departments were trained to be high school teachers between 1923 and 1990, they also worked in secondary schools. In 1992, faculties started to train science teachers that would work only in secondary schools. Until 1998, only Buca Faculty of Education (since 1992) and Gazi Faculty of Education (since 1991) had trained science teachers. These faculties developed their own curricula, and these were focused more on area courses. The curriculum, developed by the CoHE, started to be used in faculties of education in the 1998-1999 school year. In addition, during this era (1989-1990), the MoNE provided non-refundable grants for students who chose science departments in order to support these departments with students who had academic success.

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## EPISODE 13

# CONCEPTUAL CHANGE TEXTS AS AN ACTIVITY TOOL IN SOCIAL STUDIES

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## INTRODUCTION

### **What Is The Concept?**

There are countless objects, events and thoughts in the world we live in. It is impossible for a person to keep all this in their mind, to have knowledge about all of it. In order for people to learn and think about objects in the universe in which they live, these objects and events must first have a name. For this reason, events, thoughts and objects with similar characteristics were given a name and grouped (Erden and Akman, 1997).

At the beginning of the qualities that distinguish people from other living things is the ability to think and express them, as well as the ability to communicate. These characteristics can only be fulfilled through concepts. The means that people use in communication are concepts. It is the ability of all individuals to give the same meaning to concepts and the concept used has similar characteristics (Cüceloğlu, 1991) that enables the establishment of correct communication.

There are many definitions and explanations made by educators regarding comprehension. In general, these definitions and explanations are centered around identifying and grouping individuals, objects, and ideas. Some of the concept definitions contained in the sources are as follows;

In a general sense, the concept is a form of knowledge/structure that represents the changeable common features of different objects and phenomena that make sense in the human mind; it is expressed in a word (Ulgen, 2004:107).

Concepts that are the building block of knowledge are the names that we give to the units of thought in our mind that allow us to combine and group two or more beings according to their common characteristics as a result of our experience in the process of life and distinguish them from other beings (Çepni, Ayas, Johnson and Turgut 1997).

A concept is a Category used to group similar objects, people, events, ideas, processes. Concepts allow an individual to distinguish a group of entities, events, ideas,

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and processes from other groups, as well as help them establish relationships with other groups of entities, events, ideas, and processes. For example, psychology, sociology, educational psychology, etc. concepts allow us to distinguish each branch of Science from the other, as well as help us establish the relationships of one branch of science with other branches of science (Senemoglu, 2004:511)

The concept is a mental structure “developed” based on the phenomenon. In this context, it can also be defined as a structure that defines the common characteristics of objects, people, emotions, or ideas and can be expressed in language. Concepts are the cornerstones of human thought. They consist of properties of objects or events that can be observed both directly and indirectly. They’re a mental class, but because they are, they’re not in the real world, they’re in our thoughts. In the real world, only facts that exemplify concepts can be found. With new experiences, the characteristics of concepts change in terms of quality and quantity. Thus, concepts can be constantly redefined (Tosun and Doğan, 2005:1).

Concepts are mental tools that enable the individual to think. They provide an understanding of the physical or social world and meaningful communication. The thinking of an adult who does not have concepts is limited to their sensory perception, as is the thinking of a baby. In short, concepts are necessary for thinking. Understanding concepts is essential for Understanding Principles, problem solving, and understanding the world. Concepts make very comprehensive information available units (Senemoglu, 2004). Ulgen (2004:107) explains how concepts create concepts in the mind based on similarities and differences: people distinguish similarities and differences. For example, trees, which can vary in terms of leaves, roots, branches, volumes, fruits and forms of reproduction, have these characteristics in common. The image that we create in our minds with these perceptions is called the tree. Circle, triangle, quadrilateral, diagonal and the like are in different forms.

According to Martorella, concepts have four main characteristics (quoted by: Doğanay, 2005:230-232)

- \* Named,
- \* Distinctive features,
- \* Non-distinctive features,
- \* Samples.

Every concept has a name. These names can be expressed in one or two words. People use these names in their communications. For example, when a teacher uses the word “island”, if this concept was acquired from previous experience, an image and information will be clearly visible in the minds of students. But if this concept has not been learned before, this concept will have no meaning for the student.

The second feature of the concept is the distinguishing feature. These properties are common properties of objects, events, and thoughts that fall into the concept class. For example, the common feature of the objects we call Pine, Poplar, oak, mulberry that we encounter around us is that they all consist of roots, stems, branches and leaves. These common features are called distinctive features. Each object bearing these properties is expressed by a common name. In these examples, the name is “tree”. So, even if we don’t

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recognize its name, we can call the object a tree until it has roots, stems, branches and leaves.

In addition to the distinctive features of each concept, there are also features that are different for each example in its scope. Pine, Poplar, oak, mulberry trees height, shape of leaves, fruit or not are different from each other. Such differences in these characteristics are characterized as non-distinctive features. These properties do not change whether they are in the concept, for example. If it bears distinctive (common) features, it does not matter what shape the Leaf is, whether it is long or short, or whether it has fruit, it is a tree because of distinctive features.

As can be seen, its distinctive features are very important in teaching concepts. Because as the distinctive features of the concept increase, it becomes easier to recognize the concept as these features become able to take different values, while creating a concept becomes more difficult as the distinguishing qualities of these features decrease. The distinctive features of the concept alone are not sufficient to describe the concept.

The distinctive features of the concept form a relationship or sequence and structure within itself. This structure, formed by distinctive features, is called the definition of the concept or the rule. For example, water, land and surrounding areas are the distinctive features of both island and Lake concepts. Here, it is the relationship or structure between these properties that allows us to recognize the concept. If water surrounds a piece of land, the concept is an island, if a piece of land surrounds water, the concept is a lake.

One of the features of the concept is examples of concepts. There are many examples of each concept. These examples, along with the common, distinctive features of the concept, have their own unique features. Examples where one or more of the distinctive features of the concept are absent are also called non-examples. An example of a concept is a non-example of another concept. For example, Salt Lake is an example of the lake concept. The Sea of Marmara is not an example. Although the concepts of sea and Lake have some common features, their distinctive features and the structure formed by the relationships of these features are different. Examples facilitate understanding of concepts and occupy an important place in concept teaching models.

## **Misconception**

In studies conducted both in our country and in other countries of the world, it is stated that students have some wrong thoughts about concepts before and after they come to the course environment. A wide range of terms are used to express such ideas, such as misconception, pre-conception, alternative frameworks, children's science, common sense concepts, spontaneous knowledge, or naive conception (Transference, coştu, Ayas and Unal, 2007:123; Demirci and Efe, 2007:25).

In general, misconception is defined as a factor that prevents the teaching and learning of concepts that are contrary to the science formed as a result of people's experiences and have been proven to be true by science (Yürük & Çakır, 2000). It is possible to define misconception as the way in which a person understands a concept differs significantly from its jointly accepted scientific meaning (Aydogan, Güneş and Gülcüçek, 2003:113).

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learning of concepts that are contrary to the science formed as a result of people's experiences and have been proven to be true by science (Yürük & Çakır, 2000; Akman, 2016). It is possible to define misconception as the way in which a person understands a concept differs significantly from its jointly accepted scientific meaning (Aydogan, Güneş and Gülcücek, 2003:113).

At an early age, students recognize the physical and social world through their own experiences, creating a thought process in their minds that is different from real scientific thoughts. The concepts they create in their minds of objects and events may differ from scientifically accepted concepts. This condition is called a misconception. Misconceptions are definitions of concepts that students develop as an alternative to scientifically accepted concepts (Güneş, Dilek, Demir, Hoplan, Çelikoğlu, 2010:937).

Misconceptions show different characteristics than random errors (Bal & flow, 2010). Many situations that we sometimes think of as misconceptions are errors caused by lack of information or incorrect learning. According to eryilmaz and Sürmeli (2002), misconception is not a wrong answer due to an error or lack of information. A misconception means information that replaces a concept in the mind, but is scientifically different from the definition of that concept. It can be said that students have misconceptions if they explain the error they make in any question together with their reasons and express it confidently. In other words, although all misconceptions are a mistake, not all errors are misconceptions (Özkan 2013:17).

According to Piaget, misconceptions are like a structure and are added on top of each other. Misconceptions begin like a void of lack of knowledge. This gap is randomly filled by unqualified teaching given by the teacher, the knowledge that students have and the experiences that are faced. The information obtained by the student by random gap filling is undoubtedly successful to a certain extent, but at some point this event appears to us as a misconception (Rowell, Dawson and Harry, 1990; quoted, Dundar, 2011:334).

A misconception is not a false answer given due to an error or lack of information. A misconception is that the concept sits in the mind, but differs from its scientific definition. Misconceptions are information formed mainly as a result of personal experiences, contrary to scientific facts and thoughts, preventing meaningful learning (Borozan, 2008:14).

Reasons for misconceptions include:

Lack of communication between teacher and student,

Most concepts are abstract,

Epistemological ideas can also vary from person to person,

Reasons arising from the cultural structure of students,

Misconceptions consisting of experiences and observations that students have as a result of interaction with their environment from an early age,

- \* Use of a non-scientific everyday language in press and publishing tools,
- \* Tendency to over-generalize concepts,
- \* Scientific terms usually consist of foreign terms,

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- \* Incorrect definition of concepts in textbooks,
  - \* No clear explanation of the scope areas and limitations of the shapes and graphics used in the courses,
  - \* Misconceptions caused by teachers ‘ lack of complete control over their fields,
  - \* Concept arising from the teaching method used by the teacher in the lecture
  - \* misconceptions. (Gödek, Polat and Kaya, 2018; Mortimer, 1995; Yılmaz, Tekkaya, Geban, Özden, 1998).

One of the methods used to eliminate misconceptions and achieve conceptual change is conceptual change texts (Maria & MacGinitie, 1987; Chambers & Andre, 1997).

### **Conceptual Change Texts**

In order to help eliminate the misconceptions that students have, several instructional strategies have been put forward based on the conceptual change model Posner and his colleagues put forward. One of the most widely used methods for creating conceptual change in students is conceptual change texts (Transference, Cerit Berber and Sarı, 2009:161).

Roth (1985), posed by conceptual change texts, students become aware of the concepts they have alternative that allows you to scientifically accepted knowledge, students ‘ alternative concepts that reveal the contradictions between texts (Hynd & Alverman, 1986; Buckle & Askar, 2002). Conceptual change texts aim to correct the preliminary concepts of students or to reorganize the existing knowledge structure. Applying conceptual change texts can help the teacher and enrich teaching, especially in classrooms where the number of students is high (Chambers & Andre, 1997).

Conceptual change texts are one of the methods used to eliminate misconceptions and base the conceptual change approach. These texts students ‘ misconceptions, allowing you to become aware of these ideas and reasons with examples of why it is wrong, explaining the new ideas that you encounter is insufficient to explain them to their previous events, offering a scientifically accepted concept or idea into a false sense of texts (Ünal, 2007).

In order to eliminate misconceptions and realize meaningful learning, it is necessary to review existing information and change this misinformation in order to adapt to new information. One of the most effective teaching methods in eliminating existing misconceptions in students is conceptual change texts. Roth (1985) posed by conceptual change texts, students ‘ misconceptions that allows you to become aware of scientifically accepted knowledge, students’ misconceptions are texts that reveal the contradictions between (Kılıçoğlu, 2011:31 ).

Conceptual change texts are texts that indicate what students ‘ misconceptions and reasons are, and explain and demonstrate that these misconceptions are insufficient, along with examples. These texts primarily to the misconceptions that learners have, it starts with a question, and to be taught about the topic of students ‘ misconceptions is indicated by the inadequate or incorrect comments or examples that are proven. In

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this way, a conceptual change is attempted in the student by ensuring that the student becomes aware of the lack or inaccuracy of his or her own knowledge. At the end, new scientific information on the subject is explained and examples are given (Birinci Konor, 2010:19).

Conceptual exchange texts are one of the methods used to eliminate misconceptions found in students. These texts are texts that aim to align the misconceptions that exist in the minds of students with the scientific expressions of concepts and eliminate these misconceptions. In preparing conceptual exchange texts, students ‘existing misconceptions about the subject are determined first. Later, these misconceptions that exist in students about concepts are revealed by the differences between them with scientifically accepted explanations of concepts, and they are expressed by examples. They are then asked questions to make students realize their inaccuracy in explaining concepts (Hynd, 2001). In this way, students ‘misconceptions are activated and students are made to feel that this preliminary information is insufficient (Köseoğlu et al., 2003: 137). After this stage students explains why these alternative ideas are wrong, and the differences among the students expressed dissatisfaction with the description of scientific concepts and is created and displacements is achieved with the correct information (Kılıçoğlu, 2011:31 ).

It is important to give importance to visual in conceptual exchange texts, especially to embody abstract concepts that are difficult to comprehend by students by enriching them with paintings and cartoons. The differentiation of conceptual change texts from the textbook by containing more examples, analogies, and figures further increases its effect on eliminating misconceptions. For this reason, conceptual exchange texts should be embodied as much as possible (Birinci Konor, 2010:19).

Conceptual change texts focus on changing students ‘existing alternative ideas and increasing conceptual change by creating dissatisfaction with students about these ideas by challenging these ideas. Students are first given alternative ideas when preparing conceptual exchange texts. Then their inaccuracy is supported by examples and shown to students by examples. Alternative ideas (misconceptions) that are activated in this way are confronted with scientific explanations and thus change in the student is achieved (Chambers and Andre 1997; Ozmen, 2007). The aim of conceptual change texts is to explain students ‘misunderstandings (alternative ideas) to them and to mobilize them by giving examples of these misunderstandings (Kılıçoğlu, 2011:32).

Students who work on the text individually or in groups compare and think about what they believe and what is given in the text. Conceptual exchange texts are usually distributed to students during the lecture of the subject and they are asked to review them individually or in groups. After making sure that everyone is reading, students are provided with the right idea through class discussion (Aydin and Balim, 2007:22; Kılıçoğlu, 2011: 32).

Another type of text applied within the conceptual change approach is refutation texts. In rebuttal texts, common misconceptions are presented primarily on the subject, and these misconceptions are directly refuted before scientifically accurate information is presented. The difference between these texts and conceptual change texts is that the misunderstandings do not explain why they are wrong. In this form, refutation texts may not be as effective as conceptual change texts (Birinci Konor, 2010:20).

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Guzzetti, Williams, Skeels and Wu (1997) claim that conceptual exchange texts are successful because they create conceptual contradictions in the minds of individuals by comparing right ideas with wrong ideas (Transference, Köse, Kaya, Gezer and Kara, 2011: 75).

In order to activate students ‘ misconceptions about the subject, conceptual exchange texts are first started with a question. For example, if you were a battery, what would you need to light a lamp? It is then explained why this information is incorrect by specifying common misconceptions that are often encountered in the literature on the subject. In this way, students feel the inadequacy of their knowledge by questioning their misconceptions. Finally, new scientific information on the subject is explained and examples are given (Chambers and Andre, 1997).

In the field of social studies, Kılıçoglu (2011); Şarklayan (2017) and Dağdelen (2018) have worked on conceptual change texts. In the field of science, there is more work on conceptual change texts. Some of them can be listed as Pınarbaşı and Canbolat (2002); Özmen and Demircioğlu (2003); Yüksel Gülcük (2004); Aydin and Balım (2007); Cerit Berber and Sarı (2009); Üce and Sarıçayır (2009); Birinci Konor (2010); Akyürek and Afacan (2013); Arikurt (2014), Tarim (2017); Aksoy (2018); Zengin (2018); Başak (2019); Yesil Asana (2020).

The following is an example of a conceptual change text written in science and examples of conceptual change text developed by the author:

#### ***An Example Of A Conceptual Change Text On Acids***

Acids burn and dissolve all kinds of substances. If this statement were true, it would be impossible to carry and hold the acids. But when we investigate, we see that even the strongest acids can be transported in plastic containers. Moreover, 1 molarhк solution of hydrochloric acid (HCl), known as a strong acid, is used to break down food in our stomach. If the acids burned everything and melted it, we wouldn't have a stomach right now. In addition, many acids, known as weak acids, are contained in many substances that we use in our daily lives. For example, lemons, vinegar, sour apples, grapes, sour milk have acids in their structure. This means that acids do not have the ability to burn and dissolve all substances. Source: Özmen and Demircioğlu, 2003.

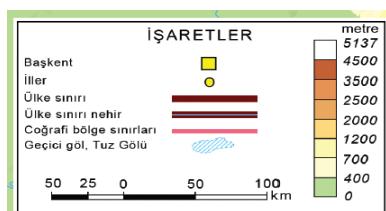
#### ***An Example Of A Conceptual Change Text On Chromosome***

There is no relationship between the number of chromosomes and the sophistication of the creature. If it were, a fern with a chromosome number of 500 would be more advanced than a person with a chromosome number of 46. There is no relationship between the number of chromosomes and the size of the creature. If it were, a dog with a chromosome number of 78 would be larger than a person. Buddha means that each creature has its own unique number of chromosomes (Akyürek and Afacan, 2013:184).

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## Used Examples Of Conceptual Change Text That Can Be Used In Teaching Social Studies

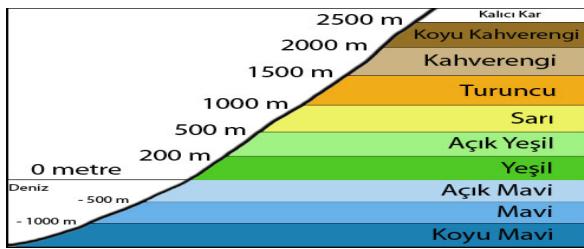
*Example 1: Conceptual Change Text On Colors In Physical Map*



Most students associate colors such as green, yellow, and brown on the physical map with Earth shapes and adopt Yesil as a plain, yellow as a plateau, and Brown as a mountain. The text of the conceptual change created to eliminate this misconception is as follows:

What do the colors show on the physical map? On the physical map, colors do not show Earth shapes. So Yesil color does not show Plains; yellow color does not show plateaus and brown color does not show mountains. Bafra Yesil Yesil is not only the Çukurova, Bafra Çarşamba Plains, Konya plain, Pasinler plain or Yüksekova'da green color should have been the plain of Çukurova, not the plain of Çukurova. However, if the physical map is examined, it can be seen that the Konya plain is shown in yellow, the pasinler plain and the Yüksekova are shown in Brown. In the same way, places indicated by yellow are plateaus, and places indicated by Brown are not mountains. Again, if the physical map is examined, it will be seen that the Çatalca-Kocaeli plateau in the Marmara region is Yesil; the Bozok-Haymana-Cihanbeyli plateaus in Central Anatolia are yellow; the Erzurum-Kars plateaus are shown with brown.

On the physical map, the colors show only the ascending steps. It is usually shown in Yesil from 0-500 meters, yellow from 500-1000 meters; orange from 1000-1500 meters (sometimes yellow); and brown above 1500 meters.



Cukurova in Turkey, Silifke, Bafra and Wednesday, Gediz, Bakircay, such as büyük Menderes and Küçük Menderes coastal plains is located between 0-200 meters is located in the interior since while the physical map indicated by the color in Yeşilova, Konya, Kayseri and Eskişehir is located at elevations of 500 to 1500 meters when the plains of yellow or orange; and the average elevation is more than 1500 metres situated in especially eastern Anatolia, Elazığ, Erzurum, Muş and Brown is illustrated by the plains of Missouri. Again, the same situation occurs on the plateaus. For example, the Çatalca-Kocaeli plateau in the Marmara region is shown in green color on the physical map because it has an elevation of less than 500 meters; the haymana, Obruk, Cihanbeyli and Bozok plateaus in the Central Anatolia region are shown in Yesil in yellow color because they are located between 1000-1500 meters. Erzurum-Kars and Ardahan plateaus, which are located in the eastern Anatolia region and have an elevation of more than 1500 meters, are indicated by Brown (Tokcan, 2015:142-143).

Conceptual change text on City (City) Province (province) What is a city? What is Province? Are these two concepts often confused or thought to be the same? Are these two concepts really the same? The city is a geographical concept; the province is an administrative concept. Settlements are classified geographically as: Village six settlements Village Town The City) Accordingly, the city is the largest settlement in terms of geography. The biggest difference of the city from the city, which is another geographical settlement unit, is that in addition to its excess population, this population works in non-agricultural economic areas (service-industrie9 sector. Agricultural cities are also places with large populations and a large population based on agriculture. As can be seen from here, the measure of geographical nomenclature of settlements is the size of the population and the areas of function (livelihoods of the population). Administratively, the settlements are classified as Village County State.

As can be seen from here, the province is the largest administrative unit. Governors govern the province, which is the largest unit in the division, so that settlements can use government services more regularly. The government governing the state can make any settlement (more districts) a province. There is no exact criterion for making a county a province. Sometimes even provinces can be made districts by the government. For example, Kırklareli left Edirne in 1924 and became a province. Çatalca left Edirne in 1914 and became a province in 1926, it was connected to Istanbul and made a district.

Üsküdar was made a province in the early 1900s to cover the Anatolian side of Istanbul, and in 1926 it became a district connected to Istanbul again.

Şebinkarahisar was separated from Sivas in 1920 and made a province by taking Giresun, which was previously the District of Trabzon. In 1933, when the center of the province was moved to Giresun, it became the district of Giresun.

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Artvin was attached to Rize in 1933. In 1936, the province was made as Çoruh, and in 1956 it was renamed Artvin again.

Kırşehir in 1954, after the current power failed to issue a deputy in the election, the province of Nevşehir was made a district; Kırşehir was made a province again in 1958 and separated from Nevşehir.

In Turkey, there were 67 provinces until 1989, and the provincial plates went in alphabetical order in 1989, when Aksaray became a province, the plate became 68, and the layout on the plate was broken. Prior to 1989, all with the above figures 68 and town (68 Aksaray 69 Bayburt 70 Karaman 71 Kırıkkale, 72 Batman 73 Şırnak 74 Bartın 75 Ardahan 76 İğdir, 77 Yalova 78 Karabük 79 Kilis 80 In Osmaniye, Düzce, 81). Some of these districts were made provinces because of their industry and population (Kırıkkale, Karaman, Karabük); some were made provinces because of military security (Batman, Şırnak, İğdir, Ardahan). After the death of the mayors of Kilis and Osmaniye, the province was made as a promise in the mayoral elections to be renewed. Düzce province was made to help its development after the great earthquake. As can be seen briefly, there is no full reason for being a province from an administrative point of view. At any moment, governments can make a county a province.

Many people do not know the difference between cities and provinces, and use these two concepts interchangeably. However, some provinces are not geographically cities, while some cities are not provinces. For example, Igdir, Ardahan, Kilis, Bartın, Tunceli, Bayburt are more towns-looking provinces. Because the main source of livelihood here is agriculture, and as a population, they are not too large. Some cities in our country are not provinces. For example, places such as Tarsus, Iskenderun, Nazilli, Polatlı are geographically cities, while they are not provinces. As can be seen, cities and provinces are concepts that have different characteristics in terms of human geography and cannot be used interchangeably (Şahin, 2001:132-134).

#### Text of conceptual change on Plateau-Plateau

In many physical maps, the name of some plateaus is written plateau instead of Plateau concept. Like Bozok plateau, Erzurum Kars plateau, Taşeli plateau. In fact, the main mistake made here is that plateaus are called plateaus. However, while the plateau is a concept of physical geography, the plateau is a concept of human geography.

It is not correct to use the two interchangeably.

Plateau; in many geography books “are wide plains that are deeply divided by streams and remain high relative to their surroundings. It is defined as”. There is also a misconception in the definition here. Because not every plateau is high compared to its surroundings. For example, Erzurum-Kars plateau is at a lower level than the surrounding mountains. For this reason, it is more accurate to define the plateau as “wide High Plains, deeply divided on the side of streams”.

Highland is a human geography term. The term plateau derives from the Turkish phrase “plateau”, that is, a place where animals spread, graze. The plateau, which is a temporary village, traditionally refers to places where livestock farmers go to graze their animals in higher, cooler and wetlands when the nearby pastures dry out in the summer. Villagers who stay here for a certain period of time and graze animals in simple yala

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houses or tents return to their villages when the weather cools and the grass begins to dry. Today (2020), plateaus based on traditional livestock continue, although declining. But now people in the Highlands can choose not only to graze animals, but also to spend hot summer days in a cool place, to relax and have fun in a beautiful settlement with more flora or fauna than cities. For this reason, the perception of Highland tourism has developed today and has turned into a more increasing tourism activity, especially around the Black Sea.

As can be seen from the descriptions, plateaus are a physical form of Earth and this shape can be drawn. But there is no way to draw such a shape of the plateau. But the Highlands are not a form, but a temporary settlement in human terms. The surface of all kinds of Earth shapes on earth can be a plateau. It can be used as mountain top, mountain slope, hill, hill slope, valley slope, valley floor, deposit cone or even lowland.

In short, every plateau can be a plateau, but not every plateau can be a plateau. For example, in the Mediterranean region, only the plateaus on the taşeli Plateau are on the plateau, while the other plateaus are on different geographical shapes. In the Black Sea, no plateau is on the plateau. Therefore, it is not right to use these two concepts interchangeably (adapted from Şahin, 2001:127-129).

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## EPISODE 14

# DEVELOPMENT OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN TURKEY BETWEEN THE YEARS 1980-2000

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## INTRODUCTION

Individual difference is a concept that has been widely accepted in today's world and is being used frequently, particularly in the field of education. This concept predicates that individuals who have essentially the same characteristics are unique in and of themselves. To give an example, first grade of a primary school is comprised of individuals of the same age group and with generally similar physical/cognitive development. However, we see that each student has quite different characteristics at individual level. From an educational perspective, some of these differences (eye-hair-skin color, height, weight, etc.) are insignificant at an acceptable level, whereas certain issues such as thinking-learning styles, physical-cognitive anomalies, or learning pace have a direct impact on students in a classroom environment.

The concept of individual differences usually includes differences among individuals as well as differences within individuals. It can be said that students who differ from their peers in some aspects have individual differences. Similarly, these students may have differences among themselves. For example, a 9-year-old student may have an intelligence of an 11-year-old but also display behaviors of a 6-year-old (Kirk, Gallagher & Coleman, 2017). From this perspective, every child is unique.

A blonde child is unique if everyone else in the classroom is brunette. However, this student would not need a different educational arrangement due to his/her blonde hair. From the educational perspective, a student is identified as "*special*" if he/she requires a personalized educational arrangement in order to achieve academic and social success at school. Special need refers to the help an individual needs in an area in which he/she is significantly different from his/her peers. Individual/student with special needs refers to a student who requires necessary educational arrangements in order to fully benefit from educational activities. Such educational arrangements are the inclusion programs for students with special needs who are attending to general education classes. The goal of inclusion programs is to ensure that students with differences receive education in the same environment as their peers.

### What is inclusion?

In general terms, the concept of inclusion means having students who are significantly different from their peers from a certain aspect (physical, cognitive, emotional, visual, auditory etc.) receive education along with their normally developing peers, rather than

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in separate classes or schools. According to Kırcaali-Iftar (1992), inclusion is defined as providing special education services to classroom teachers, handicapped students, or both teachers and students to ensure that the inclusion students receive education in general education classes together with their peers. Akcan (2018) defines inclusion as ensuring that students requiring specially planned education receive education in general education classes thanks to the efforts of all stakeholders directly or indirectly associated with students with special needs. Similarly, certain authors (Lindsay, 2007) define it as an important program developed for the purpose of ensuring that students with certain disabilities and special educational needs benefit from educational opportunities as much as they can. Inclusion practices can be considered as a methodological/organizational subject organized in a manner that covers all differences in accordance with principles of a social community in order to attain social education goals (Haugh, 2017). In this context, inclusion can be seen as a social, equalitarian, and democratic educational goal for which all relevant actors should strive (UNESCO, 2009).

The practice of inclusion does not mean placing individuals with significant differences compared to their peers in a classroom environment without making any arrangements. It is a known fact that such a placement would do more harm than good. Burcu (2015) quotes certain studies (Anderson, Clarke & Spain, 1982; Brier & Demb, 1981; Dorner 1973; Lorber & Schloss, 1973; Morgan, 1972; Thomas, Bax & Smyth, 1989) in which disability was found to have increased isolation among individuals at school age or adolescence. Therefore, inclusive education requires provision of special education support services to both students and teachers. Special education support services means providing tools-equipment, expert personnel, and education and counseling services to individuals with special needs, their families, teachers, and school personnel based on these individuals' medical and educational assessment and diagnosis (MEB, 2006).

Inclusive education can be used in three different ways depending on needs and practices. The first one is *full-time inclusion* which is the most well known and common practice. In full-time inclusion, individuals with special educational needs receive education in an inclusive classroom among his/her peers with normal development throughout the whole school day. The students are registered to that class. The second is the *part-time inclusion*. In part-time inclusion, students with special educational needs are registered to a special education class. However, they spend time in the general education class with their normally developing peers during certain courses and social activities in which they may succeed. The third practice is *reverse inclusion*. As the name suggests, it is organized as the reverse of full-time inclusion. In other words, in this practice normally developing volunteer students may register to special education schools or classes within their vicinity.

## **Why Inclusive Education?**

The main purpose of inclusion practices can be thought of as having individuals with differences adapt to the society in all aspects. Article 28 of the Convention on the Rights of the Children mentions the right for education and equal opportunities for all children. From this perspective, one can speculate that no child should be separated from others due to any difference he/she might have. In the first clause of article 23 of the same convention, it is stated that the conditions required for children with physical or cognitive differences to actively participate in social life must be provided. Again, clause 3 of article 23 guarantees the fundamental rights of students with special needs in education

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and other areas (<https://www.unicef.org/turkey/%C3%A7ocuk-haklar%C4%B1na-dairs%C3%B6zle%C5%9Fme>).

Academic institutions are systems in which individuals from similar age groups engage in intense interaction within certain environments and predetermined plans-programs. These institutions, in which peer groups are in intense interaction, are the best socialization tools that one can have, particularly during the period covering the first years of life. Burcu (2015) describes the main function of education as ensuring that individuals are able to meet the requirements of adapting to social life. According to the author, the theoretical and practical knowledge individuals with special needs receive during the education process has an undeniable positive impact on their social adaptation and therefore inclusion into society. As briefly mentioned above, when the main goal of inclusion and the main goal of education are considered together, it is apparent that these two concepts are supplementary to each other and they create an opportunity for the individual rights mentioned in the convention on the rights of the children to become functional. When considered in this context, inclusion essentially guarantees fulfillment of educational needs of all children, regardless of whether they have a special disability.

### **Inclusion Groups/Classification**

Statements such as “differing significantly from their peers”, “having a disability in certain areas” etc. can be seen frequently in definitions of the concept of inclusion. The reason for this is the fact that individuals identified as “inclusion students” are different in various areas in terms of development. In summary, the differences a student has can be visual as well as auditory, cognitive, physical, or emotional. Classification of inclusion students has become a necessity due to the diversity of these disabilities. Classification is crucial in terms of creating proper education plans and arranging educational environments for inclusion students as well as efficient use of existing resources. According to Akçamete (2015), the possible reasons for the classification of included students are;

- Intervention
- Tolerating unusual behaviors of the students
- Expertise
- Appropriate use of resources
- Defending legal rights
- Gaining visibility within society
- Placing students in the right program

No articles pertaining to classification of students who will receive special education were found while examining the “Law on Children in Need of Special Education” no. 2916 which was introduced in 1983, despite the presence of detailed explanations regarding principles of special education in public and private primary school and secondary school institutions. Contrary to the law no. 2916, the statutory decree no. 573 published later in 1997 includes a definition of inclusion but still does not include inclusion groups or classifications. The “regulation of special education services” published on January

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18th, 2000 includes inclusion groups. The classification according to this regulation is as follows (<https://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/eskiler/2005/07/20050722-14.htm>).

- Cognitive learning disability
- Learning disability due to clinical care needs
- Hearing impairment
- Visual impairment
- Orthopedic disability
- Disability caused by damage to the nervous system (Intellectually disabled)
- Language and speech difficulties
- Special learning difficulties
- Multiple disabilities
- Emotional-behavioral adjustment difficulties
- Chronic illnesses
- Autism
- Social adaptation difficulties
- Superior or special ability

### **Definition/Labeling/Language Used in Inclusion**

Discussions regarding the denomination of students with special needs date back to the 1980s (Eripek, 1989). Abrasive and stigmatizing expressions such as retarded, blind, or deaf were both offensive for students with special education needs and were far from providing information on an education program arranged accordingly (Kneedler, Hallahan & Kaufmann, 1984). For these reasons, phrases considered less offensive such as *handicapped* and *disabled* started being used instead. Such phrases have been adopted by all areas of society. For example, the law enacted in the 2000s is known as the *law on the disabled* or *the law on the handicapped* (the year 2005, no. 5378). Similarly, academic studies in this area frequently put emphasis on these definitions. To give an example to these studies, a majority of academic studies such as *Educating families with hearing-impaired children* (Ünlü, 1986); *Heavily disabled children* (Akçamete, 1991); *Hearing-Impaired Children in Normal Classrooms*, (Eripek, 1984); *Drama with mentally handicapped children* (Bayhan, 1995); *Difficulties experienced by mentally handicapped children in our country and their solutions* (Büyüklı, 1988) have adopted the concepts of handicapped and disabled. These concepts, which are still in use today, have begun to be replaced by more acceptable concepts or definitions.

### **Statutes/Legal Regulations in Inclusion**

It has been stated that the education needs of individuals with disabilities were usually met at special education schools of special education classes from the 1950s until 1980. The first important event of 1980 was taking special education services from a branch at the general directorate and incorporating it into the general directorate (Kargin, 2004). Afterwards, the “law on children with special education needs (no. 2916)”, which

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was the first comprehensive law based on special education, entered into force. This law emphasizes on many subjects, including definitions regarding special education, principles, responsible institutions, identifying individuals with special education needs, placement, and their monitoring (<https://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/arsiv/18192.pdf>). One of the most remarkable articles of the law in question is undoubtedly article 12. According to this article, certain individuals are tasked with identifying children in need of special education as a legal requirement. Article 12 of the law is as follows: “*Families and relatives of children in need of special education, mukhtars, municipal police officers, law enforcement officers, managers of health and social services institutions, relevant civil servants in registration offices, officials in education and training institutions, religious officials, and census officers are required to notify the local administrative authority in the nearest province or district regarding children in need of special education whom they have seen, know of, or heard of.*” This article shows the state’s seriousness in terms of identification of children in need of special education.

The statutory decree on Special Education No. 573 entered into force in later years (1997). This decree includes important sections which were not included in the law no. 2916 published in 1983 ([https://orgm.meb.gov.tr/meb\\_iys\\_dosyalar/2012\\_10/10111011\\_ozel\\_egitim\\_kanun\\_hukmunda\\_kararname.pdf](https://orgm.meb.gov.tr/meb_iys_dosyalar/2012_10/10111011_ozel_egitim_kanun_hukmunda_kararname.pdf)). This decree emphasizes on concepts such as inclusion, family education, and individual education plans (IEP). On the other hand, special education was limited to the early childhood period. Furthermore, definitions used for individuals with disabilities were suitable for that era. The 1983 law defines children in need of special education as “*Children at the age group of 4-18 who cannot benefit from normal education services due to their unusual physical, mental, behavioral, social, or health conditions*”, whereas the 1997 decree defines them as “*An individual requiring special education is an individual who differs from his/her peers at an expected and significant level in terms of individual characteristics and educational competence due to various reasons.*”

Following the statutory decree no. 573, the Regulation on Special Education Services published in 2000 provided a more comprehensive and detailed legal. The most important aspect that distinguishes this law from others is that it includes IEP (individual education plan) and inclusion practices in education under separate headings. Chapter 7 of the law enacted in 2000 includes principles of inclusion practices. Kargin (2004) states that this law emphasizes on the fact that special education services should be planned according to educational needs rather than deficiencies of students with special needs. From this perspective, it can be said that the language used in defining individuals with special needs started to change with this emphasis. For example, contemporary phrases such as *the individual in need of special education* have slowly started replacing phrases such as *handicapped or disabled* which were used frequently during the years when this law entered into force.

### **Inclusion in the National Education Councils held from the 1980s until the 2000s**

National education councils are organized in the form of an advisory body by which subjects related to education and training services of the Ministry of National Education are examined, assessed, discussed, and finally recommended for implementation. They have been organized irregularly since the first years of the Republic, sometimes annually, other times once every three or four years, or even eight years. A total of 19 National Education councils were held, the first on July 17th-29th, 1939 (the Council of Science

Committee held the same duty between 1921-1926), and the last on December 2nd-6th, 2014. As mentioned above, most of these irregular Councils were between 1980-2000 (7 councils in total).

**Table 3.** Councils from past to present

National Education Councils	Date
Council of Science Committee	1921-1926
National Education Councils I	July 17th-29th, 1939
National Education Councils II	February 15th-21st, 1943
National Education Councils III	December 2nd-10th, 1946
National Education Councils IV	August 23rd-31st, 1949
National Education Councils V	February 4th-14th, 1953
National Education Councils VI	March 18th-23rd, 1957
National Education Councils VII	February 5th-15th, 1962
National Education Councils VIII	September 28th- October 3rd, 1970
National Education Councils IX	June 24th – July 4th, 1974
National Education Councils X	June 23rd-26th, 1981
National Education Councils XI	June 8th-11st, 1982
National Education Councils XII	June 18th-22nd, 1988
National Education Councils XIII	January 15th-19th, 1990
National Education Councils XIV	September 27th-29th, 1993
National Education Councils XV	May 13rd-17th, 1996
National Education Councils XVI	February 22nd-26th, 1999
National Education Councils XVII	November 13rd-17th, 2006
National Education Councils XVIII	November 1st-5th, 2010
National Education Councils XIX	December 2nd-6th, 2014

**Source:** <https://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/www/gecmisten-gunumuze-mill-egitim-sralari/icerik/328>

Developments made in special education and inclusion during the 7 councils held between 1980-2000 (10th-16th councils) are as below.

#### a) The 10th National Education Council (June 23rd-26th, 1981)

During the 10th National Education Council where the keynote speaker was Hasan Sağlam, the Minister of National Education during that time, students with special education needs were mentioned only once. Article 22 of the council resolutions includes the statement “*Developing different basic education programs which may be used in the education of children of Turkish workers living abroad and which may fulfill local needs of adults and graduates.*” The phrase “*Developing different basic education programs which may be used in the education of children requiring special education*” in this article connotes individual education. Since individual education is the basis of inclusion practices in education, it can be concluded that the idea of inclusion was discussed during the 10th National Education Council, although no definition was provided. The practice of inclusion cannot succeed without Individual Education Plans (**IEPs**). IEPs are individualized plans developed particularly for the areas in which an individual in need of special education is falling behind. Therefore, the “*different basic education programs*” mentioned in the 10th National Education Council is thought to

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imply IEPs.

**b) The 11th National Education Council (June 8th-11th, 1982)**

Individuals with special education needs received wider coverage during the 11th National Education Council, which was held one year after the 10th National Education Council. The resolutions related to special education and inclusion taken during this council are as below.

The statement "*Knows students with special education needs take takes necessary precautions.*" was included in the list of qualities basic education teachers (class teachers) must have under the title "*Layout of Content Categories in Teacher Placement Programs.*" Similarly, the statement "*To represent children with special education needs and teach education methods based on disability groups of these children*" is included under the title the functions of basic education teachers.

Besides, a definition of special education experts and their duties along with information on who may become a special education expert was provided in article 6 under the title "*education experts.*" Furthermore, an explanation of special education branches was provided during the council. During the 11th National Education Council, having a master's degree was established as a condition in order to be a special education expert. However, those eligible for being special education experts are required to a) attend to undergraduate courses on education sciences, other sciences which are the foundation of education, or sciences which are the foundation of special education, and b) attend to practice-oriented classes at postgraduate level and write a thesis. Such special education branches are as below. Those who are eligible to become an assistant specialist are required to have a special education undergraduate diploma. Accordingly;

*Special education experts* are experts who are qualified to find, identify, and sort children with special education needs at various grades of various systems, institutions, and schools, conduct activities related to therapeutic education precautions and have received training on a branch of special education, theoretical field, or practice.

*Duties of special education experts are;*

1. Conducts screenings at schools, diagnoses students with disabilities during these screenings, groups students with disabilities based on type and severity, and makes sure these students are placed in proper special education programs.
2. Properly groups students with disabilities in a special education institution or school and plans their education.
3. Prepares plans and conducts studies for students who require rehabilitation.
4. Develops methods and tools to be used in screening and diagnosis.
5. Conducts research; participates in program development studies.
6. cooperates with other teachers and parents and helps them with regards to students' problems.
7. Lends assistance to in-service training of class and branch teachers.

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*Special Education Branches are;*

- a. Education of students with visual impairments
- b. Education of students with hearing impairments
- c. Education of students with speech impairments
- d. Education of students with orthopedic impairments
- e. Education of the gifted
- f. Education of students with intellectual impairments
- g. Education of students in need of protection
- h. Education of students with maladaptive behavior.

As is seen, no explanation or resolution regarding inclusion practices has been made during the 11th National Education Council during which certain definitions, duties, and areas regarding special education were provided.

**c) The 12th National Education Council (June 18th-22nd, 1988)**

The 12th When the National Education Council did not contribute significantly to decisions taken in previous councils. However, the resolution regarding “opening upper classes” for gifted students (Resolution 20) can be deemed as a positive development. The resolutions taken during this council regarding special education are as below.

*At primary school level;*

**Resolution 20.** Emphasizing on students with special education needs; opening special upper classes for gifted children; popularizing education of physically and mentally handicapped children.

*At General, Vocational, and Technical secondary school level;*

**Resolution 22.** Developing “Special Education” programs within private specialized centers, independent special education institutions, and other secondary education institutions which employ personnel with special training with regards to education of children who require special education at secondary school level.

*Under the title of new technologies in education;*

**Resolution 21.** Providing special tools and equipment to special education schools at a sufficient amount required for establishing a style of education suitable for conditions of handicapped children and ensuring their usage in these schools.

**Resolution 22.** Carrying out the new structuring of vocational-technical secondary schools, public education centers, and special education schools set forth by the Law no. 3308 and renewal and development of tools and equipment of these schools in line with the latest technology to fulfill the needs that arise due to such program changes.

*Under the title of teacher training;*

**Resolution 21.** Developing new programs to train teachers required for non-formal education and special education.

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**d) The 13th National Education Council (January 15th-19th, 1990)**

No resolution regarding special education or inclusive education was taken during the 13th National Education Council.

**e) The 14th National Education Council (September 27th-29th, 1993)**

As in the previous council, no resolution regarding special education or inclusive education was taken during the 14th National Education Council; the principles, policies, and goals concerning the provision of education and training services mentioned during the keynote speech of Nahit Menteşe, the Minister of National Education during that time, included the statement “Infrastructure studies we have started for our children who require special education will improve and continue.”

**f) The 15th National Education Council (May 13th-17th, 1996)**

Still, no significant development can be seen at the 15th National Education Council. The resolutions taken did not go beyond repeating the resolutions taken during previous councils. However, the first decisions regarding the concept of inclusion were taken during this council. The decisions taken during the 15th Council of National Education regarding special education and inclusive education are as below:

*Under the title of Primary Education and Guidance;*

**<sup>1</sup>Resolution 11-** Physical modifications (Ramps, Elevators, Desks, Playgrounds, etc.) in line with special education and pre-school children's requirements shall be made during school building constructions.

**<sup>2</sup>\*Resolution 18-** Flexibility in implementation of current programs should be provided to students with various special education needs, teachers shall receive in-service training in this regard.

**\*Resolution 25-** Class programs appropriate to the level of handicapped students benefiting from the inclusive education should be prepared.

**Resolution 42-** Infrastructure required for special education should be provided and options such as inclusion and special education classes should be considered.

*Under the title of restructuring in secondary education;*

**Resolution 39-** Emphasis shall be given to “General Directorate of Special Education Guidance and Counseling Services”, “Special Education Services”, and “Guidance and Psychological Counseling Services” in equal measure in order to provide guidance services more effectively.

*Under the title of continuously meeting the educational needs of the society;*

**Resolution 30-** The education provided to people with special needs in non-formal education institutions should be further improved both in terms of educational environments and teaching staff.

**g) The 16th National Education Council (February 22nd-26th, 1999)**

The 16th National Education Council was rather focused on vocational education and employment, thus resolutions were related to how and where individuals with special education needs would be employed rather than their education.

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<sup>1</sup>Resolutions marked with (\*) were included in the Ministry's “Executive Plan” as “Implementation Resolutions”.

<sup>2</sup>Resolutions marked with (\*) were included in the Ministry's “Executive Plan” as “Implementation Resolutions”.

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## Postgraduate studies from the 1980s to the 2000s

Inclusive and special education, which progressed quite slowly until the 1980s, went through a period of fast development thanks to increased global awareness, especially during the 80s, and legal regulations being introduced in our country. However, this progress was relatively slow in higher education. An examination of the Council of Higher Education's (YÖK) database shows that all but one of the theses' on special education and inclusion was written in 1990 and afterwards. The table below shows basic information on postgraduate studies conducted between 1980-2020 (the YÖKTEZ database).

**Table 1.** Search results with the keywords “special education”

Author	Year	Title	Degree
Güler Küçükturan	1982	Determining the mothers' attitudes of children of special education needs	Master degree
M.Meral Ercan	1991	Comparative study of the special education system in the Federal Republic of Germany and Turkey	Master degree
N.Bülbin Sucuoğlu	1991	Parents' perception of special education schools	PhD
Sema Tos	1994	User needs and physical space characteristics of special education schools for teachable mentally disabled children	Master degree
Suat Karabulut	1996	Model structure of the functioning of successful special education schools	Master degree
Emine Yazıcı	1996	The Belives of mothers of Turkish children who enrolles to the learning diffuculty depertment of special education schools (Sonder volksschule) in Munich Germany	Master degree
Ertuğrul Turan	1998	The Effect of the reading obility of the fourth and fifth grade students to their reading comprehension power in private education classes	Master degree
Cengiz Erdik	1998	Teaching mathematics of low-capacity students and their special educational need	Master degree
B. İlgin Başaran	1999	Comparison of the teacher characteristics in the special education schools in İzmir, Turkey	PhD
Çiğdem Ulu	1999	The adequacy of in-service training programs for teachers working in special education institutions according to the participants of the programs	Master degree
Çimen Acar	2000	The Opinions and suggestions of teachers who work with children with mental retardation about the problem behaviors in their classes	Master degree

An examination of Table 1 shows that a query with the keywords *special education* lists a total of 11 postgraduate studies between the years 1980-2000. All but one (1982) of these 11 studies were conducted after 1990. Also, it is striking that only two of them are doctorate studies, whereas nine are graduate studies. A more detailed look into the table shows that only six of these studies (Sema Tos, 1994; Ertuğrul Turan, 1998 and Cengiz Erdik, 1998) were focused on students. Another striking point is the fact that the phrase *disabled* was usually used when describing the students with special education needs.

**Table 2.** Search results with the keyword “inclusion”

Author	Year	Title	Degree
Ö.Ayşe Granit	1990	The role of arts and crafts activities in the language development of 3-6 year old hearing impaired children in the inclusive environment	Master degree
Mesude Atay	1995	The work on teachers attitudes towards inclusion	PhD
Özlem Demirtel	1997	Comparison of trainable mentally disabled students who attend mainstreaming and special education classes in terms of adaptive behavior characteristics and vocabulary levels	Master degree
Hülya Kayaoglu	1999	The Effect of informational program on attitudes of normal class teachers toward hearing impaired children in mainstreaming environment	Master degree
Abdullah Kavanoz	1999	Comparison of the adaptive behaviors of trainable mentally disabled people who attend special education classes and inclusive education	Master degree
Zeynep Tiraş	2000	The Comparasion of those students who are mentally retarded in educatable level in segregation and integration education in terms of adaptation and academic skills	Master degree
Ebru Deretarla	2000	Reading comprehension of normal hearing and hearing impaired children who attend 3rd class of primary school in mainstreaming	Master degree
Gürcan Özhan	2000	The Evaluation of the orientation services for elementary school aged hearing impaired children regarding to hearing impaired school and inclusion programs	Master degree

An examination of Table 2 shows that a query with the keyword *Inclusion* lists a total of 8 postgraduate studies conducted between 1980-2000. All of these 8 studies were conducted in 1990 and afterwards. However, only one of these studies was at the doctorate level, while the other seven were at postgraduate level. A more detailed examination of the table shows that 5 of these studies (Ö. Ayşe Granit, 1990; Özlem Demirtel, 1997; Abdullah Kavanoz, 1999; Zeynep Tuster, 2000 and Ebru Deretarla, 2000) were focused on the students. The remaining studies were on teacher attitudes or the programs being implemented. On the other hand, the term *disabled* was usually used to describe students with special education needs in most of the studies on inclusion.

## CONCLUSION

Special education and inclusive education have developed significantly in the world, particularly in the last century. Although a little late, this development was also seen in our country quite slowly during the 80s and rather faster until the 2000s. It can be said that academic studies, legal regulations being introduced, and postgraduate studies in higher education have contributed to a positive development in special education and inclusion practices towards the 2000s. However, despite all these positive developments, it can be said that the period between 1980-2000 fell way behind the goal with regards to inclusive education. For example, the number of academic and postgraduate studies conducted during this period are considered to be quite few. In addition, it has been determined that the basic principles and infrastructure of inclusive education were not fully clarified. Concepts used to describe individuals with special education needs were found to be offensive and staggering phrases that emphasized on these individuals' inabilitys. For example, special education branches listed during the 11th National Education Council included quite abrasive phrases such as blind, deaf, or retarded education. In conclusion, although encouraging developments with regards to special education and inclusive education were experienced in our country between 1980-2000, it can be said that this period was far from modern practices in terms of education of individuals with special needs.

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## EPISODE 15

### STRUCTURED GRID EXAMPLES IN GEOGRAPHY TEACHING

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#### INTRODUCTION

Considering the changes occurring as a result of the developments in the scientific field today, decision makers responsible for education policies, in particular, strive to make current decisions in accordance with the spirit of the period in the same way as in many periods of history (Şimşek, Küçük and Topkaya, 2012). In particular, it is expected that the student audience raised with the requirements of the living century will adapt and implement their educational policies in this way. In this context, it should be noted that educational institutions are the most effective places that educate the individual according to the conditions of the day in both cognitive and affective terms and enable them to become responsible citizens (Topkaya, 2016). Because of this, it is of great importance that the educational activities given in educational institutions are followed daily. It is known that during the course process, teachers carry many different materials into the course process and enrich their courses. In these materials, structured grids, which reveal misconceptions with concept cartoons (Tokcan and Topkaya, 2015), which especially serve to embody lessons, are materials that have an important place in educational activities.

Structured grid is an alternative measurement and evaluation technique that allows you to measure meaningful learning, revealing student misconceptions and deficiencies in the information network (Tokcan, 2015: 83). First Egan (1972), developed by this technique is more preferred in the fields of Medicine and engineering, although in recent years has been widely used in Educational Sciences (Maguire & Johnstone, 1987; stopped and Karakirik, 2005; Öztürk, 2011: 33). Structured grid numbers are a tool created by presenting information in a structure consisting of boxes, selecting the appropriate boxes by students, and answering a number of questions that require logical sorting of these selected boxes. The structured grid technique reduces the success of luck by structure (Johnstone et al., 2000).

The structured grid technique is a technique developed as an alternative to the negative aspects of multiple choice tests. The most obvious drawback of multiple choice tests is that the student is likely to answer correctly, even on a topic he or she does not know, due to the impact of the chance factor. By reducing the effect of the chance factor with the structured grid technique, it is attempted to make a distinction between the student who knows and the student who does not know. In addition, the 'All Or Nothing' rule applies to multiple choice questions, meaning that there is only one correct answer and a full score is obtained, the scoring for all options other than this is zero. Partial knowledge in structured grid technique is also evaluated and rewarded (Spring, 2001: 36).

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In addition, structured grids are a diagnostic tool for measuring meaningful learning, revealing deficiencies and inaccuracies in the student's cognitive structure (Spring et al., 2002). Applications of structured grids due to these features;

- \* Test the ability to stroke and classify concepts into Origin,
- \* Testing the ability to sort ideas,
- \* Expressed as testing the ability to draw conclusions at various levels (Talbi, 2003).

Karahan (2007), many uses of structured grid

It expresses that it is and explains them as testing classification and understanding content, testing sorting ability, testing inference of meaning at various levels. One of the most important features of structured grid technique to measure meaningful learning, the student's cognitive structure, wrong concepts, information deficiencies and flaws in the network that is used as a diagnostic tool to demonstrate (Spring and dig., 2002).

### **Preparation of Grid**

In this technique, a table of nine or twelve boxes is prepared, depending on age and level, and the boxes are numbered. In order to prepare the grid, the teacher asks a question about the subject and places the answer to this question in random boxes. He then prepares the second question and places his answer in the boxes again. Some of the boxes that represent the answer to the second question may also apply to the first question. In other words, the answer to the first question and one or more of the answers to the second question can be common. (For example, in the question of the products that Turkey exports the most and the products that it imports the most, automotive can be the answer to both the first and second questions). In addition, images, numbers, equations, definitions, or formulas can be placed in the grid boxes. In this case, the person who will evaluate the measurement using a structured grid will use these features in a wider area, a more objective measurement (Aydin, 2004; MEB, 2005; Halaci, 2012: 32-33; Öztürk, 2011: 44; Bahar veğ., 2002; Johnstone., 2000; Akman, 2016).

*Note:* According to the study of Johnstone and others (1983), the grid with 9 or 12 boxes is suitable for primary students, the grid with 16 boxes is suitable for primary second level and the box with 20 and above is suitable for high school students. At the same time, the number of boxes in the grid can be increased and decreased according to the trainer's request, depending on what is desired to be measured (Tokcan, 2015:83).

1	2	3
4	5	6
7	8	9

**Figure 1:** General Structure Of Structured Grid Technique

After the Grid is prepared, students are given different questions about the subject. Students,

- \* Find the appropriate boxes for the answer to each question,
- \* They are asked to arrange these box numbers in logical or functional order.

1 Küre mountains	2 Melendiz mountain	3 Nemrut mountain
4 Sivrihisar mountains	5 Bolkar mountains	6 Yıldız mountains
7 Süphan mountain	8 Tendürek mountain	9 Mercan mountains

**Figure 2:** Grit related to meandering and volcanic mountains in Turkey

Questions that can be asked in the grid in Figure 2. Which of them are located among the winding mountains in our country?

1b. List these mountains as Central Anatolia, Black Sea, Mediterranean, Marmara and eastern Anatolia regions. 2a. Which are among the volcanic mountains in our country?

2b. List these mountains as eastern Anatolia and Central Anatolia regions. A different scoring system is used for both steps.

In the first step, the following formula is applied at the stage of finding the appropriate boxes for the answer to each question.

$$\frac{C_1}{C_2} - \frac{C_3}{C_4}$$

C1 = number of boxes selected correctly by the student

C2 = total number of correct boxes

C3 = number of boxes selected incorrectly by the student

C4 = total number of incorrect boxes

According to this formula, students ' scores range from +1, 0, -1. To evaluate this

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score out of 10, it is first summed by +1 to eliminate the negativity, and the resulting score is multiplied by 5 (note: if the number of correct squares of the structured grid related to the question asked Is Too Much than the wrong squares, the evaluation with this formula may not be accurate. In such cases, holistic assessment should be followed.) In the second step, students are asked to put the numbers related to the question they choose in logical or functional order).

It is taken into account that the boxes sorted by students match their place in the correct ranking for each question. If the listed box is evaluated according to its location and consistency compared to other boxes in the appropriate ranking, the answer yes is given 1 point and the answer No is given 0 points (MEB, 2005; Eroglu, 2010:17, Sarigul, 2009:12).

Students ‘ response reveals incomplete or incorrect information about the subject, indicating failures in cognitive structure. In this technique, it is almost impossible for students to answer the question correctly without knowing the subject, that is, to guess. Both choosing the correct boxes and placing them in logical order requires knowing and understanding the subject very well (Spring, 2002; MEB, 2005).

#### Advantages Of Structured Grid

- \* In prepared questions, words, images, numbers, equations, definitions or formulas can be placed in the boxes.
- \* Changing the content of boxes allows you to think both visually and verbally.
- \* Both choosing the correct boxes and placing them in logical order requires knowing and understanding the subject very well.
- \* Incorrectly selected boxes reveal students ‘ missing or incorrect information about the subject, show failures in cognitive structure.
- \* In multiple-choice tests, there is an all-or-nothing rule, meaning that there is only one correct answer, the student marks it and gets a full score. For all options other than this, the scoring is zero. But in the structured grid technique, partial knowledge is also evaluated. The student gets points for each correct box he chooses. In this technique, unlike classical testing techniques, information that is not accurate is not included in the boxes, meaning that every information in the boxes is necessarily the answer to a question. If a box is not an answer to a question, it is necessarily an answer to one of the questions asked for boxes. For this reason, as in multiple choice tests, the strategy of finding the right answer by eliminating the wrong options is eliminated.
- \* Structured grid is a more reliable measurement tool than multiple choice tests, as students are less likely to answer correctly with the chance factor.
- \* Structured grid technique can be applied in a short time. Students they can use the technique to survey their knowledge levels at home or at school.
- \* The scoring is objective (transfer, Turkan, 2011: 61-62; Doğan, 2012:15-16).

## Limitations Of Structured Grid Technique

The preparation of this technique may initially be a little troublesome for teachers, but it can be used effectively by gaining practice over time (spring et al., 2006). A structured communication grid attracts students because it is a different form of exam, and although it is considered like a puzzle, if it is not evaluated in the lesson after the application is made, then students do not remember why they mark their mistakes in this way at that moment. For this reason, after application, it should be evaluated in the course and discussed on questions that cannot be done (Özatlı, 2006).

## Structured Grid Examples Suitable For Geography Education

The structured grid given in Figure 3 is related to coastal types. Use the numbers in the boxes to answer the questions you are asked below. You can use the same box as an answer to one or more questions.

1 Dalmaçya	2 Mercan	3 Fiyort
4 Enine	5 Haliç	6 Boyuna
7 Watt	8 Ria	9 Skayer

**Figure 3:** Structured Grid of coastal types

1. Which are the coastal types in Turkey?

Correct answer: 1-4-6-8

2. Which are the coastal types that are not included? Correct answer: 2-3-5-7-9

The boxes to be selected for the first question are 1-4-6-8. Let's assume that the student has selected options 1-4-5-6-8, i.e. 4 correct 1 incorrect boxes. In this case, the student's score according to the formula

$$\frac{C_1}{C_2} - \frac{C_3}{C_4}$$

C1= Number of boxes selected correctly by the student

C2= Total number of correct boxes

C3= Number of boxes selected incorrectly by the student

C4 =Total number of incorrect boxes

$$4/4-1/5= 1-0.2=0.8$$

$$0.8+1=1.80$$

$$1.80 \times 5= 9 \text{ The student gets 9 out of 10.}$$

1 Egypt	2 Indonesia	3 Formun Üstü Formun Altı South Africa	4 Ethiopian
5 India	6 Japan	7 Formun Üstü Formun Altı Democratic Congo	8 Bangladesh
9 Tanzania	10 Pakistan	11 Nigeria	12 China

**Figure 4:** Structured Grid of Asian and African countries

1a. Which countries are located on the African continent?

Correct answer: 1-3-4-7-9-11

1b. List the countries located on the African continent by population number.

Correct answer: 11-4-1-7-9-3

2a. Which countries are located on the Asian continent?

Correct answer: 2-5-6-8-10-12

2b. List the countries of the Asian continent by their population.

Correct answer: 12-5-2-10-8-6

The boxes to be selected for the first question are 1-3-4-7-9-11.

Let's assume that the student has selected options 2-3-7-8-9-11, i.e. 4 correct 2 incorrect boxes.

$$\frac{C_1}{C_2} - \frac{C_3}{C_4}$$

In this case, the student's score according to the formula

C1 = number of boxes selected correctly by the student

C2 = total number of correct boxes

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C3 = number of boxes selected incorrectly by the student

C4 = total number of incorrect boxes

$$4/6 - 2/6 = 0.6 - 0.3 = 0.3$$

$$0.3 + 1 = 1.3$$

$$1.3 \times 5 = 6.5$$

2-3-7-8-9-11

In question 1b, students are asked to place the boxes they choose in logical order. The correct ranking for the question is 11-4-1-7-9-3.

The following scoring system is used in this process. Does Country

1-11 precede country 4? If the answer is yes, are they side by side? Does it precede country 1 in

2-4? If the answer is yes, are they side by side? Does the country in

3-1 precede 7? If the answer is yes, are they side by side? Does the country in

4-7 precede 9? If the answer is yes, are they side by side? Does the country at

5-9 precede 3? If the answer is yes, are they side by side?

Here, each "yes" answer earns 1 point, and each "no" answer earns 0 points. For example, let a student's answer order be 11-7-2-9-3-8. In this case the student

1-Yes-No

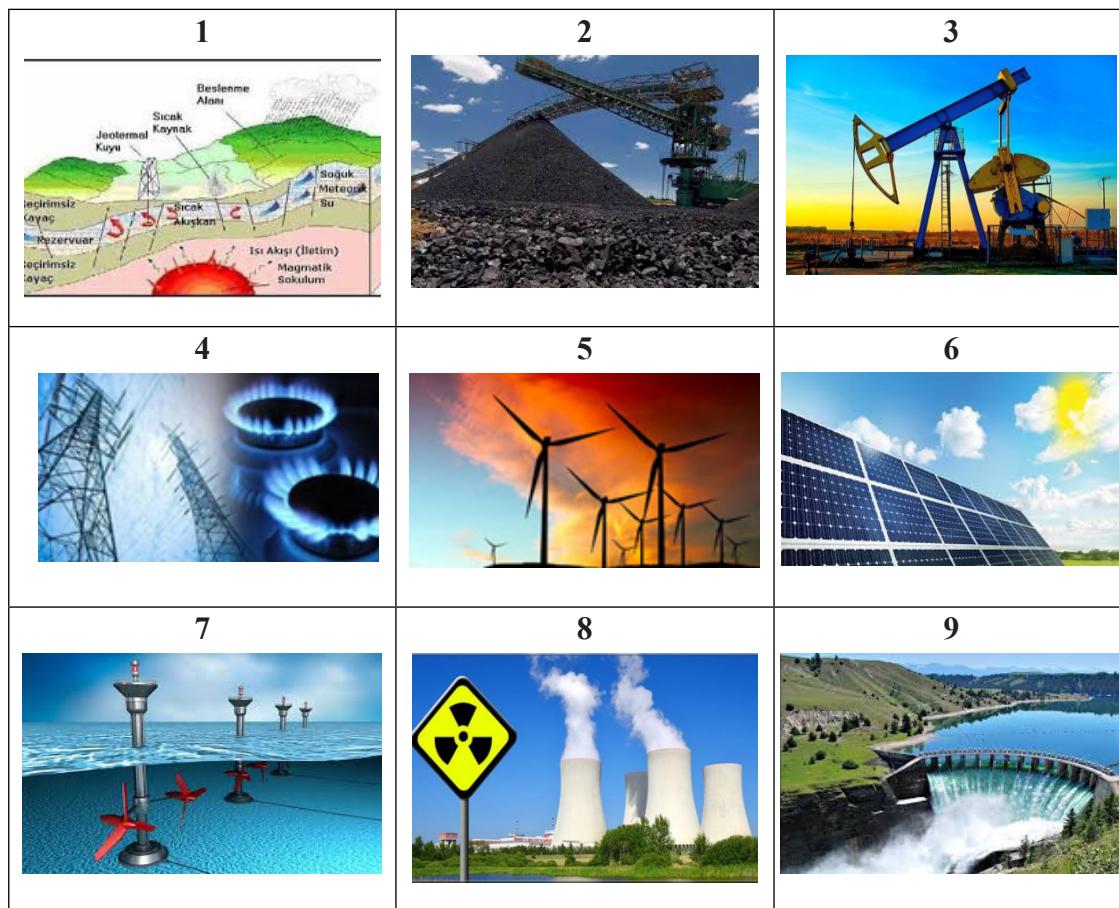
2-No-No

3-No-No

4-Yes-No

5-Yes-Yes

In this case, the student can be considered to have received 4 points out of 10 Questions.



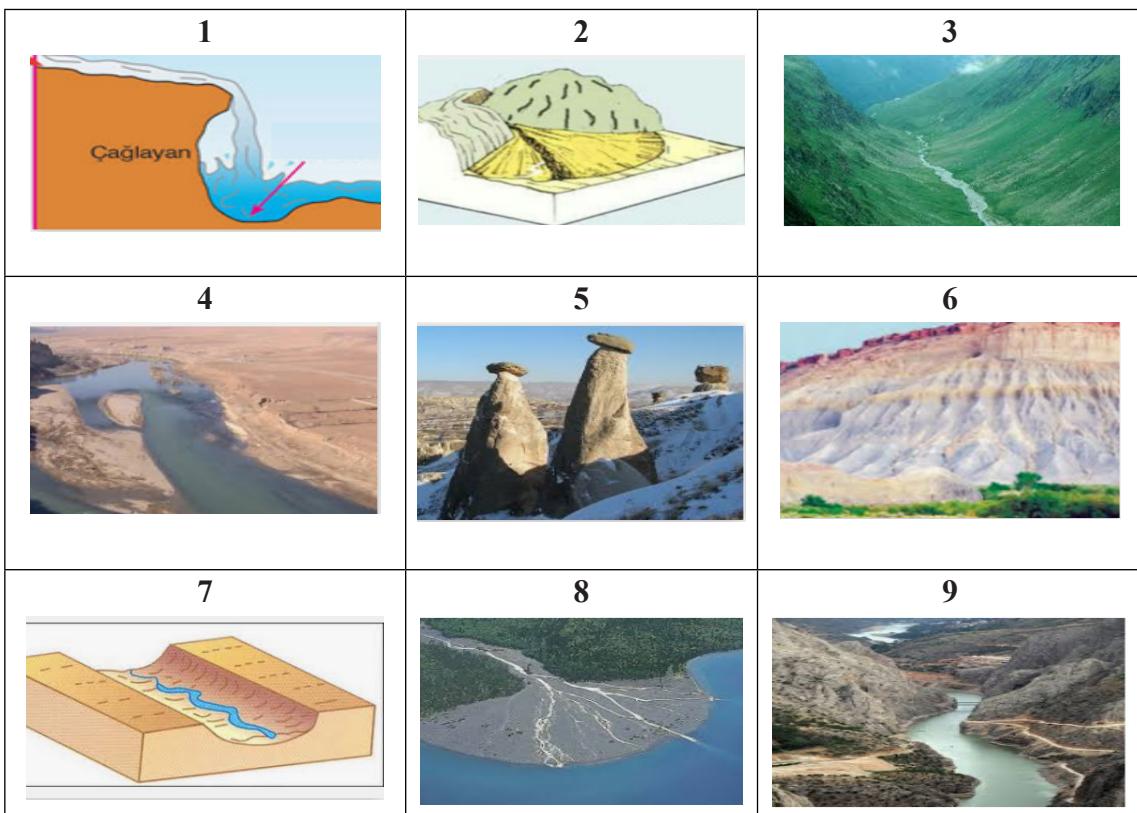
**Figure 5:** Structured Grid of energy sources

1. Which are renewable energy sources?

Correct answer: 1-5-6-7-9

2.Which are non-renewable energy sources?

Correct answer: 2-3-4-8



**Figure 6:** Structured Grid of stream wear and accumulation forms

Which are the forms of stream wear?

Correct answer: 1-3-5-6-7-9

Which are the forms of stream accumulation?

Correct answer: 2-4-8

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**EDUCATIONAL  
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