

MULTIDISCIPLINARY PERSPECTIVES IN EDUCATIONAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCES II

EDITOR

Prof. Dr. Mustafa KAHYAOĞLU

AUTHORS

Azize Gizem FINDIKLI

Adnan SEMENDEROĞLU

Ahmet Galip YÜCEL

Ahmet DURMAZ

Barış ÇİFTÇİ

Bekir Alperen KELEŞ

Duygu İŞPINAR AKÇAYOĞLU

Fatma Feyza GÜNDÜZ

Kürşat ARSLAN

Maja PUCELJ

Mehmet DEMİRHAN

Münir ŞAHİN

Özlem KAF

Sarvenaz SAFAVI

Şengül CANGÜR

Veysel YILMAZ



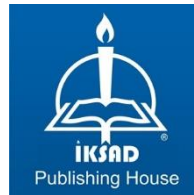
MULTIDISCIPLINARY PERSPECTIVES IN EDUCATIONAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCES II

EDITOR

Prof. Dr. Mustafa KAHYAOĞLU

AUTHORS

Azize Gizem FINDIKLI
Adnan SEMENDEROĞLU
Ahmet Galip YÜCEL
Ahmet DURMAZ
Barış ÇİFTÇİ
Bekir Alperen KELEŞ
Duygu İŞPINAR AKÇAYOĞLU
Fatma Feyza GÜNDÜZ
Kürşat ARSLAN
Maja PUCELJ
Mehmet DEMİRHAN
Münir ŞAHİN
Özlem KAF
Sarvenaz SAFAVI
Şengül CANGÜR
Veysel YILMAZ



Copyright © 2022 by iksad publishing house
All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced,
distributed or transmitted in any form or by
any means, including photocopying, recording or other electronic or
mechanical methods, without the prior written permission of the publisher,
except in the case of
brief quotations embodied in critical reviews and certain other
noncommercial uses permitted by copyright law. Institution of Economic
Development and Social
Researches Publications®
(The Licence Number of Publisher: 2014/31220)
TURKEY TR: +90 342 606 06 75
USA: +1 631 685 0 853
E mail: iksadyayinevi@gmail.com
www.iksadyayinevi.com

It is responsibility of the author to abide by the publishing ethics rules.
Iksad Publications – 2022©

ISBN: 978-625-8405-64-4
Cover Design: İbrahim KAYA
March / 2022
Ankara / Turkey
Size = 16x24 cm

CONTENTS

PREFACE

Prof. Dr. Mustafa KAHYAOĞLU.....1

CHAPTER 1

DETERMINATION OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' FAST-FOOD BRAND PREFERENCES WITH MARKOV CHAINS

Azize Gizem FINDIKLI ,Asst. Prof. Fatma Feyza GÜNDÜZ.....3

CHAPTER 2

REMOVAL OF CREATIVE THINKING SKILLS FROM THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

Ahmet Galip YÜCEL , Ahmet DURMAZ ,Barış ÇİFTÇİ33

CHAPTER 3

EXAMINATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER CANDIDATES' EXPERIENCES AND OPINIONS DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC PROCESS

Bekir Alperen KELEŞ, Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ahmet DURMAZ47

CHAPTER 4

A GOOD FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNER: VIEWS OF GIFTED AND NON-GIFTED STUDENTS

Asst. Prof. Duygu İŞPINAR AKÇAYOĞLU71

CHAPTER 5

DEVELOPMENT AND APPLICATION OF S-GALL: AN ONLINE EXAMINATION SYSTEM FOR HIGHER EDUCATION IN TURKEY

Assist. Prof. Kürşat ARSLAN , Assoc. Prof Adnan SEMENDEROĞLU
.....95

CHAPTER 6

IMPORTANCE OF EDUCATING ON THE FUTURE CHALLENGES OF HUMAN RIGHTS IN THE EUROPEAN CONTEXT

Assist. Prof. Dr. Maja PUCELJ.....115

CHAPTER 7

A REVIEW OF THE STUDIES ON THE PRIMARY SCHOOL (GRADES 1-4) PHYSICAL EDUCATION COURSE CURRICULUM IN TERMS OF VARIOUS VARIABLES

Teacher Mehmet DEMİRHAN , Assoc. Dr. Özlem KAF.....157

CHAPTER 8

THE IMPORTANCE OF TEAM LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION

Asst. Prof. Münir ŞAHİN177

CHAPTER 9

THE FORMATION OF SIGNS

Assist. Prof. Dr. Sarvenaz SAFAVI209

CHAPTER 10

MULTICULTURALISM, INTERCULTURAL RELATIONS, AND TOLERANCE LEVELS OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS AND THE EFFECT ON THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARDS SYRIAN REFUGEES

Prof. Dr. Veysel YILMAZ , Assoc. Prof. Dr. Şengül CANGÜR.....217

PREFACE

The subject areas of Education and Social Sciences are a very important concept that affects both the present and the future, which individuals cannot and cannot ignore, on the one hand, on countries and societies, on the other. For this reason, it is seen that there has been an increase in studies in the field of educational sciences in Turkey as well as in the whole world. Research and evaluations continue to increase the quality of education and training at all levels of education, from pre-school to primary education, from secondary education to higher education. In this context, this book has been prepared with the contributions of 17 different academicians who work at 8 different universities, who look at the subject area of social and educational sciences from different perspectives and can open the mind of the reader. The book consists of 10 chapters.

In the first part, fast food eating preferences of university students are presented. In the second part, the place of innovative thinking and creative thinking skills is examined. In the third part, the views of pre-service teachers about their experiences and experiences during the Covid-19 pandemic process are presented. In the fourth chapter, foreign language learning skills of gifted and normal students are compared. In the fifth chapter, it is recommended to apply an online exam system that can be applied in higher education institutions in Turkey. In the sixth chapter, the importance of education on human rights and the difficulties encountered in Europe are presented to the reader. In the seventh chapter, the physical education curriculum applied in primary school was examined in terms of various variables. In the eighth chapter, a compilation is presented on the importance of team leadership in education. The ninth chapter presents a very interesting subject about the formation of signs. In the tenth chapter, university students' multiculturalism, intercultural relations and tolerance levels and attitudes towards Syrian immigrants were examined.

We would like to thank all the teachers and academics who contributed to the creation of this book. We would also like to thank the IKSAD publishing, which played a major role in the publication of the book.

Prof. Dr. Mustafa KAHYAOĞLU

Mart 2022

CHAPTER 1
DETERMINATION OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS’
FAST-FOOD BRAND PREFERENCES
WITH MARKOV CHAINS¹

Azize Gizem FINDIKLI²
Asst. Prof. Fatma Feyza GÜNDÜZ³

¹ This study is derived from the master’s thesis titled “Estimation of Fast-Food Brand Preferences With Markov Chains” completed by Azize Gizem FINDIKLI at Adana Alparslan Türkeş Science and Technology University Graduate Education Institute.

This study was presented at the Çukurova 4th International Scientific Researches Conference and was published as a summary text.

² Adana Alparslan Türkeş Science and Technology University, Faculty of Business, International Trade and Finance, Adana, Turkey. gizemmyuksekbas@gmail.com, 0000-0003-3394-5273

³ Adana Alparslan Türkeş Science and Technology University, Faculty of Business, International Trade and Finance, Adana, Turkey. ffgunduz@atu.edu.tr, 0000-0001-7603-6817

INTRODUCTION

Today, one of the sectors where competition is increasing around the world is the food sector (Kahraman and Dađlı, 2019). There are many factors that affect the choice of brand in food products. The first five of these elements are listed as packaging features, taste and consistency, brand image and availability, quality and economy (Akpınar and Yurdakul, 2008).

Based upon the increasing competition in recent years, the situation of reaching consumers, determining the preferences of consumers, making innovations based on their wishes and obtaining satisfaction from the service has become increasingly difficult (Çınar,2007). As preferring food products, consumers put the brand in the first place, the quality in the second place, the price in the third place, and the product packaging in the fourth place. The result of this finding shows that the brand is the significant factor for the consumers. Realizing this situation, fast food brands can increase the pleasure of their consumers with different strategies they will implement (menu, price, campaign difference, etc.) and provide the opportunity to attract the attention of potential consumers. When consumers hear or see the name of these brands, they are expected to have an idea, a thought about the brand. For this reason, consumers try to evaluate the brand in their minds regarding the products and services they receive and think to have an opinion about that brand (Kahraman and Dađlı, 2019).

For university students in the young population, many factors such as living away from families, lack of interest in cooking, time constraints, curiosity, desire to try different tastes, rewarding themselves and the desire to socialize, push students to adopt the habit of eating outside . Based on this situation, fast food establishments have become places preferred by students. Factors such as decor, atmosphere, staff attitude, food quality, location, service speed, variety in the menu, and the availability of special products play an important role in young people preferences about choosing fast food establishments (Yazıcıođlu et al., 2013).

1. FAST-FOOD

Fast food is defined as food that does not exceed a few minutes to prepare and present to the customer, is cheap, its packaging is generally disposable, is likely to deteriorate if not consumed for a long time, can be taken home in packs, the price is usually not very high, usually eaten by hand, and occasionally has plastic cutlery (Bulduk, 2005).

The history of fast food goes back to the 18th century. In the 1780s, Fish & Chips (fish and chips), the traditional fast food product of England, started to be sold on the streets of Northern England for the first time (Akdağ 2015). The joint sale of fish and chips in Lancashire is known as the first applications of the fast food system (Erbay, 2007). Fast food service examples were first seen in America in the 1800s. In the 1870s, restaurants were places where people with good economic conditions could go, they were quite expensive for ordinary workers, on the other hand, sandwiches, tarts and beverages were sold at affordable prices to workers in the UK in the form of a carriage (Kaya 2011). The hamburger, which is the most popular fast food today, is a fried steak in bread eaten by the local community living in the Baltic regions, and mostly by the Tatars (Tayfun and Uygur, 2008). In 1920, fast food businesses serving the car called "drive-in" were established (Tengiz,2018). However, its popularity increased in 1940, the first McDonald's restaurant was opened in the same year and it was established as a business that served cars in accordance with the conditions of the time. In 1948, McDonald's brothers started serving with paper cups and napkins in order to cope with the increasing competition. They also limited their menu to burgers, cheeseburgers, french fries, drinks and desserts

(<https://www.mcdonalds.com.tr> ,2021)

The areas that emerged in the 20th century, where there is no living area and where meals are consumed on the stalls, have survived to the present day. With the establishment of McDonald's company in 1950, eating outside the home quickly became popular. In the 1960s, self-service practice became common in fuel stations. In the 1970s, people were used to using the self-service event in grocery stores and fuel stations. This fast and inexpensive consumption has reduced personnel costs in enterprises (Bingöl, 2005, Acar, 2016).

McDonald's is the first restaurant opened in the fast food system, and Burger King and Kentucky Fried Chicken (KFC) businesses with billions of dollars annual sales have also started to work in this system in the following years. The menu consisting of hamburgers, french fries and cola are well-known foods in the fast food system. The most preferred fast food restaurants by consumers are restaurants that offer foods such as hamburger, pizza, pita, doner, lahmacun (Özçelik and Sürücüoğlu, 1998).

Burger King opened its first restaurant in Miami in 1954. The first restaurant opened in Puerto Rico in 1963 was the first restaurant opened outside the United States. The fast food sector started to spread rapidly in the USA in the 1960s and 1970s. In this period, the number of drive-in restaurants increased with the increase in the use of cars in America (Kaya, 2011). The main brands that have increased on the roadsides in these years are Burger King, Wendy's, Kentucky Fried Chicken (KFC), Arby's and Pizza Hut. In the 1980s, when Domino's Pizza started take-out service, pizza became a well-known food. Between 1985-1988, Domino's Pizza increased its earnings %100 (Jacobson and Fritschner, 1991). The increase in the young population in the society and the change of traditional habits have also reflected in the food sector. Similar to the change in food consumption habits around the world, the first Mc Donald's restaurant opened in İstanbul Taksim Square has been experienced in our country since 1986 (Özdiñç, 2004).

Following McDonald's entry into the market, most of the American foreign-funded fast food and food and beverage businesses, such as Burger King and Kentucky Fried Chicken, and the majority of domestic businesses concentrated their activities in big cities such as Istanbul, Ankara and Izmir (Yurtman 2001). Later, such places were opened in many places such as school campuses, museums, dormitories, airports, amusement parks and zoos, and the number of these enterprises has increased day by day (Özleyen 2005).

With the influence of the westernization movement in the 1980-1990s, changes in Turkish food culture began, as an alternative to pita, hamburger, pizza, etc. Consumption of food and soda instead of ayran has become widespread in Turkey (Orkun, 2009). In this study, the recent preferred fast food brands and the next brand preferences of university students were estimated by the Markov chain method, and the reasons for their preferences were examined with the Hidden Markov Model.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Studies have been conducted in the literature on the fast food consumption habits of university students, their fast food preferences and elements affecting the reasons for fast food preferences (Özdiñç, 2004; Unur and Kaya, 2010; Sayılı and Gözener, 2013; Sürücüođlu and Çakırođlu, 2000; Korkmaz, 2005), but there is no study on the prediction of the next fast food brand preferences. Studies on fast-food with different methods in the literature and studies on markov chains and hidden markov chains are given below.

Knutson (2000), in his study involving Michigan State University students, investigated the way students perceive fast food restaurant brands and the factors that affect their fast food consumption point preferences. This study revealed that thanks to its favourite hamburger Whopper, Burger King was perceived by students as a brand with a bigger and tastier hamburger, and the most important factor affecting students' fast food consumption point preferences was hygiene by 69%.

Sürücüođlu and Çakırođlu (2000) conducted a research on the fast food choices of Ankara University students in their study. The research was conducted on a total of 886 students to determine the preference of western style and traditional fast ready foods of undergraduate students at Ankara University. When the frequency of students going to fast food establishments was investigated, it was determined that students mostly preferred traditional style establishments. Sormaz et al. (2005) emphasized in their studies that factors such as food quality, service speed, decor, easy accessibility, atmosphere, menu variety and special products have an important place in choosing fast food establishments. According to the preference score averages of the students' reasons for preferring fast food, they stated that male students consume fast food types because they like their tastes more, the service is fast and satisfying. It was stated that female students preferred fast food types mostly because they were very tasty, satisfying and close to their schools..

Kaya (2011) conducted a research on the reasons of fast food consumption for the customers of the businesses belonging to local, national and international fast food chains in Mersin city center. According to the data obtained from the study results, customers consume fast food because they are hungry while out, enjoy the taste, easily reach and get hungry while shopping. Kayıřođlu and İçöz (2012) included the effect of education level on fast food

consumption habits in their study. In the study, a questionnaire was applied to 900 people including Tekirdağ central secondary schools (high schools) and Namık Kemal University students to determine their fast-food consumption habits. 55.1% of high school students stated that they consume because they find it delicious, while 57.7% of college students, 46.2% of vocational school students and 52.8% of faculty students consume because they are prepared quickly.

Veuphuteh (2018) examined the fast-food food quality perceptions, health awareness and price sensitivity of consumers who prefer fast-food restaurants and investigated the effects of these variables on purchasing thought. In the study, an online questionnaire was applied to 291 university students in Ankara and Toronto and the data were tested in this way. As a result of the study, the university in Canada students' price sensitivity towards fast-food products from the Turkish sample proved to be more. Asal (2020) examined the brand value perception of university students on a fast food brand. According to the results of the research, the general brand value perception of university students is at a "medium" level. Brand value perceptions of students showed statistically significant variation according to monthly family income and gender variables.

Following the studies on fast food, the studies on the Markov chain method and the Hidden Markov Model used to determine the preferences of consumers and the reasons for these preferences are briefly summarized below.

Alp and Çetin (2016) included the analysis of mobile phone brand preferences with Markov chains in their studies. The data of the study were obtained by conducting a survey for 503 people. In line with the results obtained from the surveys, brand loyalty, in other words, the possibility of users to re-choose the same brand mobile phone, respectively, Iphone (86.6%), Sony (53.6%), Samsung (46.8%), LG (33.30%), HTC (26.2%), Turkcell (20.0%), Nokia (14.9%) and General Mobile (14.3%).

Dönmez and Alp (2019) carried out an application about brand preferences and reasons for preference in the sportswear industry by using the Hidden Markov Model. The data used in the study were obtained through questionnaires made to Yıldız Technical University (YTU) students. As a result of the study, the percentages of preference of sportswear brands were

found, and it was stated that the most important reason for preference was "Design and Fabric". Gündüz and Kırал (2020) examined the factors affecting voter preferences using the Hidden Markov Model in their study. As a result of the study, the most important reasons affecting the preferences of the voters studying at the university; It has been determined that the projects and promises presented by the party, the image and charisma of the party leader, the political tendencies of family and close friends, the strong and reliable of the party staff. Ercan (2020) examined the sports shoe brand preferences of young people with the Markov chain method in her study. It was seen that the highest brand loyalty for sports shoes belonged to the Nike brand, the probability of choosing the same brand was 36.11% for Adidas, 18.18% for Reebok, 33.33% for Skechers, 14.29% for Puma, New Balance for 11.11%.

3. MATERIAL AND METHOD

In the study, a survey form was prepared as a result of a detailed literature review and observations about fast food brand preferences. Due to the Covid 19 outbreak that coincided with the period when the survey was conducted, the survey could not be conducted face to face. Therefore, the survey was conducted with CATI (Computer Assisted Telephone Interviewing System). 455 university students live in Turkey answered the survey, and analyzes were made with the data obtained from the survey.

With the data obtained from the surveys, the next fast food brand preferences of university students were estimated by the Markov chain analysis method, and the reasons for their preference were examined by the Hidden Markov Model method.

3.1. Markov Chains

The basis of the Markov chain method is based on the 20th century A.A.Markov's mathematical explanation of the structure and behavior of gas molecules in a closed box (Öz, 2009).The concept of Markov analysis refers to a method used to predict the future behavior of the system, taking into account the current behavior of the system (Daşdemir and Güngör, 2002; Büyükatlı et al. 2013). In addition, Markov chains have the ability to predict the long-term situation of the system as well as predicting the situation the system will be in at a certain time (Aytemiz and Şengönül, 2004). For the

Markov process, the system does not need to know what the previous states were, except for the previous case. The transition from one state to another depends only on the previous state of the system, not on the previous states. This feature is called the Markovian feature. In a system with a Markovian property, transition from one state to another is expressed by conditional probabilities that depend only on the previous state (Alp and Öz, 2009).

3.1.1. Mathematical Structure of Markov Chains

The first correct mathematical structure of the Markov process was established by N. Wiener in 1923, and the general theory of the Markov processes was developed in the 1930s and 1940s (Alp and Öz, 2009). The most important element of Markov chains is the list of all possible situations in which the system can be found over time (Ching, Fung and Ng, 2002).

S, to show state-space;

$$P (X_{t+1} = j | X_t = i) = p_{ij} , \quad i, j \in S \tag{1}$$

This possibility is independent from t. According to this formula, the probability that the process in state i at time t is in state j at time t +1 is denoted by P_{ij} . For Markov chain, P_{ij} s expresses possibilities of transition. Matrix that P_{ij} transition possibilities created is denoted by $P = [P_{ij}]$ and it is described as matrix of the transition possibilities of Markov chain.

P_{ij} possibilities are called single step transition probabilities. The transition probability matrix shows the conditional probability of being in a state in the future from a given state (Winston, 1991; Chung and Walsh, 2005). The following equations are valid for the transition probabilities:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq P_{ij} \leq 1, \quad i, j \geq 0 \\ \sum_{j=0}^n P_{ij} = 1, \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

In order to explain the Markov chain better, it is necessary to define the probabilities of events in the initial state q_i ‘ or, in other words, $P(X_0 = i) = q_i$.

Briefly, Markov chains are used for Markov analysis. The changes of the situations in the problem are linked by these chains. Each chain is expressed in a separate matrix and these resulting matrices are called

stochastic matrices or transition matrices.

$Q=[q_1,q_2,\dots,q_n]$ is the initial probability distribution vector for the Markov chain.

When the state space is finite in the form of $S = \{0,1,2,\dots, n\}$, the transition probability matrix for the Markov chain is written as follows:

$$P=[P_{ij}]=\begin{bmatrix} P_{11} & P_{12} & P_{13} & \dots & P_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & \vdots \\ P_{n1} & & \dots & & P_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$

The formula used to calculate the elements of the transition probabilities matrix is given below (Kiral, 2018).

$$P_{ij} = n_{ij} / \sum n_{ij} \quad (4)$$

3.2. Hidden Markov Model

Firstly, the theoretical infrastructure of the Hidden Markov Model was mentioned in the studies of Baum and Petrie (1966), Baum and Eagon (1967), Petrie (1969) and Baum (1972), and Rabiner (1989), speech recognition, Bing and Ding (2000), character recognition, Ryden, Terasvirta and Asbrink (1998) found application areas in economics, molecular biology, biochemistry, tissue analysis and various subjects including stock profit changes (Fuh, 2003).

A Hidden Markov Model is expressed as follows:

- Situations are denoted by N . Generally, the situations are linked in themselves from one situation to another. $S = \{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_N\}$ is situations cluster ve q_1 is the situation at time t .
- The number of observations for each situation is indicated by M . Observations are a dashed cluster. Observation cluster is shown by

$$V = \{V_1, V_1, \dots, V_M\}$$

Observations depend on the state the system is in at the time of observation. Therefore, it is independent from the previous observation. (Schliep vd., 2004).

- Distribution of state transition probability is $A = \{a_{ij}\}$. $1 \leq i, j \leq N$ için a_{ij} numbers are non-negative numbers and A is a matrix in dimension of $N \times N$, the sum of the values in each row of the

matrix equals to 1 separately. State transition probabilities shown in this direction do not change over time and these possibilities are independent from observations. (Bhar and Hamori, 2004).

- Distribution of observation probability is $B = \{b_j(k)\}$. This statement gives the probability of v_k observation when it is in the state j at time t . For $1 \leq j \leq N$, $1 \leq k \leq M$, $b_j(k)$ s express non-negative numbers. B is a matrix in dimension of $N \times M$ and the sum of the values in each row equals to 1 separately.
- Distribution of initial state is denoted as $\pi = \{\pi_i\}$. The probability that the system is in S_i state at the time of startup is as follows (Bicego and Murino, 2004).

$$\pi_i = P [q_1 = S_i], 1 \leq i \leq N \quad (5)$$

For suitable values of N , M , A , B and π , by using Hidden Markov Model, $O = O_1 O_2 \dots O_T$ observation series are created. T as the number of observations, each O_T observation becomes one of the observations $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_M\}$ (Rabiner, 1989).

In order to use the Hidden Markov Model in the application areas, three problems expressed as "Three Basic Problems of the Hidden Markov Model" in the literature need to be solved.

3.2.1. Three Basic Problems of the Hidden Markov Model

The probability of occurrence of any observation or observation series in the future in the Hidden Markov Model is considered as the "First Problem" of the Hidden Markov Model, if the prediction of the hidden state or hidden state sequence underlying any observation or observation sequence is the "Second Problem" of the Hidden Markov Model, and finally, any observation or observation series. Re-determining the model parameters to maximize the probability of occurrence of the sequence sequence is called the "Third Problem" of the Hidden Markov Model. The contents of these problems are briefly given below:

Problem 1 and Solution

For $\lambda = (A, B, \pi)$ parameters given in a Hidden Markov Model and $O = O_1 O_2 \dots O_T$ sequence of observation, $P(O|\lambda)$ shows how to calculate the probability of the observation sequence effectively. This problem is called an

evaluation problem. It is a situation related to how the probability of generating the observation series by the model for the given model and the sequences of observations is calculated. In addition, this problem can be seen as the problem of how much a given model matches a given observation sequence. (Öz, 2009).

Forward/Backward Direction Algorithm

For the solution of the first problem, forward and backward direction algorithms are used. $P(O|\lambda)$ probabilities calculated by both algorithms give the same result. The Forward-Direction Algorithm calculates the probabilities of the observed situations from beginning to end according to a given model. The Backward direction algorithm calculates the same probabilities by running the model in the opposite direction. Forward-Direction algorithm handles observations in a chain sequence one after the other. After handling the observations at time t , it computes the distribution of conditional states repeatedly.

Forward-direction variable is defined as

$$a_i = P(O_1 O_2 \dots O_t, q_t = S_i | \lambda)$$

and it is expressed as the probability of the partial observation sequence $O_1 O_2 \dots O_t$ of the system in S_i state at a time t . The Forward-Direction algorithm consists of 3 steps. These steps can be given as follows:

- The algorithm is started by calculating the probability of occurrence of O_1 observation for all cases at the start time.

$$a_1(i) = P(O_1 q_1 = S_i | \lambda) = P(O_1 | q_1 = S_i, \lambda) P(q_1 = S_i | \lambda) \tag{6}$$

$$a_1(i) = \pi_i b_i(O_1), t=1, i=1, \dots, N \tag{7}$$

- The transition from all D_i states to D_j at time $t+1$ at any time t is calculated with variable $a_{t+1}(j)$

$$a_{t+1}(j) = [\sum_{i=1}^N a_t(i) a_{ij}] b_j(O_{t+1}), t = 1, \dots, T-1, j=1, \dots, N \tag{8}$$

- $P(O|\lambda)$ probability taken in the last step is given as the sum of forward direction variables.

$$P(O|\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^N P(O, q_t = S_i | \lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^N a_t(i) \tag{9}$$

The Back-Direction algorithm is a second way to solve the evaluation problem. It starts by defining the Back-Direction probability variable $\beta_t(i)$ as follows:

$$\beta_T(i) = P([O_{i+1}, O_{i+2}, \dots, O_T | S_i, \lambda] \quad i=1, \dots, T \quad S_i \in S \quad (10)$$

- At the start, for all i values, $\beta_T(i)$ values are accepted as 1.

$$\beta_T(i) \quad i = 1, \dots, N$$

- Recursion:

$$\beta_T(i) = \sum_{j=1}^N a_{ij} b_j(O_{t+1}) \quad i = 1, \dots, N \quad t = T-1, T-2, \dots, 1 \quad (11)$$

Problem 2 and Solution

For the given observation sequence $O = O_1 O_2 \dots O_T$ and model λ , it is how to determine state sequence $Q = q_1 q_2 \dots q_T$ that explains these observations in the most correct way. The second problem is that the hidden state of the model is revealed, in other words, the correct state sequence is found. State sequences are determined depending on the number of situations in the model. The second problem is to determine the most suitable of these sequences. Viterbi Algorithm is used to solve this problem. In the Viterbi Algorithm, which is a dynamic programming application, there is the optimal transition probability sequence in the state diagram for a given observation sequence. (Lou, 1995).

Viterbi Algorithm

Viterbi algorithm is also defined as the parsing problem. This algorithm aims to reveal the optimum sequence of states that occur under the observed symbols. This algorithm is used to find the best case sequence that will maximize the $P * \text{probability}$. The operation steps of the Viterbi algorithm are given below:

To find the best hidden state sequence $Q = \{q_1 q_2 \dots q_t\}$ of observation sequence

$$O = \{O_1 O_2 \dots O_t\}$$

$$\delta_t(i) = \max_{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_{t-1}} P[q_1 q_2 \dots q_t = i, O_1 O_2 \dots O_t | \lambda] \quad (12)$$

expression is defined. $\delta_t(i)$ shows the highest probability of the process that is in S_i state at time t along the path followed until time t . The expression $\delta_{t+1}(j)$ is obtained by applying the induction method to the variable $\delta_t(i)$.

$$\delta_{t+1}(j) = \max_i [\delta_t(i) a_{ij}] b_j(O_{t+1}) \quad (13)$$

To access the real state array, the argument that maximizes the

expression $\delta_{t+1}(j)$ needs to be followed. This process is shown by $\psi_t(j)$

- Start:

$$\delta_1(i) = \pi_i b_i(O_1), \quad 1 \leq i \leq N \quad (14)$$

$$\psi_1(i) = 0 \quad (15)$$

- Recursion:

$$\delta_t(j) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq N} [\delta_t(i) a_{ij}] b_j(O_t), \quad 2 \leq t \leq T, \quad 1 \leq j \leq N \quad (16)$$

$$\psi_t(j) = \underset{1 \leq i \leq N}{\operatorname{argmax}} [\delta_{t-1}(i) a_{ij}], \quad 2 \leq t \leq T, \quad 1 \leq j \leq N \quad (17)$$

- Termination:

$$P^* = \max_{1 \leq i \leq N} [\delta_T(i)] \quad (18)$$

$$q_t^* = \underset{1 \leq i \leq N}{\operatorname{argmax}} [\delta_t(i)] \quad (19)$$

- Path (State Sequence) backtracking :

$$q_t^* = \psi_{t+1}(q_{t+1}^*), \quad t = T-1, T-2, \dots, 1 \quad (20)$$

Problem 3 and Solution

It is how to change the model parameters $\lambda = (A, B, \pi)$ to maximize probability of $P(O|\lambda)$. This problem optimizes model parameters to best describe how a given set of observations is obtained. Since the observation series is used to re-determine model parameters, this process is called "Training". In the literature, this problem is generally included as "Training Problem". Basically, Baum-Welch Algorithm, which is an iterative process, is used to estimate the parameters (A, B, π) of the Hidden Markov Model during the training phase (Karlsson, 2004).

Baum-Welch Algorithm

For the Baum-Welch algorithm, the term forward / backward direction algorithm is also used. For the model λ and for any sequence of observations, at time t in case S_i and $t+1$ instant S_j the probability of being in the state is represented by the variable $\xi_t(i, j)$.

$$\xi_t(i, j) = P(q_t = S_i, q_{t+1} = S_j | O, \lambda) \quad (21)$$

Using the definitions of forward-backward direction variables, $\xi_t(i, j)$ can be written as:

$$\xi_t(i, j) = \frac{a_t(i) a_{ij} b_j(O_{t+1}) \beta_{t+1}(j)}{P(O|\lambda)} \quad (22)$$

For a given set of observations and models S at time t probability of being when denoted by $\gamma_t(i)$ the following relation between $\gamma_t(i)$ and $\xi_t(i, j)$ can be written:

$$\gamma_t(i) = \sum_{j=1}^N \xi_t(i, j) \tag{23}$$

The equations expressed above are used to re-estimate Hidden Markov Model parameters. The new parameters are indicated by (A, B, π) . The equations used for the estimation of the (A, B, π) parameters are given below:

$$\bar{\pi}_t = \gamma_1(i), \bar{a}_{ij} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \gamma_t(i, j)}{\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \gamma_t(i)}, \bar{b}_j(k) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T \gamma_t(j)}{\sum_{t=1}^T \gamma_t(j)} \tag{24}$$

4. APPLICATION ON FAST-FOOD BRAND PREFERENCES

In the study, with the data obtained from the surveys, the next fast food brand preferences of university students were estimated by the Markov chain analysis, and the reasons for their preference were examined by the Hidden Markov model. Furthermore, after the brand preferences were estimated, the transition probability matrix was created and the brand loyalty of university students was calculated by calculating the long-term equilibrium vectors. Below, in the survey conducted with 455 university students, the fast food brands visited by the students are given in a table. If these students have not visited any of the fast food brands in the survey before, this situation was determined as none.

Table 4.1: Fast Food Brands

Item No	Fast Food Brands	Item No	Fast Food Brands
1	None	6	Sbarro
2	Burger King	7	Dominos
3	Popeyes	8	Arby's
4	Mc Donald's	9	Pizza Hut
5	KFC	10	Subway

The order numbers of the fast food brands in the survey are shown in Table 4.1.

4.1. Determining the Next Fast Food Brand Preferences Using the Markov Chain Method

Table 4.2: The Transition Matrix

		Next Fast Food Brand to Be Preferred										
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
The Last Preferred Fast Food Brand	1	21	5	1	3	4	0	2	0	1	0	1
	2	5	103	11	6	11	4	16	4	0	1	4
	3	1	3	19	4	5	0	4	0	0	2	0
	4	2	10	3	37	6	0	5	0	0	1	1
	5	2	7	1	2	28	0	1	2	1	0	0
	6	2	0	0	1	1	3	1	0	1	1	0
	7	1	11	2	2	4	0	15	0	0	2	3
	8	2	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
	9	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	0	1
	10	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
	11	3	2	3	5	8	2	1	0	0	0	11

In Table 4.2., the Markov transition matrix was created with the help of the data obtained from the questionnaire. The numbers showing the rows in generated the transition matrix are the fast food brands in Table 4.1. and show the previous fast food brand preferences. The point where any column and row intersect gives the number of passes from the previous preferred fast food brand to the next fast food brand that is considered to be preferred.

Table 4.3: Transition Probability Matrix

		Next Fast Food Brand to Be Preferred										
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
The Last Preferred Fast Food Brand	1	0,5526	0,1315	0,0263	0,0789	0,1052	0	0,0526	0	0,0263	0	0,0263
	2	0,0303	0,6242	0,0666	0,0363	0,0666	0,0242	0,0969	0,0242	0	0,0060	0,0242
	3	0,0263	0,0789	0,5	0,1052	0,1315	0	0,1052	0	0	0,0526	0
	4	0,0307	0,1538	0,0461	0,5692	0,0923	0	0,0769	0	0	0,0153	0,0153
	5	0,0454	0,1590	0,0227	0,0454	0,6363	0	0,0227	0,0454	0,0227	0	0
	6	0,2	0	0	0,1	0,1	0,3	0,1	0	0,1	0,1	0
	7	0,025	0,275	0,05	0,05	0,1	0	0,375	0	0	0,05	0,075
	8	0,3333	0,1666	0,1666	0,1666	0	0	0	0,1666	0	0	0
	9	0,125	0,25	0	0	0	0	0,125	0	0,375	0	0,125
	10	0,3333	0	0	0,3333	0	0	0	0,1666	0	0,1666	0
	11	0,0857	0,0571	0,0857	0,1428	0,2285	0,0571	0,0285	0	0	0	0,3142

In Table 4.3., there is the Markov transition probabilities matrix, which is determined in the Markov transition matrix (Table 4.2.) and is formed by considering the number of transitions from any fast food brand to another fast food brand. Markov transition probabilities matrix given in Table 4.3. shows the next preference rates of each fast food brand by university students. The diagonal elements of the Markov transition probability matrix shows the university students' loyalty to fast food brands, that is, the situation where the previous preferred fast food brand and the next preferred fast food brand are the same. Looking at the transition probability matrix in Table 4.3., the probability of university students choosing the same brand in their next fast food brand preferences, in other words, their loyalty to the brand, respectively, 63% KFC, 62% Burger King, 56% McDonalds, 55% None, 50% Popeyes, 37% Dominos, 37% Pizza Hut, 31% Other, 30% Sbarro, 16% It was seen that it was in the form of Arby's at the rate of 16% and Subway at the rate of 16%.

Table 4.4: Initial Probability Vector

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0,0835	0,3626	0,0835	0,1428	0,0967	0,0219	0,0879	0,0131	0,0175	0,0131	0,0769

Table 4.4. shows the initial probability vector. The stationary values in the analysis part of the study are obtained by multiplying the initial probability vector in Table 4.4. with the Markov transition probability matrix consecutively until the stationarity is reached. The multiplication process continues until stationarity is reached in the initial probability vector. In this study, it was observed that the initial probability vector was fixed at the end of 13 periods.

Table 4.5: Equilibrium (Fixed) Vector

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0,1048	0,2894	0,0880	0,1329	0,1986	0,0125	0,0982	0,0227	0,0136	0,0175	0,0304

Table 4.5., shows the Equilibrium (Fixed) Vector. When looking at

the Equilibrium (Fixed) Vector, it is seen that the most preferred brand is Burger King with 28%, and according to the top three preferences, Popeyes and Mc Donalds follow the Burger King brand, respectively. It is seen that the rate of not selecting any brand is 10%.

4.2. Determining the Reasons for Fast Food Brand Preference of University Students by Using the Hidden Markov Model

Table 4.6: Data on Survey Participants

Variables	Groups	Percent	Variables	Groups	Percent
Range of Age	10-20	% 33.8	Amount Spent on Monthly Fast Food Consumption (Outside of Home)	≤100TL	% 17.3
	21-30	% 46.6		101-500TL	% 55.6
	31-40	% 12.7		501-1000TL	% 17.6
	41-51	% 6.4		1001-2000TL	% 6.3
	Other	% 0.5		2001-6000TL	% 1.1
			Other	% 1.99	
Education Level	Associate	%6.8	Amount Spent on Monthly Fast Food Consumption	0-500 TL	% 87
	Undergraduate	%63.3		501-1000TL	% 8.4
	Postgraduate	%29.5		1001-3000TL	% 1.6
	Other	% 0.4		Other	% 3
Gender	Women	% 59.5			
	Men	% 40.5			

Information on the university students who participated in our study is given in Table 4.6.

To the 455 students participating in the survey; "Which fast food brand did you preference from last time?", "What is the most important reason why you preferred the fast food brand you went to last time? What was the most important reason for you to choose your last preferred fast-food brand?", "Which brand do you want to preference for your next fast food preference?" What is the most important reason for you to prefer? "questions were asked, and according to the answers obtained, the transition probability matrix and emission matrix were created.

Table 4.7: The Reasons Why Fast Food Brands Are Preferred by University Students

Symbol	Reason For Fast Food Brand To Be Preferred	Symbol	Reason For Fast Food Brand To Be Preferred
D1	Hygiene	D6	Atmosphere \ Decor
D2	Price	D7	Food Quality
D3	Campaigns	D8	Location/Accessibility
D4	Menu Contents	D9	Service Speed
D5	Used Ingredients	D10	Staff Attitude

Transition probability matrix was established by using the previous and next preference reasons for fast food brand preference reasons. Brand preference reasons are shown in Table 4.7. shows Hidden Markov Model states.

Table 4.8. : Transition Number Matrix

	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6	D7	D8	D9	D10	D11
D1	19	0	3	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	0
D2	2	25	7	3	0	2	1	0	0	0	0
D3	4	9	16	5	2	0	9	1	0	0	0
D4	7	8	9	73	12	0	9	2	3	0	0
D5	1	0	0	2	13	0	6	0	0	0	0
D6	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0
D7	9	4	1	5	2	0	94	0	1	1	0
D8	3	3	3	7	5	1	7	17	0	0	0
D9	2	0	0	2	0	0	7	1	4	1	1
D10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0
D11	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9

The transition number matrix was created in Table 4.8. with the data obtained from the survey. The cell where the row intersects with any column in Table 4.8. shows the number of passes. These cells were created with the data showing the reason for choosing the fast food brand, which is considered to be the next preferred fast food brand.

Table 4.9 : Transition Probability Matrix

	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6	D7	D8	D9	D10	D11
D1	0,730	0,000	0,115	0,076	0,000	0,000	0,076	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
D2	0,050	0,625	0,175	0,075	0,000	0,05	0,025	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
D3	0,086	0,195	0,347	0,108	0,043	0,000	0,195	0,021	0,000	0,000	0,000
D4	0,056	0,065	0,073	0,593	0,097	0,000	0,073	0,016	0,024	0,000	0,000
D5	0,045	0,000	0,000	0,090	0,590	0,000	0,272	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
D6	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	1,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
D7	0,076	0,034	0,008	0,042	0,017	0,000	0,803	0,000	0,008	0,008	0,000
D8	0,065	0,065	0,065	0,152	0,108	0,021	0,152	0,369	0,000	0,000	0,000
D9	0,111	0,000	0,000	0,111	0,000	0,000	0,388	0,055	0,222	0,055	0,055
D10	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,333	0,000	0,666	0,000
D11	0,100	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,900

Transition probability matrix was created by proportioning each cell in the pass number matrix to the sum of the row in which it is located, and it is shown in Table 4.9. In the transition probability matrix, each element on the diagonal shows the dependency ratio on the factor that influences the fast food brand selection. So; a university student who prefers a fast food brand will choose another fast food brand with a rate of 73% due to "Hygiene (D1)", and will choose again due to hygiene in the next fast food brand preference, 62% for the next fast food brand preference due to "Price (D2)". Because of the "Campaigns (D3)", 34% will choose the next fast food brand because of the campaigns, and 59% will choose again due to the menu contents in the next fast food brand preference due to the "Menu Contents (D4)". will make a choice because of the "Materials Used (D5)", 59% will choose the next fast food brand because of the reused materials, and due to the "Atmosphere/Decor (D6)", the next fast food brand will be chosen again at a rate of 100% will choose because of the décor, due to "food quality (D7)", 80% will choose again due to food quality in the next fast food brand preference, and 36% will choose again due to location / accessibility in the next fast food brand preference due to "Location / Accessibility (D8)" due to the "Speed of Service (D9)", 22% will choose the next fast food brand again due to the speed of service, and 66% will choose again due to the attitude of the staff in the next fast food brand preference due to the "Attitude of Staff (D10)".

Table 4.10: Emission Matrix

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11
D1	1	6	1	5	6	1	4	1	1	0	0
D2	5	17	3	4	3	1	3	0	0	2	2
D3	2	17	4	6	5	1	4	1	2	3	1
D4	10	49	16	15	14	2	12	2	0	2	1
D5	4	6	1	2	4	0	2	2	1	0	0
D6	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
D7	12	26	11	17	25	3	13	2	2	1	5
D8	5	15	3	7	2	1	8	0	0	0	5
D9	1	3	0	4	6	0	0	0	0	0	4
D10	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
D11	0	2	2	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	2

The emission matrix was created by taking into account which fast food brand the university students participated in the survey last bought and the reasons for choosing this brand, and it is shown in Table 4.10. V_is in table

4.10. shows fast food brands in table 4.1. When the emission matrix is examined, the distribution of the reasons for preference according to the fast food brands can be easily reached. For example; 49 students chose the Burger King (V2) brand for “Menu Contents (D4)” and 25 students chose the KFC (V5) brand for “Food Quality (D7)”.

Table 4.11: Emission Probability Matrix

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11
D1	0,038	0,230	0,038	0,192	0,230	0,038	0,153	0,038	0,038	0,000	0,00
D2	0,125	0,425	0,075	0,1	0,075	0,025	0,075	0,000	0,000	0,05	0,05
D3	0,043	0,369	0,086	0,130	0,108	0,021	0,087	0,022	0,043	0,065	0,022
D4	0,081	0,398	0,130	0,121	0,113	0,016	0,097	0,016	0,000	0,016	0,00
D5	0,181	0,272	0,045	0,090	0,181	0,000	0,090	0,090	0,045	0,000	0,000
D6	0,25	0,75	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
D7	0,102	0,222	0,094	0,145	0,213	0,025	0,111	0,017	0,017	0,008	0,042
D8	0,108	0,326	0,065	0,152	0,043	0,021	0,173	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,108
D9	0,055	0,166	0,000	0,222	0,333	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,222
D10	0,333	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,333	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,333

The emission probability matrix is obtained by dividing each number in the emission matrix by the sum of its rows. The matrix obtained is shown in Table 4.11.

Table 4.12: Probability of Fast Food Brands Being Preferred and Hidden States

	Observation	Probability (%)	Hidden State
None	V1	4.73	D1
Burger King	V2	25.9	D1
Popeyes	V3	5.54	D1
Mc Donald’s	V4	17.61	D1
KFC	V5	20.64	D1
Sbarro	V6	3.38	D1
Dominos	V7	13.85	D1
Arby’s	V8	3.32	D1
Pizza Hut	V9	3.44	D1
Subway	V10	0.94	D3
Other	V11	0.64	D7

The underlying reasons for university students' preferences were analyzed using the transition probability matrix and Emission matrices.

Matlab program was used for this analysis. Analysis results are shown in Table 4.12. Looking at the results in Table 4.12., it is seen that the probability of preference for the Burger King brand is the highest with 25.9%. It is seen that the probability of choosing none option is 4.73%.Burger King, which is the most preferred, is 17.61% McDonalds in 20.64% KFC, 13.85% Dominos, 5.54% Popeyes, 3.44% Pizza Hut, 3.38% Sbarro, 3.32% Arby's, 0.94% Subway and Other brands follow with a rate of 0.64%. It is seen that the reasons for preference are hygiene (D1) for None, Burger King, Popeyes, McDonald's, KFC, Sbarro, Dominos, Arby's and Pizza Hut, campaigns for Subway (D3), and food quality (D7) for other brands.

Table 4.13: Hidden States Underlying Transition Between Fast Food Brands

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11
V1	D1										
V2		D1									
V3			D1								
V4				D1							
V5					D1						
V6						D1					
V7							D1				
V8								D1			
V9									D1		
V10										D3	
V11											D7

The matrix showing the hidden situations underlying university students' preference for the fast food brands they will prefer next is given in Table 4.13. For the second problem of the Hidden Markov Model, using the Viterbi Algorithm, the underlying reason for the preference possibilities of fast food brands, namely the hidden situations, was determined. Accordingly, it can be said that the underlying reason for choosing the Burger King brand with the highest probability of preference is "Hygiene (D1)". It can be said that the hygiene situation, which is the hidden reason for the preference of the Burger King brand, is the underlying reason for the preference of brands such as Popeyes, KFC, McDonalds, Dominos, Pizza Hut, Sbarro and Arby's. Looking at Table 4.12., it is seen that the underlying reason for choosing the Subway brand is "Campaigns (D3)" and the underlying reason for other brand preferences is "Food Quality (D7)".

5. CONCLUSION

There are many reasons that encourage university students to eat out. Examples of some of these include living away from their families, indifferent and reluctant behaviors towards cooking, lack of time, curiosity, the desire to try different flavors, the desire to reward themselves and socialize. The food preferences of the students outside have been fast foods. Therefore, a choice has been made among the businesses where these foods are preferred. There are many factors such as staff attitude, atmosphere/ decor, food quality, easy accessibility, service speed, variety in the menu, and the availability of special products in university students' preference of fast food establishments.

By using the products, the brand creates the opportunity to know which products the consumer is satisfied with. The brand name informs the consumer about its quality (Odabaşı, 1995). Many consumers are more likely to prefer a product from a brand they know and trust, rather than trying a new brand product. Most of the time they don't take the risk of opting for an anonymous brand. The consumer can be persuaded to pay more than the price they can pay for the brand they trust (De Chernatony and McDonald, 1992).

In this study, the reasons for choosing fast food brands were examined with the Hidden Markov Model, and it was seen that the reason for choosing the brands included in the study was hygiene with the highest rate. Similarly, Knutson (2000) revealed in his study that the most important factor affecting students' fast food consumption point preferences is hygiene with a rate of 69%. Hygiene comes first for people all over the world, as the process in which this study was conducted was the period of the Covid 19 global epidemic and the beginning of the pandemic. Considering the data obtained from the study, it is seen that the hygiene status is the most important factor in the choices of individuals. It was seen that the reason for choosing other brands was food quality. Similarly, Akdağ (2015) in his study in which he investigated the determination of fast food consumption status and habits of high school students, concluded that food quality is the primary reason for students to prefer food restaurants. Ivkov et al. (2015) stated in their study that students give importance to the food quality factor when they prefer fast food. Kingır et al. (2015), in a study conducted to determine the reasons for university students to prefer fast food, stated that despite their low income level, students give importance to quality before price.

It has been concluded that the reasons for preference of all fast food brands in the future after the Burger King brand, KFC, McDonald's, Dominos, Popeyes, Pizza Hut, Sbarro, Arby's will be preferred for hygiene reasons. In addition, it is also seen that the fact that no brand is chosen is due to the hygiene option with a high probability. In addition, it has been seen that the campaigns for the reason Subway brand is preferred and the food quality is effective for the preference of other brands. It is also possible that the reason for choosing a brand will be chosen for the same reason in the future. For example, the choice of a brand due to hygiene (D1 = 73%) indicates that that brand may be selected for the same reason in the future.

In the study, a university student who prefers a fast food brand, "Hygiene (D1)" in 73%, "Price (D2)" 62%, "Campaigns (D3)" 34%, "Menu Contents (D4)" 59% due to "Materials used (D5)", 100% due to "Atmosphere/Decor (D6)", 80% due to "Food quality (D7)", "Location/Accessibility (D8)" It was concluded that 36% could choose the next fast food brand again for the same reasons, with a rate of 36% due to "Speed of Service (D9)", 66% due to "Staff Attitude (D10)" and 90% for other reasons. In line with these results, it can be said that which of the factors affecting fast food brand preferences is more important for university students. For example; It is seen that food quality (D7) is very important for university students. Students will want to go to their preferred fast food brand again because of the quality of the food. To give another example, university students highly prefer these brands for other reasons and they will prefer the same brand for other reasons in their next preference.

In this study, it is seen that the most important reasons for preference are hygiene, followed by campaigns and food quality. It was concluded that more importance was given to the reason for choosing hygiene, especially during the pandemic period when the data of the study were collected. Therefore, if brands want to continue to be preferred, they should continue to give due importance to the issue of hygiene. From another point of view, in addition to the importance that businesses give to hygiene in order to make themselves stand out, they also give importance to price, campaigns, menu contents, materials used, atmosphere/decor, food quality, location/accessibility, service speed, staff attitude and other reasons. may be suggested that they should be given. Thus, brands will be preferred for many

different reasons, not just for one reason, and they will be able to increase their share in the market and gain more profit by consolidating their position.

REFERENCES

- Acar, A., (2016). Yerli Ve Yabancı Fastfood Ürünlerinin Gençlerin Tercih Nedenlerinin Belirlenmesi Üzerine Bir Alan Çalışması: Muğla Sıtkı Koçman Üniversitesi Örneği. Sosyal Ve Beşeri Bilimler Araştırmaları Dergisi, 17(38), 3- 5.
- Akdağ, H.N., (2015). Determination of Fast Food Consumption Status and Habits of High School Students, Okan University Health Sciences Institute, Department of Nutrition and Dietetics, Master's Thesis.
- Akpınar, M. G., & Yurdakul, O., (2008). Factors Effecting Brand Preferences for Food Products. Journal of Akdeniz University Faculty of Agriculture, 21 (1), 1-6 .
- Alp, S., & Öz, E. (2009). “Markov Zinciri Yöntemi İle Taşınabilir Bilgisayar Tercihlerinin Analizi”, Akademik İncelemeler Dergisi, 4(2), 37-54.
- Alp, S., & Çetin, N., (2016). Analysis of Mobile Phone Brand Preferences by Using Markov Chain, Erzincan University Journal of Science and Technology, 9 (3) , 126-138 .
- Asal, A. , (2020). Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Marka Değeri Algılarının İncelenmesi: Bir Fast Food Markası Örneği, Hasan Kalyoncu Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Yüksek Lisans Tezi.
- Aytemiz, T., & Şengönül, A., (2004). “Markov Zincirlerinin Ekonomik Bir Probleme Uygulanması: Perakende Alışverişlerde Bireysel Olarak Kullanılan Madeni Para Stratejilerinin Karşılaştırmalı Analizi” Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, 6(4), 29- 43.
- Baum, L. E. (1972). An inequality and associated maximization technique in statistical estimation for probabilistic functions of Markov processes. Inequalities, 3(1), 1-8.
- Baum, L. E., & Eagon, J. A. (1967). An inequality with applications to statistical estimation for probabilistic functions of Markov processes and to a model for ecology. Bulletin of the American Mathematical Society, 73(3), 360-363.
- Baum, L. E., & Petrie, T. (1966). Statistical inference for probabilistic functions of finite state Markov Chains. The Annals of Mathematical Statistics, 37(6), 1554-1563.

- Bhar, R., & Hamori, S., (2004). *Hidden Markov Models Applications To Financial Economics*. Kluwer Academic Publishers, The Netherlands.
- Bicego, M., & Murino, V., (2004). Investigating Hidden Markov Models' Capabilities In 2D Shape Classification. *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, 26(2), 281-286.
- Bingöl, R., (2005). *Restoran İşletmeciliği*, Timaş Yayınları, İstanbul.
- Bulduk, S., (2018). *Beslenme İlkeleri ve Menü Planlama*. Güncellenmiş 4.Baskı. Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık.
- Büyüktatlı, F., İşbilir, S., & Çetin, E., (2013). An Estimation Application According to Annual Allowances with Markov Analysis, *International Journal of Alanya Faculty of Business*, 5(1), 1-8.
- Ching, W. K., Fung, E. S., & Ng, M. K. (2002). A Multivariate Markov Chain Model for Categorical Data Sequences and Its Applications in Demand Predictions. *IMA Journal of Management Mathematics*, 13(3), 187-199.
- Chung, K. L., & Walsh, J. B., (2005). *Markov Processes, Brownian Motion, and Time Symmetry*, (249). Springer Science & Business Media.
- Çınar, T., (2007). Application Focused on The Customer Service and Customer Satisfaction in Firms and The Definition of Customer Satisfaction in Different Banks and Regions. Adnan Menderes University, Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Business Administration, Master's thesis.
- Daşdemir, İ., & Güngör, E., (2002). Multivariate Decision-Making Methods and Their Using Areas in Forestry. *Zonguldak Karaelmas University Journal of Bartın Faculty of Forestry*, 4(4), 1-19.
- De Chernatony, L., & McDonald, M.H.B., (1992). *Creating Powerful Brands*, Butterworth.
- Dönmez, İ., & Alp, S., (2019). Application of Hidden Markov Model for Brand Preferences and Reasons of Preferences in Sportswear Sector. *Pamukkale University Journal of Engineering Sciences*, 25(1), 115-120.
- Marmara University Proposal Journal, 12(46), 277-294.
- Erbay, A., (2007). *Popüler Kültür ve Beslenme Biçimleri Örnek Olay: Döner Kebap*, Ankara Üniversitesi, Yüksek Lisans Tezi.
- Ercan, Ö., (2020). Determination of Sports Shoes Preferences of Young People with

- Markov Chains Modeling, R&S - Research Studies Anatolia Journal, 3(2), 131-141.
- Feng, B., & Ding, X. Q. (2000, August). Off-line handwritten Chinese character recognition with hidden Markov models. In WCC 2000-ICSP 2000. 2000 5th International Conference on Signal Processing Proceedings. 16th World Computer Congress 2000 (Vol. 3, pp. 1542-1545). IEEE.
- Fuh, Cheng-Der., (2003). SPRT and Cusum in Hidden Markov Models. The Annals of Statistics, 31(3).
- Gündüz, S.,& Kıral, S, (2020). Determination of Factors Affecting Voter Preferences Using The Hidden Markov Model. Çukurova University Journal of Social Sciences Institute, 29 (3) , 414-428 .
- Ivkov, M., Blesic, I., Rajlic, J. P., Dzigurski, A. I., Pivac, T., & Jovanovic, T., (2015). Visitors Motives For Attending A Hybrid Event: A Case Study of Agricultural Fair. Ekonomika Poljoprivrede, 62(1), 9.
- Jacobson, M.F.,& Fritschner, S., (1991). The Completely Revised and Updated Fast-Food Guide. New York: Workman Publishing.
- Kahraman, M., & Dağlı, S., (2019). Comparative Analysis Of Relations Brand Perception, Customer Satisfaction And Brand Preferences According To X And Y Generation, Master Thesis, Bahçeşehir University Institute of Social Sciences.
- Karlsson, M., (2004). Hidden Markov Models. http://www.math.chalmers.se/~olleh/Markov_Karlsson.pdf (Erişim Tarihi: 15.10.2021).
- Kaya, D., (2011). Reasons Of Consuming Fast Food Inlocal, National And International Chain of Fast Food Business in The City Center of Mersin, Mersin University Institute of Social Sciences, Master's Thesis.
- Kayıoğlu, S., & İçöz, A., (2012). The Effect of Education Level on Fast-Food Consumption. Journal of Tekirdag Agricultural Faculty, 9(2), 17.
- Kingır, S., Karakaş, A., Şengün, H., & Çenberlitaş. İ., (2015). Determining The Reasons of University Students' Fast Food Preferences: Dicle University Case. Journal of Travel and Hospitality Management, 12(3), 102-119.
- Kıral, E. (2018). Determination of Mobile Phone Operator Preferences Markov Analysis: An Application of Adana Province. Journal of Çukurova

- University Institute of Social Sciences, 27(1), 35-47.
- Knutson, B.J., (2000). College Students and Fast Food , Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, (June), 68-74.
- Korkmaz, S., (2005). The Influence Of The Competitive Strategies On Fast-Food Sector: The Analysis Of The Preferences Of The University Students, Journal of Commerce and Tourism Education Faculty, (2), 25-39.
- Kotler, P., & Armstrong, G., (2004). Principles of Marketing, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Lou, H. L. (1995). Implementing the Viterbi algorithm. IEEE Signal processing magazine, 12(5), 42-52.
- Odabaşı, Y., (1995). Pazarlama İletişimi, Anadolu Üniversitesi İşletme Fakültesi, Yayın No:1, Eskişehir.
- Orkun, N. D., (2009). Küreselleşmenin Değiştirdiği Yemek Kültürü: İstanbul Beyoğlu: 2002-2009, Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Marmara Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.
- Öz, E., (2009). Saklı Markov Modelleri ve Finansal Bir Uygulama, Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi, Marmara Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, İstanbul.
- Özçelik, A. Ö., & Sürücüoğlu, M. S., (1998). Fast Food Preferences of The Consumers', Food , 23 (6), 437-447 .
- Özleyen, G., (2005). Fast Food İşletmelerde Tüketici Davranışı Analizi. Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi, Yüksek Lisans Tezi.
- Rabiner, L.R., (1989). A Tutorial on Hidden Markov Models and Selected Applications in Speech Recognition, Proc. IEEE, 77(2), 257-286.
- Rydén, T., Teräsvirta, T., & Åsbrink, S. (1998). Stylized facts of daily return series and the hidden Markov model. Journal of applied econometrics, 13(3), 217-244.
- Sayılı, M., & Gözener, B., (2013). Evaluation of the Fast-Food Consumption Habits of Students at Gaziosmanpasa University, Çankırı Karatekin University, Journal of Social Sciences Institute, 4(2), 11-28.
- Schliep, A., Georgi, B., Rungsrarityotin, W., Costa, I., & Schonhuth, A., (2004). The General Hidden Markov Model Library: Analyzing Systems with Unobservable States, Proceedings of The Heinz-Billing-Price, 121-135.

- Sormaz, Ü., Sürücüoğlu, M., & Akan, L., (2005). Beslenme Kültüründeki Eğilim: Fast Food Yemek Tercihleri, Ankara Üniversitesi Ev Ekonomisi Yüksekokulu, Beslenme Bilimleri Bölümü, Ankara.
- Sürücüoğlu, M. S., & Çakıroğlu, F. P., (2000). The Research on Fast Food Preferences of University Students of Ankara, Journal of Agricultural Sciences, 6(3), 116-121.
- Tayfun, A., & Uygur, S. M., (2008). A Research Over The Factors That Affect The Students Chosing Of Fast Food Restaurants, Gazi University, Faculty of Commerce and Tourism Education, Third Sector Cooperatives, 43(1), 120-131.
- Tengiz, Z., (2018). Evaluation of University Students' Attitudes and Behaviors Towards Fast Food Consumption, Tekirdağ Namık Kemal University, Graduate School of Science and Technology, Master's Thesis.
- Unur, K., & Kaya, D., (2010). The Characteristics of Fast Food Consumers and Factors Affecting Their Preferences: A Case of Mersin, Çağ University Journal of Social Sciences, 7 (2) , 105-122.
- Veuphuteh, F.M., (2018). The Effect Of Food Quality, Health Consciousness And Price Sensitivity On Fast-Food Purchase Intention: A Comparative Study Between Consumers In Turkey And Canada, Hacettepe University Institute of Social Sciences, Master Thesis.
- Winston, W.L., (1991). Operations Research Applications and Algorithms, Duxbury Press, California.
- Yazıcıoğlu, İ., Işın, A., & Koç, B., (2013). The Reasons of University Students' Preference to Fast Food Products, Journal of Tourism and Gastronomy Studies, 1(1), 36-41.
- Yurtman, A., (2001). Fast Food Sektör Profil Araştırması, *İstanbul Ticaret Odası Yayınları*.
- <https://www.mcdonalds.com.tr> (Accessed Dec 10, 2021)

CHAPTER 2
REMOVAL OF CREATIVE THINKING SKILLS
FROM THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM*

Ahmet Galip YÜCEL¹, Ahmet DURMAZ²,

Barış ÇİFTÇİ³

¹ Nevşehir Hacı Bektaş Veli University, Education Faculty, Social Studies Education, Nevşehir, Turkey, ahmetyucel@nevsehir.edu.tr, ORCID: 0000-0001-9435-7315

² Nevşehir Hacı Bektaş Veli University, Education Faculty, Social Studies Education, Nevşehir, Turkey, ahmetdurmaz@nevsehir.edu.tr, ORCID: 0000-0002-9744-2547

³ Nevşehir Hacı Bektaş Veli University, Education Faculty, Social Studies Education, Nevşehir, Turkey, barisciftci@nevsehir.edu.tr, ORCID: 0000-0002-3688-0359

* Presented at the 7. International Academic Researches Congress (Online), 24-26 January 2022

INTRODUCTION

Education, which was imagined as the transfer of knowledge and culture in the past, today focuses on skills that enable to find, analyze, evaluate and produce new knowledge. In this context, higher order cognitive skills have become the basic needs of contemporary individuals and societies. Creative thinking is one of them. Keleşoğlu (2017) states that developing creative solutions to problems is more important than having more knowledge. Contemporary societies need creative thinking in order to reveal thoughts and projects that will allow them to continue their progress, and they can transform themselves in a positive way thanks to creative thinking (Leggett, 2017). Evidence of this situation can be seen in all areas of life. For example, academic studies conducted in the business world today show that creative thinking is among the most wanted skills in employees (Cnntürk, 2018). Powerful and large companies rely on creative thinking to continue their development and get a high level of productivity from their staff. This situation left the states with the necessity of developing and preparing their education programs by considering creative thinking. Although creative thinking is a skill that has its roots in human beings since the moment they come to life, it needs practice like any other skills. According to San (2001) creativity is a skill that can be improved as well as blunted (as cited in Aksoy, 2017). For this reason, it is possible to expect creative thinking skills to be observed in individuals by designing educational processes suitable for this skill.

Creative thinking is a common skill in almost all 21 Century skills approaches (as cited in Voogt & Roblin, 2010, Karataş, Akçayır & Gün, 2016). With the contributions of Guilford in the 1950s, creativity was defined as a cognitive skill, included in the scope of intellectual thinking, and began to be seen as a concept that attracted the attention of psychologists and educators (Ülger, 2014). Creative thinking is not just about school or being a student. According to Ülger (2014), there has been a greater need for creative thinking, which also affects daily life, due to the necessity of adapting to the changing living conditions and developing technology today. According to Sternberg and Lubart (1996), creativity is the ability to produce useful products that are original or unexpected and meet expectations. On the other hand, Cropley (2001) defines creative thinking as identifying unconventional relationships

and revealing previously unconsidered solutions. Almost all definitions of creative thinking include developing unique and unprecedented approaches to a situation, issue or problem. While explaining creative thinking, Senemoğlu (2009) emphasized the originality, flexibility and being far from mediocrity of the concept. For this reason, it can be said that creative thinking is one of the basic skills that individuals need today. Because today's social life is changing at a speed that has never been seen in any period of history. Scientific and technological developments change people's lives, and changing living conditions and social life leave people alone with problems they have not encountered before. Problems that have not been experienced before require unique and new approaches. The main way to provide individuals with defense tools in this regard is to gain higher order cognitive skills, including creative thinking.

Keleşoğlu (2017) thinks that human beings owe their current level of development to creative thinking. Creative thinking contributes to individuals and societies in many dimensions. According to Sönmez (2016), creative thinking brings cognitive capacity closer to its upper limits. Creative thinking is the way to adapt and survive in a world whose conditions, requirements and rules are changing rapidly day by day (Tok & Sevinç, 2012). In this way, individuals make a high-level contribution to the societies in which they live. Cropley (2001) states that one of the tools of economic and social development in the contemporary world is creative thinking. According to Keleşoğlu (2017), one of the ways to make economic systems more functional and effective is to bring creative thinking skills to individuals. Individuals who can think creatively help society quickly overcome the problems it faces. Creative thinking skills can also play an important role in education. Creative thinking-oriented teaching models not only develop creative thinking, but also encourage and motivate creative thinking (Mumford, Medeiros, & Partlow, 2012). In this way, the efficiency of the lessons can be increased by adding creative thinking to the process (Karaduman & Yıldırım, 2017). As a result, creative thinking has a positive impact on many aspects of social life, especially educational and economic institutions.

One of the skills included in the Social Studies Curriculum put into practice in Turkey in 2005 is the creative thinking skill. During the development of this program, the thematic approach of the American National

Council for Social Studies (NCSS) was taken into account, and it was aimed to raise individuals equipped with skills and values that would enable them to produce and use knowledge (Akpınar & Kaymakçı, 2012). However, creative thinking skills could not be permanent in social studies curriculum. Sternberg and Lubart (1996) argue that important issues are ignored in processes such as education and research, and instead of these issues, insignificant issues that seem meaningful are emphasized. When the Social Studies Curriculum, which was put into practice in 2018, is examined, it is seen that creative thinking has been removed from the program and innovative thinking has been added to the program. Although no explanation has been found for the removal and addition of these skills directly, it is concluded in the documents of the Ministry of National Education regarding the program update reasons (MEB, 2017) that the skills are updated on the axis of 21st century skills. However, the removal of the creative thinking skill from the program reveals a situation in contradiction with the policies in the documents published earlier by the Ministry of National Education. It is commonplace for all contemporary education systems to be designed to nurture all higher order cognitive skills, including creative thinking. The lack of a clear place for creative thinking in the program may have negative consequences. Çelik (2015) states that the main pillars of teachers in their lessons are textbooks. Removing creative thinking from the curriculum may result in textbooks not including creative thinking. Since the curriculum does not include creative thinking skills and teachers tend to stick to the textbooks prepared in accordance with the curriculum, this change may result in the absence of practices that will foster creative thinking in social studies lessons. In this context, the aim of this research is to understand the perceptions of social studies teachers on creative and innovative thinking. The research is important in terms of its potential to provide data to program developers by revealing teachers' perceptions of creative and innovative thinking.

1. METHOD

This research was designed and conducted in accordance with the phenomenology design, which is considered among the qualitative research methods. The main purpose of phenomenology studies is to discover and understand the meanings that people attribute to various concepts or

phenomena, their experiences and thoughts about the phenomenon (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). For this reason, the phenomenology design was used in the research, which aims to examine the views of social studies teachers on creative thinking and innovative thinking skills.

1.1. Participants

The study was conducted with eight social studies teachers on duty. While four of the teachers included in the study take doctorate, two of them study for the master's degree. Two participants did not receive postgraduate education after bachelor's degree.

1.2. Data Collection Tools

Within the scope of the study, data were collected through semi-structured interviews. The semi-structured interview form used in face-to-face interviews with the participants was presented to the opinion of two language and two social studies experts. In line with the suggestions of the experts, the semi-structured interview form to be used in the interviews was finalized.

The semi-structured interview form was used to explore the general context, and when the need arose, the researcher posed probe questions that could help to understand the subject in depth. The interviews with the participants were done on a voluntary basis, and the recording of the interviews was carried out depending on the permission of the participants.

1.3. Validity And Reliability

Ensuring the validity and reliability of qualitative studies can only be possible by considering issues such as credibility, transferability, consistency and confirmability. For this reason, strategies were used to ensure the validity and reliability of the study at every phases of the study. The most basic strategies for validity and reliability in qualitative research are expert opinion, participant confirmation, and detailed descriptions (Creswell, 2016; Merriam, 2015; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2000).

Semi-structured interview forms were prepared taking into account expert opinions. The transcripts of the interviews with the participants were presented to the participants and they were asked to confirm. The analysis of the data was also presented to the opinions of the experts. The findings were described in detail, and the statements of the participants were included with

direct quotations. Thus, it was aimed to increase the validity and reliability of the research.

1.4. Analysis Of Data

The recordings of the interviews with the participants were transcribed by the researchers. The raw data obtained were analyzed line by line. Descriptive analysis was used to analyze the data. The resulting codes were summarized and interpreted. During the writing of the analysis of the data, direct quotations from the statements of the participants were included. In this way, a stronger expression is aimed.

2. FINDINGS

2.1. Findings Related to Innovative Thinking Theme

As a result of the analysis of the answers given by the participants within the scope of the research, their views on innovative thinking skills were included under the theme of "Innovative Thinking". The categories formed under the theme are given in the table below.

Table 1: Innovative Thinking

Category	Participants
New perspectives	K1, K3, K7, K8
Thinking differently about the existing thoughts	K6, K7, K8
Digressing from the standarts	K2, K6
New approaches	K4, K6
Following the change	K5, K8
Keeping up with the times	K1, K5
Innovative ideas	K1, K7
Generating ideas	K2
Looking different from others	K3
Original thinking	K4

Participants took a more perspective-oriented approach when explaining innovative thinking. Expressions such as new perspectives, thinking differently about the existing ones, new approaches, looking or seeing differently reveal this situation. The participant with the code K1 explained innovative thinking with a focus on new and broad perspectives with the statements "*I see innovative thinking as the ability of students to keep*

up with this development, to produce more innovative ideas, to gain a wider perspective and to open new horizons with the change of age and technology.". The participant K6 explained innovative thinking with the words *"I think innovative thinking is the ability to apply and use what we know in a different way. So we learn something about something and we can use it wherever we want as it works for us. I think this is an important skill. It is important for independent thinking. This skill can be thought of as a breath of fresh air for every field. It can mean producing unusual solutions to problems with familiar things"*. He described adapting in current situations as innovative thinking.

2.2. Findings Related to Creative Thinking Theme

As a result of the analysis of the answers given by the participants within the scope of the research, their views on creative thinking skills were included under the theme of "Creative Thinking". The categories formed under the theme are given in the table below.

Table 2: Creative Thinking

Category	Participants
Developing new solutions	K1, K2, K3, K5, K7
Individuality, originality	K2, K4, K6, K8
New ideas	K6, K7, K8
Ability to view from different perspectives	K1, K3, K7
Looking different from others	K6

When the views of the participants under the theme of creative thinking are examined, it is seen that the participants mostly focus on issues such as individuality, originality, new perspectives, and generating new ideas and solutions. The participant K8 explained creative thinking with the words *"Creative thinking at the cognitive level. In other words, adapting something, changing it, and then not only applying it, but finding and discovering what is not. Of course, from a point of view, innovative thinking skills also require being creative. For this reason, the creative thinking skill is like a higher skill"*. As can be seen, the participant describes making new discoveries as creative thinking when the existing knowledge and possibilities are not sufficient. The participant coded K4 said that *"creative thinking in the sense*

of developing new and original thoughts. In this way, the student stands out from the crowd and stands out from the others. They become original, detached individuals”.

2.3. Comparison of Innovative and Creative Thinking

As a result of the analysis of the answers given by the participants within the scope of the research, their views on the differences in innovative and creative thinking skills were included under the theme of "Comparison of Innovative and Creative Thinking". The categories formed under the theme are given in the table below.

Table 3: Comparison of Innovative and Creative Thinking

Differences	Innovative Thinking	Participants
Creative Thinking		
Finding a solution that was not thought of before	Being open to innovation	K1
Doing What Has Never Been Done	Transforming the existed	K2
Inventing new things	Interpreting existing things differently	K3
New, original ideas	Neoteric techniques	K4
Producing different things	Being open to current developments	K5
Originality	Appropriate adaptation of existed	K6
Cognitive skill	Life-oriented skill	K7
Creative thinking is necessary for innovative thinking.	One of the consequences of creative thinking	K8

The views of the participants on the differences between creative and innovative thinking, which are the two skills that are the subject of the study, are given in the table above. When the table is examined, it is understood that the participants perceive creative thinking as a skill that is limited to the cognitive domain. It is seen that participants differs creative thinking from innovative thinking skills, especially in the dimension of "individuality and originality". Creative thinking has been defined with attributions such as discovering what has not been existed and doing what has not been done. Innovative thinking, on the other hand, is perceived by the participants as a feature that has more application in life than creative thinking skills.

Innovative thinking is seen by the participants as the adaptation of various developments or ideas for other purposes. While the participant coded K2 evaluated innovative thinking and creative thinking together, *“It is not the same thing. Creative thinking is someone coming up with something that no one else has done before. For example, there is a program called WhatsApp that we all use. This didn't exist before. Someone saw this and wrote it. Instagram or facebook. And these people made the difference. We can think of it this way. We can also think in terms of the program. It reveals creativity by revealing a method that has never been used in the course, a technique. Creative thinking reveals what has not been done before in a different way. Even though there are things that exist in innovative thinking, something new is put forward”*. The participant coded K3 said, *“In creative thinking, the student brings a new perspective to the subject. He tries to invent new things. In innovative thinking, it seems as if there is an effort to take an existing view to a different channel. In innovative thinking, he sees different the existed one, and in creative thinking he tries to invent something on his own.”* He stated that creative thinking is a skill for discovering the non-existent. The participant with the code K6 stated the same situation *“I don't think it's the same thing. Creative thinking is about finding something original, while innovative thinking is trying to do with what you have. Yes, both are towards originality, but creative thinking seems to be more original. For example, the first discovery of the internet, thinking about is creative thinking. But applying it to other fields, such as the military, to communication, is innovative thinking. Thinking innovatively, I can liken it to using an item produced for one purpose for another purpose”*. The participant coded K5 said, *“I think creative thinking and innovative thinking are complementary to each other. You will be open to current developments and you will derive different things from it in creativity. I think there is no creativity without innovation. I think that they are the prerequisites for each other”* and argued that creative thinking and innovative thinking are skills that support each other.

3. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The findings of the study show that social studies teachers think that although innovative thinking and creative thinking skills are similar, they are not the same skills. Creative thinking was expressed by the participants with

individuality and originality. A recent study revealed that primary school teacher candidates often emphasize the originality dimension of creative thinking (Karaduman & Yıldırım, 2017). One of the interesting findings of the same study is that the pre-service teachers who emphasized the innovative dimension of creative thinking did not mention the originality dimension. In this context, it can be said that if the innovative thinking added to the curriculum is intended to replace creative thinking, this will cause problems. Both the teachers in the study group of this study and the teachers in the research conducted by Karaduman and Yıldırım (2017) clearly distinguish between creative thinking and innovative thinking. Teachers are the most important part of education and training processes. The implementation of the curriculum is the teacher's responsibility. The teacher undertakes the most important function in helping the students achieve the acquisitions determined in the curriculum. Therefore, the success of a curriculum is related to the attitude of the teacher. In this study, it was concluded that teachers distinguish between creative and innovative thinking skills. Considering the fact that the creative thinking skill has been removed from the curriculum, it is an important question whether the teachers who implement the things in the curriculum will design activities that highlight their creative thinking skills. The development of students' creative thinking is left to the personal preferences of teachers. This situation can be evaluated as an approach contrary to 21st century skills. What is meant by innovative thinking skills and what is desired to be achieved are not clearly stated in the curriculum.

The Ministry of National Education provides information on what innovative thinking is and how it should be understood in the Science Teaching Curriculum (MEB, 2018a). Innovative thinking skills are included under engineering and design skills in the Science Teaching Curriculum. The curriculum aims to enable students to create a product with innovative thinking skills and to bring value to these products. For this reason, it can be said that the authors of the curriculum think that innovative thinking and creative thinking skills cannot fulfill each other's functions. However, in the findings of the study, it is seen that the participating teachers associate innovative thinking with producing, and they limit creative thinking to the cognitive domain. In this context, the findings of the study and the explanations made for innovative thinking in the Science Teaching

Curriculum (MEB, 2018a) overlap. However, in this case, removing creative thinking from the social studies curriculum should be considered as a problem. First of all, the creative thinking skill is one of the most talked about and important skill of the contemporary period. The benefits it provides to economic interests carry the creative thinking skill to a privileged position (Newton, 2013). Creative thinking contributes to students' self-esteem and motivation (Fisher, 2004), thus creative thinking positively affect all areas of daily life and all human activities (NACCCE, 1999). Removal of creative thinking skill from the curriculum may cause negative results in Turkey. For this reason, this situation may have weakened Turkey's hand in global competition.

REFERENCES

- Aksoy, M. (2017). *Öğretmen adaylarının yaratıcı düşünme becerisini kavramlaştırması* (Yayımlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi). Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi, Burdur.
- Akpınar, M. ve Kaymakçı, S. (2012). Ülkemizde sosyal bilgiler öğretiminin genel amaçlarına karşılaştırmalı bir bakış. *Kastamonu Eğitim Dergisi*, 20(2), 605-626.
- Cnntürk. (2018). *2020'de en yüksek maaşı almak için sahip olmanız gereken 10 beceri*. <https://www.cnnturk.com/ekonomi/iste-hayat/2020de-en-yukse-maasi-almak-icin-sahip-olmaniz-gereken-10-beceri?page=4> adresinden 01.10.2021 tarihinde erişilmiştir.
- Creswell, J. W. (2016). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. New York: Sage Publications.
- Cropley, A. J. (2001) *Creativity in education and learning: A guide for teachers and educators*. London: Kogan Page.
- Çelik, E. A. (2015). *7. sınıf sosyal bilgiler dersinde yaratıcı düşünme etkinliklerinin kullanımı* (Yayımlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi). Adnan Menderes Üniversitesi, Aydın.
- Fisher, R., (2004). What is creativity?. Fisher, R., & Williams, M. (Eds.). *Unlocking creativity: Teaching across the curriculum* içinde (s. 6-20). London: David Fulton Publishers.
- Johnson, R. B., & Christensen (2014). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative and mixed approaches*. Los Angeles: Sage.
- Karaduman, G. B. & Yıldırım, E. (2017). Sınıf öğretmenleri adaylarının yaratıcı düşünme becerisi hakkındaki görüşlerine ait nitel bir çalışma. *Üstün Zekalılar Eğitimi ve Yaratıcılık Dergisi*, 4(2), 51-63.
- Karataş, S., Akçayır, G., & Gün, E. T. (2016). Yaratıcı düşünme becerisinin geliştirilmesinde ters beyin fırtınası tekniğinin etkililiği üzerine nitel çalışma. *Eğitim Teknolojisi Kuram ve Uygulama*, 6(1), 42-58.
- Keleşoğlu, S. (2017). *Öğretmen eğitiminde yaratıcı düşünme ve inovasyon eğitim programının tasarımı, denenmesi ve değerlendirilmesi* (Yayımlanmamış doktora tezi). Gazi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Ankara.
- Leggett, N. (2017). Early childhood creativity: Challenging educators in their role to intentionally develop creative thinking in children. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 45(6), 845-853.
- Merriam, S. B. (2015). *Nitel Araştırma: Desen ve Uygulama İçin Bir Rehber* (Çeviri: S. Turan). Ankara: Nobel.

- Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı (MEB). (2018a). *Fen bilimleri dersi öğretim programı (İlkokul ve Ortaokul 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 ve 8. Sınıflar)*. Ankara: Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Talim ve Terbiye Kurulu Başkanlığı.
- Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı (MEB). (2018b). *Sosyal Bilgiler Dersi Öğretim Programı (İlkokul ve Ortaokul 4, 5, 6, ve 7. Sınıflar)*. Ankara: Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Talim ve Terbiye Kurulu Başkanlığı.
- Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı (MEB). (2017). *Basın Açıklaması*. https://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/meb_jys_dosyalar/2017_01/13152934_basYn_aYklamasY_13012017.pdf adresinden 08.02.2021 tarihinde erişilmiştir.
- Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı (MEB). (2005). *Sosyal bilgiler dersi (4 ve 5. sınıflar) öğretim programı*. Ankara: MEB Yayıncılık.
- Mumford, M. D., Medeiros, K. E. & Partlow, P. J. (2012). Creative thinking: Processes, strategies and knowledge. *The Journal of Creative Behavior* 46(1), 30-47.
- National Advisory Committee on Creative, Cultural Education (NACCCE), Great Britain. Dept. for Education, Employment, Great Britain. Dept. for Culture, Media, & Sport. (1999). *All our futures: Creativity, culture & education*. Dept. for Education and Employment.
- Newton, D. P. (2013). Moods, emotions and creative thinking: A framework for teaching. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, 8, 34-44.
- Senemoğlu, N. (2009). *Gelişim, Öğrenme Ve Öğretim*. Ankara: Pegem.
- Sönmez, B. (2016). *Düşünme eğitimi dersinin ilköğretim 6. sınıf öğrencilerinin eleştirel ve yaratıcı düşünme becerilerine etkisi* (Yayımlanmamış doktora tezi). Anadolu Üniversitesi, Eskişehir.
- Sternberg, R. J., & Lubart, T. I. (1996). Investing in creativity. *American psychologist*, 51(7), 677-688.
- Tok, E., & Sevinç, M. (2012). Düşünme becerileri eğitiminin okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının yaratıcı düşünme becerilerine etkisi. *Eğitim ve Bilim*, 37(164), 204-222.
- Ülger, K. (2014). Öğrencilerin yaratıcı düşünme gelişimlerinin incelenmesi. *Eğitim ve Bilim*, 39(175). 275-284. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15390/EB.2014.2160>
- Yıldırım, A., & Şimşek, H. (2000). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri*. Ankara: Seçkin.

CHAPTER 3

**EXAMINATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER
CANDIDATES' EXPERIENCES AND OPINIONS DURING THE
COVID-19 PANDEMIC PROCESS***

Bekir Alperen KELEŞ¹
Ahmet DURMAZ²

* This study was presented as an oral presentation at the 9th International Social Studies Education Symposium (20.12.2021).

¹ Graduate Student, Nevsehir Haci Bektas Veli University, Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Turkish and Social Sciences Education, Social Studies, Nevsehir, Turkey
bekiralperenkeles@gmail.com, ORCID ID: **0000-0002-3143-9417**

² Nevsehir Haci Bektas Veli University, Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Turkish and Social Sciences Education, Social Studies, Nevsehir, Turkey
ahmetdurmaz@nevsehir.edu.tr, ORCID ID: **0000-0002-9744-2547**

INTRODUCTION

Social Studies is effective in many areas, both social and individual issues. When we look at the social studies curriculum, it aims to bring many values and skills to the individual. We see that Social Studies aims to raise individuals who are aware of what is happening around them, sensitive to them, understanding, solution makers, by giving examples such as research, perception of change and continuity, skills such as observation and problem solving, scientificness and industriousness (MEB, 2018). It is not possible to make a single definition of Social Studies. There are many definitions of what exactly Social Studies is. To put it in the most general sense, it deals with people and the things they interact with from different perspectives (Doğanyay, 2008). The fact that the Social Studies course includes many disciplines has also been effective in making this definition.

It is not possible to see a constant and unchanging situation in a changing and developing world. The universe, humans, animals and other living things are in constant motion and interaction. We see the results of this interaction in different fields. Examples of these areas are health and education. It is seen in this and many other studies that many positive and negative events in the field of health are closely related to education. We see the reflections of the pandemic process experienced all over the world with Covid-19 on the field of education. It proves the relationship between health and education with the experience of the distance education process brought along by the pandemic. When we narrow the circle a little more, we see that it can be associated with Social Studies in education. From the past to the present, we examine the events experienced by humanity from many perspectives and see the causes and consequences with Social Studies today.

It has been the subject of many studies that Social Studies teacher candidates are also affected by some situations during the education process. The situation of teacher candidates in changing educational opportunities and conditions is one of the issues that need to be addressed. As sub-problems of this subject, we see the headings of pre-service teachers' attitudes and behaviors, their views, their approaches to online education, the positive and negative aspects of the pandemic process.

Just after the news that universities will be suspended for three weeks in our country, another news was published and it was emphasized that the transition to the distance education system should be made. This situation has caused universities to quickly switch to the distance education system. This system, which had to be transitioned not only in our country but also all over the world, brought along various setbacks. The fact that the infrastructures of the institutions are not suitable for this system and that it is an unusual system for teachers and students have made it difficult to adapt to distance education (Allen, Rowan, & Singh, 2020). In addition, those who do not have the materials or internet connection to attend distance education, and those who cannot connect to the courses because they are insufficient even if they have a computer, tablet, phone or internet, have made education problematic (Can, 2020). Altıparmak, Kurt, and Kapidere (2011) stated that the limitations of the distance education system are the technical infrastructure problems that will occur during the implementation, the lack of necessary skills of the people who will use the system, and the deprivation of this service of the students who do not have internet access.

The distance education system has many positive aspects as well as negative aspects. Individuals who are not affiliated with any educational institution can access information and learn through the distance education system. The important factors that make distance education attractive are that it is economical and saves time. Thanks to its economical feature, information transfer is provided to thousands of people from a single instructor. In addition, the time that students use to commute to school is saved (Metin, Gürbey, & Çevik, 2021). In a study on distance education, Kan Kılınc, Yazıcı, Günsoy, and Günsoy (2020) concluded that distance education provides employment to individuals and improves their socio-economic status.

Distance education system; It is the activity of eliminating the time and space limitations realized by means of technological tools and equipment and continuing education activities of students online. The source of distance education actually dates back to ancient times. The use of communication tools such as newspapers and mail since the beginning of the 1700s forms the basis of distance education (Bozkurt, 2020). Such tools educate people by making them knowledgeable. Later, with the development of technology, the introduction of radio, television, telephone, computer and internet into our

lives has developed distance education systems and these systems have begun to be used more and more (Başaran, Doğan, Karaoğlu, & Şahin, 2020). The distance education system appears in two ways. The first is asynchronous distance education. In asynchronous distance education, people can watch course videos whenever and wherever they want. In synchronous distance education, which is another type of distance education, students and teachers are connected to the lessons at the same time and the lessons are taught simultaneously (Eti and Karaduman, 2020).

The first steps of the distance education system in our country began to be taken in the 1990s. Since the early 2000s, it has completed its development and has a place in the Turkish education system. During these periods, technological developments in our country made distance education compulsory, open education services became widespread and many people throughout the country started to study at universities with open education programs thanks to distance education. Over the years, most universities in our country have been included in this system and have given some courses remotely. The open and distance education faculties first opened in Anadolu University continued with Istanbul and Atatürk Universities. Distance education systems, which are currently on the agenda in our country, are constantly developing and are widely used (Bozkurt, 2017).

The Corona virus (Covid-19), which emerged in Wuhan, China and spread all over the world, causes various diseases, especially respiratory diseases. The coronavirus has been seen in various countries since the first months of 2020. (WHO, 2020). Various measures have been taken since March 11, 2020, the date of the announcement of the first coronavirus case in our country. Not only Turkey, but also other states have developed various measures to prevent the spread of this disease, both by their own means and by collaborating with the World Health Organization. At the beginning of the measures in our country are the quarantine application and the curfew. Unlike these, a Scientific Board was established and various restrictions were brought in line with the decisions of this board. At the beginning of the decisions taken by the Scientific Committee, all primary, secondary and high schools in the country are suspended for a short time (MEB, 2020). After this holiday decision, YÖK (Higher Education Institution) announced that universities were vacationed for three weeks (YÖK, 2020). However, this short-term

holiday will be extended up to about a year and a half due to increasing cases and rising death rates.

With the corona virus entering our lives, pandemics and epidemics that have affected all humanity have been other subjects that have been researched. When we look at this issue, we see epidemic diseases such as plague, cholera, smallpox, Spanish flu, bird flu, swine flu.

The plague epidemic has affected the whole of Europe, starting from China. We see that the bacteria is found in fleas and that these fleas are transmitted and spread by biting people. It is known that the plague epidemic caused the death of 200 million people. Cholera can be expressed as diseases related to intestinal infection. This epidemic, which occurred in many cities around the world, was also seen in the Balkan wars in our country. With the development of the field of medicine, the treatment of this disease is easily realized today. Known as the largest epidemic in history, the Spanish flu wiped out about 15% of the world's population. It showed its effect at the end of World War I. Smallpox was predominantly seen in children. With the discovery of the vaccine, it was put under control. In addition to being known as a deadly contagious disease, swine flu is known to have thousands of people who died as a result of the side effects of the vaccine. Finally, we see bird flu. It is known that this disease, which is known to be transmitted through animals, is controlled by vaccines. It has been widely seen in Turkey and the USA (Aslan, 2020).

Purpose of the research

In this research, it is aimed to examine the experiences and opinions of social studies teacher candidates during the Covid-19 pandemic process, and the answers to the following questions are sought.

- Which tool did you use the most to access the courses during the Covid-19 pandemic period?
- What are the problems you experience in the distance education process?
- Did you create a study order during the covid-19 pandemic period?

- What kind of strategies did you develop regarding learning in the distance education process during the Covid-19 pandemic period?
- How did you provide your motivation to study during the distance education process during the Covid-19 pandemic?
- What are the benefits of distance education according to you?
- What do you think are the differences between face-to-face education and distance education?
- Do you think that the learning you have done in the distance education process will contribute to your success?
- What kind of changes has the process of distance education brought about in your social life?
- What arrangements should be made regarding the education process within the scope of the experiences you have gained during the Covid-19 pandemic period?

1.METHODS

In this section, model of the research, study group, data collection tool, data collection and data analysis are included.

1.1.Model of the Research

A case study model, which is one of the qualitative research methods, was used in this study, which aims to examine the undergraduate education experiences and opinions of social studies teacher candidates during the covid-19 pandemic process. In the case model, more than one event and person is used to understand and investigate a phenomenon and problem. In this model, the subject examined is examined in depth and in detail. Various data collection methods can be used throughout the research, so that the subject is handled from many aspects, not just one (Güler, Halicioğlu, & Taşğın, 2015).

1.2. Study Group

The study group of the research consists of 12 (8 girls, 4 boys) students studying at Nevşehir Hacı Bektaş Veli University Faculty of Education, Social Studies Teaching undergraduate program in the fall semester of the 2021-2022 academic year. Of these 12 students, four are

second-year students, four are third-year students, and the remaining four are fourth-year students. First-year students were not included in the study because they did not receive distance education due to covid-19 conditions in their undergraduate education.

Table 1: Study Group

	Male	%	Female	%
2nd grade	1	25	3	75
3rd grade	0	0	4	100
4th grade	3	75	1	25

1.3.Data Collection Tool

In the study, data were collected through a semi-structured interview form named "The Opinions of Social Studies Teaching Students on Distance Education During the Covid-19 Pandemic Period" developed by Seyhan (2021). The first two questions of the interview form are gender and grade level questions. The remaining ten questions are the questions of opinion and experience regarding distance education, which will form the content of the research.

1.4.Data Collection and Analysis

In the study, data were collected face-to-face from volunteer teacher candidates, with the permission of the lecturers in charge of the course. The data obtained as a result of the research were analyzed by subjecting them to content analysis. In content analysis, the researcher analyzes and interprets the findings in detail and divides the data into themes. After associating the data with the appropriate theme title, write how many answers were received regarding the determined theme in the section specified in the table (Ültay, Akyurt, & Ültay, 2021). The views of the pre-service teachers participating in the research were shared in the form of direct quotations in order to accurately reflect the data in the research. While using the direct quotation method, the pre-service teachers were given codes as PT1, PT2. The purpose of coding in this way is to comply with the ethical rules by not revealing the names of the pre-service teachers.

2.FINDINGS AND COMMENTS

2.1. Sub-Problem: Which tool did you use most to access the courses during the Covid-19 pandemic period?

Table 2: Technological Tools Used by Social Studies Teacher Candidates to Access Classes during the Covid-19 Pandemic Period

Technological tool used	f	%
Mobile (Smartphone)	7	50
Computer	7	50

As can be seen in Table 2, Social Studies teacher candidates used mobile (smartphone) and computer tools to access lessons during the Covid-19 pandemic period.

2.2. Sub-Problem: What are the problems you experience during the distance education process?

Table 3: Problems Experienced by Social Studies Teacher Candidates in the Distance Education Process

Theme	f	%
Internet access	6	50
Learning Environment	5	41
Communication	4	33
Motivation	1	8

As can be seen in Table 3, it has been revealed that Social Studies teacher candidates experience problems due to lack of internet access, learning environment, communication and motivation during the distance education process. Some opinions on the subject are as follows:

- *“We had problems connecting to the Internet.” (PT1)*
- *“Some of the courses in distance education were not efficient. There were lessons where students were not active.” (PT2)*
- *“One of the main problems I faced during the distance education process was the problem of accessing the courses. Sometimes I couldn't reach the classes. There were many problems with the system. I've also had problems with the system crashing. Apart from that, I could not achieve sufficient efficiency in the distance education process while*

taking the courses. I had a hard time getting answers to my questions.” (PT3)

- *“Not being able to communicate well, listening without making eye contact and not being able to ask questions that we do not understand comfortably.” (PT4)*
- *“Internet disconnection problem and the collapse of the school system.” (PT5)*
- *“I had problems logging into the system because there were densities related to the system.” (PT6)*
- *“My motivation to attend the course has dropped a lot. After a point, I started to say that I couldn't remember the hours and that I would watch the lessons later.” (PT8)*
- *“I had problems such as disconnections in the internet connection, the length of the course due to the loss of audio and video.” (PT9)*
- *“Internet not working, lack of communication in lessons.” (PT11)*

2.3. Sub-Problem: Did you create a study order during the covid-19 pandemic period?

Table 4: Did Social Studies Teacher Candidates Create Any Study Order During the Covid-19 Pandemic Period?

Answer	f	%
Yes	1	8
No	11	92

As can be seen in Table 4, the majority of Social Studies teacher candidates did not establish any study order during the Covid-19 pandemic period. Some opinions on the subject are as follows:

- *“Yes, I did. I participated in the lectures live to a large extent and tried to repeat the subject after the lectures.” (PT8)*

2.4. Sub-Problem: What kind of strategies have you developed regarding learning in the distance education process during the Covid-19 pandemic?

Table 5: Learning Strategies Developed by Social Studies Teacher Candidates in the Distance Education Process

Theme	f	%
Watching Lessons Live	4	33
Watching Lesson Repetitions	2	17
Note Taking	2	17
Interpretation	2	17
Research	1	8
Not Developing Any Strategy	4	33

As can be seen in Table 5, it was revealed that Social Studies teacher candidates developed learning strategies such as watching the lessons live, watching lesson repetitions, taking notes, interpretation and research during the distance education process, while some teacher candidates did not develop any strategy. Some opinions on the subject are as follows:

- *“I tried to evaluate the clear information and did not evaluate the comments very much.” (PT1)*
- *“In this process, I mostly developed strategies for working on my own. For example, I was able to do research on any subject without consulting the professors. I thoroughly studied the topics so that I could answer my own questions. I developed strategies such as searching for necessary presentations and research papers and books.” (PT3)*
- *“Listen to the lesson on time and take notes.” (PT4)*
- *“I watched replay videos of the lessons.” (PT6)*
- *“I tried to follow the lessons regularly.” (PT7, PT10)*
- *“Thanks to rewatching, I had the opportunity to watch the lecture videos again and take notes while studying for the exams.” (PT9)*
- *“I didn't develop any strategy.” (PT2, PT8, PT11, PT12)*

2.5. Sub-Problem: How did you provide your motivation to study during the distance education process during the Covid-19 pandemic?

Table 6: Methods of Motivation of Social Studies Teacher Candidates for Lessons in the Distance Education Process

Theme	f	%
Socialize	1	8
Being Determined	1	8
Thinking Positive	1	8
Lack of Motivation	9	75

As it can be seen in Table 6, it has been concluded that Social Studies teacher candidates follow ways such as socializing, being determined, and thinking positively in order to ensure their motivation in the distance education process, while some pre-service teachers cannot provide their motivation in any way. Opinions on the subject are as follows:

- *“Of course I had a hard time providing it. Because how productive could a screen and a teacher be for me? I thought, and the way to make it the most efficient is to get rid of the negativity and throw myself into positive thoughts. I put aside all my negative thoughts as much as possible and focused on the positive.” (PT3)*
- *“Although it was a very difficult process, being determined and organized gave me motivation.” (PT7)*
- *“I was not very motivated. I went outside to stay motivated. Parking etc.” (PT8)*
- *“I couldn't provide my motivation.” (PT1, PT2, PT4, PT5, PT6, PT9, PT10, PT11, PT12)*

2.6. Sub-Problem: What are the benefits of distance education in your opinion?

Table 7: The Benefits of Distance Education According to Social Studies Teacher Candidates

Theme	f	%
Academic	5	42
Social	3	25
Financial	1	8
Saving Time	5	42

As can be seen in Table 7, the benefits of distance education, according to Social Studies teacher candidates, emerged under four headings: academic, social, financial and time saving. Some opinions on the subject are as follows:

- *“It was a comfortable period for the student. It allowed the student to devote more time to himself.” (PT1)*
- *“It made us pass the lessons more easily.” (PT2)*
- *“The biggest benefit of distance education was, of course, for me to watch the lessons over and over again. Because sometimes, if we listen to the topics that we do not understand in the face-to-face lesson, we can sometimes not be able to provide the atmosphere when we first listened. So that's the benefit for me in the first place. It didn't do any good for me.” (PT3)*
- *“I think it is profitable for students in terms of time.” (PT4)*
- *“Being in a comfortable environment at home and not having transportation problems.” (PT5)*
- *“Not to waste time on the road.” (PT6)*
- *“Getting rid of transportation and other costs. Getting rid of the factors that can cause a waste of time.” (PT8)*
- *“Even if there is no classroom environment, I had the opportunity to attend the lesson from wherever I wanted. Thanks to the replay feature, I was able to watch the lessons I missed again.” (PT9)*
- *“To be able to listen to the lecture whenever you want.” (PT11)*
- *“There was no obligation to come to school. You could listen to the lecture whenever you wanted.” (PT12)*

2.7. Sub-Problem: What do you think are the differences between face-to-face education and distance education?

Table 8: Differences Between Face-to-face Education and Distance Education According to Social Studies Teacher Candidates

Theme	f	%
Akademik	6	50
Communication	9	75
Motivation	1	8

As can be seen in Table 8, the differences between face-to-face education and distance education, according to Social Studies teacher candidates, emerged under three headings: academic, communication and motivation. Some opinions on the subject are as follows:

- *“In my opinion, the efficiency of the student in distance education is not very high. It is more useful in face-to-face education as it provides a social learning opportunity.” (PT1)*
- *“There is an effective communication in face-to-face education, students actively participate, but the opposite is true in distance education.” (PT2)*
- *“While we receive instant answers to our questions in face-to-face education, the opposite is the case in distance education, and sometimes it is not our turn at all. While everything is concrete in face-to-face education, the situation in distance education is on the contrary, it is a virtual environment and everything is virtual. While everything is communicative in face-to-face education, the lessons are sometimes interrupted and frozen due to systemic problems in distance education.” (PT3)*
- *“I think face-to-face education is the best way to learn, because we have the opportunity to make eye contact and ask questions immediately, but I don't think it's that much in distance education.” (PT4)*
- *“Face to face was important for effective communication.” (PT7)*
- *“I felt at least committed to face-to-face training. In other words, when the teacher said something or gave an assignment, I felt the obligation to listen to him more strongly. In distance education, on the other hand, I couldn't feel responsible for just a face on the screen or just a voice.” (PT8)*
- *“There are benefits to the school environment in face-to-face education. There are advantages of being face to face with the teacher in practice. In distance education, on the other hand, it is more beneficial to attend classes whenever we want and to use technology effectively in the lesson.” (PT9)*
- *“The only difference is that the transfer and reception of information is more difficult from afar.” (PT10)*
- *“In face-to-face education, we can participate more actively and be more motivated.” (PT11)*
- *“There is more effective learning in face-to-face education. Connection problems in distance education prevented education.” (PT12)*

2.8. Sub-Problem: Do you think that the learning you have done during the distance education process will contribute to your success?

Table 9: Do Social Studies Teacher Candidates think that the learning they have done during the distance education period will contribute to their success?

Answer	f	%
Yes	4	33
No	8	67

As seen in Table 9, most of the Social Studies teacher candidates do not think that the learning they have done during the distance education period will contribute to their success. Some opinions on the subject are as follows:

- *“No, I don't think so because we saw that it was only studied during exam time.” (PT1)*
- *“No, I don't think it will contribute much. Because I can't get the required efficiency in this process. I can't get answers to my questions and my success level drops because I can't find the energy and environment I want in the lesson.” (PT3)*
- *“I don't think it contributes much because one takes it less seriously and can skip classes.” (PT4)*
- *“Of course I think it does. Even from a distance, we teach the same lessons and topics.” (PT5)*
- *“Yes, because I can watch the lessons I did not attend later and make up for my deficiencies.” (PT9)*
- *“No I do not think.” (PT6, PT10, PT11, PT12)*

2.9. Sub-Problem: What kind of changes has the distance education process brought about in your social life?

Table 10: Changes in the Social Life of Social Studies Teacher Candidates by the Distance Education Process

Theme	f	%
Spending Time at Home	5	42
Going to Social Environment	2	17
Communication with Friends	2	17
Academic	2	17
Didn't Make Any Changes	3	25

As can be seen in Table 10, the changes that the distance education process brought about in the social life of the Social Studies teacher

candidates emerged under four headings: spending time at home, going to social environments, communication with friends and academic. This process did not bring about a change in the social life of some teacher candidates. Some opinions on the subject are as follows:

- *“We didn't have much conversation with my classmates in terms of sociality, but I had time to travel more.” (PT1)*
- *“I became a little antisocial person during that time.” (PT2)*
- *“During the distance education process, most of my day was left to me because I could watch the lessons whenever I wanted, and this left me most of my time.” (PT3)*
- *“I worked harder and became more depressed.” (PT4)*
- *“I can say that our social life has stopped.” (PT5)*
- *“Distance education actually did not have much effect on our social life.” (PT7)*
- *“I was usually at home as the pandemic continued.” (PT8)*
- *“I was just spending time at home. It was not possible to spend time with people.” (PT12)*

2.10. Sub-Problem: What arrangements should be made regarding the education process within the scope of the experiences you have gained during the Covid-19 pandemic period?

Table 11: Arrangements to be Made Regarding the Educational Process According to Social Studies Teacher Candidates

Theme	f	%
Material Supply	2	17
Internet (Infrastructure) Support	4	33
Face-to-Face Education	2	17
Distance Education	1	8
System Arrangements	8	67
Increasing Health Services in Education	1	8
Increasing the Qualifications of Faculty Members	2	17

As can be seen in Table 11, the views of the Social Studies teacher candidates on the arrangements to be made in education after the covid-19 pandemic process are generally in the form of systemic arrangements and internet (infrastructure) support. In addition, material supply, face-to-face or distance education, increasing health services in education and increasing the qualifications of faculty members are among the other views. Some opinions on the subject are as follows:

- *“They need to make students more active in the lessons. A system should be organized to get feedback from students.” (PT1)*
- *“Lessons with student participation should be given to teachers who will teach the lesson effectively.” (PT2)*
- *“Health screening should be done so that education is not disrupted, and vaccines should be given to teachers and students first. The health of teachers and students must be taken care of. Adequate hygiene conditions should be provided in schools. Every school should have a doctor and nurse, so that in an unusual situation, early intervention should prevent negativity.” (PT3)*
- *“Every house should be connected to free internet and a laptop or tablet should be sent as much as the number of students. Lesson hours should not be in the early hours of the morning because when people are in bed at home, they want to start the lesson and continue to sleep all the time, so arrangements should be made during the lesson hours.” (PT4)*
- *“If distance education is going to be done, even if it is not done, the situations where it will be necessary for us one day should be considered and a distance education platform should be developed and internet infrastructure should also be developed.” (PT5)*
- *“Training should definitely be face-to-face, and when it is remote, problems that may occur in the system should be prevented.” (PT6)*
- *“The interfaces used are awful and not user friendly at all. This should be fixed first. The teachers were very unprepared and inadequate. In the possible repetition of such a situation, the teachers should be supervised more tightly and they should be provided with the necessary competencies. For students, just like teachers, they should be subject to more strict supervision. In other words, while providing flexibility, certain rules should not be stretched. In face-to-face education, the use and prevalence of web tools can be increased. Especially about homework.” (PT8)*

- *“I am in favor of continuing some courses online. It may not be necessary to come to school for every lesson, especially the lessons where technology is actively used should be online.” (PT9)*
- *“Increasing infrastructure and aids.” (PT10)*
- *“A system accessible to everyone should be established and there should be no connection problems.” (PT12)*

3.CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

In this study, it is aimed to get the experiences and opinions of social studies teacher candidates in undergraduate education during the covid-19 pandemic process. For this purpose, ten open-ended questions were asked to prospective teachers and their answers were received.

The findings obtained as a result of the research show that teacher candidates attend classes by using computers and mobile (smartphone) devices during the distance education process. In similar studies conducted by Seyhan (2021) and Karakuş, Cheapsatar, Karacaoğlu, Esendemir, and Bayraktar (2020), parallel results were obtained and it was determined that teacher candidates mostly attend classes via computers, smartphones and tablets. In today's world, the presence of a mobile device or computer in almost every home supports this result. At the beginning of the problems faced by the pre-service teachers in this process is the problem of not being able to connect to the lessons due to bad internet connections or the problems experienced in the distance education system. In addition, the inability to provide effective communication in the lessons is another problem they encounter. In a similar study, pre-service teachers stated that they had problems because they did not have internet access or even if they had internet access, they had problems (Özer & Turan, 2021). Karahan, Bozan, and Akçay (2020), on the other hand, stated that the biggest problem experienced by teacher candidates is the limitation of technological tools used to attend classes. While some students did not have the necessary equipment to attend the classes, some students said that the tools they had were insufficient to use in this field. Karakuş, Cheapsatar, Karacaoğlu, Esendemir, and Bayraktar (2020) concluded that the biggest problem faced by pre-service teachers is the internet/connection problem. This problem was followed by device/hardware deficiency and systemic problems.

In this process, teacher candidates could not provide their motivation towards the lessons, they could not create any study order and they remained indifferent to the lessons. As a result of their research, Karakuş, Cheapsatar, Karacaoğlu, Esendemir, and Bayraktar (2020) concluded that the contribution of the distance education process to the motivation of students is low. This result is similar to the results of our research and supports the result of our research. In this process, which caused differences in learning and teaching environments, pre-service teachers had to develop their own learning strategies. In our research, it was found that pre-service teachers developed learning strategies such as watching lessons live, watching lesson repetitions, taking notes, interpreting information and researching, while some pre-service teachers could not adapt to this complex process they experienced and did not develop any learning strategy. In a similar study, Seyhan (2021) concluded that pre-service teachers developed learning strategies such as creating a study program, repeating lessons, watching lesson videos, taking notes, memorizing and interpreting. These data obtained by Seyhan (2021) are similar to the data we obtained in our study and support our study. In addition, teacher candidates have a largely negative view that the distance education process they experience will contribute to their academic success.

According to the Social Studies teacher candidates, the benefits of the distance education system emerged under four headings. Pre-service teachers focused mostly on academic benefits and time savings, followed by social and financial benefits. Spending the time spent on going to school by teaching lessons thanks to the distance education system was the situation most expressed by the teacher candidates. In addition, the ability to re-watch the lessons taught was another benefit that pre-service teachers emphasized. In their research, Özer and Turan (2021) put forward titles such as being able to watch the lessons again at any time, saving time and economy as the benefits of distance education. Seyhan (2021), on the other hand, has reached results such as providing flexible learning time, providing repetition opportunities, increasing social activities at home and improving research skills as the benefits of distance education. The results obtained in both studies show similarities with our study. The issues that teacher candidates focus on the most as the benefits of distance education are time saving and the ability to watch the lessons again. The subject that teacher candidates focus on the

most, as the difference between the distance education process and face-to-face education, is the lack of communication. It is among the situations where communication cannot be established at the desired level in the lessons, and there are times when communication between the teacher and the student is completely broken.

Of course, social life has been affected by the epidemic process, which has brought about changes all over the world. What kind of changes did the distance education process bring about in your social life? The answers given to the question were mostly in the form of spending time at home. Also, the decrease in communication with friends is another response. In their research, Karakuş, Cheapsatar, Karacaoğlu, Esendemir, and Bayraktar (2020) took the opinions of prospective teachers about the contribution of distance education to socialization. According to the results, *it is seen that the rate of pre-service teachers who score the socialization level as low with 1 and 2 points (41.3%) is higher than the pre-service teachers who score high with 4 and 5 points (32.6%).*

According to the Social Studies teacher candidates, the arrangements that need to be made regarding the education system are mostly systemic arrangements. This topic is followed by internet (infrastructure) support, providing materials to students, face-to-face classes and increasing the qualifications of faculty members. Karakuş, Cheapsatar, Karacaoğlu, Esendemir and Bayraktar (2020) and Özer and Turan (2021) concluded in a similar question in their studies that teacher candidates want education to continue face-to-face. According to the research of Karahan, Bozan and Akçay (2020), pre-service teachers emphasized that this course should be done face-to-face in order to gain teaching experience by opening a parenthesis to the teaching practices course. In his study, Seyhan (2021) took the opinions and suggestions of teacher candidates regarding the distance education process. According to the data obtained, the subjects that teacher candidates emphasize the most are face-to-face education, the development of distance education infrastructure and applications, and the need to give more importance to the field of educational technologies.

In the light of all these results, the following recommendations have been developed.

- Internet and infrastructure problems used in education should be fixed.
- Technological material support should be given to students and teachers.
- Technopedagogical knowledge and skill levels of instructors should be increased.
- Techniques that will make the student active should be used in the lessons.
- All kinds of guidance services should be provided so that students do not lose their motivation in this process.
- Programs and software should be created to make the distance education process effective.

REFERENCES

- Allen, J., Rowan, L. and Singh, P. (2020). Teaching and teacher education in the time of COVID-19. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*. 48 (3), 233–236.
- Altıparmak, M., Kurt, İ. D. ve Kapıdere, M. (2011). E-öğrenme ve uzaktan eğitimde açık kaynak kodlu öğrenme yönetim sistemleri. *XI. Akademik Bilişim Konferansı Bildirileri*, 321-327.
- Aslan, R. (2020). Tarihten Günümüze Epidemiler, Pandemiler ve Covid-19. *Göller Bölgesi Aylık Ekonomi ve Kültür Dergisi*, 8 (85), 35-41.
- Başaran, M., Doğan, E., Karaoğlu, E. ve Şahin, E. (2020). Koronavirüs (Covid-19) Pandemi Sürecinin Getirisi Olan Uzaktan Eğitimin Etkililiği Üzerine Bir Çalışma. *Academia Eğitim Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 5 (2), 368-397.
- Bozkurt, A. (2020). Koronavirüs (Covid-19) Pandemi Süreci ve Pandemi Sonrası Dünyada Eğitime Yönelik Değerlendirmeler: Yeni Normal ve Yeni Eğitim Paradigması. *Açıköğretim Uygulamaları ve Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 6 (3), 112-142.
- Bozkurt, A. (2017). Türkiye’de uzaktan eğitimin dünü, bugünü ve yarını. *Açıköğretim Uygulamaları ve Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 3 (2), 85-124.
- Can, E. (2020). Coronavirüs (Covid-19) Pandemisi ve Pedagojik Yansımaları: Türkiye’de Açık ve Uzaktan Eğitim Uygulamaları. *Açıköğretim Uygulamaları ve Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 6 (2), 11-53.
- Doğanay, A. (2008). Çağdaş Sosyal Bilgiler Anlayışı Işığında Yeni Sosyal Bilgiler Programının Değerlendirilmesi. *Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 17 (2), 77-96.
- Eti, İnanç. ve Karaduman, B. (2020). Covid-19 Pandemisi Sürecinin Öğretmen Adaylarının Mesleki Yeterlikleri Açısından İncelenmesi. *Milli Eğitim Dergisi*, 49 (1), 635-656.
- Güler, A., Halıcıoğlu, M.B. ve Taşğın, S. (2015). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma*. Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.
- Kan Kılınc, B., Yazıcı, B., Günsoy, B. ve Günsoy, G. (2020). Perceptions and opinions of graduates about the effects of open and distance learning in Turkey. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education*, 21 (1), 121-132. <https://dx.doi.org/10.17718/tojde.690369>
- Karahan, E., Bozan, M. A. ve Akçay, A. O. (2020). Sınıf öğretmenliği lisans öğrencilerinin pandemi sürecindeki çevrim içi öğrenme deneyimlerinin incelenmesi, *Turkish Studies*, 15 (4), 201-214.
- Karakuş, N., Ucuzsatar, N., Karacaoğlu, M. Ö., Esendemir, N. ve Bayraktar, D. (2020). Türkçe öğretmeni adaylarının uzaktan eğitime yönelik görüşleri. *RumeliDE Dil ve Edebiyat Araştırmaları Dergisi*, (19), 220-241.

- MEB. (12 Mart 2020). *Bakan Selçuk, koronavirus'e karşı eğitim alanında alınan tedbirleri açıkladı*. <http://www.meb.gov.tr/bakan-selcuk-koronaviruse-karsi-egitim-alaninda-alinan-tedbirleriacikladi/haber/20497/tr> adresinden, 08.12.2021 tarihinde erişilmiştir.
- Metin, M., Gürbey, S. ve Çevik, A. (2021). Covid-19 Pandemi sürecinde uzaktan eğitime yönelik öğretmen görüşleri. *Maarif Mektepleri Uluslararası Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 5 (1), 66-89. <https://doi.org/10.46762/mamulebd.881284>
- Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı [MEB]. (2018). *Sosyal Bilgiler Öğretim Programı (İlkokul ve Ortaokul 4,5,6 ve 7. sınıflar)*. <http://mufredat.meb.gov.tr/programdetay.aspx?PID=354> adresinden, 02.01.2022 tarihinde erişilmiştir.
- Özer, S. ve Turan, E. Z. (2021). Öğretmen adaylarının Covid-19 nedeniyle sunulan uzaktan eğitime ilişkin görüşleri. *Turkish Studies-Education*, 16 (2), 1049-1068.
- Seyhan, A. (2021). Sosyal Bilgiler Öğretmen Adaylarının Covid-19 Salgını Sürecinde Uzaktan Eğitim Deneyimleri ve Görüşleri. *Açıköğretim Uygulamaları ve Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 7 (3), 65-93.
- Ültay, E., Akyurt, H. ve Ültay, N. (2021). Sosyal Bilimlerde Betimsel İçerik Analizi. *IBAD Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, (10), 188-201. DOI: 10.21733/ibad.871703
- WHO. (2020). *Coronavirus disease (covid-19) Pandemic*. <https://www.who.int/emergencies/diseases/novel-coronavirus-2019> adresinden, 08.12.2021 tarihinde erişilmiştir.
- Yükseköğretim Kurulu [YÖK] (2020). *YÖK Başkanı Saraç'ın Üniversitelerde Verilecek Olan Uzaktan Eğitime İlişkin Açıklaması*. www.yok.gov.tr/Sayfalar/Haberler/2020/universitelerde-uygulanacak-uzaktan-egitime-iliskin-aciklama.aspx adresinden, 08.12.2021 tarihinde erişilmiştir.

CHAPTER 3
A GOOD FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNER: VIEWS OF
GIFTED AND NON-GIFTED STUDENTS
Asst. Prof. Duygu İŞPINAR AKÇAYOĞLU¹

¹ Adana Alparslan Türkeş Science and Technology University, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Department of Translation and Interpreting, Adana, Turkey
diakcayoglu@atu.edu.tr <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9031-5011>

INTRODUCTION

Gifted students' different and higher-level academic and intellectual abilities as well as social and emotional characteristics compared to their peers have long been documented in the literature. Shore (2000) reports that gifted students' metacognition, strategy flexibility, and strategy planning are similar to experts. Jausovec (2000) detected that, compared to average ability peers, gifted individuals demonstrated less overall mental activity and more cooperation between brain areas.

Studies have recommended the need for different learning and teaching environments specifically designed for benefiting from the high potential of gifted and talent students. Besides, advanced level of content and teaching processes are recommended for the gifted and talented (Sak, 2012) because gifted individuals are only able to fulfill their whole potential provided that their intrinsic characteristics and surrounding environment are in balance (Subotnik, Pillemer, and Jarvin 2009; Usiskin, 2000).

Gifted students' unmet needs in regular schools may result in underachievement (Webb, 1993) or social-emotional and behavioral problems (Pfeiffer and Stocking, 2000). Therefore, countries offer gifted students various opportunities for their education. Pull-out programs are an example for such opportunity. Hence, students are provided with education with their peers at school as well as in a center where only their gifted peers are enrolled. Gifted students have different learning experiences in two different learning environments. For example, Kaufman & Sternberg, (2008) reported that gifted children spend at least one-fourth to one-half of classroom time waiting for others to catch up. On the other hand, their motivation and social relationships are reported to be affected when they share the learning environment with other gifted students (Plucker & Dilley, 2016). These different learning experience shape learners' views and ideas about learning, teaching, achievement, failure, etc.

Research on giftedness has focused on its various dimensions ranging from political issues in gifted education (Gallagher, 2015; Plucker, Makel, Matthews, Peters & Rambo-Hernandez, 2017; Rasmussen & Lingard, 2016), the programs and educational opportunities for the gifted (Callahan, Moon, & Oh, 2017; Jacobs & Eckert, 2016; Kim, 2016), to social and emotional needs (Cross, 2017; Yilmaz, 2015), and factors that influence the academic

achievement of the gifted (Garn & Jolly, 2015; Pekrun, Hall, Goetz & Perry, 2014; Warne, 2014). Although the literature includes substantial research on the academic performance of students resulting from their different characteristics, there is relatively more limited research on their foreign language learning characteristics. Sousa (2003) lists the possible characteristics of the linguistically gifted students as heightened awareness of language, strong communication skills, strong leadership, and exceptional talent (p. 114):

1. *heightened awareness of language*: Gifted learners understand the nature of language, are interested in rhyme, accent, and intonation, or grammar, as well as other languages, and recognize the relationship between the sounds and words in these languages;

2. *strong communication skills*: they can easily gain the attention of an audience and entertain them using the humorous or dramatic components of a situation, produce language showing —a creative flair that is exceptional for their age;

3. *strong leadership*: they can guide a group to achieve a shared goal but also be sensitive to the participation of others;

4. *exceptional talent in reasoning and arguing*: they can justify their opinions or use questioning to challenge others

In addition to these characteristics, some gifted students possess perfectionistic traits. Their talent development might be either enhanced or restricted by this trait (Haataja, Laine, and Hannula, 2020). Basirion, Majid, and Jelas (2014) stated that while healthy, adaptive perfectionism enables satisfaction and sustains motivation to learn more, unhealthy, maladaptive perfectionism has the opposite effect. Learning environments and opportunities students go through have effects on these factors for gifted learners. Ziegler and Phillipson's (2012) systemic theory of gifted education suggests that gifted students' talent development is affected by their social, emotional, and structural context.

Some studies in the literature compared gifted learners with their non-gifted counterparts in terms of their self-concept (Kong & Zhu, 2005), their self-regulation skills for science learning (Tortop, 2015), and their intelligence and creativity (Guignard, Kermarrec & Tordjman, 2016). More specific to learning English as a foreign language, Tai and Chen (2015) conducted a

comparative study on the effect of CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning) on gifted and non-gifted adolescents' English proficiency. Despite the invaluable contributions of all these investigations to the field of gifted education, there are still unexplored sides of learning and teaching of English as a foreign language through comparative studies that involve gifted and non-gifted individuals. The picture in terms of the local aspects is no different; very little research exists on the foreign language learning processes of gifted learners in Turkey (e.g. Akçayoğlu, 2011; Bulut, 2010; Ocak & Beşkardeş, 2009; Pişgin (2014); Yıldırım & Akçayoğlu, 2013, Yurtbaşı, 2016), which indicates the need for understanding learning English as a foreign language from the viewpoints of students themselves.

An awareness of another person's values may be “a necessary prerequisite for recognizing their needs” (Siraj-Blatchford, 1995, p.198). Given the lack of studies on the gifted and non-gifted learners' views about the foreign language learning processes, this study utilized qualitative data collection methods that enable in-depth exploration of a specific issue. Hence, this study sets out to explore, in a comparative manner, how gifted English language learners and their non-gifted counterparts construe a good foreign language learner.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Design

This study adopted a descriptive design and utilized qualitative tools to collect data.

Setting

With a view to raising self-awareness of gifted and talented students' abilities and to enabling them to use these abilities at a maximum level, Science and Arts Centers (BİLSEM) were established in Turkey in 1996. The number of these centers has increased continuously after 2000, which paved the way for the emergence of empirical studies. This study was conducted with six participants, three gifted and three non-gifted students, (aged between 12 and 14) who were enrolled in different institutions. Three gifted students participating in the study were attending the pull-out weekday program at BİLSEM. These students also attended their regular state schools, and they

had been identified as gifted on the basis of multiple criteria which included IQ test scores (WISC-R) and school recommendations. As for the non-gifted student participants, they were enrolled in regular classes at a state secondary school in Adana.

Data Collection Tools

Two data collection tools utilized in the study included a) Repertory Grid technique (RGT), which aimed to explore students' constructs about good what makes a good foreign language learner, and b) students' written accounts about themselves as foreign language learners.

Repertory Grid Technique: The repertory grid is an interviewing technique devised by George Kelly (1955) and is based on his Personal Construct Theory of Personality. To Kelly, people look at their world through templates that they create and then attempt to fit over the realities of the world. He called these templates or transparent patterns *personal constructs*, which he believed shape behavior.

As people have different experiences, they construe the same event differently and the constructs are revised according to people's experiences. The technique enables to collect in-depth data about an individual's construct system and allows precise defining of concepts and the relationships between them (Boyle, 2005; Whyte & Bytheway, 1996). The Repertory Grid Technique enables to elicit and explicate a person's perceptions and tacit cognitive structures (Jankowicz, 2001). Although the technique has been utilised in various fields, findings in relation to cognitive science on implicit learning and teaching knowledge and beliefs paved the way for utilizing the technique in the field of education research (Rozenszajn, Kavod, and Machluf 2021).

Students' written accounts: The participants were asked to describe themselves as foreign language learners. In their written accounts, participating students wrote about the importance or place of English in their lives as well as their views about English learning processes at school and BILSEM.

Data Collection Procedure

After the participants were informed about the purpose of the study, they were instructed how to respond to a Repertory Grid data collection tool. First of all, they were asked to think of nine people learning English as a foreign language. Among those nine people, they were asked to choose three *effective*, three *ineffective*, and three *typical* foreign language learners, learning English as a foreign language in this context. The participants were asked to code these *elements*. They were reminded that the names they chose would have no importance for data collection and aimed to make filling in the form easier.

Once they identified the nine people according to their English-learning characteristics, the participants were given cards faced down in which the initial letters addressing these people were written as E1, E2, E3, T1, T2, T3, I1, I2, I3, which are called *elements*. The participants were asked to choose three cards randomly, think of the people they named for these cards, and find a feature related to foreign language learning which is true for two learners, but not for the third one. The feature they found as the common feature was written in the *similarity* column in the RGT Form, and the different construct was written in the *contrast* column. For instance, participant 1 thought “being good at Turkish” is a common feature which is not true for the third learner. Hence, this feature was written in the similarity pole as “is good at Turkish”. The different feature was written in the *contrast* pole as “is not good at Turkish”. This process of pulling three cards randomly and finding a feature which is true for two learners but not for the third one was repeated until the participants could produce no more constructs.

Next, by looking at the columns in the data collection sheet, the participants were asked to give scores for the nine learners they chose before (columns E1, E2, E3, T1, T2, T3, I1, I2, I3), for themselves (column self), and for the ideal learner (column ideal). They needed to score the participants according to the construct they mentioned in the first column. They were asked to give “1” if the statement is *always true* for the person and 5 if it is *never true*. The participants were this way asked to score each *element* (E1 to I3, themselves, and the ideal learner) for each *construct* they identified. Once they finished scoring all the *elements*, they were finally asked to rank the top five *constructs* they created in order of importance in learning English as a

foreign language. Hence, by looking at the constructs they wrote in the similarity pole, the students chose the most important five ones and ranked them (see the Appendix for the sample Rep Grid Data Collection Form).

After the data collection through Rep Grid was completed, the students were asked to write about themselves. In written accounts, which were used as the second data collection tool in this study, the participants were asked to describe themselves as a foreign language learner, learning English as a foreign language in this context.

Data Analysis

The interviews performed through the Repertory Grid Technique, according to Rozenszajn et al. (2021) aims at introducing the topic, eliciting the elements, eliciting the constructs, and rating the elements between the poles of each construct. The interview is followed by a cluster analysis performed using a designated software REP IV analysis program in the present study. Data collected through the RGT forms (see Appendix) were analysed in REP IV analysis program, which provided FOCUS grid figures showing the relationship between elements and constructs through a graph. According to the figures, 80 % cut off point indicates that the participant perceives a connection between the constructs. The higher the match level is, the stronger the connection is. Therefore, analysis included the presentation and discussion of the strongly associated pairs and clusters, which enables to interpret and reveal the links between the elements and constructs. Findings could be validated by a semi-structured interview (Rozenszajn et al. (2021). This study utilised students' written accounts to support the data obtained from the RGT forms and demonstrated students' original utterances while presenting the results.

RESULTS

Data obtained from the study are divided to two parts. While first part includes the explanation of Repertory Grid data in detail in terms of the constructs and their relationships with the elements, the second part demonstrates the qualitative data obtained from the written accounts. Findings from both data collection tools were analyzed in terms of the similarities and differences between them.

Findings obtained from the Repertory Grids

Totally 87 constructs were obtained through the Repertory grid technique. Of all these constructs, 44 were elicited from non-gifted students and 43 from gifted students. In the presentation of the findings, three gifted student participants were coded as G1, G2, G3 while three non-gifted ones were coded as NG1, NG2, and NG3.

Strongly associated constructs of non-gifted participants: Non-gifted participants' constructs that had 100% or over 90% match were analysed. Accordingly, for NG3, a student who *reads aloud fluently in English* also *speaks in English* and *makes guesses while translating*. NG3 also believes in the importance of writing in English as she thinks that those who *like English* also *is good at writing*. Writing is also associated with songs for NG3 in that she seems to believe that those who *give importance to songs translate them and try to write songs on their own*. As for NG1, she seems to associate pronunciation with some other pairs such as translating, having high marks, being good at spelling, and needing help doing homework. To NG1, those who *have high marks in English lessons* also *have good pronunciation*, and those who *have good pronunciation are good at translating*. On the other hand, those who *are not good at grammar and spelling need help to do their homework*. Finally, strongly associated pairs and clusters that were elicited from NG2 seem to highlight the importance of the mother tongue. Being good at Turkish and taking notes during the lessons are considered strongly associated by her. In addition, active participation in lesson is important to NG2. She seems to believe that those who *actively participate in the lesson* also *are quick in answering the teacher's questions, are able to translate, and try to speak English with the teacher*. The common constructs in all three non-gifted participants were found to be the ability to translate and speaking and pronunciation.

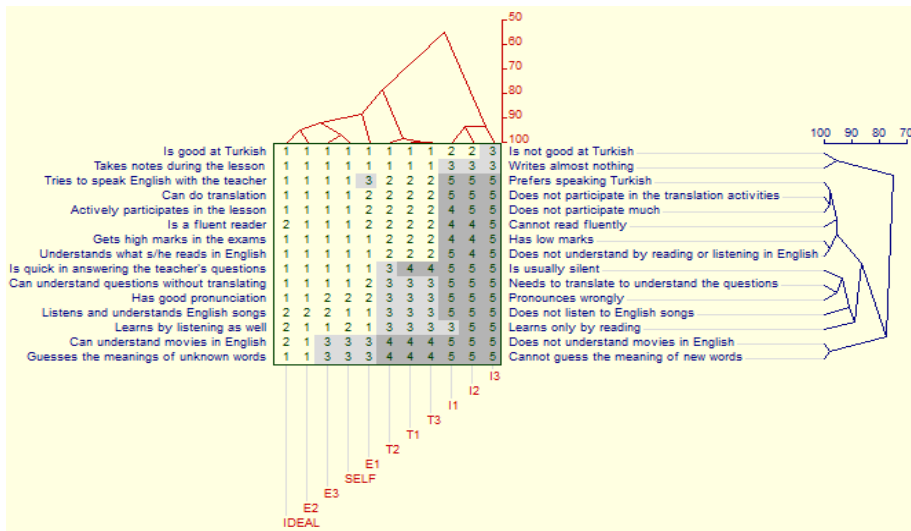


Figure 1. FOCUS grid of NG2

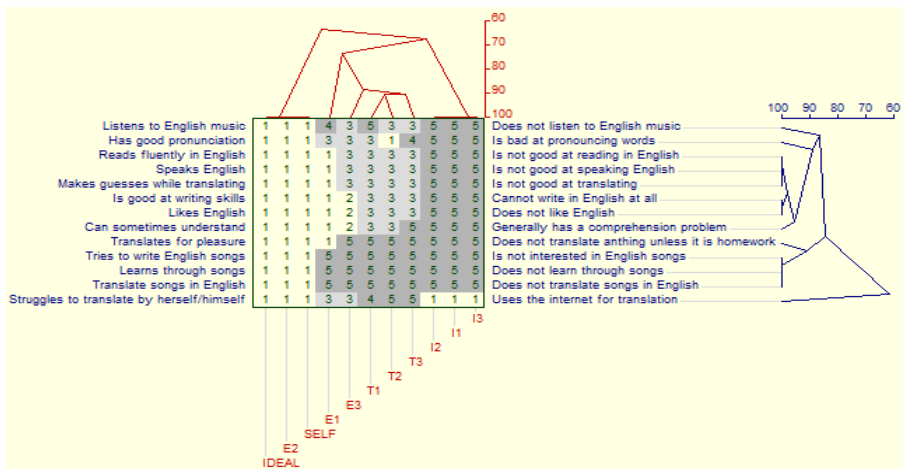


Figure 2. FOCUS Grid of NG3

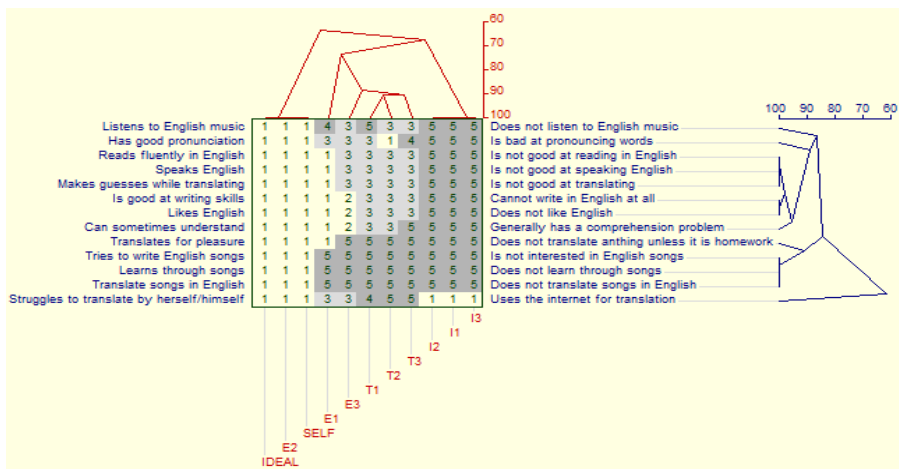


Figure 3. FOCUS Grid of NG1

Strongly associated constructs of gifted participants: The strongly associated constructs elicited from the gifted participants were also analysed. The results showed that only G2 and G3 provided strongly associated pairs and clusters. Unlike non-gifted participants, gifted participants provided less strongly associated constructs. Hence, according to G3, those who *do not struggle much learn easily* as these constructs match at a level of 100%. To G3, students who *are responsible also have good pronunciation*, which is another pair with a 100% match. Other two pairs that match over 90% in G3's constructs include *gives importance to learning English* and *is able to speak with native speakers*. G3 has a cluster that matches over 90%, which involves *listens to English songs, gives importance to learning English, and has high marks*. As for G2, who has only one strongly associated pair, those who *like English give importance to English*. G1 was found to have two strongly associated pairs that matched over 90%. These constructs suggest G1's thinking that those who *read English books also can write things in English correctly*. G1 also believes that students who *take risks use English in daily life*.

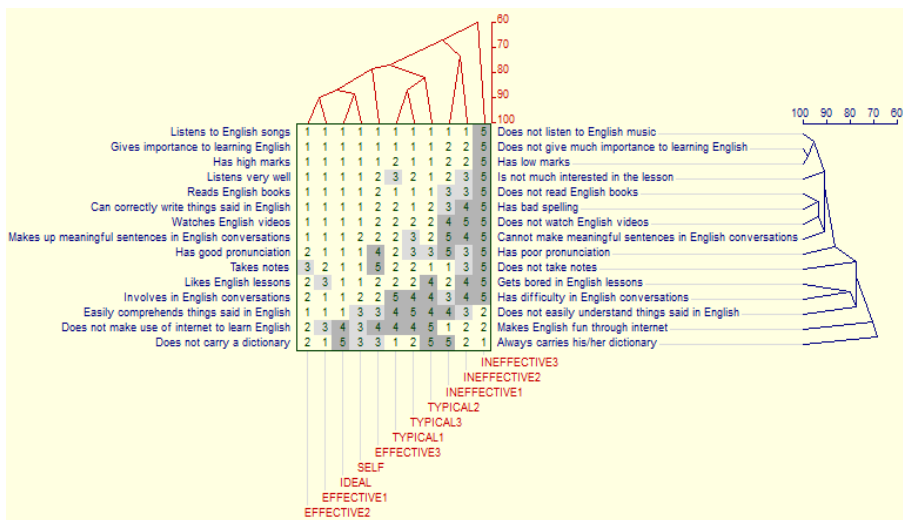


Figure 4. FOCUS Grid of G1

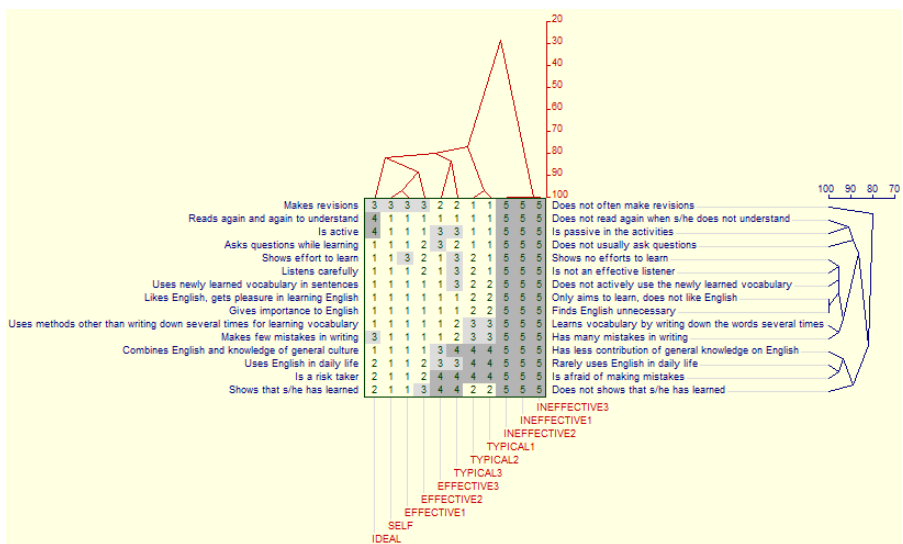


Figure 5. FOCUS Grid of G2

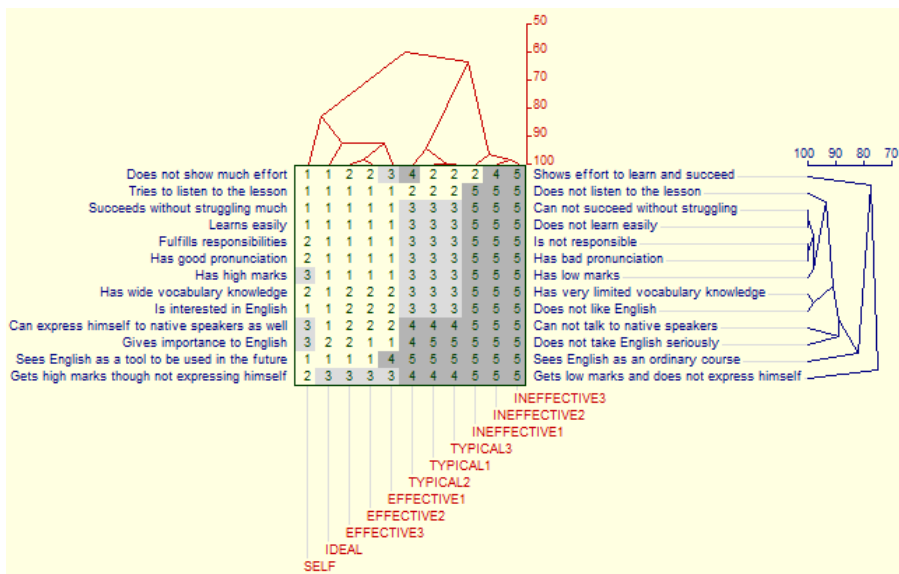


Figure 6. FOCUS Grid of G3

The rank order of the constructs elicited from the participants according to their own preferences were also analysed. Looking at their constructs, the participants were asked to choose the most important three constructs associated with being a good foreign language learner. While non-gifted learners highlight factors such as *has wide vocabulary knowledge*, *comprehends well*, *translates*, *guesses the meanings of unknown words*, and *gets high marks*; their gifted counterparts seem to focus on factors such as *likes English*, *uses English in daily life*, *takes it seriously*, *sees English as a tool to be used in the future*, and *gets high marks*.

Construct analysis also included the constructs shared by gifted and non-gifted participants. Results showed that according to both groups, a good foreign language learner is someone

- who *has good pronunciation*,
- who *speaks English*,
- who *gets high marks*,
- who *likes English*,
- who *has wide vocabulary knowledge*,

- who *watches videos/movies in English*,
- *who takes notes*, and
- *who actively participates in class activities*.

A remarkable finding is that while *speaks English* is indicated by gifted learners meant speaking with native speakers, *speaks English* mentioned by non-gifted learners meant speaking with their teacher or answering the teacher's questions.

Different constructs that were elicited from gifted learners but not non-gifted ones or vice versa were also analysed. It was found that *translates* and *guesses the meaning of unknown words* were mentioned only by non-gifted learners. *Reads fluently* and *answers the teachers' questions* were also mentioned by only non-gifted students. On the other hand, *gives importance to learning English*, *listens to the teacher well* were mentioned by gifted learners but not by non-gifted learners.

Elements: The present study also included the analysis of elements, which indicated how the participants perceived themselves as a foreign language learner. Accordingly, NG3 believes that *Ideal* and *Effective3* have the same features, and she (*self*) has the same characteristics with these learners because the match level is 100%. To NG2, with 95% match level, *Effective1* and she herself (*self*) have almost the same characteristics. Finally, NG1 also sees the characteristics of *self*, *ideal* and *effective* teachers as the same. It seems that all the non-gifted learners participating in the study perceive themselves as *effective* learners. On the other hand, only G2 among the gifted participants thinks that she is an *effective* learner. G1 perceives herself as an *ideal* learner, but not an *effective* one, and G3 does not seem to match herself with any elements.

Findings Obtained from Written Accounts

The participants were asked to describe themselves as a foreign language learner after they completed the RGT form. The participants' statements regarding how they perceive themselves as a foreign language learner are given in the following excerpts.

Excerpt 1 (Gifted):

“I believe I am better than my friends at school. However, I have some weaknesses when I think of my friends in BILSEM. I feel sad about these weaknesses. I want to be good at English both at school and in BILSEM. I am usually quick at responding to questions in English at school, but in BILSEM I am not as good as I want to be”.

Excerpt 2 (Gifted):

“I want to improve my speaking and vocabulary. I can say I am a good student at school, but here in BILSEM I cannot say I am good enough. We have to use English in real-life activities here. There are various activities that make us speak. At school, activities are easier, but boring.”

Excerpt 3 (Non-Gifted):

“I think I am good at English. There are only three students who can speak English in my classroom, and I am one of them. I am very good at translating, I love translating. English means everything to me. It is my life. I like it so much. To learn English with its rules is my most important task”.

Excerpt 4 (Non-Gifted):

“I am able to translate words, pronounce them correctly, and understand...I still need to work on vocabulary and grammar.... To be able to answer the exam questions correctly, I revise vocabulary and grammar. This is necessary for me to improve in these aspects. I am a successful student both in the classroom and exams”

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study aimed to explore the similarities and differences between the constructs in relation to what makes a good foreign language learner from the viewpoints of gifted and non-gifted students. Totally 87 constructs, 44 from non-gifted students and 43 from gifted students, were elicited through the Repertory Grid technique. Results suggest that links existed between students’ language learning experiences and their beliefs regarding a good foreign language learner, and the participants’ constructs reflected evidence for the distinct language learning processes through which they went.

The participants’ language learning experiences in two different learning contexts (school and BILSEM) were found to be influential on their constructs and how they perceived themselves as foreign language learners.

As suggested by Kelly (2003), different people may construe the same facts in quite different ways. Hence, non-gifted students were found to make frequent references to success in school-related activities such as *translation, grammar and vocabulary work, answering the teacher's questions, having high marks in English exams, and reading aloud* while conceptualizing a good foreign language learner. Gifted learners, on the other hand, focused on *real-life speaking activities, using English in daily life, giving importance to learning English, speaking to native speakers, etc.* These constructs mirror the classroom activities at two different settings that shaped these participants' perceptions of success in language learning. Providing learners in different learning settings with activities in which they use English for real-life purposes could help learners have a broader view of the importance of a foreign language.

Research evidence shows that foreign language achievement could be explained by general academic achievement, so it is highly probable that intellectually gifted students would perform better in a foreign language classroom (Bain, McCallum, Bell, Cochran & Sawyer, 2010). Gifted participants' awareness of their better performance compared to their peers is a parallel finding. However, the participants' constructs also indicated the intrinsic motivation factor for success in learning a foreign language. Intrinsic motivation seems to be a determinant of success for non-gifted students because their constructs indicated the role of English in their lives that motivated them to *watch English movies and videos, to translate songs, and even to write songs in English.* As reported by Ryan and Deci, (2000; pp. 56), intrinsic motivation enables "inherent satisfaction rather than for some separable consequence". Hence, learners who are intrinsically motivated act for the fun and challenge rather than for external produces, pressures or reward. Research has shown that intrinsically motivated students are more likely to take risks, choose difficult learning paths, persist in the face of difficulty, and apply effective learning strategies (Lepper, 1988). It is therefore desirable to promote intrinsic motivation, deeper processing of material, and better learning strategies (Heilman, Juffs & Eskenazi, 2007).

On the other hand, gifted students' frequent references to *desire, effort, importance of learning English, using English for communication with native speakers-* a much broader perspective of a good foreign language

learner indicates intrinsic, instrumental and integrative motivation as determinants of success in language learning. Gifted students are reported to be highly motivated students who focus on individual learning, persistence, internal locus of control, and task commitment (Dunn & Griggs, 1985). As suggested by Gardner (2001), integrative motivation “reflects an interest in integration with (or specifically in becoming closer psychologically to) the group who speaks the language” (p.10). In comparison to their nongifted counterparts, gifted learners were found to internalize the foreign language they are learning and try to integrate it to their lives. Their constructs reflected their awareness of the importance of knowing a foreign language for their future career as well as using the language for real communication purposes in real life. Based on this finding, nongifted students could be provided with opportunities that enable them to use English and become exposed to English out of school contexts, and their learning should be enriched with extracurricular activities involving English.

Intelligence is influential on the beliefs of gifted learners. By stating that they were good enough at school with a little effort but have difficulty in performing so well in BILSEM, students seem to be aware of the fact that their intelligence might not be sufficient in all learning settings. In spite of the difficulties in its definition, linguistic giftedness is considered a distinct type of advanced ability, which gives these students an academic advantage over non-verbally gifted individuals. Therefore, teachers need to create high levels of intellectual challenge for the gifted students in their classrooms.

An interesting finding of the present study was that although one would expect the opposite, gifted students did not match themselves with effective learners while non-gifted students did so with very high percentage levels. Hence, gifted students are highly self-critical (NAGC, n.d.) and their perception of self-seem to be in line with what is suggested as “*The big fish–little pond effect*” that refers to the theoretical prediction that students of equal ability have lower academic self-concepts in classes or schools where the average ability or achievement level of classmates is high (gifted students in BILSEM in our case) and higher academic self-concepts in classes or schools where the average ability or achievement level of classmates is low (Marsh, 1987).

On the other hand, it should be emphasized that gifted student participants in the study are not identified as linguistically gifted. Given that language aptitude is separate from intelligence, and research indicates that a combination of students' motivation and their high aptitude may decide upon their achievements in second language learning (Doman, 2006), further studies should be carried out with linguistically gifted learners with a view to exploring the interplay among such predictors of success in language learning as aptitude, intelligence, attitude, motivation, learning strategies, learning styles, and personal attributes.

Limitations

The present study was conducted with six students, three gifted and three non-gifted, selected from one gifted center and one state school. Due to the nature of Rep Grid studies that require limited number of participants and provides subjective data, future studies to be conducted on the foreign language learning processes of gifted students might involve socio-grids or other in-depth data collection techniques. Studies that involve participants from different gifted centers that utilize more data collection tolls would shed more light on the issue.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The author declares no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The author received no financial support for the research and/or authorship of this article.

Acknowledgment

The preliminary findings of this study were presented at the 3rd Cukurova International ELT Teachers Conferences: Reshaping Teaching and Learning English for the 21st century on 20th of April 2017.

REFERENCES

- Akçayoğlu, D. I. (2011). *Exploring the role of strategies-based language instruction in teaching English to young gifted learners* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Çukurova University, Turkey.
- Basirion, Z., Abd Majid, R., & Jelas, Z. M. (2014). Big Five personality factors, perceived parenting styles, and perfectionism among academically gifted students. *Asian Social Science*, 10(4), 8.
- Al-Khasawneh, F. M., & Al-Omari, M. A. (2015). Motivations towards learning English: The case of Jordanian gifted students. *International Journal of Education*, 7(2), 306-321. doi:10.5296/ije.v7i2.7699
- Bain, S. K., McCallum, R. S., Bell, S. M., Cochran, J. L., & Sawyer, S. C. (2010). Foreign language learning aptitudes, attitudes, attributions, and achievement of postsecondary students identified as gifted. *Journal of Advanced Academics*, 22(1), 130-156.
- Boyle, T. A. (2005). Improving team performance using repertory grids. *Team Performance Management: An International Journal*, 11, 179-187.
- Bulut, İ. (2010). Türkiye’de Üstün Zekâlı Çocuklar Örneğinde Erken Yaşta Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi [Teaching English as a foreign language to young learners in Turkey: The case of gifted children] (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). İstanbul Üniversitesi, Turkey.
- Callahan, C. M., Moon, T. R., & Oh, S. (2017). Describing the status of programs for the gifted: A call for action. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted*, 40(1), 20-49.
- Cross, T. (2017). *On the social and emotional lives of gifted children*. Sourcebooks, Inc.
- Davidson, J. E. (1986). The role of insight in giftedness. In R.J. Sternberg & J.E. Davidson (Eds.), *Conceptions of giftedness*. (201-222). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Doman, E. (2006). Current debates in SLA. *The Asian EFL Journal*. 7(4).
- Dunn, R., Griggs, S. A. (1985). Teaching and counseling gifted students with their learning style preferences: Two case studies. *Gifted Child Today*, 8(6), 40-43. <https://doi.org/10.1177/107621758500800616>
- Gallagher, J. J. (2015). Political issues in gifted education. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted*, 38(1), 77-89.
- Gardner, R. C. (2001). Integrative motivation: Past, present and future. Retrieved February, 5, 2006 from <http://publish.uwo.ca/~gardner/GardnerPublicLecture1.pdf>.

- Garn, A. C., & Jolly, J. L. (2015). A model of parental achievement-oriented psychological control in academically gifted students. *High Ability Studies*, 26(1), 105-116.
- Guignard, J. H., Kermarrec, S., & Tordjman, S. (2016). Relationships between intelligence and creativity in gifted and non-gifted children. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 52, 209-215.
- Haataja, E., Laine, A., & Hannula, M. S. (2020). Educators' perceptions of mathematically gifted students and a socially supportive learning environment—A case study of a Finnish upper secondary school. *LUMAT: International Journal on Math, Science and Technology Education*.
- Heilman, M., Juffs, A., & Eskenazi, M. (2007). Choosing reading passages for vocabulary learning by topic to increase intrinsic motivation. *Frontiers in Artificial Intelligence and Applications*, 158, 566.
- Jacobs, J. K., & Eckert, R. D. (2016). Providing programs and services for gifted students at the secondary level. *Designing Services and Programs for High-Ability Learners: A Guidebook for Gifted Education*, 101.
- Jankowicz, Devi. "Why does subjectivity make us nervous?" *Journal of Intellectual Capital* (2001).
- Jausovec, N. (2000). Differences in cognitive processes between gifted, intelligent, creative, and average individuals while solving complex problems: An EEG study. *Intelligence*, 28, 213-237
- Kaufman, S.B. & Sternberg, R.J. (2008). Conceptions of giftedness. In S. Pfeiffer (Ed.), *Handbook of giftedness in children: Psycho-educational theory, research, and best practices*. New York, NY: Plenum.
- Kelly, G. (1955). *The psychology of personal constructs*. New York, NY: W.W. Norton.
- Kelly, G. (2003). *The psychology of personal constructs: Volume two: Clinical diagnosis and psychotherapy*. Routledge.
- Kim, M. (2016). A meta-analysis of the effects of enrichment programs on gifted students. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 60(2), 102-116.
- Kline, B. E., & Short, E. B. (1991). Changes in emotional resilience: Gifted adolescent boys. *Roepers Review*, 13, 184-188.
- Kong, Y., & Zhu, H. (2005). A decade comparison: Self-concept of gifted and non-gifted adolescents. *International Education Journal*, 6(2), 224-231.
- Lepper, M. R. (1988). Motivational considerations in the study of instruction. *Cognition and Instruction*, 5(4), 289-309.

- Marsh, H. W. (1987). The big-fish-little-pond effect on academic self-concept. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 79(3), 280–295. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.79.3.280>
- National Association of Gifted Children (NAGC). (n.d.). Retrieved from <http://www.nagc.org/>. Accessed January 14, 2021
- Ocak, G., & Beşkardeş Günay, S. (2009). Üstün ve özel yetenekli öğrencilerin yabancı dil (İngilizce) öğretiminde metafor sisteminin uygulanması [The application of metaphor system to the gifted and talented students' foreign language (English) teaching]. *Milli Eğitim*, 38, 178–194.
- Pekrun, R., Hall, N. C., Goetz, T., & Perry, R. P. (2014). Boredom and academic achievement: Testing a model of reciprocal causation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 106(3), 696.
- Pişgin, F. (2014). A Primary school 2nd grade gifted student's motivation in learning English as a second language (Unpublished master's thesis). Bahçeşehir University, İstanbul, Turkey
- Plucker, J. A., Makel, M. C., Matthews, M. S., Peters, S. J., & Rambo-Hernandez, K. E. (2017). Blazing New Trails: Strengthening Policy Research in Gifted Education. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 61(3), 210-218.
- Plucker, J. A., & Dilley, A. (2016). Ability Grouping and the Socioemotional Development of Gifted Students. In M. Neihart, S. I. Pfeiffer, & T. L. Cross (Eds.), *The social and emotional development of gifted children: What do we know?* (2nd ed.), (pp. 231–242). Waco, TX: Prufrock.
- Rasmussen, A., & Lingard, B. (2016). *Excellence in education—in policies addressing the gifted and talented*. Paper presented at ECER 2016, Dublin. <https://www.eera-ecer.de/ecer-programmes/conference/21/contribution/37734/>
- Rogers, K. B. (1986). Do the gifted think and learn differently? A review of recent research and its implications for instruction. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted*, 10, 17-39.
- Rozenszajn, R., Zer Kavod, G., & Machluf, Y. (2021). What do they really think? the repertory grid technique as an educational research tool for revealing tacit cognitive structures. *International Journal of Science Education*, 1-22.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 54–67.
- Sak, U. (2012). Identification and training of gifted children. Vize Publishing, Ankara.

- Shore, B. M. (2000). Metacognition and flexibility: Qualitative differences in how gifted children think. In R. C. Friedman & B. M. Shore (Eds.), *Talents unfolding: Cognition and development* (pp. 167-187). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association
- Siraj-Blatchford, J (1995): Kelly's repertory grid: a technique for developing evaluation in design and technology. In: IDATER'95. (Ed: Smith,J) Loughborough University, Loughborough, 195-200.
- Sousa, D. A. (2003). *How the gifted brain learns*. CA: Corwin Press
- Subotnik, R., Pillmeier, E. & Jarvin, L. (2009) The psychosocial dimensions of creativity in mathematics: Implications for gifted education policy. In R. Leikin, A. Berman, & B. Koichu (Eds.), *Creativity in mathematics and the education of gifted students* (pp. 165–180). Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense.
- Swiatek, M. A. (1995). An empirical investigation of the social coping strategies used by gifted adolescents. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 39(3), 154-160.
- Tai, S., & Chen, H. J. (2015). A Comparative Study of the Effect of CALL on Gifted and Non-Gifted Adolescents' English Proficiency. *Critical CALL – Proceedings of the 2015 EUROCALL Conference, Padova, Italy*. <https://doi.org/10.14705/rpnet.2015.000385>
- Tannenbaum, A. J. (1983). *Gifted children: Psychological and educational perspectives*. New York: Macmillan
- Tortop, H. S. (2015). A comparison of gifted and non-gifted students' self-regulation skills for science learning. *Journal for the Education of Gifted Young Scientists*, 3(1), 42-57.
- Usiskin, Z. (2000). Development into the mathematically talented. *Journal of Secondary Gifted Education*, 11(3), 152–162.
- Warne, R. T. (2014). Using above-level testing to track growth in academic achievement in gifted students. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 58(1), 3-23.
- Webb, J. T. (1993). Nurturing Social-Emotional Development of Gifted Children,[w:] KA Heller, FJ Monks, AH Passow (red.), *International Handbook of Research and Development of Giftedness and Talent*.
- Whyte, G., & Bytheway, A. (1996). Factors affecting information systems' success. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 7, 74–93.
- Yıldırım, R., & Akçayoğlu, D. I. (2013). Strategy-based English language instruction: The impact on the language proficiency of young gifted learners. *Education 3-13: International Journal of Primary, Elementary, and Early Years Education*, 43, 97–114.

- Yilmaz, D. (2015). A qualitative study to understand the social and emotional needs of the gifted adolescents, who attend the science and arts centers in Turkey . *Educational Research and Reviews*, 10(8), 1109.
- Yurtbaşı, M. (2016). Nasreddin Hodja tales may inspire Turkish foreign language gifted and talented students to speak better English. *Online Submission*, 4(2), 15–42
- Ziegler, A., & Phillipson, S. N. (2012). Towards a systemic theory of gifted education. *High ability studies*, 23(1), 3-30

CHAPTER 5

DEVELOPMENT AND APPLICATION OF S-GALL: AN ONLINE EXAMINATION SYSTEM FOR HIGHER EDUCATION IN TURKEY

Assist. Prof. Kürşat ARSLAN¹,

Assoc. Prof Adnan SEMENDEROĞLU²

¹ Computer Education and Instructional Technology, Buca Faculty of Education, Dokuz Eylül University, İzmir, Turkey, kursat.arslan@deu.edu.tr. <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4680-9561>

². Geography Education Department, Dokuz Eylül University, İzmir, Turkey, a.semenderoglu@deu.edu.tr. <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6039-2750>

INTRODUCTION

Assessment is an essential and critical step of education (Brown, Bull & Pendlebury, 1997) and is used to determine students' current academic performance and the points that should be reinforced in teaching (Ghilay, 2017; Baki & Birgin, 2002). According to the Turkish Ministry of National Education reports, there are two types of assessment in higher education: traditional and alternative. Alternative assessment methods include student-centered techniques such as performance assignments, projects, checklists, self-assessment, peer assessment, group assessment, drama, role-play, word association, and concept maps (MEB, 2018). Traditional assessment methods involve exercises assignments, homework, tests or midterm or final exam including question types of gap-filling, multiple-choice, true-false, short-answer, matching, essay, selection of missing words, etc. With the introduction of technology into personal and educational life today, online tests have become widespread apart from paper-and-pencil exams. When a computer is used to show, record, monitor, and answer the test items, in other words, an exam (traditional or alternative) is administered in a computer-based environment, and it is called a "web-based, computer-assisted, or online exam/test" (Karakaya, 2001).

Online exams are technically considered an integral part of distance education (although courses are online, assessment is done using paper-and-pencil exams at certain distance education programs); they are preferred as assessment tools by a few universities and lecturers (Bull, 2001; Ünsal, 2010). The number of studies on online testing is quite limited. In a content analysis study by Arslan and Yetgin (2020), it was found that there are only 30 publications on online assessment methods in Turkey since 2000. It was also observed that most of those papers dealt with teaching procedures or lecturers' performance instead of student academic success and performance. Although online assessment still has various limitations related to computer and internet access, reliability, cheating, and control (Shedar et al., 2006; Yağcı, Ekiz, & Gelbal, 2015), it can be an excellent alternative to paper-pencil tests due to its advantages such as providing a rich item pool, the easy mix of items and options, immediate answers and feedback, automatic scoring, using images, audio, and video, and practical management of time and cost (Ghilay & Ghilay 2012; Bull & McKenna, 2004; Conole & Warburton 2005). It also has

great potentials for evaluating open-ended questions with artificial intelligence and designing private exams and exercises for every student (Bull, 1999; Thelwall 2000; Akın, 2007; Özturan, 2017). With the increase in internet bandwidth, computer-based exam or assessment help instructors to report near real time scores, to give instantaneous personalized feedbacks, to ensure independence of time and space, and to collect efficient data for enhancing learning and analysing quantitative data related to performance (Thelwall 2000).

On the other hand, a functional online testing system can be costly (Karakaya, 2001). Although most applications offer free services, the commonly used and necessary application properties for teachers and students generally have an annual or monthly price (Ozan & Özarslan, 2010). Several open-source learning management systems are entirely free to use and download and offer many online testing features, but it is often impossible to make changes in such systems (Ozan & Özarslan, 2010).

This study aimed to develop a new online testing system to make it widespread in university education, assist faculty members with the assessment procedures (creating, applying and evaluating exam; sharing result with students; collecting data for analysis), and minimize human-made errors. This paper includes the design, development, and application steps of the given system.

Theoretical Framework

The measurement and assessment methods frequently applied at universities in Turkey are summative methods, such as final exams, essay, project or term papers, taking place at the middle or end of the course or semester (Çakan, 2017). Exams generally consist of multiple-choice questions or sometimes include a combination of true-or-false, multiple-choice, open-ended, and fill-in-the-blank questions. The frequent use of multiple-choice questions can also become an advantage (Shader and at. al., 2016).

In 1950, Pressey witnessed the increasing use of tests in schools and underlined that multiple-choice tests could assess achievements and reinforce learning (Pressey, 1950). Pressey developed a "machine for automatic teaching" in the 1920s. The basic principle of the machine was to provide instant feedback to the student and automatic scoring. Although Pressey used

printer-like devices that were slow and difficult to manage, as Edward Thorndike (Thorndike, 1927) emphasized, high-tech computers and online testing systems provide useful feedback to support learning today and are practical for both students and faculty members. Feedback is one of the important interaction tools that can be used between teacher and student to create an effective and productive learning environment. At the same time, it is possible to improve and strengthen students' learning, and to enable teachers to identify shortcomings of the teaching/learning process, through feedback.

Through the recent development in educational technology, in addition to the written forms of the feedback, how the feedback can be given in different modes and their effects on the students have been investigated. Most of the research is on the written form of feedback, e-feedback, audio feedback, and even video feedback (Chong, 2019). In this system, written mode of the feedback is used. This "teacher e-feedback" mode can be defined as a feedback system used to provide students with synchronous or asynchronous personal, immediate and useful feedback for each question, as well as to the whole exam result if necessary. Feedback for each question can be prepared in the same way for each student before the exam, or they can be created by teacher in personal feedback after the exam in accordance with students' answer to the open-ended question. The system also allows the student to respond to teacher feedback. In this way, the effectiveness of feedback and permanent learning can be achieved.

SYSTEM DESIGN

Use as many sections and subsections as you need (e.g. Introduction, Methodology, Results, Conclusions, etc.) and end the paper with the list of references.

Main Principals of S-GALL design

The system was developed upon the principles listed below to demonstrate that the given system shows the items and records student answers, and operates based on various teaching theories.

Providing immediate feedback

Immediate and appropriate feedback is considered an essential

component of permanent learning. According to Black and Wiliam (1998), innovations in assessments designed to reinforce students' frequent feedback on their learning provide significant learning outcomes. The forms of feedback that can be most useful in evaluation are commenting on the good and weak aspects of the answer and explaining how it can be improved (Black and Wiliam, 1998). In this sense, tests can be used to check the answers and give students feedback at the end of the exam. Since S-GALL offers students the opportunity to see the test results and evaluate the items immediately, it contributes to learning and provides an online testing module.

The S-GALL system provides the following types of feedback:

- For multiple, true-false, and fill-in-the blanks question, the feedback gives the correct answers along with the reasons and, when necessary, explains why the student's choice was not correct. The feedback displayed can be adapted to the student's preferences. For example, the student may receive more detailed or summary feedback.
- Feedback for open-ended questions is designed to hold enough information to allow users to evaluate their own answers. This can be a modal answer or the student can evaluate the answer with the help of some questions. For example, "Which of the following points does your answer contain?". The system also allows the sharing of articles, videos or books from external sources.

Providing both paper-and-pencil and online testing

The proposed system has a feature that is not found in any online evaluation system. If it is not possible to perform an online test, the system allows printing the test's paper-and-pencil form. This feature is created for the university faculty members who teach face-to-face but conduct their exams online. For example, in some situations, such as internet connection problem, lack of enough computer in lab, ability to use technology, or student attitude towards online test, converting the online test into paper-pencil mode test can be a savior.

Designing an-easy-to-use system

An online testing system's practicality is critical for possible effects on decision-making and achievement of the specified goals (Karahoca et al.,

2015). Thus, a simple user interface was used in the S-GALL, and a mobile-compatible, easy-to-use, functional, and distraction-free design was preferred for the system.

System Structure

A browser/server-based online testing system was developed using modern computer technologies, and it was called "S-GALL." Based on DCOM technology, the system has four main modules (i.e., exam preparation, web-based testing, automatic scoring, and feedback) and three layers (i.e., database, server, and client). The system layers will be introduced, and then the modules will be summarized in the following parts.

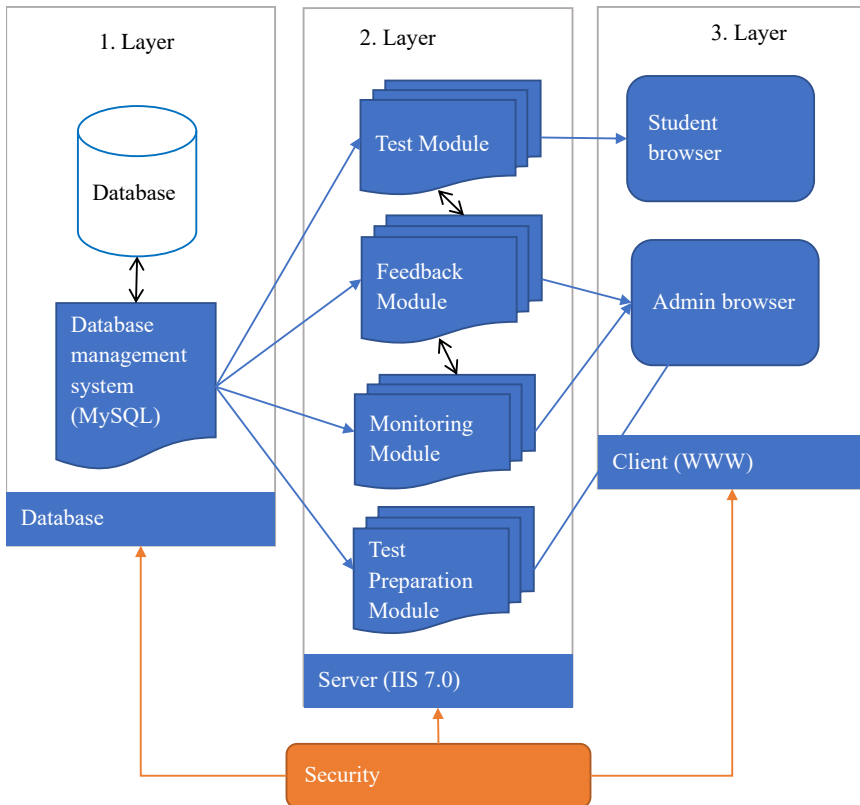


Figure 1: The General Structure of S-GALL

Database

Microsoft SQL Server, a high-speed and robust relational data

management system, was used for database management of the S-GALL. .NET technology is commonly used in server modules. Microsoft SQL Server is preferred since it is compatible with C# and ASP and offers an interface similar to .NET technology. The database management platform provides extensive data storage and editing capacity and high speed for test registration, editing, and scoring procedures. The database software also offers advanced features and security for large-scale projects (Microsoft, 2010). Registration and queries operate using ASP pages (Active Server Pages) and SQL language. JavaScript is used to control and edit entries within client-side pages, facilitating simple operations before the server. Besides, HTML, CSS, and CSS3 languages are used to format ASP pages. In case of data loss, error, or hacking in the system, it can be manually backed up to a different computer.

Server

Internet Information Server 7 (IIS) was used to benefit .NET technology and publish the system on the internet. The system is also compatible with ASP and Microsoft SQL Server. An essential advantage of IIS includes comprehensive user statistics and a graphical user interface (Delaney, 2000).

Client

The client is the last part of the system and responds to user requests with the cooperation of the database management system and server. Users transmit their requests to the server through various internet browsers, and the server interprets the request and transmits it as an HTML file to the client. S-GALL was tested on all current browsers (e.g., Microsoft Explorer, Edge, Chrome, Firefox, Safari) and proved to operate without any problems, including mobile applications.

Security

The online testing system can be activated on the internet or in the local network without an internet connection. Since there is no internet connection in the local network, security problems can be solved quickly. On the contrary, there can be severe problems in an online test, such as data transmission security, access security, data security, and certification

problems. Several methods can be used to solve the mentioned problems. The following security policies were determined for the S-GALL. First one is data transmission security. An SSL certification system was used to ensure transmission security. Hence, backdoor access or changes on the items, answers, and other materials were eliminated. Data is sent encrypted between the server and the client in the SSL certificate server using the HTTPS protocol (Delaney, 2000). Thus, data transfer and security are ensured within the system. Second one is password Security. The SQL injection prevention method was used primarily for software problems. SQL injection is the data hijack through malicious SQL statements in data-driven applications. Therefore, data are scanned at every entry to prevent such harmful expressions. Additionally, user passwords are stored in the database encrypted with the MD5 algorithm. Thus, even if the database is hacked, user passwords can never be stolen. S-GALL has a login system combined with hardware authentication for password security and prevents illegal access to the system. When a student starts the test, the system automatically generates a password, thereby preventing a user's access with a similar username and password. Third one is user Authentication. The system has web-based face recognition and verification technology for out-of-classroom testing that entails advanced user security. Administrator approval is required to use the recognition and verification system. The system recognizes a student's face via a computer camera and automatically continues to monitor. If the student leaves the room, s/he is automatically considered to have completed the test. This system is based on a free JavaScript application (face-api.js) running through a browser. Although the system does not offer a completely secure user certification, it can be used for user authentication.

Functions of S-GALL

Question Adding and Editing Module

A question can be created in different types in the system. The most widely used question formats in exams today are multiple choice, open-ended, gap-filling, true-false or matching. the system supports all of these question types (Conole &Warburton, 2015; Çakan, 2017). Before the question text and options, the user must select the lesson and subject (Figure 2). After this process, the user can easily specify the question type. For each question, the

difficulty level of the question, the answer and supporting information (feedback area) must be included, so that at the end of the exam, students can see the correct answer while checking their answers and if they do wrong, they can benefit from supporting information.

One of the most important benefits of the system to the user is that image, animation, sound or video can be used in the question, feedback, and answer. While the images can be added directly to the question, sound, animation and videos can be embedded in the question with html codes.

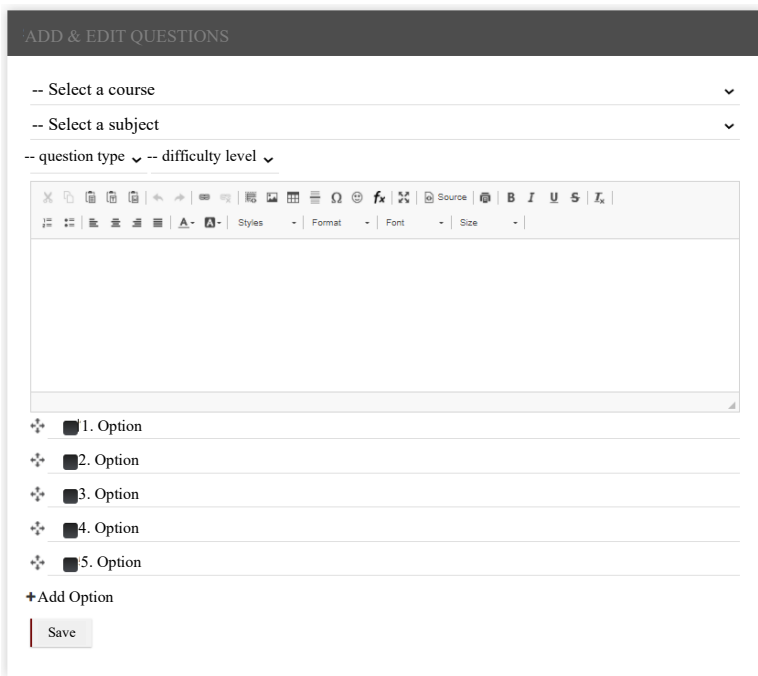


Figure 2: Multiple Choice Question Creating Form

Test Preparation Module

A test can be prepared in two ways in the system. First of all, the administrator/lecturer must click the target course and see the course subjects' list for the test. The first method involves automatically selecting the previously added items from an item pool by the lecturer. The lecturer determines the number of the item in each subject and difficulty level of the exam in the test (Figure 3). The system randomly chooses items from the item pool, considering the lecturer's preference. For example, when the user

requests one item from every subject, the system randomly selects one item and marks the selected item number in bold and underlined (Figure 3). If the user moves the mouse over the question numbers, the question will appear on the screen. Although the system automatically selects the items, the user can remove them by clicking on them or selecting another item manually.

CREATE EXAM

Exam
Settings
Remove Items

Selected Course: Programlama Dilleri I

sorular

0 the number of questions randomly selected from each topic CREATE

Sınav Adı Exam title – not visible for student

SAVE

Course Topic Lists and Question Counts

Selected Item	Item Counts	Subjects	Question IDs
<input type="text" value="1"/>	16	İşletim Sistemi	88 89 90 93 95 98 99 111 112 115 119 130 135 823 824 826
<input type="text" value="1"/>	1	Kernel	91
<input type="text" value="1"/>	2	İşletim Sistemi Görevleri	94 113
<input type="text" value="1"/>	8	İşlem Yönetimi	101 102 105 116 129 132 134 136
<input type="text" value="1"/>	1	İşletim Sistemi Tarihi	100
<input type="text" value="1"/>	3	Dosya Yönetimi	103 117 118
<input type="text" value="1"/>	4	Bellek Yönetimi	104 122 123 133
<input type="text" value="1"/>	6	Zamanlama Algoritmaları	106 137 138 139 140 141
<input type="text" value="1"/>	11	Puğtiller İşletim Sistemleri	92 96 107 108 109 110 120 121 125 127 128
<input type="text" value="1"/>	2	Kaynak Yönetimi	97 114
<input type="text" value="1"/>	2	Lisanslar	124 126
<input type="text" value="1"/>	1	Programlama Dilleri	825
<input type="text" value="1"/>	4	Donanım	827 , 828, 829, 830

The question randomly selected by the system, or chosen by the user

Number of question(s) selected for each subject

Figure 3: Test Preparation Screen

In the second method, the administrator creates a test by manually selecting the items in each subject. A lecturer can also pick the items separately or use them in a combination employing the previous method.

The system also allows the lecturer to remove items from the item pool while preparing a test. For example, multiple-choice, open-ended, gap-filling, matching questions, or items belonging to a previous test can be removed from question pool for a new test. The lecturer can remove one or more of them simultaneously. It prevents the repetition of the same items in the second test in a semester.

After selecting the items and difficulty level, the administrator can label and save the test. Then, s/he is directed to a page, including the testing settings. Here, the lecturer determines all features of the test (Figure 4).

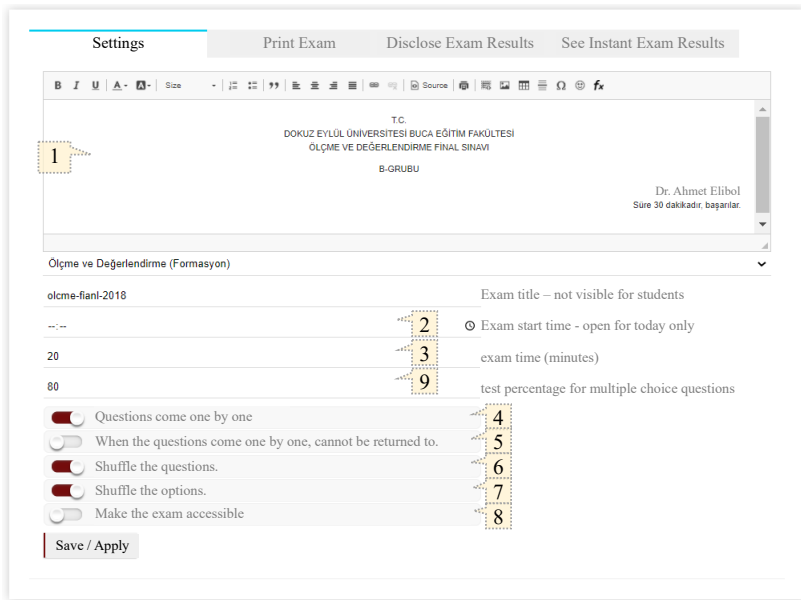


Figure 4: Changing Testing Properties

Test Code and Title

The system generates a code for each test similar to "9f376c21c2ffc55bcdf195922890fbce" consisting of 32 characters. This unique code provides access to all files and data related to the test in the database for authorized persons. This code appears only in the browser address bar. As shown in Figure 4 (Number 1), the lecturer can also make a title for the test and add the necessary explanations. S/he can format the text as s/he wishes.

Testing Time and Duration

The lecturer writes the time of the test in the field number 2 in Figure 4. The test should be started synchronized with the server time. Thus, the user is given a particular time and duration (Number 3). The server sets the test time; thus, possible changes in the client machine during the test does not influence the procedure.

Test Type and Percentages

The administrator can design a multiple-choice test or add different question types. In other words, the test can include both multiple-choice and open-ended questions. A percentage must be specified for such tests (Figure 4 - Number 9). For example, open-ended questions constitute 40% of the test, and the rest (60%) can include multiple-choice questions. The system automatically scores the test.

Item Presentation

One of the most important advantages of online tests is the delivery of test items in a different order for every student. Besides, if required, the system also allows for mixing the options. It is effortless to set in the system. If the lecturer activates the options "mix items" (Figure 4 - Number 6) and "mix options" (Figure 4 - Number 7), both items and options will be presented in a different order for every student. However, if required, students can be allowed to see only one item at a time or all the items simultaneously (Figure 4 - Number 4). Also, the lecturer can give students the right to answer the questions only once. That is, students cannot revise the answered item. Those settings serve to increase testing security and prevent cheating. Nevertheless, those settings are not compulsory for every test, and the administrator can activate any settings considering the testing terms and procedures.

Monitoring Module

The system offers instant monitoring of student achievement (i.e., in minutes or seconds). An administrator can monitor student scores (Figure 5 - Number 1 and 2). If the test involves multiple-choice, true, false, or matching questions, the administrator sees it as "1" if the answer is correct and "0" if it is wrong. However, if the test contains open-ended questions, the administrator can click Number 2 in Figure 5 and see the text form of the student's answer.

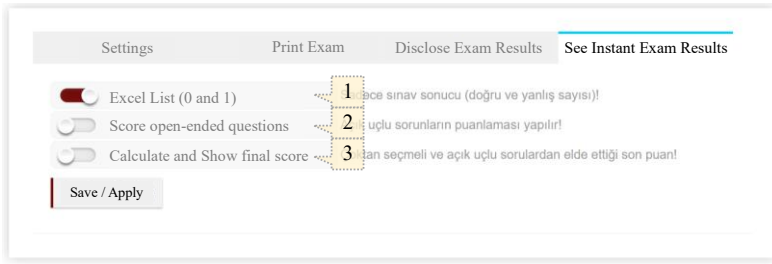


Figure 5: Test Monitoring Module

If the user chooses the number 1 option, she will see a screen in which, correct answer is labelled as “1” and wrong answer is “0”. In the screen, it is also possible to prevent students to reach the questions. If the user clicks the lock button, students can no longer access the questions. If the user chooses the number 2 option, s/he will see a screen on which, the user can score each question based on question total score. Additionally, students' activities for the classroom and similar actions can be scored on this screen. If the user clicks the 3 option, s/he will see the final scores of the students. In this stage, it is possible to see all scores together including additional scores, multiple chose and open ended questions.

Feedback Module

Providing feedback, which is the most significant advantage of the given online testing system, contributes to student learning and offers lecturers the opportunity to reflect on students' learning following a test. Multiple-choice tests, as supportive learning tools, can be useful by providing feedback. Following the test, the feedback module (Figure 6) separately shows the test results (number 1 in Figure 6), test items (number 2 in Figure 6), correct answers (number 4 in Figure 6), students' answers (number 3 in Figure 6), lecturer's comments/feedback (number 5 in Figure 6), and supportive learning resources for the wrong answers (number 5 in Figure 6).



Figure 6: Feedback Module

The module can provide feedback for all question types, including multiple-choice questions. In this sense, appropriate feedback and resources should be recorded for each item. However, if required, the lecturer can add appropriate feedback and resources after the test. Students can also see their answers and the distribution of test scores.

Test Module

As shown in Figure 7, students can see the test items using their test ID from anywhere with any device (computer, laptop, phone or tablet or a platform which support IOS and android), if access to the test is allowed by the lecturer. The most advantageous point of the system is using an easy-to-use, simple, and understandable interface. The system was updated several times, considering the teachers' and students' feedback. In the field on the right in figure 7, there is a section for student information including name, surname and IP address, test item numbers, remaining time, and the button to complete the test. Students can access any item on the screen by clicking the item number. However, the administrator must activate the "Allow access to all test items" in the testing settings. In addition on the exam page, students can see test instructions, explanations and comments at the top of the page recorded by the lecturer. The given information can be edited and updated immediately at any time if additional information needs for the students.

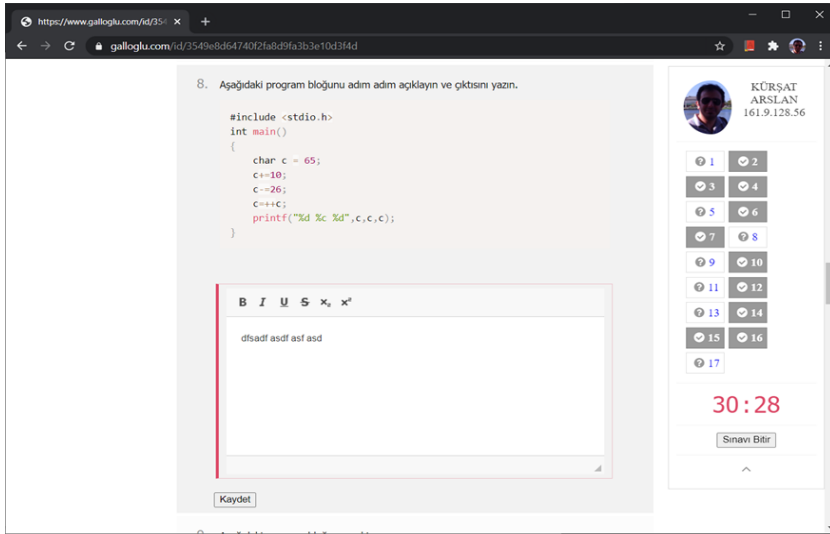


Figure 7: Test Module

An open-ended question above is from the "Programming Languages I" midterm exam. Students are expected to enter the answer and click the "Save" button. It is not mandatory to click the save button during the exam, but it is especially important for technical problems such as power cut or internet loss to avoid losing the marked questions or written answers. When it is saved in the system, the item background becomes gray with the OK icon in the right panel. Hence, the unanswered items in the test can be seen explicitly. Since student answers are saved in the database, students can continue the test with the administrator's approval in case of a power cut or any problem.

Exam Security

If students open a different page or leave the page during the test, s/he is considered to have completed the test. If the time is not over, s/he can continue the test only with the lecturer's approval. The time is measured for each question during the test. Every item is saved, and the IP number is added to the system with the answer. Hence, the use of different IP numbers can be detected. The test items can be presented separately or together on one page, depending on the lecturer's preference. It was revealed that the separate presentation of test items considerably prevents cheating as each student sees one item at a time, and it is challenging to find that item in the list even if it is seen on the screen of another student.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The effective use of technology in education has led paper-and-pencil tests to evolve into web-based assessment systems. Assessment and evaluation are essential and indispensable parts of education. According to Hughes (2015), teachers should consider three points in an assessment tool: validity (the test measures the target content), reliability (the correct measurement of the target content), and practicality (the efficiency of a test in terms of timing and application). Today, valid and reliable tests are commonly used thanks to the item pools in online assessment. Web-based systems offer a valuable testing opportunity in practical and financial terms, compared to paper-and-pencil tests. Additionally, they can provide an instructional contribution that is not available in paper-and-pencil tests. Pressey (1950) stressed that tests are essential tools for assessment and the reinforcement of the learned material, which one of the most significant instructional advantages of online testing systems. Another benefit is the digital support of different media tools on items. In other words, various visuals such as video, picture, graphic, and sound can be integrated into a test item. Students also have the chance to learn the test results immediately. However, it would not be fair to view online testing systems only from students' perspectives. Online testing systems substantially reduce the burden of faculty members so that lecturers can deal with students' concerns about the test and find the opportunity to improve in other fields.

In this regard, the current paper introduces the design, development, and implementation steps S-GALL, an online testing system that offers a simple and practical interface and a useful feedback module. Unlike the other online assessment systems developed in doctoral studies in Turkey, S-GALL is a commonly used testing system. It has been used by four lecturers and more than 2000 students at Dokuz Eylül University. Almost 100 online tests have been smoothly carried out in the system so far. The critical contribution of online testing systems is a design based on the presence of the minimum problems. The safety of test items and student information is essential for database security. Thus, such problems were solved in S-GALL using both the theoretical and applicable knowledge for the database and test security. With a simple interface in S-GALL, frequently observed problems in online assessment systems such as complicated test instructions or items were

resolved for both students and lecturers. Improvements in the interface design of S-GALL are made depending on user feedback. S-GALL also has a test printing module, which is not included in any online testing system. If necessary, the system presents the opportunity to print out the test. This module was integrated into the system upon user request and experience.

In conclusion, this study introduced an online testing system that prioritizes feedback, data security and user experiences, offers an easy and straightforward interface, is compatible with both desktop and mobile devices, and supports different item types. S-GALL is expected to contribute to the literature on online assessment systems in higher education in Turkey to be a good alternative and model for decision-makers and designers. Future studies are planned to address the practicality of the system, student/lecturer opinions and attitudes, and the effect of interface differences on academic success.

REFERENCES

- Akın, O. (2007). *Web tabanlı sınav sistemi* (Unpublished master's thesis). Sakarya Üniversitesi, Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Sakarya.
- Arslan, K., & Yetgin, G. (2020). Çevrimiçi değerlendirme sistemlerinin eğitimde kullanımı: bir içerik analizi. *Turkish Studies-Educational Sciences*, 15(2), 651-671.
- Baki, A ve Birgin, O. (2002). Matematik Eğitiminde Alternatif Bir Değerlendirme Olarak Bireysel Gelişim Dosyası Uygulaması. *5.Ulusal Fen Bilimleri ve Matematik Eğitimi Kongresi*. Ankara: ODTÜ
- Brown, G., Bull, J., & Pendleberry, M. (1997). *Assessing Student Learning in Higher Education Routledge*.
- Bull, J. (1999). Computer-assisted assessment: Impact on higher education institutions. *Journal of Educational Technology & Society*, 2(3), 123-126.
- Bull, J. (2002). *Implementation and Evaluation of Computer-assisted Assessment-final report*.
- Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (1998). Assessment and classroom learning. *Assessment in Education: principles, policy & practice*, 5(1), 7-74.
- Çakan, M. (2017). Eğitim sistemimizde yaygın olarak kullanılan sınav türleri. Pegem Atıf İndeksi, 87-122
- Chong, S. W. (2019). College students' perception of e-feedback: a grounded theory perspective. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*.
- Conole, G., & Warburton, B. (2005). A review of computer-assisted assessment. *ALT-J*, 13(1), 17-31.
- Crisp, V., & Ward, C. (2008). The development of a formative scenario-based computer assisted assessment tool in psychology for teachers:The PePCAA project. *Computers & Education*, 50(4),1509- 1526.
- Delaney, K. (2000). Inside Microsoft SQL Server 2000. Microsoft Press.
- Ghilay, Y. & Ghilay, R. (2012). Student evaluation in higher education: A comparison betweencomputer assisted assessment and traditional evaluation. *Journal of Educational Technology*, 9(2), 8-16.
- Ghilay, Y. (2017). ODL: Online distance learning of quantitative courses in higher education. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal*, 4(18), 62-72. <https://doi.org/10.14738/assrj.418.3698>
- Hang, B. (2011). The design and implementation of on-line examination system, Proceedings of the International Symposium on Computer Science and Society (ISCCS), (pp. 227-230). doi:10.1109/ISCCS.2011.68.
- Hughes, A. (2003). *Testing for language teachers (2nd ed.)*. Cambridge, England:

Cambridge University Press.

- Karahoca, A., Karahoca, D., & Günođlu, S. (2009). Web tabanlı sınav otomasyon sisteminin kullanılabilirlik analizi. Ulusal Yazılım Mühendisliđi Sempozyumu.
- Karakaya, Z. (2001), *Development and Implementation of On-line Exam for a Programming Language Course* (Master Thesis). METU, December 2001
- Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı (MEB). (2018). Güçlü yarınlar için 2023 eğitim vizyonu. Ankara: MEB.
- Ozan, Ö., & Özarslan, Y. (2010). eFront Öğrenme Yönetim Sistemi. *Akademik Bilişim*, 345-349.
- Özturan, T. (2016). Bilgisayar Temelli Ölçme-değerlendirmenin İngilizce Öğretmen Adaylarının Sınav Başarısı Ve Tutumu Üzerine Etkisi. Unpublished master's thesis, Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Ankara
- Pressey, S.L. (1950). Development and appraisal of devices providing immediate automatic scoring of objective tests and concomitant self-instruction. *Journal of Psychology* 30, 417-447
- Shader, E., Gouldsbrough, I., & Grady, R. (2006). Staff and student perceptions of computer-assisted assessment for physiology practical classes. *Advances in Physiology Education*, 30(4), 174-180.
- Thelwall, M. (2000) Computer-based assessment: a versatile educational tool. *Computer & Education*. 34(1) pp.37-49.
- Thorndike. E.L. (1927) The Law of Effect. *The American Journal of Psychology* 39 (1/4): 212-22. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1415413>
- Ünsal, H. (2010). Yeni bir öğrenme yaklaşımı: Harmanlanmış öğrenme. *Milli Eğitim Dergisi*, 185, 130-137.
- Yağcı, M., Ekiz, H., & Gelbal, S. (2015). Yeni Bir Çevrimiçi Sınav Modeli Geliştirilmesi ve Uygulanması. *Journal of Kirsehir Education Faculty*. 16 (1).
- Zhang, Z. V., & Hyland, K. (2018). Student engagement with teacher and automated feedback on L2 writing. *Assessing Writing*, 36, 90-102.

CHAPTER 6

IMPORTANCE OF EDUCATING ON THE FUTURE CHALLENGES OF HUMAN RIGHTS IN THE EUROPEAN CONTEXT

Dr. Maja PUCELJ, Assistant Professor¹

¹ Dr. Maja Pucelj is an Assistant Professor at FOS. Faculty of organisation studies Novo mesto, Centre for the Study of Contemporary Social Issues (RC SOCIAL), Novo mesto, Slovenia.maja.pucelj@fos-unm.si

She studied at the Faculty of Public Administration and the Faculty of Management and completed her master's degree at the Faculty of Government and European Studies and the Faculty of European Law. She earned her first doctorate from Alma Mater Europaea - ISH in the field of humanities and is currently completing her second doctorate at the Faculty of Government and European Studies in the field of international studies with a focus on human rights. Prior to joining FOS, she worked as an advisor to the Minister of Education, Science and Sports in the areas of pre-school education, primary education, secondary and higher education, adult education and quality of education, and as an undersecretary in the Service for the Implementation of Cohesion Policy at the Ministry of Education, Science and Sports. Her research interests include different challenges of vulnerable groups, hate speech, Islamophobia, and various challenges related to the general aspects of human rights.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Human rights are an essential tool for our future, due to the fact that they reflect our basic human needs and without them people would be striving in order to live a life in equality and dignity. If we closely examine the history, we can see, that every society individually developed a system, with which it thrived to ensure social cohesion, with the help of codifying the rights and also the responsibilities of its citizens' and residents. In 1948 we finally achieved the mutual consensus of international community, on a code of rights, that would bind all states, and so the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) was issued, followed by different mutually agreed human rights documents, like European Convention on Human Rights (1950) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC, 1990) ... But different events, which occurred in recent years (like increased migration, climate change, increased hostility, pandemic threats etc.), manifested in "growing challenges to human rights standards and principles all over the continent" (Council of Europe, 2021) and if we add the constant change of the world, the predictions of the future of human rights are a true challenge. But there are some common indicators, how the future in connection to human rights in Europe could develop, which we will closely examine in present research.

Bearing mentioned in mind, we prepared present research in order to examine the literature, prepared on the topic of human rights and other challenges, with which Europe will be faced in future and also to gain an insight, which challenges of the future of Europe they perceive as crucial, what is the general knowledge about the human rights of Slovenian citizens' and residents and also, what is their opinion about the need to increase their level of knowledge of human rights. With those research themes in mind, we closely examined what are human rights, what is the categorization of human rights, which human rights challenges are crucial by closely examining following database: Google, Google Scholar, Scopus, ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global, Web of Science, Base (Open Access), Springer Nature, JSTOR, ScienceDirect, SAGE, Wiley Online Library and Emerald and searched for the up-to-date literature (from the year 2012 on) in order to get as most relevant information about the future of human rights challenges in EU. We conducted a survey in order to find out what are Slovenian citizens' and residents' expectations about the future of human rights and challenges in

Europe and also what is the level of their knowledge about the human rights. We conclude this chapter with a consideration of the future of human rights in Europe and their role in life of European citizens' and residents'.

WHAT ARE HUMAN RIGHTS?

Throughout history, humanity has identified and incorporated a variety of human rights, the most important of which are the right to life, the right to freedom from torture, the right to equal treatment, the right to freedom of thought, expression and speech, the right to work, etc. “Human rights derive from the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) and arose in response to World War II to prevent re-atrocities. Nevertheless, throughout history we can trace many events that have contributed to the development of human rights as we know it today. From ancient cultures and religions, where there were tendencies towards equality and respect for other, philosophical thoughts, especially the idea of "natural rights", rights that belong to man because he is a human being, to the first legal documents that are recognize human rights similar to human rights.” (Amnesty International, 2022). The complexity and sensitivity of the issue of human rights can be perceived at practically every step of human life, and the relevance of them is also reflected in the possibility of limiting them only in exceptional cases. Nowadays, we are witnessing the human rights violations practically on daily basis, which is rather worrying aspect looking at it through the lens of the future.

But before we proceed, we have to clarify, what are human rights and why they are so essential for the quality of our lives. The answer on this question is not so simplistic as one may think. Human rights “are not universal and unlimited. Like any legal institute, they need a well-thought-out and elaborate definition, which should enable the highest possible level of legal clarity, certainty and objectivity for the addressees: holders of power and private legal and natural persons.” (Štefanec, 2021, p. 18). “Human rights are the basic rights and freedoms that belong to every person in the world, from birth until death.” (Equality and Human Rights Commission, 2019). Weston (2021) states that human rights are “rights that belong to an individual or group of individuals simply for being human, or as a consequence of inherent human vulnerability, or because they are requisite to the possibility of a just

society. Whatever their theoretical justification, human rights refer to a wide continuum of values or capabilities thought to enhance human agency or protect human interests and declared to be universal in character, in some sense equally claimed for all human beings, present and future.” “Human rights are norms that aspire to protect all people everywhere from severe political, legal, and social abuses.” (Nickel, 2021). “Human rights can be understood as defining those basic standards which are necessary for a life of dignity; and their universality is derived from the fact that in this respect, at least, all humans are equal. We should not, and cannot, discriminate between them.” (Council of Europe, 2020). So, if we take a step closer into defining human rights, we can say the human rights: 1) are “claim rights that impose duties or responsibilities on their addressees or duty bearers”, 2) are plural and address a variety of specific problems, 3) are universal (due to the fact that “all living humans—or perhaps all living *persons*—have human rights”, 4) have high-priority (human rights are matters of “paramount importance” and their violation “a grave affront to justice, are inalienable in a sense that they are very hard to lose, are moral rather than legal rights and should be defined as minimal rights (Nickel, 2021). Bast et al. (2020) and Lampe (2010) add that human rights are legal norms, which have their basis and protection in public international law. “The EU and its Member States are legally bound by these norms: As a subject of international law, the EU is obliged to respect, protect, and promote Human Rights to the extent that they are part of the unwritten body of customary international law.¹¹ For the EU Member States, these and other obligations primarily follow from the Human Rights treaties to which they are a party. In addition, both for the EU and for its Member States, the commitment to Human Rights is constitutionally entrenched as a foundational value (cf. Art. 2 TEU).” (Bast et al., 2020).

In accordance to stated, we can claim that "Europe has led the world in the development of a human rights system that gives individuals the ability to challenge arbitrary, invasive, or discriminatory national laws." (Open Society Foundation, 2017). With mentioned agree Gómez Isa et al. (2016), while stating: “Since the end of the Cold War, the EU has projected itself as a normative power, placing human rights and democratic principles as essential pillars of EU’s identity at both internal and external level”. “The European Union is bound by its Treaty to promote human rights, democratization and

development. The universality, interrelation and indivisibility of human rights, including civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights, as reaffirmed by the 1993 World Conference on Human Rights in Vienna, is the central principle guiding its actions” (OHCHR, 2021). But considering that "the European Union is a work in progress. It is moving, changing, reinventing itself in the face of new challenges that can be both institutional (e. g. democratic gap....) and circumstantial (e.g. poverty, financial crisis, and international security challenges)" (Eurodiaconia, 2020), we must acknowledge that Europe has faced several serious challenges in recent years, reflected in various threats to human rights in future.

CATEGORIZATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS

“The term ‘human rights’ is used to denote a broad spectrum of rights ranging from the right to life to the right to a cultural identity. They involve all elementary preconditions for a dignified human existence. These rights can be ordered and specified in different ways.” (Icelandic Human Rights Center, 2014). “Some theories help us understand where the concept of current-day human rights comes from. “Natural rights” are a very old philosophical concept. Related to natural law, natural rights refer to rights that are universal and inalienable. They are not related to any government or culture. By being human, a person is entitled to their natural rights. That’s where we get the concept of universal human rights.” (Human Rights Careers, 2020). So, human rights are not inherited, a person does not need to earn them, because they are natural rights and every individual is born with them. “Another example of human rights categorization is the distinction between positive rights and negative rights. The state must provide access to positive rights, like food, housing, education, and healthcare. Negative rights refer to the freedom from certain things, like slavery, torture, and suppression. It’s the state’s role to ensure these violations do not occur. In the “three generations” framework of human rights law, which has most impacted Europe, negative rights are first generation, while positive rights are part of the second and third generations.” (Human Rights Careers, 2020).

In this present work, we will derive from general division of human rights into three different generations:

1. Human rights of first generation:

“The first generation of human rights encompasses an individual’s civil and political rights. First generation rights can be divided into two sub-categories. The first sub-category relates to norms of “physical and civil security.” /.../ The second sub-category relates to norms of “civil-political liberties or empowerments.” /.../” (Reid, 2019).

So, the human rights of first generation can be divided into:

- **fundamental rights and freedoms**, consisted of dignity, right to life, right to freedom from torture or cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment, right to freedom from slavery, the slave trade and forced labour, right to freedom and right to fair trial and
- **civil and political rights**, consisted of the right to freedom of assembly and association, freedom of expression, freedom of religion or religious liberty, the right to privacy, the right to equality and non-discrimination.

“First generation rights are based around the rights of the individual person and are often the focus of conversations about human rights in western countries. They became a priority for western nations during the Cold War.” (Reid, 2019).

2. Human rights of second generation:

“The second generation of human rights encompasses socio-economic rights. Second generation rights can also be divided into two sub-categories. The first sub-category relates to norms of the fulfilment of basic needs, such as nutrition and healthcare. The second sub-category relates to norms of the fulfilment of “economic needs.” (Reid, 2019).

The human rights of second generation can be divided into:

- **economic rights**, consisted of the right to work, the right to fair wages, the right to dignity at work, freedom of assembly and association and
- **social rights** consisted of the right to social security.

“Second generation rights are based on establishing equal conditions. They were often resisted by western nations during the Cold War, as they were perceived as “socialist notions.” /.../ Prior to the fall of the Berlin Wall, first and second-generation rights were considered to be divided by the

responsibility they place on governments. First generation human rights were looked at as being a “negative obligation,” which means that they place a responsibility on governments to ensure that the fulfilment of those rights is not being impeded. Second generation human rights were viewed as being a “positive obligation,” which means that they place a responsibility on governments to actively ensure that those rights are in fact fulfilled. After the Berlin Wall fell, perspectives shifted to see governments as having the responsibility to “respect, protect, promote and fulfil” these rights.” (Reid, 2019).

3. Human rights of third generation:

“The third generation of human rights encompasses broad class rights. Third generation rights can be divided into sub-categories as well. The first sub-category relates to “the self-determination of peoples” and includes different aspects of community development and political status. The second sub-category is related to the rights of ethnic and religious minorities.” (Reid, 2019).

The human rights of third generation can be divided into:

- **post-industrial human rights**, which are consisted of the right to health and the right to a healthy living environment
- **rights of member of vulnerable groups**, which are consisted of the rights of persons with disabilities, the rights of children...
- **cultural rights**, which are consisted of the right to participate in cultural life, the right to cultural identity and heritage, the right to education...
- **rights of persons belonging to national or ethnic, religious and linguistic minorities**, which are consisted of different rights for mentioned minorities, like the prohibition of discrimination against national minorities, use of language, use of one's own name, dissemination of international dialogue, ...
- **the rights of nations**, which are consisted of the right to sustainable development, the right to equality of nations, the national right to self-determination...

the right to peace and security, where also a fight against terrorism is included.

HUMAN RIGHTS CHALLENGES IN THE EUROPEAN CONTEXT

The developments of the last decade, with increased levels of migration, gender discrimination and gender-based violence against women and girls, the emergence of a pandemic situation COVID-19, reflected in increased levels of poverty and (at least temporarily) lower global economic development, the rise of hate speech and hate actions also rooted in xenophobic nationalism, the emergence of threats to the rule of law and democracy, corruption, human trafficking, racism, and discrimination in Europe have increased the consideration of human rights in the future. Human Rights Watch (2021) warned in its recent report of the following challenges: the need to "more efficiently "guarantee the rights of minorities, /.../ and displaced people and to ensure gender equality in practice. It further stated that concerns remain about freedom of expression, including threats and physical attacks on journalists and public smear campaigns." The aforementioned report also warns of threats to the rule of law and media freedom. One of the challenges for the future of human rights is also evident in the following thoughts: "The UDHR, the two subsequent International Covenants and the ECHR are foundational documents perceived to lay down the cornerstone provisions of what human rights are. These lists provided a map to navigate the problems of the time.

Today's context, however, is very different. As a result, these lists can no longer be viewed as sacred. They need re-evaluation for the future." (Henry, 2017). Mentioned thought derives from changed perspectives and challenges than they were at the establishment of key international documents on the topic of human rights (for example the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was established in 1948, Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms was established in year 1950 ...). We are now faced with challenges, which rise from the evaluation of artificial intelligence, which is raising different questions due to its increased capability, the use of internet rises different questions about the storage and handling of data and setting proper control in order to limit the noted rise of

hate speech, the question has risen how to properly address the experiences of individuals who lie outside our current frameworks of understanding in society, like those who identify as gender fluid or non-binary, the environmental issues had significantly risen and should be properly addressed, the question of the rise of migrants of refugees opened different questions (for example, when US implemented a controversial travel ban, which was targeting people coming from mainly Muslim countries and refugees. etc.)

In present research, we will focus on the question of future challenges of human rights in Europe in the interest of respondents to gain the knowledge about the human rights. In order to determine, what are the future challenges of human rights in Europe accordingly to the theoretical findings, we have closely examined following database: Google, Google Scholar, Scopus, ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global, Web of Science, Google Scholar, Base (Open Access), Springer Nature, JSTOR, ScienceDirect, SAGE, Wiley Online Library and Emerald and searched for the up-to-date literature (from the year 2012 on) in order to get as most relevant information about the future of human rights challenges in EU. The search was directed on the future of human rights in EU and also on the future challenges, which EU should face in following years accordingly to different authors. The names and abstracts of the publications resulting from the search strategy were screened for relevancy. In case that the names and abstracts did not provide satisfactory level of information, we scanned full text to determine if the publication meets the inclusion criteria (which were up to date literature from year 2012 on and that the research literature deals with the future of human rights in EU and also with the future challenges, which EU should face in following years). In conducted research, we found scientific articles, which deal with the question of human rights/challenges in the Europe in the future and are presented below.

According to the White Paper on the future of Europe: reflections and scenarios for the EU27 by 2025 (2017), Europeans will be the oldest people in the world by 2030, making the aging of society one of the most important issues we need to address. The Council of Europe Commissioner for Human Rights, Dunja Mijatović, identified the following challenges for Europe in her annual activity report for 2019: the growing political and social acceptance of racism, the disregard for the human rights of migrants and refugees, the threat

to women's rights, the oppression of dissenters, and the erosion of the independence of the judiciary (Mijatović, 2020). As Thorbjørn Jagland announced in the Secretary-General's annual report, Ready for Future Challenges that we are "faced with growing threats to the rule of law and new challenges to human rights across our continent" (Jagland, 2019). The decline in the respect for the rule of law in many EU member-states, not just those in Central Europe is acknowledged also by Bond and Gostyńska-Jakubowska (2010) "One of the most comprehensive international indices, the World Bank's Worldwide Governance Indicators, shows that from 2009-2018 the rule of law deteriorated in 17 EU member-states." (Bond & Gostyńska-Jakubowska, 2020). Thorbjørn Jagland also identified the following threats to the EU in the area of human rights: "Serious human rights violations including corruption, human trafficking, racism and discrimination" (Jagland, 2019). The Council of Europe Commissioner for Human Rights, Dunja Mijatović agrees with the following by stating, "There have been growing challenges to human rights standards and principles all over the continent. In some cases, hostility to human rights as universal, indivisible, and legally binding has increased, fuelling a corrosive narrative that threatens the principles and standards on which Europe has been built over the past seven decades." (Council of Europe, 2021). Beside previously mentioned increase of racism, we have to acknowledge an increase of hate speech and hate crimes, which are confirmed by Mazham (2020), which is becoming a real threat, when we acknowledge the continuous increase in Antisemitism and Islamophobia in recent year. Rodríguez-Garavito (2021) identifies following five existential challenges to human rights: geopolitical, ecological, technological and socio-economic.

"With gas prices at record highs and their automatic reflection in consumers' electricity bills and little prospect of the situation improving in the first few months of the year, the energy price crisis will continue to be one of the European Union's major headaches in 2022. /.../ The EU's great defence commitment for 2022, which should be approved in March, is the so-called Strategic Compass for the EU-27 to gain autonomy in security and defence matters in the face of new challenges such as hybrid or cyber threats, and which envisages being able to deploy rapid action forces of some 5,000 troops. The greatest threat the EU currently faces in its immediate

surroundings is the tension between Ukraine and Russia.” (Atayalar, 2022). Congressional Research Service (2019) highlights following threats to EU: democracy and rule-of-law concerns in Poland, Hungary, and other EU members, migration and related societal integration concerns, a resurgent Russia, and a heightened terrorism threat. “The next decade will be defining for the future of Europe and Europe’s role in the world. Seismic global power shifts; pressure on liberal democracies; challenges to global governance; the transformation of economic models and the very fabric of societies; new uses and misuses of technology; contrasting demographic patterns; and humanity’s growing ecological footprint – the world is well on its way towards a new geopolitical, geo-economic and geotechnological order” (Mettler, 2019). On the other hand, Szemplér (2018) states that: “In recent years, the news has been full of the challenges facing the European Union. These challenges include issues that have been well-known for some time and are largely economic in nature (e.g. insufficient social and territorial cohesion, problems concerning European growth and competitiveness, the Eurozone crisis) as well as others that have even broader implications and are at least partially new (e.g. mass immigration and its demographic consequences, the lack of any real strategy regarding the broadly defined EU neighbourhood, /.../ and other potential “xxxits”).”

Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung foundation conducted a survey “The European Union Facing Massive Challenges – What are Citizens’ Expectations and Concerns?”, where they identified following challenges for Europe: “Citizens have been concerned most about labour-market prospects (68 percent) as well as about the sudden rise in the number of non-EU immigrants /.../ economic development of respondents’ /.../ followed by foreign policy and social cohesion (both 63 percent) as well as social security (62 percent).” (Hilmer, 2016). With migration being a threat agrees also Pachocka, which states: “International migration is a real challenge facing the European Union and its Member States today and in the near future.” (Pachocka, 2015). Also, Archick (2016) acknowledges the future challenges in the migration and refugee crisis and a heightened terrorism threat. The Vienna Institute for International Economic Studies (2018) in its report “Socio-economic challenges, potentials and impacts of transnational cooperation in central Europe” identified following challenges “Circular

economy/environment, Climate change, Demographic change/migration, Digital economy, Employment/skills, Energy, Globalisation/competitiveness, Governance, Social situation/social risks, Transport infrastructure/accessibility. “The EU is committed to reducing greenhouse gas emissions to 80–95% below 1990 levels by 2050 in the context of necessary reductions by developed countries as a group.” (European Commission, 2012).

Ulled et al. (2014) note following trends/challenges for the future of Europe: “More Stable Population - Depopulation of Eastern rural regions, Aging across Europe, Increasing Migrations. Labour migrations East-West (and probably South-North), Average economic growth at a moderate, not marginal, level, Divergent economies, with higher productivity gaps between the core and peripheral regions, More jobs being created everywhere, with lower salaries in less developed regions, Reindustrialisation of the economy, with balanced employment growth in manufacture and services, Growth in long-distance and intercontinental traffic, Accessibility changes influenced by other factors than new infrastructure, Expansive land consumption, producing more hybrid urban-rural geographies, Reduction on Green-House Emissions in more advanced industrial economies.” While European Strategy and Policy Analysis System in his research “Global Trends to 2030: Can the EU meet the challenges ahead?” identifies following challenges for Europe: reshaping the economy, towards a society of change and innovation, dealing with inequalities, restoring trust in democracy and enhancing the international role of the EU (ESPAS, 2015). Kantar in its report named “Future of Europe” stated that “Climate change is clearly regarded as the main global challenge affecting the future of the EU, with 45% of Europeans selecting this as the main challenge. The second and third most mentioned issues, mentioned by a similar proportion of Europeans are terrorism (38%) and health-related risks (37%). The fourth most cited challenge, mentioned by just over a quarter of Europeans, is forced migration and displacement (27%). Other challenges mentioned by just under one in five Europeans include organised crime (19%), breakdown in global relations between countries (18%), and the further rise of populism (17%). Challenges considered relatively less important to Europeans include cyber war and new forms of conflicts (13%), rapid changes in the population (12%), risks arising from new technologies

(11%), and the decline of the share of the European population compared to the rest of the world (10%)” (Kantar, 2020). Raines et al. (2017) notes following crucial challenges for Europe: The legacy of the eurozone crisis, The refugee crisis, Populist anti-EU parties, An illiberal drift in Central and Eastern Europe and A legitimacy crisis. Thorn (2019) notes following challenges for the future of the Europe: terrorism, geopolitical threats and inter-state conflict, security threats, financial crises, energy crises, pandemics and a multitude of unknowable threats. We have to also note, through looking on the future challenges EU, that a threat of possible disintegration of European union is noted by different authors like Patomäki (2017), European Economists for an Alternative Economic Policy in Europe (2017), Schnapper (2017), Schramm (2019), Markakis (2020) etc.

A detailed literature review shows that the following threats and challenges related to human rights have emerged in the EU: Decline in democracy (including threats to the rule of law), increase in hate speech, hate crimes and violence in general, stigmatisation, xenophobia and discrimination in general (especially directed towards Antisemitism and Islamophobia). Europe also faces challenges related to declining birth rates, increasing life expectancy, migration, various environmental, climate and geopolitical challenges, various security challenges (such as terrorism), the emergence of COVID-19 and the resulting medical crisis, concerns about rising prices/inflation/cost of living and unemployment, the state of public finances and the general economic situation, ... Also, prior to and between COVID-19, women and girls in the EU experience persistent gender discrimination and gender-based violence, which is a worrying trend in terms of gender equality as a goal of the EU. Bocconi University (2020) agrees with stated by pointing out following key challenges for Europe: “from the post-pandemic economic recovery to climate change, from the technological transition to geopolitical instability”. Amnesty International (2020) added that "government responses to COVID-19 threaten a wide range of rights in Europe and Central Asia and highlight the human costs of social exclusion, inequality, and state overreach. Inadequate health systems and failure to provide adequate PPE exacerbated mortality rates, workers struggled to access adequate social security, and public health interventions disproportionately affected marginalised individuals and groups. Many governments also used the pandemic as an

excuse to seize power, restrict freedoms, and disregard human rights obligations." Bassot (2021) issued in-depth analysis "Ten issues to watch in 2021", where he identified those crucial aspects for future: access to food, reinvigorate the fight against inequality, increased focus on culture, a digital boost for the circular economy, lack of supply for critical raw materials for Europe, managing Europe's boarder...

So, if we categorize mentioned challenges, which were identified with already conducted research, they can be distributed to:

Table 1: Challenges in the European context, accordingly to different authors in connection to variety of human rights

Human rights	Challenges in the European context, accordingly to different authors in connection to variety of human rights	Author(s)
Fundamental rights and freedoms	The erosion of the independence of the judiciary	Mijatović (2020)
	Growing threats to the rule of law and democracy/governance/media freedom/rise of populism ²	ESPAS (2015), Raines et al. (2017), Congressional Research Service (2019), Jagland (2019), Mettler (2019), Eurodiaconia (2020), Kantar (2020), Human Rights Watch (2021), Atayalar (2022)
	The disregard for the human rights of migrants and refugees (which intertwines also with economic and social rights and also with the right to peace and security)	Ulled et al. (2014), Congressional Research Service(2019), Mijatović (2020)
	Managing Europe's boarder/increased international migration (which intertwines	Pachocka (2015), Hilmer (2016), Archick (2016), Raines et al. (2017), Szemlér

² We marked with grey those challenges, which were mostly (at least through three or more authors) mentioned.

	also with the right to peace and security)	(2018), The Vienna Institute for International Economic Studies (2018), Eurodiaconia (2020), Kantar (2020), Bassot (2021), Atayalar (2022)
	Human trafficking	Jagland (2019)
	Corruption	Jagland (2019)
	Access to food	Bassot (2021)
	Transport infrastructure / accessibility	Ulled et al. (2014), The Vienna Institute for International Economic Studies (2018)
Civil and political rights	Ensure gender equality in practice / Inequality	ESPAS (2015), Human Rights Watch (2021), Amnesty International (2020), Bassot (2021)
	The growing political and social acceptance of racism, increase of hate speech	Mijatović (2020), Jagland (2019), Mazham (2020)
	The oppression of dissenters	Mijatović (2020)
	Geopolitical instability / insecurity	Mettler (2019), Thorn (2019), Bocconi University (2020), Rodríguez-Garavito (2021)
	Social exclusion	Amnesty International (2020)
Economic rights	(Post-pandemic) economic recovery / reshaping the economy / financial crisis / economical threat	ESPAS (2015), Thorn (2019), Bocconi University (2020), Rodríguez-Garavito (2021), Atayalar (2022)
	Labour-market prospects/Unemployment/Increasing poverty (which intertwines also with social rights)	Ulled et al. (2014), Hilmer (2016), The Vienna Institute for International Economic Studies (2018), Eurodiaconia (2020)
	A digital boost for the circular economy/ Circular	The Vienna Institute for International Economic

	economy/environment / technological threat	Studies (2018), Bassot (2021), Rodríguez-Garavito (2021)
	Lack of supply for critical raw materials for Europe	Bassot (2021)
	Energy efficiency (which intertwines also with post-industrial human rights) and inflation	European Commission (2012), The Vienna Institute for International Economic Studies (2018), Thorn (2019), Atayalar (2022)
	Globalisation / competitiveness	Szemlér (2018), The Vienna Institute for International Economic Studies (2018)
	Low-carbon economy (which intertwines also with post-industrial human rights)	European Commission (2012)
Social rights	Aging of society / contrasting demographic patterns	Ulled et al. (2014), European Commission (2017), Mettler (2019), Eurodiaconia (2020), Kantar (2020)
	Adequate social security / social threat	Hilmer (2016), The Vienna Institute for International Economic Studies (2018), Amnesty International (2020), Rodríguez-Garavito (2021)
Post-industrial human rights	Climate change / ecological threat	The Vienna Institute for International Economic Studies (2018), Mettler (2019), Bocconi University (2020), Kantar (2020), Rodríguez-Garavito (2021), Atayalar (2022)
	Inadequate health systems / pandemic threats	Thorn (2019), Amnesty International (2020), Kantar (2020)
Rights of	The threat to women's rights	Mijatović (2020)

members of vulnerable groups	(which intertwines also with civil and political rights – right to equality...)	
Cultural rights	Increased focus on culture	Bassot (2021)
Rights of persons belonging to national or ethnic, religious and linguistic minorities	Need to "more efficiently "guarantee the rights of minorities, /.../ and displaced people	Human Rights Watch (2021)
The rights of nations	A threat of possible disintegration of European union	Patomäki (2017), European Economists for an Alternative Economic Policy in Europe (2017), Schnapper (2017), Schramm (2019), Markakis (2020)
The right to peace and security	Security and defence	Thorn (2019), Kantar (2020), Atayalar (2022)
	Heightened terrorism threat	Congressional Research Service (2019), Thorn (2019), Kantar (2020)

Source: Pucelj (2022).

Accordingly, to above mentioned review of theoretical findings, we can see that research as crucial challenges in connection to human rights identify following crucial aspects:

- in the aspect of **fundamental rights and freedoms**, we can expose the challenge of managing Europe’s borders due to the increased international migration and with that regards the disregard for the human rights of migrants and refugees, growing threats to the rule of law and democracy/governance,
- in the aspect of **civil and political rights**, we can expose the need to address inequality and the growing political and social acceptance of racism and the increase of hate speech,

- in the aspect of **economic rights**, we can expose labour-market prospects, the need of reshaping the economy, energy efficiency and inflation
- in the aspect of **social rights**, we can expose aging of society / contrasting demographic patterns and the need to ensure adequate social security
- in the aspect of **post-industrial human rights**, we can expose challenges which relate to overarching objective of the EU Green Deal for the EU, with the primary goal to become the first climate neutral continent by 2050.

Therefore, we believe that it needs no further explanation that education and discussion about human rights (especially with regard to the future) is of utmost importance for the future of the EU. The importance of addressing the human rights challenges is shown by the fact that the EU has launched the Global Europe Human Rights and Democracy program in 2021, established a dedicated EU Global Human Rights Sanctions Regime, adopted a new Action Plan on Human Rights and Democracy (2020-2024), which will be used as a roadmap of actionable priorities, with placing human rights in the centre of EU attention etc. The adopted The Action Plan on Human Rights and Democracy (2020-2024), “the third of its kind, which serves to implement the Strategic Framework on Human Rights and Democracy (adopted in 2012), which lays out the key principles, objectives and priorities for EU external policies. The Action Plan is structured around five lines of action: I) Protecting and empowering individuals, II) Building resilient, inclusive and democratic societies, III) Promoting a global system for human rights and democracy, IV) New technologies: Harnessing opportunities and addressing challenges and V) Delivering by working together” (EEAS, 2020).

Given the various types of human rights violations, which occurred around the globe and in the EU and the increase in various human rights challenges such as discrimination, democratic deficits, weak institutions, aging populations, (in)equality, poverty and global inequalities, armed conflict and violence, etc., the need to address these challenges is more present and obvious than ever. Therefore, it is important that we address these

problems from different aspects. But the most important thing is that we always keep in mind the main goal of Europe:

"Change in all things may be inevitable, but what we want from our lives and the European values that we hold dear remain the same. We want a society in which peace, freedom, tolerance, and solidarity are placed above all else. We want to live in a democracy with a diversity of views and a critical, independent, and free press. We want to be free to speak our mind and be sure that no individual or institution is above the law. We want a Union in which all citizens and all Member States are treated equally. We want to create a better life for our children than we had for ourselves." (European Commission, 2017).

When we examined the limited number of studies on the topic of the future of human rights in the European context, we found that the authors identify different aspects of the future development of human rights. Therefore, we decided to conduct a survey among the Slovenian public to find out what, from their point of view, are the crucial aspects of the future of human rights in the European context and what additional aspects of human rights/future challenges they would like to gain additional knowledge about.

WHAT ARE SLOVENIAN CITIZENS' AND RESIDENTS' EXPECTATIONS ABOUT THE FUTURE OF HUMAN RIGHTS AND CHALLENGES IN EUROPE?

A survey with a questionnaire has been conducted between January and February 2022 among the general public. A total of 67 units were included in the analysis (of which 2 respondents only partially completed the survey). In the survey 46 (71%) respondents represented women and 19 (29%) represented man. Mainly the respondents represented the age group from 21-40 years (36 respondents or 55%) and the age group from 41-60 (26 respondents or 40%), only 3 respondents (5%) represented the age group 61 years and above. On the question, what is their current status, respondents answered that they are active (54 respondents or 83%), included in educational process (4 or 6%), non-active (2 respondents or 3%) and 1 unemployed (2%), while 4 respondents answered Other (where they stated

that they are invalids). The respondents have mainly finished higher or university degree education (32 respondents or 49%), 15 respondents (23%) have completed high school (secondary school, EOK 4) degree and 15 respondents (23%) have completed postgraduate study (specialization, master 's degree or doctorate), 2 respondents (3%) finished primary school and 1 respondent (2%) finished vocational school or shorter training programs.

The research population sample used for the present study was a nonprobability sampling with a snowball method. The main disadvantage of the method is the unrepresentativeness of the sample for Slovenian population, in favour of the method speaks the fact that used method is currently the best and cheapest way to access the studied population. Nevertheless, this method gives a sense of the general perception of the Slovenian population regarding the identification of challenges and areas of importance of human rights and the desire for education in these areas. We tested the internal consistency and reliability of our questionnaire with Cronbach Alpha and found out that it is highly reliable with a value of Cronbach's Alpha more than 0.8 and below 0.90 (e. g. 0.810). The mentioned value shows that the respondents answered consistently and if we would repeat questions on this topic in a new pattern, we would very likely come up with similar answers.

Table 2: Reliability Statistics - Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.810	86

Source: Pucelj (2022).

We asked the respondents the question “How do you assess your knowledge of human rights?” 5 (7%) of respondents answered that their knowledge is low, 28 (42%) answered that they have partial knowledge, 29 (43%) answered that they have good knowledge and 5 (7%) answered that they have excellent knowledge. From the calculated average of responses (2.5), it appears that the respondents consider their knowledge to be partial to good. To the question “Do you think you need more knowledge in the field of human rights?”, 32 (48%) of the respondents answered “Yes”, 28 (42%) answered “Maybe” and only 7 (10%) answered “No, I am satisfied with my

knowledge in this field”. From the calculated average of responses (1.6), it appears that respondents estimate that they would need more knowledge from the field of human rights. To the question “Would you be willing to attend a workshop/lecture that would give you more knowledge in the field of human rights?” 27 (40%) of the respondents answered "Yes", 29 (43%) answered "Maybe", and 11 (16%) answered "No". The calculated average of responses (1.8) indicates that respondents would be interested in attending workshops/lectures on human rights.

When we asked respondents to assess their level of knowledge in the areas of human rights listed below and to indicate in which area of human rights, they would like to acquire knowledge, we received the following responses:

I. **Fundamental rights and freedoms** (protection of human personality and dignity, right to life, prohibition of torture, prohibition of slavery and forced labour, right to liberty, right to a fair trial), → 43 (64%) respondents answered that they had limited knowledge, 19 (28%) indicated that they had sufficient knowledge and 5 (7%) that they had no knowledge in this area. 41 (62%) respondents answered that they would need additional knowledge on this topic and only 25 (38%) answered that they do not need additional knowledge on this topic.

II. **Civil and political rights** (freedom of assembly and association, freedom of expression, freedom of religion, right to privacy, right to equality and non-discrimination), → 45 respondents answered that they have limited knowledge (68%), while 17 (26%) answered that they have sufficient knowledge and 4 (6%) that they have no knowledge in this area. 45 (68%) respondents answered that they would need additional knowledge on this topic and only 21 (32%) answered that they do not need additional knowledge on this topic.

III. **Economic and social rights** (right to work, right to fair pay, right to dignity at work, right to unionisation and participation), → 45 respondents answered that they have limited knowledge (67%), while 16 (24%) answered that they have sufficient knowledge and 6 (9%) that they have no knowledge in this regard. 52 (80%) respondents said that they would need additional knowledge on this topic and only 13 (20%) answered that they do not need additional knowledge on this topic.

IV. **Post-industrial human rights** (right to health, right to a healthy living environment) → 52 respondents answered that they have limited knowledge (79%), while 9 (14%) answered that they have sufficient knowledge and 5 (8%) that they have no knowledge in this regard. 49 (74%) respondents answered that they would need additional knowledge about this topic and only 17 (26%) answered that they do not need additional knowledge about this topic.

V. **Rights of members of vulnerable groups** (disabled, rights of children, ...) → 45 respondents answered that they have limited knowledge (67%), while 10 (15%) answered that they have sufficient knowledge and 12 (18%) that they have no knowledge in this regard. 46 (70%) respondents answered that they would need additional knowledge about this topic and only 20 (30%) answered that they do not need additional knowledge about this topic.

VI. **Cultural rights** (rights to cultural identity, right to participate in cultural life, right to education, freedom to exchange information, right to participate in cultural policy), → 41 respondents answered that they have limited knowledge (61%), while 9 (13%) answered that they have sufficient knowledge and 17 (25%) that they have no knowledge in this regard. 41 (62%) of respondents answered that they would need additional knowledge on this topic and only 25 (38%) answered that they do not need additional knowledge on this topic...

VII. **Rights of minorities** (minority rights, use of language, participation of minorities in local self-government, right to equality of peoples, right of nation to self-determination, self-determination, right to peace and security) → 45 respondents answered that they have limited knowledge (67%). In comparison, 7 (10%) answered that they have sufficient knowledge and 22% that they have no knowledge in this area. 38 (58%) of respondents answered that they would need additional knowledge about this topic and only 28 (42%) answered that they do not need additional knowledge about this topic.

As we can see, the respondents stated that they have limited knowledge on human rights and need additional knowledge on this topic. Respondents showed the greatest interest in acquiring knowledge on the following human rights topics: (1) Economic and Social Rights, (2) Post-

Industrial Human Rights, (3) Rights of Members of Vulnerable Groups, and (4) Civil and Political Rights. They also indicated that they would like to learn more about the rights of people with disabilities. Respondents also expressed interest in attending trainings on fundamental rights and freedoms.

We also asked respondents, "**What challenges do you think Europe will face in the future?**" because we assess we need to know what challenges Europe will face because they are related to the issues of human rights and vice versa, and obtained following answers:

Table 3: Answers of the respondent to the question “What challenges do you think Europe will face in the future?”

Questions	Frequencies	%
Ensuring the right to work and related labour rights and reducing unemployment	32	49%
Preventing poverty of its inhabitants	32	49%
Ensuring democracy and the rule of law	31	48%
Restriction of hate speech and hostile acts	29	45%
Improving social inequalities	27	42%
Ensuring a clean environment (reduction of emissions, waste management...)	25	38%
Ensuring equality (regardless of nationality, race, sex, language, religion, political or other opinions, financial status, birth, education, social status, disability, or any other personal circumstance)	24	37%
An ageing population	24	37%
Preventing the possible disintegration of the European Union	23	35%
Migration control	19	29%
With the issue of climate change	19	29%
Ensuring solidarity	18	28%
Prevention of racism	15	23%
Ensuring a reduction in the level of corruption	15	23%
With opportunities to improve digital literacy	14	22%
By preventing potential military conflicts that	14	22%

could lead to war		
Ensuring the right to clean drinking water	13	20%
By preventing terrorism	13	20%
By providing affordable and clean energy	13	20%
Preventing energy poverty	12	18%
Ensuring the level of education or the level of knowledge of its inhabitants	9	14%
Ensuring the security of its external borders	9	14%
By providing a globally competitive and resilient industry	9	14%
Ensuring the safety of victims of violence (including within their own home)	8	12%
With sustainable agriculture and forestry	7	11%
Ensuring the well-being of its inhabitants	6	9%

Source: Pucelj (2022).

So, the following crucial challenges in connection to human rights accordingly to empirical finding were mentioned:

- **economic rights:** where the respondents exposed the question on how to ensure the right to work and related labour rights and reducing unemployment,
- **social rights:** where the respondents exposed the need to address ways on preventing poverty to EU inhabitants and improving social inequalities and also aging population,
- **fundamental rights and freedoms:** where the respondents exposed the challenge of ensuring democracy and the rule of law beside the question of managing Europe's boarder due to increased migration,
- **civil and political rights,** where the respondents exposed the need to restrict hate speech and hostile acts and ensure equality,
- **post-industrial rights,** where the respondents exposed the need to ensure a clean environment (reduction of emissions, waste management...) and

- **rights of nations**, where the respondents exposed the need to prevent possible disintegration of European Union.

We also asked our respondents, "**In which topic would you be interested in obtaining additional knowledge/education/training?**" and obtained following answers:

Table 4: Answers of the respondent to the question "What challenging topics would interest you in obtaining additional knowledge/education/training?"

Questions	Frequencies	%
Improving social inequalities³	28	44%
Preventing the poverty of its inhabitants	22	34%
Ensuring equality (regardless of nationality, race, sex, language, religion, political or other opinions, financial status, birth, education, social status, disability, or any other personal circumstance)	21	33%
An ageing population	21	33%
Ensuring a clean environment (reduction of emissions, waste management...)	20	31%
Restriction of hate speech and hostile acts	19	30%
Ensuring democracy and the rule of law	16	25%
Ensuring the well-being of its inhabitants	16	25%
Ensuring the right to work and related labour rights and reducing unemployment	15	23%
Ensuring solidarity	14	22%
With opportunities to improve digital literacy	13	20%
Ensuring the safety of victims of violence (including within their own home)	13	20%
Ensuring the right to clean drinking water	13	20%
By providing affordable and clean energy	12	19%
Migration control	11	17%
Ensuring a reduction in the level of corruption	11	17%
With the issue of climate change	10	16%

³ We bolded 10 most frequently answers questions, which are of vast importance for our respondent, accordingly to the stated frequencies (%) of the answers.

Prevention of racism	9	14%
With sustainable agriculture and forestry	9	14%
Ensuring the level of education or the level of knowledge of its inhabitants	8	13%
Preventing energy poverty	8	13%
By preventing terrorism	8	13%
By preventing potential military conflicts that could lead to war	7	11%
By providing a globally competitive and resilient industry	6	9%
Ensuring the security of its external borders	5	8%
Preventing the possible disintegration of the European Union	3	5%

Source: Pucelj (2022).

- As we can see from the tables above, the most mentioned issues that respondents identified as future challenges in the aspect of human rights and would also like to learn more about, can be attributed to following human rights categories:
- of the vast importance for additional knowledge the Slovenian citizens' and residents' asses the aspect of **social rights**, where they mostly mentioned improving social inequalities, ageing population, well-being and also ensuring solidarity (the last intertwines with economic rights),
- in the aspect of **economic rights**, we can expose the mostly mentioned ensuring the right to work and related labour rights and reducing unemployment, preventing poverty among inhabitants,
- in the aspect of **civil and political rights**, we can expose the mostly mentioned ensuring equality and restrictions of hate speech and hostile acts
- in the aspect of **post-industrial human rights**, we can expose the mostly mentioned ensuring a clean environment (reducing emissions, waste management...)

- in the aspect of **fundamental rights and freedoms**, we can expose the mostly mentioned ensuring democracy and the rule of law.

It is interesting to note that while respondents also mentioned preventing the possible disintegration of the European Union and controlling migration among the top 10 challenges facing Europe, they indicated that they were more interested in gaining knowledge about securing the well-being of inhabitants and ensuring solidarity. This suggests that respondents' thinking has shifted to the importance of "soft" factors such as well-being and solidarity, which enhance the quality of life of EU Inhabitants.

At the end of survey, we asked the respondents “For what purpose would you need such education?”. 51 (76%) respondents answered they would need it for their own educational purposes, 6 (9%) respondents answered they would need it for educational purposes as part of the study process, they are attending, while 3 (4%) respondents answered that they would need it for educational purposes for the needs of the employer.

The most commonly mentioned key challenge in the connection to human rights, when comparing the theoretical and empirical findings of this research are (looking from the most to the least mentioned challenge in above examined research):

Table 5: Comparing theoretical with empirical findings

THEORETICAL FINDINGS	EMPIRICAL FINDINGS
Within fundamental rights and freedoms , the question of managing Europe’s boarder due to increased migration and the disregard for the human rights of migrants and refugees and also growing threats to the rule of law and democracy, threats to media freedom and the rise of populism was noted as the most relevant.	Within economic rights , the question on how to ensure the right to work and related labour rights and reducing unemployment was noted as the most relevant.
Within social rights the challenge of aging of	Within social rights the addressing of

the society and ensuring adequate social security was exposed.	preventing poverty to EU inhabitants and improving social inequalities and also aging population was exposed.
Within post-industrial human rights the climate change and other challenges which relate to overarching objective of the EU Green Deal for the EU, with the primary goal to become the first climate neutral continent by 2050 was exposed.	Within fundamental rights and freedoms , the challenge of ensuring democracy and the rule of law beside the question of managing Europe's boarder due to increased migration was exposed.
Within economic rights the economic recovery, labour-market prospects, and energy efficiency (with intertwines with post-industrial human rights) was exposed.	Within civil and political rights , the restriction of hate speech and hostile acts and ensuring equality was exposed.
Within civil and political rights , the challenge, which arises from inequality and the growing political and social acceptance of racism, increase of hate speech was exposed.	Within post-industrial human rights the effort to ensure a clean environment (reduction of emissions, waste management...) was exposed.
Within the right to peace and security , the security and defence threats and heightened terrorism threats were exposed.	Within the rights of nations , the effort to prevent possible disintegration of European Union was exposed.
Within the rights of nations , the effort to prevent possible disintegration of European Union was exposed.	

Source: Pucelj (2022).

HUMAN RIGHTS EDUCATION ABOUT THE FUTURE CHALLENGES OF HUMAN RIGHTS IN EUROPEAN CONTEXT

Every person has a fundamental right to education, in order to help our society and individuals living in it, in reaching their full potential. The right to education can be found in Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948): “Everyone has the right to education. /.../ Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.” Plan of Action for the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education (1995-2004) (United Nations, 1996) states that “human rights education, training and public information were essential for the promotion and achievement of stable and harmonious relations among communities and for fostering mutual understanding, tolerance and peace.” “Human rights education is all learning that develops the knowledge, skills, and values of human rights” (Flowers & Rudelius-Palmer, n.d.).

“Human rights education shall be defined as training, dissemination and information efforts aimed at the building of a universal culture of human rights through the imparting of knowledge and skills and the moulding of attitudes and directed to: (a) The strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, (b) The full development of the human personality and the sense of its dignity, (c) The promotion of understanding, tolerance, gender equality and friendship among all nations, indigenous peoples and racial, national, ethnic, religious and linguistic groups, (d) The enabling of all persons to participate effectively in a free society, (e) The furtherance of the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.” (United Nations, 1996).

While the Preamble to The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) states that “Every individual and every organ of society /.../ shall strive by teaching and education to promote respect for these rights and freedoms /.../.” “the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) declares that a government “may not stand in the way of people learning about [their rights]” (HRE USA, n.d.). But “although news reports

refer to human rights every day, "human rights literacy" is not widespread in the United States. Students of law and international relations or political science may study human rights in a university setting, but most people receive no education, formally or informally, about human rights (Flowers & Rudelius-Palmer, n.d.). Even human rights activists usually acquire their knowledge and skills by self-teaching and direct experience." Mentioned coincides with the empirical finding of the present study. With primary focus on strengthening formal educational system with the knowledge on human rights topics and, as we could see, with the absence of focused education of the general public in European countries, we could be (if we present our thoughts figuratively) creating first and second-class citizens in terms of the knowledge of human rights. It is crucial that we bring human rights education closer to general public and prepare such education as useful in everyday life, so that individuals will know what their rights are and use them appropriately in everyday life to protect their fundamental human rights in every step of their life, which is reflected also in mentioned statement: "The future of the EU depends upon its truly embracing human rights in a concrete and enforceable manner rather than simply as declaratory principles" (Alegre, 2008). The empowerment of general European population with the knowledge of human rights, would offer an "opportunity to boost Europe's longer-term growth potential and tackle inequalities" (European Investment Bank, 2018).

It is also very crucial that the education of general and educational European population is not primarily focused only on the basic knowledge of human rights, but that it is also focused on future challenges of human rights in European context (which we mentioned in our study). Europe is currently faced with different threats, which derive from labour market uncertainty in connection with increase of poverty, social insecurity, geopolitical and economic instability, influx of migrants, rise of terroristic attacks in Europe, climate change, etc. Also, the foundations of human rights (for example the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was established in 1948, Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms was established in year 1950 ...) have slowly showed some inconsistencies in relation with the fact that Europe is facing new challenges, which were not foreseen, when establishing mentioned key international documents on the

topic of human rights (like the evaluation of artificial intelligence, the use of internet, etc., which we mentioned earlier).

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Europe is going to face different challenges, which arise through the connection to human rights, like aging society, ensuring adequate social security, migration, ensuring the right to work and related labour rights with reducing unemployment, reaching equality and restricting hate speech and hostile acts, the climate change and other challenges which relate to overarching objective of the EU Green Deal for the EU with connection to the goal of preserving clean environment (reduction of emissions, waste management...), ensuring democracy and the rule of law and preventing possible disintegration of European Union... As we can see, Slovenian citizens' and residents identified almost the same crucial key issues in connection to the human rights for the future of EU as the theoretical findings. Of vast importance from theoretical and empirical point of view are **fundamental, economic, and social rights**. While the majority of researchers in theoretical aspect of our research, acknowledge the vast importance of the fundamental rights and freedoms, through the question of managing Europe's boarder due to increased migration and the disregard for the human rights of migrants and refugees and also growing threats to the rule of law and democracy, threats to media freedom and the rise of populism, which also connects with the topic, which were also extensively present in the media reporting through the recent years, the respondents focus on prioritizing economic rights.

The different prioritization of the answers of the Slovenian citizens' and residents in empirical analysis can be explained that looking through the eyes of the individual, residing in Slovenia, the economic and social rights are of vast importance as it may, in the absence of adequate protection of the said rights, the existential existence of the individual could be endangered. Prioritization of fundamental rights from theoretical perspective can be explained with perception, that looking from the broader perspective - as researchers usually use, the key concern is to ensure fundamental rights and freedoms to all European citizens' and residents. When we ensure those rights, we can give additional effort to ensure other human rights. We have to

bear in mind that “democracy is essential if people are to live in freedom, dignity and security /... / it is also required as a backstop for maintaining human rights and the rule of law.” (Secretary General of the Council of Europe, 2021). With the democratic standards, the migrants are generally entitled to the same human rights protections as all individuals, while refugees have additional rights which derive from refugee legislation, also the media freedom is protected, and the rise of the populism is (or should be) limited. As the Report by the Secretary General of the Council of Europe (2021) notes “[t]hreats to media freedom and the safety of journalists have become so numerous, repeated and serious that they are jeopardising ... the stability and smooth functioning of our democratic societies”. With growing threats to the rule of law and democracy, we can see the increased threat to human rights, which has to be adequately addressed in future in we want to maintain the obtained level of human rights, which have to role to protect people from the government.

While EU and theoretical findings note the importance of post-industrial human rights through the climate change and other challenges which relate to overarching objective of the EU Green Deal for the EU, with the primary goal to become the first climate neutral continent by 2050, this aspect is of lower importance to our respondents, despite the fact that they acknowledge the importance of such topic if we look at the frequency of the answers of respondents. The vast importance of such topic is acknowledged from the researchers or Europe’s perspective, while EU citizens’ and residents, while acknowledging the importance of such topic, do not prioritize it, due to the fact that the crucial aspect for them is to ensure financial and social stability, and when they ensure such stability, they proceed with concentrating on human rights, which derive from post-industrial human rights. Nevertheless, as we can see, the theoretical and empirical findings show that the researchers and respondents are aware that climate change and environmental degradation have become a real threat to Europe and the rest of the world, which we have to urgently address.

As we could see, both theoretical and empirical findings find that one of the crucial aspects of human rights for the future of Europe within civil and political rights is addressing the present inequality and hate speech. Increasing the levels of inequality and the levels of hate speech, which we witnessed in

recent years, manifested in increased levels of overall hatred (primarily focused on minority groups, migrants, Jews, Muslims...). Such high levels of overall hatred pose a real threat to the future of human rights, due to the fact that such intensified felling of hate, could manifest itself in real-world harms, so it is crucial that we address these emotions upfront, before these levels of hatred escalate to a real-world harm. Within the theoretical findings the right to peace and security is also acknowledged as important, while our respondents acknowledge the lower importance of mentioned theme to them, which is correlated (by our opinion), that EU citizens' and residents are not in direct contact with such issues and prioritise human right topic, which directly affect their lives (so economic and social human rights).

As we could also see, both theoretical and empirical findings exposed the threat about the possible disintegration of European Union, which is also acknowledged by Patomäki (2017), European Economists for an Alternative Economic Policy in Europe (2017), Schnapper (2017), Schramm (2019) and Markakis (2020). Mentioned threat, which represents reverse process of European integration, reflected in case of Eurozone crisis, Ukraine crisis, Brexit crisis and Schengen crisis and will continue to reflect in case of further expansion or possible lowering of number of member states of Europe or could even reflect in possible change of geopolitical situation, which would have greater impact on Europe. Europe has, as we could see, survived many crises, but many different partial interests of its inner member states or states, which are not part of Europe, can reflect in disintegration of European Union. The fact is, that historically looking, many different types of associations failed, but due to the fact that the EU was established as a political-economic union on 1st November in 1993 in Maastricht, The Netherlands, so it is still rather young association, we can just hope, that the unity of EU remains intact as longer as possible.

Our research also showed that the respondents' asses that they would need more general knowledge of the human rights. The topic, which is of vast importance for future education accordingly to our respondents are the social rights, where they mostly mentioned improving social inequalities, ageing population, well-being and also ensuring solidarity (the last intertwines with economic rights), the economic rights, where the respondents exposed the need to ensure the right to work and related labour rights and reducing

unemployment and also preventing poverty among inhabitants, the civil and political rights, where the mostly mentioned aspects were ensuring equality and restrictions of hate speech and hostile acts, the post-industrial human rights, where the mostly mentioned were ensuring a clean environment (reducing emissions, waste management...) and the fundamental rights and freedoms, where the mostly mentioned were ensuring democracy and the rule of law. The results of present research (despite the fact that the research is not concluded on a representative sample, but nevertheless shows genuine interest of Slovenian citizens' and residents in such kind education) indicate that it would be essential to broaden educational courses on human rights topics outside of the formal educational system and increase the effort to empower EU citizens' and residents with such crucial knowledge, also for those who do not have a digital literacy knowledge as our respondents do. This coincides with the findings of the report "Modernisation Education and Human Rights: Quality assurance of learning outcomes and the student perspective", which was prepared by Hedbjörk et al. (2019), where they state: "A broad understanding of the concept of human rights is needed: Human rights should be embedded in programmes where relevant and adapted to the knowledge and skills required for a given profession. Content could be integrated or taught as stand-alone courses, mandatory or elective. Thus conceived, human rights education is not limited to educational content, but explored as a means to learn what you live."

We have tried to detect the biggest challenges in the connection to human rights in the future of EU through the study of different theoretical research and in addition also detect educational interests of Slovenian, so consequently European citizens' and residents, through the conducted empirical research. Our research showed that the Slovenian citizens' and residents acknowledge of lack of such knowledge and also acknowledge, that they would be interested in acquiring such knowledge. Despite the fact that EU extensively acknowledges the importance of education of human rights in European society, the focus of teaching of the human rights are still primarily centred on formal educational systems. How can people use and defend human rights, if they have a lack of knowledge about them? Due to the fact that it is anticipated that in the future, the overall education level should increase, we think that one of the crucial aspects to address in educational

sense for the future of Europe is putting an overall effort of increasing the level of the knowledge of the human rights of a general population, not only those included in formal educational processes.

The human rights education is a fundamental human right and with such focused education of general society (with the focus on future of human rights), we would ensure EU citizens and residents fully enjoy human rights and human dignity and encourage their commitment in mentioned regard, promote their active participation in democratic processes and structures, promote equal opportunities for their participation in different aspects of their everyday lives, more effectively implement gender equality and increase prevention of different forms of gender-based violence, promote access for EU citizens and residents and to obtain relevant information and promote awareness education and action among EU citizens and residents on environment and sustainable development with introducing EU green deal objectives. “Human rights must change to become tools which stimulate critical discussion and debate in the present, helping to carve a new vision for today’s future as opposed to continuing with that of the 20th century. Thought in such a way, human rights can emerge as not a thing of the past, but of the future.” (Henry, 2017). If we successfully manage to increase the educational achievements in mentioned perspective, EU citizens’ and residents lives could be much better through increased awareness of different aspects of their (human) rights.

REFERENCES

- Alegre, S. (2008). *Human Rights and the Future of the European Union*. Justice. <https://www.statewatch.org/media/documents/news/2008/apr/eu-justice-human%20rights-and-future-of-the-eu.pdf>
- Amnesty International. (2021). *Amnesty International Report 2020/21: The State of the World's Human Rights*. <https://www.amnesty.org/en/documents/pol10/3202/2021/en/>
- Amnesty International (2022). *O človekovih pravicah*. Šola človekovih pravic. <https://sola.amnesty.si/o-clovekovih-pravicah.html>
- Archick, K. (2016). The European Union: Current Challenges and Future Prospects: CSR Report. Congressional Research Service. <https://swsu.ru/sbornik-statey/pdf/R44249.pdf>
- Atayalar (2022, January 2). *The seven most important challenges facing the European Union in 2022*. <https://atalayar.com/en/content/seven-most-important-challenges-facing-european-union-2022>
- Bassot, E. (2021). *Ten issues to watch in 2021*. European Parliamentary Research Service. [https://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/IDAN/2021/659436/EPRS_IDA\(2021\)659436_EN.pdf](https://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/IDAN/2021/659436/EPRS_IDA(2021)659436_EN.pdf)
- Bast, J., von Harbou, F. & Wessels, J. (2020). *Human Rights Challenges to European Migration Policy (REMAP study)*, (1nd ed.). Published online.
- Bocconi University. (2020). *The challenges EU leaders must face up to - Future World*. Financial Times. <https://www.ft.com/partnercontent/bocconi-university/the-challenges-eu-leaders-must-face-up-to-future-world.html>
- Bond, I. & Gostyńska-Jakubowska, A. (2020). *Democracy and The Rule of Law: Failing Partnership?* Centre for European Reform. <https://www.cer.eu/publications/archive/policy-brief/2020/democracy-and-rule-law-failing-partnership>
- Congressional Research Service. (2019). *The European Union: Ongoing Challenges and Future Prospects: CSR Report*. <https://www.everycrsreport.com/reports/R44249.html>
- Council of Europe. (2020). *COMPASS Manual for human rights education with young people* (2nd ed). <https://www.coe.int/en/web/compass/what-are-human-rights->
- Council of Europe. (2021). *Challenges to human rights have intensified in Europe*. <https://www.coe.int/en/web/commissioner/-/challenges-to-human-rights-have-intensified-in-europe>

- Eurodiaconia (2020). *What are the key challenges for social Europe today?*
<https://www.eurodiaconia.org/resources/social-policy-toolkit/chapter-ii-social-policies-in-europe-today/what-are-the-key-challenges-for-social-europe-today/>
- European Commission. (2012). *Energy Roadmap 2050*. Publications Office of the European Union.
https://ec.europa.eu/energy/sites/ener/files/documents/2012_energy_roadmap_2050_en_0.pdf
- European Commission. (2017). *White paper on the future of Europe: Reflections and scenarios for the EU27 by 2025* [White paper]. Publications Office.
<https://op.europa.eu/sl/publication-detail/-/publication/ba81f70e-2b10-11e7-9412-01aa75ed71a1/language-en>
- European Economists for an Alternative Economic Policy in Europe. (2017). *The European Union: The Threat of Disintegration*. EuroMemo Group.
http://www2.euromemorandum.eu/uploads/euromemorandum_2017.pdf
- European Investment Bank. (2018). *Investing in Europe's future the role of education and skills*.
https://www.eib.org/attachments/efs/investing_in_europes_future_the_role_of_education_and_skills_en.pdf
- EEAS. (2020). *EU Action Plan on Human Rights and Democracy 2020–2024*. European External Action Service - European Union.
https://eeas.europa.eu/sites/default/files/eu_action_plan_on_human_rights_and_democracy_2020-2024.pdf
- Equality and Human Rights Commission. (2019). *What are human rights?*
<https://www.equalityhumanrights.com/en/human-rights/what-are-human-rights>
- ESPAS. (2015). *Global Trends to 2030: Can the EU meet the challenges ahead?* Publications Office of the European Union.
https://espas.eu/files/espas_files/about/espas-report-2015.pdf
- Flowers, N. & Rudelius-Palmer, K. (n.d.). *An Introduction to Human Rights Education*. Human Rights Here and Now. Retrieved February 23, 2022, from <http://hrlibrary.umn.edu/edumat/hreduseries/hereandnow/Part-2/HRE-intro.htm>
- Gómez Isa, F., Muñoz Nogal, E., Nagore, M., Szoszkiewicz, Ł., Wladasch, K., Dai, W., Lv, S., Nie, X., Zhou, Z., Uchuypoma Soria, D. A., Marinelli, C., Constantino, R. (2016). *Challenges to the Effectiveness of EU Human Rights and Democratisation Policies* (Report No. 12.3). European Commissions.
<https://www.fp7-frame.eu › 2016/09 › Deliverable-12.3.pdf>

- Hedbjörk, U., Helldahl, P., Tegler Jerselius, K. & Steele, S. (2019). *Modernisation, Education, and Human Rights: Quality assurance of learning outcomes and the student perspective*. Swedish Higher Education Authority (UKÄ). <https://www.esu-online.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/08/Modernisation-Education-and-Human-Rights-Quality-Assurance-and-Student-Perspective-2-5.pdf>
- Henry, M. (2017, October 2). *What should human rights in the future look like?* The Conversation. <https://theconversation.com/what-should-human-rights-in-the-future-look-like-83546>
- Hilmer, R. (2016). *The European Union Facing Massive Challenges – What are Citizens’ Expectations and Concerns? A representative 8-country-survey*. Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung. <https://library.fes.de/pdf-files/id/ipa/12346.pdf>
- HRE USA. (n.d.). *About Human Rights Education*. Human Rights Educators USA. Retrieved February 23, 2022, from <https://hreusa.org/hre-guide/about-hre/>
- Human Rights Careers. (2020). *What Kinds of Human Rights Exist?* <https://www.humanrightscareers.com/issues/what-kinds-of-human-rights-exist/>
- Human Rights Watch. (2021). *World Report 2021: Events of 2020*. https://www.hrw.org/sites/default/files/media_2021/01/2021_hrw_world_report.pdf
- Icelandic Human Rights Center. (2014). *The Concept Of Human Rights: Definitions And Classifications*. <https://www.humanrights.is/en/human-rights-education-project/human-rights-concepts-ideas-and-fora/part-i-the-concept-of-human-rights/definitions-and-classifications>
- Jagland, T. (2019). *Ready For Future Challenges – Reinforcing The Council of Europe: Report by the Secretary General for the Ministerial Session in Helsinki, 16-17 May 2019*. Council of Europe. <https://rm.coe.int/168093af03>
- Kantar. (2021). *Future of Europe: First Results* (Report No. 500). European Commission & European Parliament. <https://www.europarl.europa.eu/at-your-service/files/be-heard/eurobarometer/2021/future-of-europe-2021/en-report.pdf>
- Lampe, R. (2010). *Pravo človekovih pravic: sistem človekovih pravic v mednarodnem, evropskem in ustavnem pravu*. Uradni list Republike Slovenije.
- Markakis, M. (2020). Differentiated Integration and Disintegration in the EU: Brexit, the Eurozone Crisis, and Other Troubles. *Journal of International Economic Law* 23(2), 489–507. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jiel/jgaa004>

- Mazham, R. (2020, May 13). *CO20091 | Global Health Security: COVID-19 and Its Impacts – Disinformation: The Spreading of Islamophobia*. RSIS Commentary. <https://www.rsis.edu.sg/rsis-publication/icpvtr/global-health-security-covid-19-and-its-impacts-disinformation-the-spreading-of-islamophobia/>
- McNeilly, K. (2017, October 2). *What should human rights in the future look like? The conversation*. <https://theconversation.com/what-should-human-rights-in-the-future-look-like-83546>
- Mijatović, D. (2020). *Commissioner for Human Rights of The Council of Europe: Activity Report 2019*. Council of Europe. <https://rm.coe.int/annual-activity-report-2019-by-dunja-mijatovic-council-of-europe-commi/16809e2117>
- Mettler, A. (2019). Foreword: The Future Is Now. In F. Gaub (Ed.), *Global Trends to 2030: Challenges and Choices for Europe* (pp. 2). ESPAS. https://www.politico.eu/wp-content/uploads/2019/04/ESPAS_Report2019_V15.pdf
- Nickel, J. (2021). Human Rights. In E. N. Zalta (Ed.), *The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy* (Fall 2021 ed.). Stanford University. <https://plato.stanford.edu/archives/fall2021/entries/rights-human/>
- OHCHR. (2021). *UN Guide for Minorities* [Pamphlet].
- Open Society Foundations. (2017). *Human Rights and the Rise of Populism in Europe*. <https://www.opensocietyfoundations.org/events/human-rights-and-rise-populism-europe>
- Pachocka, M. (2015). The European Union and international migration in the early 21st century: facing the migrant and refugee crisis in Europe. In E. Latoszek, M. Proczek, A. Kłos, M. Pachocka & E. Osuch-Rak (Eds.). *Facing the challenges in the European Union* (pp. 531–558). Polish European Community Studies Association, PECSA. https://depot.ceon.pl/bitstream/handle/123456789/10269/The_European_Union_and_international_mig.pdf?sequence=3&isAllowed=y
- Patomäki, H. (2017). Will the EU Disintegrate? What Does the Likely Possibility of Disintegration Tell About the Future of the World? *Globalizations* 14(1), 168–177. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14747731.2016.1228786>
- Raines, T., Goodwin, M. & Cutts, D. (2017). *The Future of Europe Comparing Public and Elite Attitudes*. Chatham House. https://www.bosch-stiftung.de/sites/default/files/publications/pdf_import/The_Future_of_Europe_Study.pdf

- Reid, L. (2019). *The Generations of Human Rights*. UAB Institute for Human Rights Blog. <https://sites.uab.edu/humanrights/2019/01/14/the-generations-of-human-rights/>
- Rodríguez-Garavito, C. (2021, March 12). *Five existential challenges to human rights*. Open Global Rights. <https://www.openglobalrights.org/five-existential-challenges-to-human-rights/>
- Schnapper, P. (2017). Brexit and the Risk of European Disintegration. In N. da Costa Cabral, J. R. Gonçalves & N. C. Rodrigues (Eds.), *After Brexit* (pp. 83–99). Palgrave Macmillan. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-66670-9>
- Schramm, L. (2019). European disintegration: a new feature of EU politics. *CEPOB - College of Europe Policy Brief series* 3(19), 1–4. https://www.coleurope.eu/sites/default/files/research-paper/schramm_cepob_3-19_0.pdf
- Secretary General of the Council of Europe. (2021). *State of Democracy, Human Rights and the Rule of Law: A democratic renewal for Europe*. Council of Europe. <https://rm.coe.int/annual-report-sg-2021/1680a264a2>
- Szemlér, T. (2018). Challenges to European Integration: Missions and Instruments. *Politics in Central Europe* 14(1), 77–91. <https://doi.org/10.2478/pce-2018-0004>
- Štefanec, I. (2021). *Kolizija človekovih pravic: vidiki ustavnosodne presoje*. Lexpera.
- Thorn, T. (2019 November 8). *The Future Challenges Facing Europe as a Global Actor*. E-International Relations. <https://www.e-ir.info/pdf/80115>
- Ulled, A., Esquiús, A., Larrea, E., Biosca, O., Calvet, M., Rodrigo, R., Franco, N., Robert, J., Biot, V., Calay, V., Doucet, P., Drevet, J.F., Illes, I., Gál, Z., Lux, G., Camagni, R., Capello, R., Fratesi, U., Lenzi, C. ... Ruiz, S. (2013). *Territorial Scenarios and Visions for Europe: Main Report*. ESPON. https://www.espon.eu/sites/default/files/attachments/ET2050_FR-02_Main_Report.pdf
- United Nations. (1948). *Universal declaration of human rights: Preamble*. <https://www.un.org/en/about-us/universal-declaration-of-human-rights>
- United Nations. (1996). *Plan of Action for the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education (1995-2004)*. <https://documents-dds-ny.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N97/008/02/PDF/N9700802.pdf?OpenElement>
- Vienna Institute for International Economic Studies. (2018). *Socio-economic challenges, potentials and impacts of transnational cooperation in central Europe: Final report*. The Vienna Institute for International Economic Studies (wiiw) & Interreg Central Europe. <https://www.interreg-central.eu/Content.Node/events/Final-Report-181018-full.pdf>

Weston, B. H. (2021, December 20). *Human rights*. Encyclopedia Britannica.
<https://www.britannica.com/topic/human-rights>

CHAPTER 7

A REVIEW OF THE STUDIES ON THE PRIMARY SCHOOL (GRADES 1-4) PHYSICAL EDUCATION COURSE CURRICULUM IN TERMS OF VARIOUS VARIABLES¹

Teacher Mehmet DEMİRHAN¹, Assoc. Dr. Özlem KAF²

¹ This chapter was presented as an abstract paper in the 5. INTERNATIONAL SYMPOSIUM ON CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS IN SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND SOCIAL SCIENCES (December 3-5, 2021, Malatya- Yeşilyurt Municipality)

²Ministry of Education, Malatya, Turkey, mhmtmrhn44@hotmail.com, ORCID ID: 0000-0003-3053-8875

²Cukurova University, Social Sciences Institute, Adana, Turkey, ozlemkaf@cu.edu.tr, ORCID ID: 0000-0002-1955-2986

INTRODUCTION

Education aims to socialize individuals, to increase their knowledge, skills and abilities, to develop their creativity, to provide awareness of their abilities, to develop their problem solving, self-control and self-confidence skills (Hoşgörür & Taştan, 2007). Curricula that will serve to nurture individuals with these qualifications, on the other hand, should not be prepared in a structure that merely conveys information, but in a simple and understandable structure that aims at individuals gaining values and skills, takes into account individual differences (Ministry of National Education [MEB], 2018). Contrary to traditional education approaches, modern education approaches aim to enrich the individual not only mentally; but aim to develop it as a whole with its physical, social, emotional, language and cognitive aspects (Dalaman, 2010). In this respect, curricula implemented in educational institutions are of great importance.

Curricula are included in the educational programs and contain all activities related to learning-teaching processes (Demirel, 1999). Curricula have been prepared with the principle that human development does not end in any period, on the contrary, it continues throughout life. For this reason, it is recommended to take supportive measures in the curricula, taking into account the developmental characteristics of each age period (MEB, 2018). In this respect, it is important to start physical education when children need play and movement the most, especially in primary school. Because it is very difficult to acquire skills, movements and sports participation habits later which were not (could not be) acquired before a certain age (Şirinkan, 2008).

Sports and physical education maintain their importance in the education systems of the countries of the world and play a great role for individual development. Curriculum implemented has a very important place in order for students to make the most of physical education lessons, which enable this important role to be realized (Musa, 2012). The main objective of the physical education curriculum in Turkey has been defined as contributing to the cognitive, physical, affective, psychomotor and social development of individuals and enabling them to participate in lifelong physical activities (MEB, 2006). Children, on the other hand, are unique beings, different from adults with their emotions, thoughts, behaviors and developmental characteristics. The nature of adults and children, which should be handled

with a scientific approach, necessitated the planning of education levels, which are the most important places where the individual acquires basic behaviors in terms of special qualities (Demirci, Demirci & Toptaş Demirci, 2006).

Curriculum development is expressed as *"the dynamic relations between the elements of the curriculum - objective, content, learning-teaching process, evaluation-*". In this respect, a change in any element of the curriculum influences the entire program by influencing the entire system (Demirel, 2009). Along with many factors, curricula also have an important place in educating people better. Due to this importance, curricula have been constantly reformed and designed with the intention of being state-of-the-art (Uludağ, 2012). For this purpose, a student-centered approach was adopted in Turkey, and the curricula were changed in 2005 (Demirhan, 2018). Starting from 2012-2013, the "Game and Physical Activities" course based on the game-centered program has been included in the curriculum. The name of this course was changed to 'Physical Education and Game' in 2018 and allotted 5 hours in primary school 1st, 2nd and 3rd grades and 2 hours in the 4th grade (MEB, 2018).

Performing a general review of the literature in certain periods not only gives information about the quality of the studies conducted in that period, but also sheds light on future research (Erdem, 2011). For this reason, present study is also important in terms of creating a reference for new research and helping researchers in choosing a topic. In this respect, the general purpose of present study was determined as the review of the research papers and the thesis studies carried out at the graduate level on the physical education and game course curriculum in primary school (Grades 1-4) in terms of some criteria (variables), and in line with this purpose, answers were sought for the following sub-objectives:

1- How is the distribution of the studies carried out on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum in 2005-2020 by;

- a) Grade levels,
- b) Research method,
- c) Study group/sample type,
- d) Data collection tools,

e) Data analysis methods,
f) Program elements (objective, content, instructional methods, evaluation)?

2. How is the distribution of the studies based on the study results by;
 - a) The adequacy of the program
 - b) The adequacy of the physical education course hours
 - c) The adequacy of course equipment?

METHOD

Study Model

This study, in which research papers and the thesis studies carried out at the graduate level on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum are examined in terms of various variables, is in the descriptive survey model. In the survey model, a situation or issue that exists in the past or present is described as is (Karasar, 2005). In this study, the studies on the primary school physical education program between 2005 and 2020 with this method were examined and described in terms of various variables such as grade level, study method, sample type, program elements, data collection and analysis methods.

Study Sample

Criterion sampling method, one of the purposive sampling methods, was used to form the research sample. In purposive sampling, depending on the purpose of the study, information-rich situations are selected and in-depth research is carried out (Büyüköztürk, 2009). The basic approach in the criterion sampling method is to study all cases that meet a predetermined set of criteria. The criteria or criterion mentioned here can be generated by the researchers or a previously prepared criteria list can be used (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2016). The following criteria were used in selecting studies to be included in the study:

1. It is a study published between 2005-2020 on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum.
2. It is an academic research paper which meets the first criterion
3. It is a postgraduate national thesis meeting the first criterion

4. The thesis itself is preferred instead of the research papers published based on this thesis

According to these criteria, a total of 14 studies were included in the research sample. The distribution of the studies included in the sample of the study by publication type is shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Distribution of Studies on Primary School Physical Education Curriculum by Publication Type

Type of Publication	Frequency (f)
Doctoral Dissertation	4
Master’s Thesis	5
Research Paper	5
Total	14

As can be seen in Table 1, 4 of the 14 studies were completed at doctorate level, 5 at master's level, and 5 were research papers. The distribution of studies on primary school physical education curriculum (İBEÖP) by publication years is shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Distribution of Studies on Primary School Physical Education Curriculum by Publication Years

Year	Doctoral	Master’s	Paper	Total
2008	1	2	-	3
2009	-	1	-	1
2010	1	-	-	1
2011	1	-	3	4
2012	1	-	-	1
2013	-	1	-	1
2014	-	1	-	1
2015	-	-	1	1
2016	-	-	1	1
Total	4	5	5	14

Table 2 reveals that most of the studies on the physical education program in primary school (Grades 1-4) were conducted in 2011 (4 studies in total, of which 1 was a doctoral dissertation and the remaining 3 were research papers). In 2008, a total of 3 studies were carried out, 2 of which were master's theses and 1 was a doctoral dissertation. Only one study was conducted each in 2009, 2010, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015 and 2016. It is seen that no studies were conducted on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education program in 2005.

Distribution of Studies by Grade Levels

The distribution of studies on primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education program by grade levels is shown in Table 3:

Table 3: Distribution of Studies on Primary School Physical Education Curriculum by Grade Levels

Grade Level	Doctoral	Master's	Paper	Total
1 st Grade	-	-	-	-
2 nd Grade	-	-	-	-
3 rd Grade	-	-	-	-
4 th Grade	-	1	1	2
Grades 1, 2, and 3	1	-	-	1
Grades 1, 2, 3 and 4	3	4	4	11
Total	4	5	5	14

Table 3 reveals that almost all of the studies on the physical education program in primary school (Grades 1-4) (3 doctoral dissertations, 4 master's theses and 4 research papers, a total of 11 studies) are conducted at the level of 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th grades. In addition, there are 2 studies, 1 of which is a master's thesis and 1 of which is an research paper, conducted only at the 4th grade level. There is no study covering a single grade for 1st, 2nd or 3rd grade. A doctoral dissertation was conducted at the level of 1st, 2nd and 3rd grades.

Distribution of Studies by Study Group/Sample Type

The distribution of the studies conducted on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum by the study group/sample type is shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Distribution of Studies on Primary School Physical Education Curriculum by Study Group/Sample Type

Sample/ Study Group	Doctoral	Master’s	Paper	Total
Student	-	-	-	-
Teacher	3	5	3	11
Academic Lecturer	-	-	1	1
Document	1	-	1	2
Administrator	-	-	-	-
Total	4	5	5	14

Table 4 reveals that most of the studies on the physical education program in primary school (Grades 1-4) (3 doctoral dissertations, 5 master's theses and 3 research papers, a total of 11 studies) were conducted with their study group comprising teachers. In addition, there is 1 research paper with the sample comprising academic lecturers. Students and school administrators were not included in the samples of any study. Also, in 1 doctoral dissertation and 1 research paper the data were obtained solely from the documents.

Distribution of Studies by Research Method

The distribution of the studies conducted on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum by the research method is shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Distribution of Studies on Primary School Physical Education Curriculum by Research Method.

Research Method	Doctoral	Master’s	Paper	Total
Quantitative	3	4	3	10
Qualitative	-	-	2	2
Mixed	1	1	-	2
Total	4	5	5	14

Data in Table 5 show that the method most frequently utilized in studies on primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education program (a total of 10 studies, 3 of which are doctoral dissertations, 4 of which are master's theses and 3 of which are research papers) is the quantitative method. Although there are 2 research papers in which the qualitative method is used, there is no doctoral dissertation or master's thesis based on this method. While there is 1 doctoral dissertation and 1 master's thesis in which mixed method is utilized, there is no research paper utilizing mixed method.

Distribution of Studies by Data Collection Tools

The distribution of the studies conducted on the primary school (first-fourth grade) physical education curriculum by the data collection tools is shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Distribution of Studies on Primary School Physical Education Curriculum by Data Collection Tools.

Data Collection Tools	Doctoral	Master’s	Paper	Total
Scale	-	2	1	3
Questionnaire	4	3	2	9
Interview	2	-	2	4
Observation	2	-	-	2
Document	1	-	1	2
Total	9	5	6	20

Table 6 reveals that the primary data collection tool (in a total of 9 studies, 4 of which are doctoral dissertations, 3 of which are masters theses and 2 of which are research papers), is in the form of the questionnaire. After the questionnaire, the second frequent data collection tool is the interview (2 in 4 studies, 2 of which are doctoral dissertations, 2 of which are research papers). While observation was used only in 2 doctoral dissertations, document review was used in 1 doctoral dissertation and 1 research paper. The scale was used in 2 master's theses and 1 research paper.

Distribution of Studies by Data Analysis Method

Table 7 shows the distribution of studies on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum by the data analysis method.

Table 7: Distribution of Studies on Primary School Physical Education Curriculum by Data Analysis Method.

Category	Sub-category	D	M	P	Sub- category Total	Total
Quantitative	Frequency/Percentage	4	5	3	12	
Descriptive Analysis	Mean/Sd	4	5	3	12	24
Quantitative	t- test	4	4	1	9	16
Predictive Analysis	Anova	3	4	-	7	
	Regression	-	-	-	-	
Qualitative	Content Analysis	-	-	1	1	1
Analysis	Descriptive Analysis	-	-	-	-	
Other	Not specified	-	-	1	1	1
Total		15	18	9	42	42

D: Doctoral dissertation, M: Master's thesis, P: Research Paper

Table 7 reveals that quantitative descriptive analysis is the most frequently applied data analysis method in studies (4 doctoral dissertations, 5 master's theses and 3 research papers, a total of 12 studies). Frequency/percentage and mean/standard deviation types of quantitative descriptive analyzes were used in 12 studies. The t-test, which is one of the quantitative predictive analyzes, was used in 4 doctoral dissertations, 4 master's theses and 1 research paper, while Anova was used in 3 doctoral dissertations and 4 master's theses. While content analysis, one of the qualitative analysis methods, was used in 1 research paper, descriptive analysis method was not used in any research papers.

Distribution of Studies by Program Elements

The distribution of the studies conducted on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum by the program elements is shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Distribution of Studies on Primary School Physical Education Curriculum by Program Elements

Program Element	Doctoral	Master’s	Paper	Total
Objectives/Attainments	1	-	-	1
Content	-	-	-	-
Instruction Methods	-	-	-	-
Evaluation	-	-	-	-
Content, Instruction Methods and Evaluation	-	1	-	1
All Elements	3	4	5	12
Total	4	5	5	14

When Table 8 is examined, almost all of the studies on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum (3 doctoral dissertations, 4 master's theses and 5 research papers, a total of 12 studies) explore all of the program elements (objectives, content, instruction methods and evaluation). In addition, it is seen that while 1 doctoral dissertation is about objective/attainments, 1 master's thesis has been structured to include content, instruction methods and evaluation elements.

Findings Regarding the Results of the Studies

Distribution of Research Results Regarding the Adequacy of the Program

Based on the results of the studies conducted on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum, the distribution of the findings regarding the adequacy of the program is shown in Table 9.

Table 9: Findings Regarding the Adequacy of the Program in Studies on the Primary School Physical Education Curriculum

Level	Doctoral	Master’s	Paper	Total
Adequate	3	-	1	4
Partially Adequate	-	1	1	2
Inadequate	-	2	1	3
Not stated	1	2	2	5
Total	4	5	5	20

When Table 9 is examined, it is seen that varying results have been obtained in the studies on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education course curriculum regarding whether the program is adequate or not. It was concluded that the program was adequate in 3 doctoral dissertations and 1 research paper. In 2 master's theses and 1 research paper, the program was concluded to be inadequate. In 1 master's thesis and 1 research paper the program was found to be partially adequate. In 1 doctoral dissertation, 2 master's theses and 2 research papers, there is no information on the adequacy of program.

Distribution of Research Results Regarding the Adequacy of Course Duration

The distribution of the findings regarding the adequacy of the course hours in the studies conducted on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum is shown in Table 10.

Table 10: Findings Regarding the Adequacy of Course Hours in Studies on the Primary School Physical Education Curriculum

Level	Doctoral	Master's	Paper	Total
Adequate	-	-	1	1
Partially Adequate	-	-	1	1
Inadequate	2	4	2	8
Undecided	1	-	-	1
Not stated	1	1	1	3
Total	4	5	5	14

When Table 10 is examined, it is seen that varying results have been obtained in the studies on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum regarding the sufficiency of course hours. In only one study (research paper), it was concluded that the course hours were sufficient. In 2 doctoral dissertations, 4 master's theses and 2 research papers, results noted the course hours were insufficient. While in 1 research paper, results show that the course hours are partially sufficient; 1 doctoral dissertation, 1 master's thesis and 1 research paper do not contain any information about whether the course hours are sufficient.

Distribution of Research Results Regarding the Adequacy of Course Equipment

The distribution of the results related to the adequacy of the course materials in the studies conducted on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum is shown in Table 11.

Table 11: Results Regarding the Adequacy of Course Equipment in Studies on the Primary School Physical Education Curriculum

Level	Doctoral	Master's	Paper	Total
Adequate	-	-	-	-
Partially Adequate	1	1	-	2
Inadequate	2	4	3	9
Not stated	1	-	2	3
Total	4	5	5	14

When Table 11 is examined, it is seen that varying results have been obtained in the studies on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum regarding whether the course materials are adequate or not. Only 1 doctoral dissertation and 1 research paper concluded that the course materials were partially adequate. In 2 doctoral dissertations, 4 master's theses and 3 research papers, results were obtained indicating the inadequacy of course materials. While 1 doctoral dissertation and 2 research papers did not include any information about whether the course materials are adequate or not, no study has found the course materials to be adequate.

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study aims to examine the studies on the physical education curriculum between 2005-2020 in terms of various variables. As a result of scanning 9 postgraduate theses (4 doctoral dissertations, 5 master's theses) and 5 research papers were accessed. When the literature is examined, it is seen that the number of studies on the physical education lesson curriculum is quite low. Among the postgraduate theses, it is seen that the number of master's theses is relatively higher than that of the doctoral dissertations. Yücedağ

(2010) and Polat (2017) also concluded in their studies that the number of master's theses is more than that of doctoral dissertations. This may be due to the decrease in the number of people who continue to the doctoral program after the master's program.

The distribution of the studies according to the year they were conducted was examined and it was concluded that the most studies were conducted in 2011. Yaşar and Papatğa (2015) examined the postgraduate theses on primary school mathematics courses and found that the most studies were done in 2010. Ozan and Köse (2014) examined the studies published on education programs in their study and concluded that the most studies were done in 2009. This may be due to the motivation of researchers starting around 2009 to examine the views on the adequacy and implementation of the new curriculum, which has been implemented since 2005-2006.

It was concluded that almost all of the studies on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum, teachers were chosen as the study group/sample. This result is in line with the findings obtained in the following studies examining the respective curriculum in terms of various variables; by Kaf and Türkmenoğlu (2019) on the mathematics course curriculum, by Kaf and Erdem (2019) on social studies course curriculum, Erbağcı and Kaf (2020) life science curriculum, and Kablan's (2011) study. The reason why the study group is generally chosen as teachers by the researchers may be interpreted being due to collecting data from students and parents being more difficult.

While it was concluded that the quantitative method was the most frequently utilized method in the studies on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum, it was determined that the qualitative and mixed methods were used in a small number of studies. This result is in line with the findings of Koç (2016), Erbağcı and Kaf (2020). Aydoğdu and Yenilmez (2012), on the other hand, concluded in their study that mixed method was used the most in doctoral dissertations. This finding does not coincide with the results of the present study. The reason why quantitative research methods are preferred more in studies may be that researchers wish to reveal the views of larger groups about the program.

As a result of the analyzes made, it is seen that the primary data collection tool in both postgraduate theses and research papers is the

questionnaire. This result is in line with the findings of Ozan and Köse (2014). Yaşar and Papatğa (2015), Ergun and Çilindir (2013) concluded in their study that the most frequently applied data collection tool is the achievement test. This result does not coincide with the findings obtained in the present study. This situation reveals that the studies conducted for courses such as Turkish and mathematics mostly use tests that measure student achievement.

The results of the research reveals that the most frequently utilized data analysis method in both postgraduate theses and research papers are the mean/standard deviation and percentage/frequency methods, which are quantitative descriptive analysis methods. This result coincides with the findings of Kutluca and Demirkol (2016) and Çiltaş (2017) in their study. It is seen that t-tests are mostly used among the quantitative predictive analysis methods. Öztürk and Müdar (2013) and Erdem (2011) obtained similar results in their study. The reason for the high preference of quantitative analysis methods by researchers may be due to their desire to generalize their studies on large groups.

It has been concluded that almost all of the studies on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum cover all grade levels, including 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th grades. However, one of the notable results is that only 4th grades were studied at a single grade level. These results are in line with the findings of Erbağcı and Kaf (2020).

It is seen that most of the studies on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum cover all the elements of the curriculum i.e., objectives, content, instruction methods and evaluation. It has been determined that there is only one doctoral dissertation with only one element (objectives). This result is similar to the findings of Kaf and Türkmenoğlu (2019) and Kaf and Erdem (2019) in their study. This finding can be interpreted that the studies intended to evaluate generally, covering all the elements of the program.

According to the results of the research, there is no significant difference among opinions on whether the program is adequate or not in the studies conducted on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum. However, those who think that the program is adequate are in the first place. While this result coincides with the findings of Havadar and

Taşdan (2015) in their study, it does not coincide with the findings of Dalkıran, Gündüz and Çiçek (2011) in their study. This difference can be interpreted as the fact that teachers' perceptions of program efficacy differ from each other.

According to the results of the research, it has been concluded that the course hours are found to be insufficient in the majority of the studies on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum. Şirinkan (2008), Gülüm and Bilir (2011), Dalkıran, Gündüz and Çiçek (2011) obtained similar results in their studies. Again, according to the results of the research, studies showing that the course materials are insufficient are in the majority. Yıldız (2010), Aras (2013), Gülüm and Bilir (2011), Şirinkan (2008) found in their studies that the course materials were insufficient. The teachers' assessment of both course hours and course materials as being inadequate can be interpreted as due to the fact that the physical education course curriculum cannot be fully implemented by the teachers and the determined attainments are not fully gained by the students.

As a result, it was revealed that the quantitative method was most utilized in the studies, the teachers were preferred the most as the sample/study group, the quantitative descriptive analyzes were applied the most, the questionnaires were the most preferred as the data collection tool, and most of the studies covered all grade levels and all the elements (objectives, content, instruction methods, evaluation) of the curriculum. When the results of the studies were examined, it was one of the results reached in most of the studies that the physical education course hours and equipment were insufficient. Another remarkable result is that there are very few studies that conclude that the program is inadequate. According to the findings obtained as a result of the study, the number of studies in which mixed and qualitative data collection methods are used is considerably less than those employing quantitative methods. It can be suggested that more studies using qualitative and mixed methods regarding primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum should be conducted by researchers. In the literature, it is seen that in the studies on the primary school (Grades 1-4) physical education curriculum, studies covering all the elements of the curriculum (objectives, content, instruction methods, evaluation) are in the majority. In this respect, studies that allow more in-depth examinations in

which only one element is discussed can be initiated. In most of the studies, it is seen that the 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th grade levels are studied together. Studies in which in-depth examinations will be made to cover only one grade can be recommended. It is seen that the number of findings regarding the low number of course hours and the high level of equipment shortages are quite high. In this context, researchers can be recommended to conduct comprehensive studies on the reasons for the insufficiency of course hours and equipment.

REFERENCES

- Aras, Ö. (2013). *İlköğretim kurumları ikinci kademedede öğrenim gören öğrenci ve görev yapan beden eğitimi öğretmenlerinin beden eğitimi dersine yönelik görüş ve tutumlarının incelenmesi (Kars ili örneği)*. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Gazi Üniversitesi, Ankara.
- Aydoğdu, N. & Yenilmez, K. (2012). “Matematikte Problem Çözme Becerisiyle İlgili Yapılan Çalışmaların İncelenmesi”, *X. Ulusal Fen Bilimleri ve Matematik Eğitimi Kongresi*, Bildiri e-Kitabı, 27-30 Haziran 2012, Niğde Üniversitesi, Niğde.
- Büyüköztürk, Ş., Kılıç Çakmak, E., Akgün, Ö. E., Karadeniz, Ş., ve Demirel, F. (2009). *Bilimsel Araştırma Yöntemleri*. (Üçüncü Baskı). Ankara: Pegem Akademi Yayıncılık.
- Çiltaş, A. (2017). Türkiye’de matematik eğitimi alanında yayımlanan matematiksel model ve modelleme araştırmalarının betimsel içerik analizi. *Uluslararası Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 5(9), 258-283.
- Dalaman, O. (2010). *İlköğretim birinci kademedede beden eğitimi dersi öğretim programı kazanımlarının gerçekleşme durumuna ilişkin öğretmen görüşleri*. Doktora Tezi, Selçuk Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Konya.
- Dalkıran, O., Gündüz, N., ve Çiçek, R. (2011). Üniversite öğretim elemanlarının ilköğretim beden eğitimi dersi öğretim programı ile ilgili görüşleri. *SPORMETRE Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Bilimleri Dergisi*, 9(3), 111-118.
- Demirci, E., Demirci, B., ve Toptaş Demirci, P. (2006). “İlköğretim 1. Kademe Sınıf Öğretmenlerine Göre Oyunla Eğitimin Çocuğun Gelişimine Ait Görüşlerinin İncelenmesi”, *9. Spor Bilimleri Kongresi*, Bildiri e-Kitabı, 3-5 Kasım 2006, Muğla Üniversitesi, Muğla.
- Demirel, Ö. (1999). *Kuramdan Uygulamaya Eğitimde Program Geliştirme*. (İkinci Baskı). Ankara: Pegem Yayıncılık.
- Demirel, Ö. (2009). *Eğitimde Program Geliştirme Kuramdan Uygulamaya*. (Yirmi Altıncı Baskı). Ankara: Pegem Akademi Yayıncılık.
- Demirhan, M. (2018). *Sınıf öğretmenlerinin beden eğitimi ve oyun derslerindeki yeterliliklerine ilişkin görüşleri*. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Dicle Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Diyarbakır.
- Erbağcı, N. ve Kaf, Ö. (2020). Hayat Bilgisi Dersi Öğretim Programı ile ilgili yapılan çalışmaların çeşitli değişkenler açısından incelenmesi. *Adnan Menderes Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 11(1), 103-115.
- Erdem, D. (2011). Türkiye’de 2005–2006 yılları arasında yayımlanan eğitim bilimleri dergilerindeki makalelerin bazı özellikler açısından incelenmesi: betimsel bir

- analiz. *Eğitimde ve Psikolojide Ölçme ve Değerlendirme Dergisi*, 2(1), 140-147.
- Ergun, M., ve Çilingir, F. (2013). İlköğretim Bölümünde Yapılan Lisansüstü Tezlerin İncelenmesi: Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi Örneği. *VI. Ulusal Lisansüstü Eğitim Sempozyumu Bildiriler El Kitabı*, 10-11 Mayıs 2013, Sakarya.
- Gülüm, V., ve Bilir P. (2011). Beden eğitimi öğretim programının uygulanabilme koşulları ile ilgili beden eğitimi öğretmenlerinin görüşleri. *SPORMETRE Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Bilimleri Dergisi*, 9(2), 57-64.
- Havadar, T. ve Taşdan, M. (2015). Beden eğitimi öğretmenlerinin ilköğretim 4.-5. Sınıf öğretim programları hakkında görüşleri (Ardahan, Iğdır ve Kars ili örneği). *İnönü Üniversitesi Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Bilimleri Dergisi*, 2(1), 29-43.
- Hoşgörür, V., ve Taştan, N. (2007). *Eğitimin İşlevleri*. Ankara: Pegem Akademi Yayıncılık.
- Kablan, Z. (2011). İlköğretim matematik öğretim programının değerlendirilmesine yönelik araştırmaların analizi. *Elementary Education Online*, 10(3), 1160-1177.
- Kaf, Ö., ve Türkmenoğlu, M. (2019). İlkokul (1-4.Sınıf) matematik dersi öğretim programları ile ilgili çalışmaların çeşitli değişkenler göre incelenmesi. VII. Uluslararası Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim Kongresi, Bildiri e- Kitabı, 9-12 Ekim 2019 Ankara Üniversitesi, Ankara, 93-105.
- Karasar, N. (2005). *Bilimsel araştırma yöntemi*. (On Beşinci Baskı). Ankara: Nobel Yayın Dağıtım.
- Koç, E. S. (2016). Türkiye’de ilköğretim programlarının değerlendirilmesine yönelik yapılan lisansüstü tezlerin incelenmesi. *Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, Cilt 16 (1), 198-216.
- Kutluca, T., ve Demirkol, M. (2016). Dicle Üniversitesi Ziya Gökalp Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisinin Bibliyometrik Analizi. *Dicle Üniversitesi Ziya Gökalp Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 28, 108-118.
- Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı. (2006). *İlköğretim Beden Eğitimi Dersi (1–8. Sınıf) Öğretim Programı ve Kılavuzu*. Ankara: Devlet Kitapları Müdürlüğü.
- Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı. (2018). *Beden Eğitimi ve Oyun Dersi Öğretim Programı*. Ankara: Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Yayınları.
- Musa, M. (2012). *Türkiye ve Çin’deki ilköğretim beden eğitimi dersi öğretim programlarının öğretmen görüşlerine göre karşılaştırmalı olarak incelenmesi*. Doktora Tezi, Gazi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Ankara.

- Ozan, C., ve Köse, E. (2014). Eğitim programları ve öğretim alanındaki araştırma eğilimleri. *Sakarya University Journal of Education*, 4(1), 116-136.
- Öztürk, E., ve Müdar, E. (2013). Türkiye’de İlköğretim 1-5. Sınıflar Arasında Türkçe Öğretimi ile İlgili Yapılan Yüksek Lisans ve Doktora Tezlerinin Eğilimleri ve Değerlendirilmesi. *VI. Ulusal Lisansüstü Eğitim Sempozyumu Bildiriler Kitabı*. Sakarya Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yayını, No: 6.
- Polat, H. (2017). Türkiye’de 2005-2017 tarihleri arasında hayat bilgisi dersi ile ilgili yapılmış lisansüstü çalışmalar üzerine bir değerlendirme. *Electronic Turkish Studies*, 12(33), 337-360.
- Şirinkan, A. (2008). *İlköğretim beden eğitimi ve spor öğretim programı ve öğretim sürecinin ders öğretmenlerinin görüşleri doğrultusunda incelenmesi*. Doktora Tezi, Atatürk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Erzurum.
- Uludağ, İ. (2012). *İlköğretim (1-5) matematik programının öğretmen görüşlerine göre değerlendirilmesi (Aksaray ili örneği)*. Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Necmettin Erbakan Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Konya.
- Yaşar, Ş. ve Papatğa, E. (2015). İlkokul matematik derslerine yönelik yapılan lisansüstü tezlerin incelenmesi. *Trakya Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 5(2), 113-124.
- Yıldırım, A. & Şimşek, H. (2016). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri*. Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.
- Yıldız, Ö. (2010). *Sınıf öğretmenlerinin beden eğitimi dersine yönelik tutumları ve karşılaştıkları problemler*. Yayımlanmamış Doktora Tezi, Gazi Üniversitesi, Ankara.
- Yücedağ, T. (2010). *2000-2009 yılları arasında matematik eğitimi alanında Türkiye’de yapılan çalışmalarının bazı değişkenlere göre incelenmesi*. Yayımlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Selçuk Üniversitesi, Konya.
- Varış, F. (1996). *Eğitimde Program Geliştirme, Teoriler-Teknikler*. Ankara: Alkım Kitapçılık Yayıncılık.

CHAPTER 8
THE IMPORTANCE OF TEAM LEADERSHIP
IN EDUCATION

Asst. Prof. Mnir ŐAHİN¹

¹ Tokat GaziosmanpaŐa University, Erbaa Social and Human Sciences Faculty,
Communication and Design Department, Erbaa/Tokat-Turkey
munir.sahin@gop.edu.tr Orcid no: 0000-0001-5722-496X

INTRODUCTION

Today, in order to cope with the increasing competition conditions on a local and global scale and to be a follower of developments and change, we sometimes witness the merging of organizations and sometimes the dismissal of employees. Schools are exposed to similar innovations in these changing conditions, and they may encounter problems such as the adaptation of a new technology in educational life and therefore the adaptation of employees to new conditions. Teamwork is seen as necessary for the effectiveness of the roles that are renewed in order to achieve the desired goals in the world where dizzying change and innovation are experienced. Organizations now emphasize teamwork for the effective management of smarter and more complex structures.

According to the Turkish Language Association (TDK, 2019), the term team is defined as "a group of people who complete each other in terms of duty, team, group, floor". Zehir and Özşahin (2008: 2067) similarly described it as "a group of people who come together to realize certain goals". On the other hand, Wilson (2004) defines a team as a group of three or more people who perceive themselves as a unit, are mutually connected and act for a purpose. Brown and Trevino (2006) define a team as a group of integrated employees working for a common purpose. For this reason, it is possible to see that the concepts of team leadership, team leadership and group leadership are sometimes used interchangeably.

Teams can be more effective and productive than individual studies. Don and Raman (2019) state that individuals are more deficient in communication, they lack management skills, they often lack the ability to motivate others, they cannot stay calm when dealing with problems, they lack the ability to manage a meeting, they may not have planning and creativity skills, and they have trouble reconciling with others. Considering that there are many areas where the individual will be weak when he acts alone, it is recommended to work as a team.

Nygren and Levine (1996) state that team leadership emerges as a feature of effective teams. In most teams, there are individuals who determine the purpose of that team, structure and direct the team in line with the purpose. The leader's contribution in directing the team and maximizing the progress of the team towards the goals directly contributes to the effectiveness

of the team. Effective teams have many characteristics. First of all, team members need to integrate their own behavior into the team. Each team member has their own specific roles. Fulfilling each role contributes to shared success. This means that team failures are not only due to the inadequacies of the members, but also to the failure to properly coordinate and coordinate the individual contributions of the members. In addition, teams may have to work in highly variable environments. Changing information flow, technology and expectations of stakeholders, the ability of teams to be singular in today's organizations depends on their compliance with these changing conditions. In today's society, where rapid environmental changes are experienced, it requires team members to act more harmoniously while coordinating their behaviors (Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001:452).

Although there are many studies in the literature on leadership (Bass, 1985; Yukl, 2002) and team dynamics (Forsyth, 1999; McGrath, 1984), studies on how leaders create and manage effective teams are limited. When leadership theories are examined, it is seen that they generally focus on how leaders affect lower-level employees. For example, path goal theory shows how the leader influences the behavior of employees. However, this theory does not explain how the leader maintains the team interaction of the employees effectively and their integration with the team (Zaccaro et al. 2001). Likewise, most leadership theories are about which leadership behavior would be most appropriate in which situation when talking about team processes (Fiedler, 1964; Kerr & Jermier, 1978). However, it is seen that the leadership theories do not sufficiently address the effect of the leader on the performance of the team members in the organization.

From a functional leadership perspective, the leader focuses on the leader's relationship with the team (Hackman & Walton, 1986; Lord, 1977). From this point of view, it is seen that the functions of leaders to identify problems within the team and to plan and implement the solution processes of these problems come to the fore. It is seen that the functional definition of leadership, the role of leadership and the boundaries of the team with the environment are determined. Because it is seen that the source of many problems stems from the team's relations with the environment (Ancona, 1987). The leader must determine the team's relations with the environment, interpret the environmental changes correctly and inform the team about it.

Roby (as cited in Zaccaro et al. 2001) states that the leader's ability to scan the environment, make predictions and be alert is the most important task in balancing the team's relations with the external environment.

Regarding the team leadership roles of school administrators, Çankaya and Karakuş (2010) developed a tool to measure the team leadership characteristics of administrators. The relationship of team leadership with job satisfaction, organizational commitment and citizenship (Tan, 2012), examination of team leadership depending on different variables (Yirci & Demir, 2019), team leadership behaviors of female managers (Selçuk, Yalçinkaya & Uslu, 2013), team leadership and teacher motivation (Çobanoğlu & Barutçu, 2020), team leadership (Zaccaro et al., 2001), creating harmonious teams (Kozlowski, 1998), leadership in business teams and factors affecting team outcomes (Nygren, and Levine (1996), school management team work (Don & Raman, 2019) and the effects of teams' effectiveness on organizational performance (Abuzid & Abbas, 2017) are included in the literature as the topics studied on team leadership.

It is possible to see that the elements that make up the team exist in school organizations in a similar way. Employees in schools can also be divided into teams according to different task groups. When these teams are managed under the leadership of a good team, they can be effective in realizing the goals of the school. In this study, the importance of team leadership in the management of schools and the issue of team leadership for effective schools were examined in the light of the literature.

1.1 Administrative Characteristics of Educational Institutions

As educational environments designed to carry out educational activities regularly according to a certain systematic (Özdemir, 2018), schools are organizations created to meet the educational needs of the society. On the other hand, Don and Raman (2019) define successful school organizations as organizations that realize the purpose of the school and that employees have high satisfaction. Fiedler (1966), on the other hand, states that the pleasant working atmosphere depends on the relationship of the employees with the leader, the clearness of the tasks, and whether the leader supports the employees.

According to Dewey (1907), the school is expected to fulfill three basic functions. The first function is to *simplify*. It improves students' adaptability by simplifying the complexity of the student's social life. *Cleaning* function is expressed as another function. With the school cleaning function, it tries to destroy the useless, bad and harmful elements in the society. The last function is the *balancing* function of the school. The school helps the student to exceed the boundaries of the subgroup he is in by introducing them to wider social groups. Schools appear as an element of balance between social reality and scientific understanding. As an organization where scientific and technological research meets the society, the role of school administrators is important in the management of schools and fulfilling the expected functions. School management consists of applying the management of education to the school (Bursalioğlu, 2019). It is seen that many factors play a role in school management.

Bursalioğlu (2019) gives the elements of the school under two headings as interior and exterior elements. While the school administrator, teachers, auxiliary staff and students are the internal elements of the school, it gives parents and pressure groups as the exterior elements of the school. Şahin (2017), on the other hand, includes social media in the external elements of the school. School administrators need to achieve the school's goals effectively by playing a conciliatory role between internal and external factors. For this reason, school administrators should have *technical*, *human* and *conceptual* competence (Akbaşlı, 2018; Hill & McShane, 2008).

The *technical competence* that the manager should have includes the special knowledge and skills that the manager should have in order to perform some tasks (Özedmir, 2018). These skills can be developed either through education or through experience. These technical skills include responsibilities such as financial management, accounting works, cleaning and maintenance of the school, and planning the activities in the school (Akbaşlı, 2018). As a *humanitarian competence*, it shows the school administrator's ability to work in cooperation and solidarity with the internal and external elements of the school. Human competencies are important in terms of the level of relations between individuals in the school organization. Managers with human competence have high empathy skills. The *conceptual competence* is about the ability to understand the relationships between parts

and solve problems. Managers with conceptual competence can foresee how the changes made can have an impact among the units (Özdemir, 2018).

Tuzcuoğlu (2009: 374-378) stated that school administrators have some characteristics that should be used while doing things such as teaching and education at school, staff, students. These characteristics are giving importance to research and development, being able to include everyone in the management, distributing responsibilities appropriately, being open to new information and innovations, determining the reward and punishment system, evaluating success, giving importance to personnel training and development. The success of the manager depends on the extent to which he has these basic characteristics. The leadership style exhibited by the administrator in educational institutions such as schools will affect the whole school and its elements as an institution. To be successful in terms of school management is to be an effective education leader.

The most strategic element of the school is undoubtedly the teachers (Bursalioglu, 2019). Teaching is a specialty. Celep (2004) and Sağlam (2019) listed the roles that teachers undertake in school as leadership, mediation, management, judge, guidance, parenting, representation, research expertise, and teaching. While performing their duties in the school, teachers are in contact with both school administrators and other elements that make up the school (Şahin, 2017). Teachers have to work in harmony with students, parents, administrators and other auxiliary elements of the school due to the natural role their profession gives them. Teachers are also the most important elements that establish the connection of the school with the outside world and create the image of the school through students. The harmonious relationship between teachers and school administrators will reflect positively on teachers' attitudes within the organization and the whole atmosphere of the school. As the team leader, the school administrator should always have a democratic and participatory attitude in his relations with the teachers. Because teachers are not only a staff member of the school, but also have a decisive role in the relations of the school with the environment and the relations with the students and parents.

Creating a suitable environment for educational activities is primarily the responsibility of the school administrator and teacher. Appropriate learning environments are among the basic conditions of academic success

(Şahin, 2017; Korkmaz & Şahin, 2019). Students who enroll in schools, come to the school organization to gain pre-planned learning experiences and participate in learning activities are the main subjects of all the elements of the school. Student satisfaction and student success lie at the center of all activities. However, thanks to successful students, the school will have achieved its goals. Although the family determines the personality traits of the students, the relationships of the teachers with the families can change the attitudes of the parents towards the school and the education and training activities given at the school. Different stakeholder groups need to participate in the planning of school and classroom education, financing, and development of education policies (İnandı, 2016; Şişman, 2019). Parent participation is an important factor that increases the academic success of students. Studies have shown that school-family cooperation is important in student success (Şahin, 2017).

One of the important elements affecting the functioning of the school, education policies and programs is the dominant groups. These groups that put pressure on the school can be institutions such as political parties, trade unions, religious institutions, non-governmental organizations. These groups can have as much influence as general education processes at the global, national, regional and local levels. These pressure groups can be effective in important fields such as economy, law, security, human rights and health in an international dimension (Bursalıoğlu, 2019; Taymaz, 2003). An effective school administrator should be able to combine the expectations of all these pressure groups with the goals of the school, play a conciliatory role, be open to new ideas and innovations, because a school or education system that is deprived of meeting the needs of the society cannot be expected to take that society forward. School administrators should be leaders who work in peace with all the elements that make up the school.

It is possible to see different definitions of the concept of leadership in the literature. Leadership is generally the process of managing individual and collective efforts to achieve shared goals (Gadirajurrett, Srinivasan, Stevensve Jeena, 2018; Avcı & Topaloğlu, 2009), the process of bringing a group of people together around goals and activating them to achieve these goals (Eren, 2001). :465). According to another similar definition, leadership can be expressed as a concept related to the power of determining the goals of the

group of which it is a member and directing the group in realizing them (Tekarslan et al., 2000:121). It is seen that all these definitions define leadership as the process of influencing and directing other individuals to achieve the goals (Hellriegel and Solum, 1992: 467) and the ability to motivate employees to work in line with the goals (Black and Porter, 2000:405). On the other hand, the leader is integrated around the ideas adopted by those working in the literature (Peker and Aytürk, 2002:38); It is possible to see that it is defined as following people in line with a certain purpose and leading others to act in line with the purpose (Sabuncuoğlu and Tüz, 2001:216). Directing resources in line with the goals of the organization can generally be considered as the defining behavior feature of leadership (Eren, 2007:431). Therefore, the role of the leader in the organization is very important.

School administrators, educators, citizen, and students are important components of the school. School administrators, parents, education supervisors, students, teachers, and other school staff play an important role in creating the necessary environment for each child to be literate and solve complex mathematical problems (Kowalski, & Browne-Ferrigno, 2014; Şahin & Üstüner, 2018) . Saying “Coming together is a beginning, keeping together is progress, working together is success”, Henry Ford emphasizes the importance of being a team and working together. Working together in an engine company, being a team can be the most important thing to increase production. It is the most important thing to be done for the overall success of the school that the administrators, who will assume the educational leadership in schools, work together with the employees at the school, students, teachers, parents and other political, economic and social structures that make up the school's environment. This is only possible with team leadership. It is important to what extent the managers who will assume the team leadership in educational organizations have team leadership characteristics and how they reflect this to the team (Çobanoğlu and Barutçu 2020).

1. THE IMPORTANCE OF TEAM LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Leadership is an important managerial feature for the effective use and management of resources in achieving the goals of the school. It is necessary for effective school leaders to make the aims of the school clear and to take a role that motivates the staff, teachers and students in the school to achieve its goals. Over the last fifty years, the rise of the global economy has brought about a series of social, economic and political changes. This change especially contributed to the improvement of the quality of schools. Since policy makers and economists have associated students' academic achievement with economic salvation in the long run, they have also led to a widening of the focus and duration of reforms related to education (Daun, 2002; Pang, 2013; Zhao, 2009). In retrospect, national economic welfare has been promoted by education politicians by expanding access to school (Means, 2018), ensuring academic success among students (Hanushek, Jamison, Jamison, & Woessman, 2008), creating a network between students and schools (Bathon, 2011; Glazer and Peurach, 2013) and redefining schooling (Ball, 2009; Mullen, 2017; Osborne, 2017). These definitions of well-being have also influenced education reforms and definitions of how leaders work.

It is not possible to think of the school separately from its environment, and it is not possible to reduce the success of the school to the students alone. Although the effectiveness of the school is the responsibility of the school administrator, who has the highest authority in the school, its most important supporters are the teachers, students, other employees and parents who should be in cooperation. While the school administrator is the team leader, he can transform the elements that make up the school into teams (Tan, 2012: 48). Teamwork of school administrators, teachers and other employees can contribute to improving the quality of the school (Don& Raman, 2019). Those who rely only on their own personal experience will always lack knowledge.

Teamwork provides important benefits to the school in identifying and solving knowledge, skills and problems. Teachers' job satisfaction may increase when teachers are given the opportunity to improve the quality of the school. When a problem is shared with other individuals who have knowledge

and skills in different fields, the problem can be solved more quickly and effectively. A proposal put forward by the team is more easily accepted and done than individual suggestions (Aziz, 1999). Teamwork also has many benefits for the individuals. First of all, the pressure arising from the work will be reduced in teamwork, and the responsibility will be shared. The team will provide the opportunity for individuals to get to know each other and interact with others. Team members with different skills, experience, and judgments may achieve better results when compared to a group of people. Individuals with high self-confidence and the ability to plan and review and improve the work done become more successful team members.

The reasons why teamwork is avoided in schools are the existence of a hierarchy in educational institutions, the concept of professional autonomy which turns working alone into personal responsibility, and the prevalence of individualism culture in many educational institutions. However, school management is complex, subgroups and other employees need to participate in order to achieve success (Don& Raman, 2019).

While teams in schools usually consist of administrators and educators, various stakeholders such as students, parents, representatives of non-governmental organizations may take part in teams formed according to the situation. More traditionally, schools may form multiple teams of educators in each field related to that field. Mathematics team can be given as an example for the field of mathematics. Sharing leadership roles with team members will ensure participation in taking important decisions such as the organization of the school, its actions, and the academic development of the school, and the adoption of the decisions taken (The Glossary of Education Reform, 2021). Teams are the best examples of division of labor. It will only be possible for the members to know the tasks they will do in the team and to be goal-oriented, only with effective team leadership. Çobanoğlu and Barutçu (2020: 545) state that “deciding and implementing all processes in educational organizations with teamwork is very important for success”. In addition, it was stated that team leadership behavior would increase teachers' motivation. However, the success of the leader is limited by his leadership characteristics and how much they can reflect these characteristics to the team.

Zaccaro and Klimoski (2001) stated that organizational leaders should have *cognitive, social, personal, political, technical, financial and personnel*

information. When it comes to schools, it may not be rational for school administrators with similar education to have all these skills. However, acting together with the teams to be formed within the school and ensuring that the team members participate in the decision processes can make the school more successful in its activities (Don and Raman, 2019). Decision making is closely related to the values of the leader. The team leader needs to stand on his own feet and sometimes be ready to make decisions alone (Hall & Oldroyd, 1990). As the team leader, the school administrator should keep the motivation of the teachers at the highest level, determine the needs, ensure the effective management of resources and staff, and be open to alternative solutions in solving problems. The higher the motivation of teachers in schools, the higher the success rate of students will be. However, teachers with high motivation can increase students' success (Doğan & Koçak, 2014).

Edmonson (2012) defines the characteristics of an effective team as following:

- Having the knowledge and skills to fulfill the assigned task,
- Having interdependent members,
- Sharing authority,
- Sharing responsibility,
- Self-directed,
- Accountable for joint performance,
- Having common goals,
- Sharing reward and
- Having synergy.

In educational institutions, it is possible to see school-based units especially as units for curriculum development, educational material development and providing standards on teaching certain areas. So it would be beneficial to have teams than individual work in schools.

Fleishman et al. (As cited in Zaccaro et al. 2001) state that leaders have four upper dimensions. He states these dimensions as

- Researching and structuring knowledge,
- Using knowledge in solving problems,
- Managing personnel resources,

- Managing material resources of the organization.

The leader must systematically undertake the acquisition, evaluation and organization of necessary information regarding the team's goals and actions. It is the task of the team leader to make the tasks assigned to the team clear and understandable and to explain them to the team members. The team leader needs to identify needs, plan and coordinate, and use information to solve problems by using effective communication skills and methods. After the teams are formed and the goals are determined, the team leader determines the tasks to be done and the needs of the tasks. Evaluates possible solutions and ensures the implementation of the decided solution. Similarly, the training and development, motivation, assignment and supervision of school staff regarding the use of personnel resources are also among the priority duties of the team leader. It can be stated that there are areas where team leaders should primarily be active in obtaining financial resources, ensuring their continuity, managing and controlling expenditures.

The responsibilities of the teams to be formed in schools may differ from school to school, but the functions of these teams can be as follows (The Glossary of Educational Reform, 2021);

- To develop the school, ensure coordination and take initiative in the development of the school
- Analyzing student performance, suggesting new strategies, courses and training in needed areas to school programs
- It can support, encourage and strengthen cooperation between teachers in the school.
- To determine the professional development needs of teachers and other staff at the school and to support their development.
- Updating, reviewing and selecting curricula, textbooks, instructional technologies,
- To ensure the development of the vocational, social and academic culture of the school,
- To make suggestions regarding the school budget in order to provide the resources needed by the programs,

- To improve communication with those working in the school and outside the school with different segments of the school and society.

Each of the staff working at the school as team members has their own specific roles. It can be defined as the task of the school administrator, that is, the team leader, to ensure the coordination of the school staff with different duties and roles, by the school administrator as the team leader, and the integration of individual studies in line with the goals of the school as a whole, in order to contribute to the achievement of the school's determined goals. The duties of school staff as a team need to be adaptable to environmental changes. Even in extreme environmental conditions, effective teams will need to demonstrate high adaptive performance. In such situations, team members need to develop common values and work procedures, support individual performance, and be flexible enough to fit team goals. The duties of team leaders are to organize the team's relations with the environment, to plan for the methods to be followed in identifying and solving problems, and to provide appropriate guidance in decision-making by providing a balance between team members in cases where different solution proposals are in question (Ancona, 1987). In this context, it may be necessary for the team leader to predict environmental changes, to inform team members about the problems that may arise in different environments, and to be a guide in maintaining the healthy relations of different teams formed in schools with the environment, taking into account the socio-demographic structure of the school as a school administrator.

The realization of the goals set in schools as well as in other organizations depends on the team spirit of school staff (Çobanoğlu & Barutçu, 2020). For an effective team to be formed, the team leader will first need to successfully integrate the team members. The success of individuals will thus be reflected in the success of the team (Koçel, 2003). Team members will have to struggle with developing conditions, knowledge and changing situations, their success in this struggle depends on working in harmony with other members (Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001).

The role of the team leader is important in the full functioning of the team. The leader should keep effective communication channels open with

others, be able to make self-criticism, have the ability to interact, be frank and motivated to achieve the goals of the organization (Çankaya & Karakuş, 2010). Because the performance of the leaders directly affects the team (Tuna, 2003; Koçel, 2003). For this reason, the team leader should know the members well, know their skills and areas of expertise, believe in teamwork, ensure the formation of a democratic and participatory environment by preventing conflict, and keep communication and interaction channels open (Tan, 2012: 37).

As in all other organizations, problems can arise in schools. There may be disagreements and differences of opinion on different issues. These disagreements can be between employees or team members, or between team members and the school manager who is the team leader. In order to prevent the team from disintegrating, the team leader will need to create an environment that will overcome the problems and create a basis for mediation and reconciliation among the members. Imagine if the school administrator could sit down and discuss problems with the teacher and other staff. Such behavior will ensure that disputes are resolved together. Otherwise, the severity of the situation will increase and the solution process of the problems may take longer. According to Spiegel and Torres (1995), for effective teamwork, members must share goals and objectives, success and failure, work together and participate in the work and decision-making process, and there must be a team leader and diversity among the members. Detailing the goals that are desired to be achieved and the reason for the formation of the team, the organizational culture supporting teamwork, the team having enough time for discussion, consultation and training, and knowing the problem-solving techniques will increase the chances of the team to be successful.

Schools are organizations with employees with a certain level of education. As the level of education increases, the desire to work individually and participate in decisions also increases. In achieving the school's goals, the team leader must act in harmony with the teachers and other staff in the school. For this reason, managers who will lead the team should have the skills to divide the employees into teams, organize, communicate effectively, and have high motivation, patience, determination, openness, self-confidence, self-criticism, and empathy (Doğru, 2016: 20). However, even if the

employees have the desired skills, they will need to be motivated to work in line with the goals (Çobanoğlu & Barutçu, 2020). The school administrator, who will assume the role of team leader, motivates teachers and other employees to work in line with the goals of the school, which can significantly increase the success of the school.

The success of the team means the success of the team leader. It is the team leader's responsibility that the team members are task-oriented and equipped with the skills and knowledge to fulfill the task. The fact that the school administrators, as the team leader, consider the education and abilities of the team members before forming teams for different tasks in the school can directly affect the success of the team and the task. Doğru (2016:20) emphasizes that team leadership is an indispensable factor in achieving the goals of the school. In order to be a team leader, it is stated that school administrators should be able to reflect some leadership characteristics such as "being talented in communication, having high motivation, being patient, sensitive, determined, questioning, frank, having high self-confidence, open to self-criticism, being brave and empathetic".

2.1 Team Leadership for an Effective School

There is increasing interest in how team leadership is perceived within a school organization in a social and structural context (Firestone, 1996; Smylie, Conley, & Marks, 2002; Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001). Leadership is no longer considered as a role specific to a single person in the organizational hierarchy, but as distributed among many people within the organization (Firestone, 1996). This means that when evaluating the effectiveness of leadership in schools, not only the hierarchical leader but also the organization as a whole should be evaluated (Ogawa & Bossert, 1995). Recent studies on school improvement suggest distributed or shared team leadership as the most effective form of leadership (Fullan, 2001; Hopkins, 2001). Similarly, team leadership is recommended for the development of learning and teaching activities in educational leadership (Harris, & Muijs, 2004; Muijs & Harris, 2003).

School leadership is done with other members of the school to effectively carry out educational activities in the school. It has been observed that qualitative and quantitative studies conducted to ensure the effectiveness

of the school have been carried out together in a conciliatory and complementary effort in recent years (Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000). Since school management and leadership are not as effective as classroom processes in their impact on students' success, little attention has been paid to them (Wallace, 2002). Creemers (1994) supports this in his study. However, in their study on the effectiveness of school leadership, Hallinger and Heck (1999) revealed that school administrators indirectly affect students' learning. For this reason, limiting the academic success of the school only to in-class activities will not create a true perception. The effective management of the school will directly reflect on student success.

While the team leader and school administrator are responsible for the development of the school's management, he is also a member of the team whose ideas are considered as valuable as any other member (Wallace, 2002). Combining teamwork with leadership increases the ability of school administrators to react quickly to new situations, planning events and finding more creative and faster solutions to problems (Björk & Browne-Ferrigno, 2018). Leadership is not a role specific to only one person in the hierarchical structure of the organization, but consists of roles distributed to many employees within the organization (Friestone, 1996). This means that in the evaluation of effective school leadership, not only the appointed school administrators in the hierarchical structure, but also the school as a whole should be evaluated.

Effective team performance depends on many factors. First, the individual actions of team members must be successfully integrated into the team. Second, the team must be adaptable to work in a highly complex and volatile environment. Third, team leadership represents effective team performance. An effective team needs to absorb cognitive, motivational, emotional and collaborative processes. The effective work of the team depends on the influence of the team leaders on these processes (Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks 2001). The main responsibility of the team leader is to increase the collective benefit of the team. If team members believe in the team's success, they will take more action towards achieving the team's purpose. This depends on the school administrator, as the team leader, to be able to motivate the employees and teachers at the school at a sufficient level. Yeşil (2016: 176) defines the motivation of employees as “additional rights

and rewards that are granted in order to do their jobs faster and with better quality, in line with the objectives of the organization in the current conditions”. The responsibility for the motivation of the teachers belongs to the school administrators as the team leader (Polat, 2010: 35). For effective team leadership and effective schools, employees must have sufficient motivation.

As a team leader, school administrators can increase the effective management of the school and the success of the school in general by motivating the internal and external members of the school sufficiently. In this sense, inspiring leadership is needed to motivate and mobilize employees. These leaders can combine the special goals of the members with the goals of the school and enable the employees to work more devotedly to make the school more successful (Bass, 1998; Curry, 2014; Araslı & Yıldırım, 2021).

Don and Raman (2019) stated that success and quality in schools can be achieved with the cooperation of the teams formed and the spirit of being a family. Human relations are important in all organizations, including schools. The school administrator should be in close contact with the teachers. Having good relations with the teachers and other employees increases performance and can help develop the spirit of brotherhood and cooperation. Having a family spirit in schools is important in terms of organizational harmony and work culture. Having different values in terms of organizational culture leads to disagreements, different beliefs and thoughts. According to Don and Raman (2019), family spirit strengthens the relationships between individuals with different views and values. Family spirit will increase productivity. For example, teachers who are in good relations will cooperate for the education of the students and contribute to the increase in success. Coming to school with family values will be fun, so there will be less absenteeism. However, in school organizations where there is a family spirit, negativities can be experienced as well. Some staff in work teams with close relationships that have captured the family spirit, may fail when they are given independent tasks later on.

The team leader has less responsibility in decision making processes. As the other members of the team will share the responsibility in the decision-making process, the burden of the school management as the team leader will be lightened. When team members see that their knowledge contributes to the

achievement of the team's goals, they will be more motivated and their contribution to the team will increase. The effectiveness of each team member contributes to the success of their potential team. For this reason, it is the responsibility of the school administrator as the team leader to determine the team members according to the criteria that will realize the purpose of the team while forming teams in schools. Open, transparent and effective communication ways for team members to share every information about the team's purpose and for team members to express their views comfortably, and the team leader's strengthening communication between members can increase the success of the team.

PISA results show the countries that are at the forefront in the field of education throughout the world. Finland is one of these countries. There are many reasons why Finland has come to the top of the list in the fields of Mathematics and Science since the 2000s. However, one of the important issues for us is that the education administrators take on the role of team leader in education administration. While describing the success of Finland, Shalberg (2011) states that the most successful students are included in the teaching programs, the undergraduate education standards are raised, the professional development of teachers is supported, the culture of team leadership in education is based on trust, and the cooperation network between schools is effective in creating the educational power of Finland. Regional education administrators and education office staff supported teachers and school administrators at all levels in the development of school-based curriculum. Education includes not only the theoretical teaching of the subjects in the curriculum, but also the transformation of knowledge into practice. One of the main factors that constitute the economic growth of Finland is the combination of theory and practice in education (Risku, Karnervio, & Björk, 2014). Finland's success in education can be inspiring for many countries. Restructuring a new system may be more possible with school administrators who have the spirit of team leader, where educators take an active role. Team leadership has a significant impact on the change of the school.

Teamwork can lead to less stress and more job satisfaction in schools. Individual teachers may experience burnout. However, when they see the work of other colleagues in the team, they will see that they should do it

themselves and will work harder. The solidarity of the members within the team will save energy compared to the individual work done. Therefore, the individual workload will decrease in work teams where there is a division of labor. Stress caused by individual work and the tendency to give up quickly can be overcome thanks to team work. Spiege and Torres (1995) state that teamwork will increase production, increase quality, improve employee morale and reduce expenditures. All these features, which are necessary for schools to reach their goals effectively, show how necessary teamwork and team leadership are for effective management.

Compared to individual work, there is less pressure, shared responsibility, mutual recognition and rewards, feeling valued, interacting, and higher satisfaction with the results of the work done. However, the degree of success of the teams formed in different schools may differ depending on the leadership characteristics of the school administrator, the success of forming the teams and directing the team in line with the goals. As the team leader, the school administrator plays a decisive role in the team's decisions, direction, the selection process of the members and the contribution of the members to being a part of the solution.

According to Risku et al. (2014), apart from the system change in Finland, school administrators' forcing office workers who have been working in educational institutions for twenty years to divide into teams to support change and innovation played an important role in the success in education. In order to achieve this, the simple bureaucratic structure and professional definitions have not been changed, and the employees have been reshaped to support the work of teachers and school administrators (Hargeaves & Fullan, 2021). As the team leader, the school administrators' dividing the employees in the educational institutions into teams that will support the educational activities should be evaluated and supported as an action aimed at realizing the purpose of the school as a whole. The transformation of schools into an innovative and open to change structure will only be possible with education staff who support innovation and change.

Lencioni (2002) states that teams have existed in schools for years, although their structure, effectiveness and duration are variable. The volatile nature of teams in schools can partly be explained by the fact that teams inevitably mask conflicts. An example of this is the conflict between what the

profession requires and being democratic. Professionally, school administrators need to make decisions based on expert knowledge. However, the balances in the school, the decisions of the work teams in the school, the expectations of the society, and professional judgments can get in the way (Wirt & Kirst, 2001). Being aware of the social, economic and political changes in the society, it is recommended that education administrators display a democratic attitude and use relational communication methods rather than complementary communication (Littlejohn, 1992). Relational communication methods require giving importance to interpersonal relations and mutual communication. In addition, administrators need to exchange ideas and listen to all participants. Being a good communicator can be shown as one of the roles of today's education administrators. Gruning and Huang (2000) point out that for the emergence of positive relationships based on communication, there must be power sharing, trust, dedication and satisfaction. In this sense, the team leader should share their roles with the team members, the authority should be shared, and the common goals should be clear and understandable.

Teams are essential for dealing with a multitude of persistent problems, but the effectiveness of teams rarely comes naturally, especially when quality and acceptable outputs are imperative. As a team leader, school administrators should not allow the team members' own interests to affect the process and results in order to overcome possible serious problems (Paton & Downs, 2003). Team decisions require more resources and time than individual decisions (Clark, Clark, & Irvin, 1997). Making decisions without the leadership of the team leader can cause time loss beyond acceptable limits (Edmonson, 2012). As the team leader, the school administrator should not allow negative social and political obstacles in the team. Social cohesion in teams may take precedence over the quality of the decision. In addition, teams are open to manipulations. Uneven distribution of power and knowledge can lead to manipulations. Such situations are more likely to make ineffective decisions (Björk, Browne-Ferrigno, & Kowalski, 2018). According to group development theory, conflict is inevitable in organizations and is necessary for long-term effectiveness. If conflicts are ignored and tolerated, dysfunctional conflicts can negatively impact team quality decision making.

On the other hand, properly managed conflicts can act as a catalyst for organizational change (De Dreu & Gelfand, 2008).

Despite the possible disadvantages of teamwork, the concept is highly defensible professionally, politically and psychologically. Professionally, team members gain knowledge to improve their own practice. It is necessary to develop their skills in order to increase their creativity and enable them to take responsibility. Compared to individual decision making, the data collected and the quality of the data are considered more valuable in decision making as a team. When politically authoritative decision making is compared to team decision making, it can be said that team decision making is more acceptable (Hirokawa, 1990). Psychologically, teams are more in line with democratic principles and shared team leadership (Sergiovanni, 2006).

In dynamic societies where constant change is experienced, it is very important for schools to be learning organizations and to form effective teams at school level. Team leadership is fundamentally based on democratic principles, but more is needed than faith and goodwill. In order to create successful teams and ensure the continuity of these teams, it is both necessary and imperative for the administrators who assume the role of team leaders to maintain the exchange of information, to keep strong communication with different internal groups and the society, and to be the pioneer of innovations and change. Because the flow of information is bidirectional, not just from school to society and other groups. The information that the school will collect from the environment can only be possible with strong communication. Katzenback and Smith (2004) point out that in order to form effective teams, those who undertake the educational leadership should spend a lot of time and effort in determining common and individual goals.

The success of team and group work depends on the behavior of the team leader. Because the team leader is the person who knows the members best and knows their wishes and needs (Çobanoğlu & Barutçu, 2020). As the team leader, the school administrator's keeping the morale and motivation of the employees high is considered important for the school to reach its goals as a whole and to increase student success. As the team leader, it is as important to increase the cooperation, reconciliation and coordination among the employees. Directing the individual efforts and talents of the team members

towards the common goals of the team can increase the success of the team leader as a whole.

CONCLUSION

School is one of the most important institutions of society. The way and methods to be followed in the management of educational institutions have to differ from other institutions. Although there is not always a generally accepted management approach developed for educational organizations, researches in the field of education emphasize a more democratic and participatory management approach in these institutions. In this sense, the understanding that the employees in the school are divided into different task teams and the school administrators assume the role of a team leader is recommended because it is suitable for both democratic principles and educational institutions. As team members, it can be suggested that students, teachers, auxiliary staff and students' parents should be divided into different functional teams and work together in line with the school's goals to achieve effective school goals.

As a team leader, school administrator's responsibility is to lead the team in decisions to be taken as a member of a team, and to direct the team's energy to achieve the school's goals in an efficient way. Members' compliance with the decisions taken as a team is higher. Adoption of decisions primarily depends on getting rid of the concept of self and acting together with the feeling of we. Ensuring the participation of educational institutions in making decisions that also concern their stakeholders is considered important in adopting the changes and innovations that the school will lead. The fact that school administrators, who will assume the role of team leader, show the fact that the school is managed together, instead of clarifying their position in the legal hierarchical structure, can ensure that educational activities are more adopted, more successful and effective results are obtained, and employees are more willing to contribute to these results. Successful management of the school can be mentioned according to the school administrators' role as a good planner, coordinator, motivator and advisor as team leaders, and their ethics in displaying the behaviors required by these roles.

Studies on school management and leadership should not simply be adapted to other cultures and conditions. Studies on education reveal that in-

depth contexts of educational organizations should be examined in general, and that cultural and situational variables may cause differences in the management of educational organizations. For this reason, there is a need for local studies on the team culture of educational organizations and the role of the team leader. The situational variables, cultural factors, school level and environmental conditions of the school should be taken into consideration by the researchers, and they should investigate what kind of behavior patterns, knowledge and skills in these variable conditions team leaders should exhibit.

REFERENCES

- Abuzid, H. F. T & Abbas, M. (2017). Impact of teamwork effectiveness on organizational performance vis-a-vis role of organizational support and team leader's readiness: A study of Saudi Arabian Government Departments work teams. *Journal of Engineering and Applied Sciences* 12 (8), 2229-2237.
- Akbaşı, S. (2018). Okul yöneticisi ve okul yöneticisinin yeterlikleri (Ed. N. Cemaloğlu ve M. G. Gülcan), *Kuramdan uygulamaya okul yönetimi kitabı* içinde (ss. 147-186), Ankara: Pegem Akademi Yayınları.
- Ancona, D. G. (1987). *Groups in organizations: extending laboratory models*. In: C. Hendrick (Ed.), *Group processes and intergroup relations* (pp. 207-230). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Araslı, O. & Yıldırım, B. (2021). Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Aşırı Enformasyon Yükü ve Aşırı Haber Enformasyon Yükü Algılarına Dair Bir Alan Araştırması: Atatürk Üniversitesi Örneği. *Türkiye İletişim Araştırmaları Dergisi* , (38) , 302-322 . DOI: 0.17829/turcom.930825
- Avcı, U. & Topaloğlu, C. (2009). Hiyerarşik Kademelere Göre Liderlik Davranışlarını Algılama Farklılıkları: Otel Çalışanları Üzerinde Bir Araştırma . *Karamanoğlu Mehmetbey Üniversitesi Sosyal Ve Ekonomik Araştırmalar Dergisi*, (1), 1-20. (Erişim, 14.11.2021),<https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/kmusekad/issue/10220/125626>
- Aziz, O. A. (1999). *Perhubungan antara Gaya Kepimpinan Ketua Bidang dengan Kepuasan Kerja Guru-guru Mata Pelajaran Teknik dan Vokasional*. Serdang: UPM.
- Ball, S. J. (2009). Privatizing education, privatizing education policy, privatizing educational research: Network governance and the "competition state." *Journal of Education Policy*, 24(1), 83-99.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and Performance*. N.Y: Free Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1998). *Transformational leadership: Industrial, military, and educational impact*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Bathon, J. (2011, October). *Model legislation related to online learning opportunities in public elementary and secondary schools*. Boulder, CO: National Education Policy Center.
- Björk, L.G & Browne-Ferrigno, T. (2018). Introduction to special Issue: International Perspectives on Team Leadership. *Research in E& Leadership, Educational Administration* (2) 3, 128-137
- Björk, L. G., Browne-Ferrigno, T. & Kowalski, T. J. (2018). Superintendent roles as CEO and team leader. *Research in Educational Administration & Leadership*, 3 (2), 179-205. DOI: 10.30828/real/2018.2.3

- Black J. S. & Porter, L. W. (2000). *Management: Meeting New Challenges*, Prentice Hall, New Jersey.
- Brown, M.E.& Trevino, L.K.(2006). Ethical leadership: A review and future directions. *Leadership Q.* 17 (6), 595-616.
- Bursalıoğlu, Z. (2019). *Okul yönetiminde yeni yapı ve davranış*. Ankara: Pegem Akademi Yayınları.
- Clark, S. N., Clark, D. C., & Irvin, J. L (1997). Collaborative decision making. *Middle School Journal*, 28(5), 54-56.
- Creemers, B.P.M. (1994). *The effective classroom*. London: Cassell.
- Çankaya, İ. H. & Karakuş, M. (2010). Okul yöneticilerinin takım liderliği davranışlarına yönelik bir ölçme aracı geliştirme çalışması. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi Dergisi*, 16(2), 167-183.
- Çobanoğlu, F. & Barutçu, A. (2020). Okullarda takım liderliği ve öğretmen motivasyonu, *Journal of International Social Research*, 13(75), 545-553.
- Daun, H. (Ed.). (2002). *Educational restructuring in the context of globalization and national policy*. New York, NY: Routledge Falmer.
- De Dreu, C. K. W., & Gelfand, M. E. (Eds.). *The psychology of conflict and conflict management in organizations*. New York, NY: Taylor & Francis Group.
- Dewey, J. (1907). *School and society*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press
- Doğru, M. (2016). *Meslek Lisesi Müdürlerinin Takım Liderliği Rollerini*. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İstanbul Aydın Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.
- Doğan, S., & Koçak, O. (2014). Okul yöneticilerinin sosyal iletişim becerileri ile öğretmenlerin motivasyon düzeyleri arasındaki ilişki. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi [Educational Administration: Theory and Practice]*, 20(2), 191- 216. DOI: 10.14527/kuey.2014.009
- Don, Y. & Raman, A. (2019). School management and leadership: Teamwork in schools. *Multidisciplinary Journal of Instruction*, 1(2), 14-36.
- Edmonson, A. C. (2012). *Teaming: How organizations learn, innovate, and compete in the knowledge economy*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Eren, E. (2001). *Yönetim ve Organizasyon: Çağdaş ve Küresel Yaklaşımlar*. İstanbul: Beta Basım Yayım.
- Fiedler, F. E. (1964). *A contingency model of leadership effectiveness*. In: L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (1) 149–190). New York: Academic Press.

- Fiedler, F.E. (1966). The effect of Cultural heterogeneity, leader power, and leader attitudes on group performance: A test of the Contingency Model. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 2, 237-264.
- Forsyth, D. R. (1990). *Group dynamics (2nd. ed.)*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing.
- Firestone, W. A. (1996). Leadership: Roles or functions? In K. Leithwood (Ed.), *International handbook of educational leadership and administration* (395 – 418). New York, NY: Springer.
- Fullan, M. G. (2001). *Leading in a culture of change*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Gadirajurrett, H., Srinivasan, R, Stevens, J, & Jeena, N. (2018). Impact of Leadership on Team's Performance. *Engineering and Technology Management Student Projects*. 1912. (Retrieved: 11.11.2021) https://pdxscholar.library.pdx.edu/etm_studentprojects/1912
- Glazer, J. L., & Peurach, D. J. (2013). School improvement networks as a strategy for large scale education reform: The role of educational environments. *Educational Policy*, 27(4), 676–710.
- Grunig, J. E., & Huang, Y. H. (2000). *Antecedents of relationships and outcomes*. In J. Ledingham & S. runing (Eds.), *Public relations as relationship management* (23-54). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Hackman, J. R., & Walton, R. E. (1986). *Leading groups in organizations*. In: P. S. Goodman, et al. (Eds.), *Designing effective work groups* (72–119). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Hallinger, P., & Heck, R. (1999). Can leadership enhance school effectiveness? In T. Bush, L. Bell, R. Bolam, R. Glatter, & P. Ribbins (Eds.), *Educational management: Redefining theory, policy and practice* (pp. 178-190). London: Paul Chapman.
- Hall, V. & Oldroyd, D. (1990). *Management Self-Development for Staff in Secondary Schools*. Bristol: NDCEMP
- Hanushek, E. A. Jamison, D. T., Jamison, E. A., & Woessmann, L. (2008). Education and economic growth: It's not just going to school, but learning something while there. *Education Next*, 6(2), 62-70.
- Harris, A., & Muijs, D. (2004). *Improving schools through teacher leadership*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Hargreaves, A., & Fullan, M. (2012). *Professional capital: Transforming teaching in every school*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Hellriegel D. & Slocum, J. W. (1992). *Management*. Addison. Wesley Publishing Company, New York

- Hill, C. W. L., & McShane, S. L. (2008). *Principles of management*. NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Hirokawa, R. Y. (1990). The role of communication in group decision making efficacy: A task-contingency perspective. *Small Group Research: An International Journal of Theory, Investigation, and Application*, 21(2), 190-204.
- İnandı, Y. (2016). Okula toplumsal katılım. (Ed. Ruhi Sarpkaya). *Türkeğitim sistemi ve okul yönetimi kitabı* içinde. Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.
- Katzenback, J. R., & Smith, D. K. (2004). *The discipline of teams*. In Harvard Business Review on teams that succeed (pp. 1-25). Boston, MA: Harvard Business School.
- Kerr, S., & Jermier, J. M. (1978). Substitutes for leadership. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 22, 375-403.
- Koçel, T. (2005), *İşletme Yöneticiliği* (10. Basım) İstanbul: Arıkan Yayınevi.
- Korkmaz, C. & Şahin, M. (2019). Liselere kayıt sistemine yönelik öğretmen görüşleri. *Mustafa Kemal Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 3(4), 9-20.
- Lencioni, P. (2002). *The five dysfunctions of a team: A leadership fable*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Littlejohn, S. W. (1992). *Theories of human communication* (4th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Lord, R. G. (1977). Functional leadership behavior: measurement and relation to social power and leadership perceptions. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 22, 114-133.
- McGrath, J. (1984). *Groups: interaction and performance*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Means, A. J. (2018). Platform learning and on-demand labor: Sociotechnical projections on the future of education and work. *Learning, Media and Technology* 43(3), 326-338.
- Mullen, C. (2017). *Creativity and education in China: Paradox and possibilities for an era of accountability*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Muijs, D., & Harris, A. (2003). Teacher leadership—improvement through empowerment? An overview of the literature. *Educational Management & Administration*, 31(4), 437-448.
- Nir, A. E. (Ed.). (2014). *The educational superintendent: Between trust and regulation. An international perspective*. Hauppauge, NY: Nova Science.
- Nygren, R., & Levine, E. L. (1996). *Leadership of work teams: factors influencing team outcomes*. In: M. M.Beyerlein, D. Johnson, & S. T.

- Beyerlein (Eds.), *Interdisciplinary studies of work teams: 3. Team leadership* (67–104). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Ogawa, R. T., & Bossert, S. T. (1995). Leadership as an organizational quality. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 31(2), 224-243.
- Osborne, D. (2017). *Reinventing America's schools: Creating a 21st education system*. New York, NY: Bloomsburg.
- Özdemir, M. (2018). *Eğitim yönetimi: Alanın temelleri ve çağdaş yönelimler*. Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık
- Pang, N. S. (2013). Globalization in the one world: Impacts on education in different countries. In N. Popov, C. Wolhuter, P. A. Almeida, G. Hilton, J. Ogunleye, & O. Chigisheva (Eds.), *Education in one world: Perspectives from different nations* (17- 27). Sofia, Bulgaria: Bulgarian Comparative Education Society.
- Patton, B. R., & Downs, T. M. (2003). *Decision-making group interaction* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Peker, Ö. & Aytürk, N. (2002). *Yönetim Becerileri*. Ankara: Yargı Yayınevi.
- Polat, S. (2010). *Okul öncesi yöneticilerinin kullandıkları yönetsel güç kaynaklarına ilişkin öğretmen algıları ile öğretmen motivasyonu arasındaki ilişki*. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Yeditepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, İstanbul
- Risku, M., Karnervio, P., & Björk, L. G. (2014). Finnish superintendents: Leading in a changing education policy context. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 13(4), 383-406.
- Sahlberg, P. (2011). *Finnish lessons: What can the world learn from educational change in Finland?* New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Selçuk, Ö. G. G., Yalçınkaya, M. & Uslu, A. C. (2013). Kadın okul müdürlerinin takım liderliği rollerini sergileme düzeyinin ve bu rollere verilen önem derecesinin incelenmesi. *Celal Bayar Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 11(1), 106-125.
- Sergiovanni, T. J. (2006). *The principalship: A reflective practice perspective* (5th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Smylie, M. A., Conley, S., & Marks, H. (2002). *Building leadership into the roles of teachers*. In J. Murphy (Ed.), *The educational leadership challenge: Redefining leadership for the 21st century* (pp. 162-188). Chicago, IL: National Society for the Study of Education.
- Spiegel, J.& Torres, C. (1994). *Manager's Official Guide to Team Working*. San Diego: Pfeiffer & Company.

- Spillane, J., Halverson, R., & Diamond, J. (2001). *Toward a theory of leadership practice: A distributed perspective*. Chicago, IL: Northwestern University, Institute for Policy Research.
- Şahin, M. (2017). *Okulun Çerçeve Unsuru Olarak Sosyal Medyaya İlişkin Yönetici, Öğretmen ve Veli Görüşleri (Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi)*, İnönü Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimler Enstitüsü.
- Şahin, M. & Üstüner, M. (2018). "The Opinions of School Administrators, Teachers And Parents About How Social Media Supports And Obstructs Education", *Journal of Current Researches On Social Sciences (Jocress)*, 8(1), 83-104., Doi: 10.26579/jocress-8.1.
- Şişman, M. (2019). *Türk eğitim sistemi ve okul yönetimi*. Ankara: Pegem Yayınları.
- Tan, Ç. (2012). *İlköğretim okul yöneticilerinin takım liderlik davranışlarının öğretmenlerin iş doyumuna, örgütsel adanmışlık ve örgütsel vatandaşlık düzeylerine etkisi*. Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi, Fırat Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü.
- TDK (2019). Takım. <https://sozluk.gov.tr/> (20 Kasım, 2021).
- Teddlie, C., & Reynolds, D. (Eds.). (2000). *The international handbook of school effectiveness research*. London: Falmer Press.
- Tekarslan, E., Kılınc, T., Şencan, H. & Baysal, A.C., (2000). *Davranışın Sosyal Psikolojisi*, İstanbul: İ.Ü.İşletme Fakültesi Yayınları,
- The Glossary of Education Reform (2021). Leadership team. (Erişim, 23.11.2021), <https://www.edglossary.org/leadership-team/>
- Tuna, B. (2003). *Takım çalışmasına ilişkin yönetici ve öğretmenlerin görüşleri: (Afyon ili örneği)*. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Anadolu Üniversitesi, Eskişehir.
- Wallace, M. (2002). Modeling distributed leadership and management effectiveness: Primary school senior management teams in England and Wales'. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 13(2), 163-186
- Wilson, M.E. (2004). Teaching, learning, and millennial students. New Directions For Student Services. 106, *Wiley Periodicals, Inc.* <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/epdf/10.1002/ss.125> (27 Şubat, 2022).
- Wirt, F., & Kirst, M. (2001). *The political dynamics of American education*. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan
- Yeşil, A. (2016). Liderlik ve Motivasyon Teorilerine Yönelik Kavramsal Bir İnceleme| A Theoretical Research on Leadership and Motivation Theories. *Uluslararası Akademik Yönetim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 2(3). 158-180

- Yirci, R. & Demir, C. (2019). Öğretmenlerin Okul Müdürlerinin Takım Liderliği Becerilerine İlişkin Algılarının Çeşitli Değişkenler Açısından İncelenmesi. *Uluslararası Alan Eğitimi Dergisi*, 5(2), 165-184.
- Yukl, G. (2002). *Leadership in organizations (4th. Ed.)*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Zaccaro, S. J., & Klimoski, R. (2001). *The nature of organizational leadership*. In: S. J. Zaccaro, & R. Klimoski (Eds.). *The nature of organizational leadership: understanding the performance imperatives confronting today's leaders* (3–41). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass
- Zaccaro, S. J., Rittman, A. L., & Marks, M. A. (2001). Team leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 12(4), 451–483. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843\(01\)00093-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(01)00093-5)
- Zhao, Y. (2009). *Catching up or leading the way: American education in the age of globalization*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

CHAPTER 9

THE FORMATION OF SIGNS

Assist. Prof. Dr. Sarvenaz SAFAVI¹

¹ Near East University, Nicosia, KKTC. naghshedel@yahoo.com

The Meaning of “Sign”

People deal with several signs and signs systems every day and in different situations. We stop at red lights when driving. We see dark clouds and decide to take an umbrella with us. We see a woman in a white wedding dress and understand that she is the bride. We hear a woman on the phone talking in a childish voice and imagine she is talking to a baby. We see someone far away open their hand and shakes it, and we understand that they are saying hello, but in a different situation, we may interpret it differently—for example, if we already talked to that person earlier, then we may interpret the way as the person saying, “I am over here.” The things around us and what we do are based on units that can be interpreted differently by others. These units can be interpreted personally or socially. The question is why we interpret and perceive these units differently from others. When we share a photo on social networks and someone “likes” it, why do we not consider it as someone who is counting for us? Why do we believe a person is proposing marriage if they get down on one knee and offer a ring and not asking us to fix a pipe with the ring? This article aims to find answers to these kinds of questions and show how signs are formed and how we can perceive these signs.

The Perception of Signs

This author believes that it is not important to believe in the Saussurian approach to signs, called semiology, or Peirce’s view, called semiotics. Saussure (1983) limited himself in the language of signs when he spoke about them, and he defined them as an arbitrary connection between the signifier and the signified. According to him,

A linguistic sign is not a link between a thing and a name, but between a concept [signified] and a sound pattern [signifier]. The sound pattern is not a sound; for a sound is something physical. A sound pattern is the hearer’s psychological impression of a sound, as given to him by evidence of his/her senses. This sound pattern may be called a ‘material’ element only in that it is the representation of our sensory impressions. The sound pattern may thus be distinguished from the other elements associated with it in a linguistic sign.

This other element is generally of a more abstract kind: the concept. (Saussure, 1983, p. 66)

With this explanation, Saussure tended to the ideational theory, which states that meaning is a subjective entity. This approach refers to Locke's (1689) *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding*. On the other hand, Peirce believed signs are objective and represent something other than themselves. Danesi (2004) describes Peirce's model of the sign and explains, "Peirce called the sign a representamen and the concept, things, idea, etc., to which it refers the object. He termed the meaning (impression, cogitation, sense, etc.) that we get from any sign, the interpretant. These three dimensions are always present in signification. Thus, the Peircean viewed the sign as a triadic, rather than binary, structure" (26). Peirce's way of looking at signs is the pragmatism approach, which can be considered favorable with Bühler's way of looking at signs. According to Bühler's Organon Model, each linguistic sign has three simultaneous functions. A sign is a symbol that provides information about an object. A sign is a "signal" for the receiver and a "symptom" for the sender.

Based on these explanations, the author of this article believes that inference is possible for all signs:

$$p \rightarrow q$$

p

q

Inference means that if the occurrence of p is interpreted as q, the existence of p could result in q. For instance, if smoke (p) is interpreted as fire (q), then when there is smoke in the sky, there is a fire. It does not make any difference if one believes in the arbitrary essence of a sign and not in inference. The sign can be in the form of an icon, an index, or even a symbol; if p occurs, the result is q. Therefore, the inference is true (T).

From this approach, the sign value of (T) or false (F) can be summarized in the table below:

p	q	$p \rightarrow q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	T

F F T

Smoke (p) is a sign of fire (q). If p is true and q is false—that is, there is smoke but no fire—the perception of smoke as a fire is false. If p is false—that is, there is no fire—the perception of p is true whether q is true or false—that is, whether there is a fire or not, the perception of p is true.

The inference above is also valid for the perceptions of symbols, indexes, and icons. For example, it is possible to make smoke without fire by using smoke capsules, and it is possible to change one’s appearance by using makeup.

According to verificationists of the Vienna Cycle, a proposition must be true to make a change in human beings. When a proposition has a valid truth, it can be used in further inferences, changing the use of this proposition.

If we consider the meaning of a sign as one or more sentences, then it is also possible to say that when a sign is true, it can change the inferences of the user of that sign. For instance, when a red light means “stop” and this meaning is true, it can cause the user to act accordingly. However, if the red light means “go” and this meaning is false, nobody will store it in their mind to use it in further inferences. By this view, we can say that the formation of a sign depends on the true value of every sign, including symbols, indexes, and icons.

If a sign has a personal interpretation, it will not be valid in society. However, when signs are part of a social system, then the true value of each will be part of its formation. We can form a sign arbitrarily, meaning the form of a sign can be arbitrary to the content. Therefore, we can have infinite signs connected to infinite contents. When we say a sign is an index, an icon, or even a symbol, we are dealing with a second step of creating a sign. The first step is the connection between the form and content that is true in every possible world. Therefore, we can say that something is a sign when the connection between the form and the content has a true value and is true in the real world or other possible worlds.

First, we will examine indexes. When we say that a hole in a wall is a sign that a bullet has been shot into that wall, it must be true to change our knowledge about this index. When a hole in a wall is never interpreted as a shooting in the real world or other possible worlds, then the sign has a false value and cannot exist as a sign in society.

To examine icons, we can use the example of a picture of a family member. When a picture is a form of connecting to a grandfather, this connection must be true. Otherwise, if this connection is false and the picture is not of the grandfather, it cannot be a sign because of its false value.

To examine symbols, we can use the example of a wedding ring. If everybody wore a wedding ring as an accessory, the true value of the connection between the form and the content of this sign becomes false. That means that nobody can interpret a wedding ring as a special accessory.

All signs, without exception, must be based on their true value. Without this confirmation, there is no use in formatting a sign.

Conclusion

The author showed that the value of using a sign depends on its true value, which means it has to be true in the real world or another possible world. As a true sign, every sign can be a parameter for changing the mind of the user. When a sign is true and the connection between the form and content is valid in a society, it can be a tool for further inferences. Therefore, that sign can be valid if it is true among the members of the society using it, whether it is an index, an icon, or even a symbol.

REFERENCE

- Danesi, Marcel. 2004. *Message, Sign, and Meaning: A Basic Textbook in Semiotics and Communication* (3rd ed.). Canadian Scholars' Press Inc.
- Locke, John. 1689/1960. *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding*. London: T.Tegg and Sons
- Saussure, Ferdinand de. 1916/1983. *Course in general linguistics* (R. Harris, Trans.). Duckworth.

CHAPTER 10

MULTICULTURALISM, INTERCULTURAL RELATIONS, AND TOLERANCE LEVELS OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS AND THE EFFECT ON THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARDS SYRIAN REFUGEES

Prof. Dr. Veysel YILMAZ¹, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Şengül CANGÜR²

¹ Eskişehir Osmangazi University, Faculty of Science and Letters, Department of Statistics, Eskişehir, Turkey, e-mail: vyilmaz@ogu.edu.tr, ORCID ID 0000-0001-5147-5047

² Düzce University, Faculty of Medicine, Department of Biostatistics and Medical Informatics, Düzce, Turkey, e-mail: sengulcangur@duzce.edu.tr, ORCID ID 0000-0002-0732-8952

INTRODUCTION

Migration can be defined as the act of leaving one's own country due to political, religious, economic, social, or cultural reasons and continuing life in another country. Migration is generally separated into two categories as on-demand and forced migration. On-demand migration is when people leave their own country because of educational, social, or economic reasons and go to other countries for a better life. Forced migration is when people are compelled to leave their countries because of reasons like natural disasters, wars, or revolutions. In on-demand migration, the individuals are referred to as immigrants, whereas in forced migration, they are called refugees.

The demonstrations that began on 15 March 2011 in Syria led the country into a civil war. As a result of this civil war, large numbers of the Syrian population have had to live in other countries as refugees. Because of this war, which has lasted more than six years, millions of Syrians have been left homeless and many have lost their lives. Moreover, the increased cost of food in Syria during the war has made it harder to live there. As day-to-day conditions in Syria grew more and more intense, the numbers forced to migrate increased. Turkey did not remain indifferent, which has led to an open-door policy toward those forced to migrate. Turkey has also offered several temporal opportunities to our Syrian neighbors. According to the statistics of the Republic of Turkey Ministry of Interior Directorate General of Migration Management (2016, 2017), Turkey hosts the largest population of refugees in the world. Although 237,071 of the 3,117,069 registered Syrian refugees who came to Turkey are staying in camps, 2,879,988 are living in housing units. Today, more than 3.5 million of the over 5.5 million Syrian refugees are living in Turkey.

According to the Republic of Turkey Ministry of Interior Disaster and Emergency Management Presidency (AFAD, 2017), there are 233,064 members of the Syrian refugee population living in 22 housing units in 10 cities. Although the refugees can be found all over the country, the number of Syrians living in İstanbul is 539 thousand according to official figures or 600 thousand according to unofficial figures, which makes it the city most densely populated with refugees. It is followed by cities like Şanlıurfa, Hatay, Gaziantep, Adana, and Mersin. Kilis is the most remarkable one of them all because the refugee population in Kilis is 130 thousand, whereas the local

population is only 90 thousand, making the local residents the minority in Kilis. Syrian refugees have become “city refugees” and make up 4% of the 78 million Turkish population. Although social adaptation and acknowledgement of this situation is important, it also brings along many problems for both communities (AFAD, 2017).

The refugees, who have left the war behind and set off for other lands, have problems in Turkey as well as in other countries. The primary problems include those of unemployment, education, economics, and ostracism. The Syrian refugees in Turkey have been trying to continue with their lives in the camps prepared for them, in apartments they find in city centers, or on the streets. In the course of leading their daily lives, interactions with the native population are inevitable. Those interactions shape the attitudes of the society toward the refugees.

Although Turkey is known as a multicultural society, the sudden increase in the number of refugees and the effects of their settlement in Turkey have led to different views on Syrian refugees. In Turkey, members of the native population are constantly in contact with Syrian refugees in social environments and workplaces. As a result of these interactions, from time to time, negative situations and inappropriate conflicts emerge. In order to prevent these clashes, it is important to reveal the factors that instigate the negative attitudes of the native population toward the refugees. The number of studies carried out analyzing the opinions of university students on Syrian refugees is insufficient. The concerns of these students and their involvement in Turkey’s problems will shape the future of the country. Thus, this research can fill the gap and contribute to the related literature. In this study, the factors effective in the generation of negative attitudes toward Syrian refugees were analyzed via the Ward and Masgoret (2006) model. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed when testing the model. The following sections of the paper present a review of the related literature, the proposed research model and the design of the hypotheses, and the SEM results.

1. LITERATURE REVIEW

As the number of refugees in Turkey is close to four million according to official records, the refugees and the people living in the country are in constant contact through interactions in the workplace, on the street, and as neighbors. This contact can sometimes result in problematic situations and conflicts due to negative attitudes and behavior on both sides. Many studies have been conducted with the aim of revealing the attitudes and behavior of Turkish people toward the refugees. These studies are briefly summarized below.

Boyraz (2015) carried out a study on the distribution of tent cities in Turkey. He focused on the Akçakale example in detail. There are approximately 40 thousand Syrian refugees in Akçakale, where the research was carried out. The author reported that the Syrians who live in that region have affected the local community negatively from the economic aspect, thus dramatically increasing the negative view of Syrians by the Akçakale residents. The study determined that the reason for this situation was that the Syrians were working for lower wages and thus, the local people were faced with unemployment. This forced migration has affected family harmony and peace in Akçakale by causing unplanned urbanization and an increased number of beggars. In addition, the refugees sometimes had problems with the local people or government officers.

Canyurt (2015) stated that the Syrian refugee problem is a very distressful issue for Turkey, which deserves merit for providing humanitarian aid, whereas in contrast, the Western countries do not seem to be willing to take an active role in resolving this problem. The study emphasized that this refugee problem has been putting a great burden on Turkey and unfortunately, cannot be resolved anytime soon. Thus, Turkey needs to carefully formulate a strategy.

Tunç (2015) reported that the Syrians living outside of the camps had not been able to undergo the adaptation process successfully. The study determined that Turkish citizens were harboring a huge cultural distance, had demographic concerns, and especially had economic worries about losing their jobs/income and about the related issue of rising housing/apartment prices and rents. The study concluded that the society held the prevalent beliefs that refugees placed a burden on social services and caused disruption

in public services. They were often seen as the cause of disease and crime and therefore, were not to be trusted.

Erdoğan (2015), in his article entitled *Syrians in Turkey: Social Acceptance and Adaptation Research*, gleaned much significant information from the research of the Hacettepe University Immigration and Politics Research Centre (HUGO) carried out through 144 in-depth interviews with 72 Turkish citizens and 72 Syrians living outside of the camps in six cities (Gaziantep, Kilis, Hatay, İstanbul, İzmir, and Mersin). The interviews showed that the local residents were antagonistic toward Syrians and blamed them because they were losing their jobs to Syrians and because rents were increasing, health care services were being disrupted, and crime was escalating. However, the response to the research question “Which one explains your opinion about Syrians the best?” was, “They are people who have escaped from oppression and they are guests in our country,” by a majority of 61.9%. Nevertheless, 41.8% of the residents of intraregional cities and 22.7% of the residents of exterritorial cities strongly agreed with the statement that “Syrian refugees disturb the peace and social morality by committing crimes like violence, theft, smuggling, and prostitution where they live”. The percentage of those not agreeing with that statement was 5.4% among people from intraregional cities and 4.4% among people from exterritorial cities. Of these residents, 29.1% strongly agreed with the statement that “Taking care of this many refugees has been damaging the Turkish economy”, whereas 4.2% of them strongly disagreed. For the statement that “Although there are already many destitute citizens in Turkey, I want my taxes to be spent on refugees”, 26.6% of them strongly agreed, whereas 5.0% strongly disagreed. For the statement that “I think we have the same culture as the Syrians,” 2.4% of them strongly agreed, whereas 25.3% strongly disagreed and 45.3% of them stated that they disagreed with the statement.

The effects of the Syrian refugees on Turkey were analyzed in a report published by the Centre for Middle East Strategic Studies (Orhan & Gündoğar, 2015). The impacts of refugees on Turkey were discussed under four sections: social impacts, economic impacts, impacts on basic services, and political and security impacts. The cities of Adana, Osmaniye, Hatay, Kilis, Gaziantep, Şanlıurfa, Mersin, and Kahramanmaraş were investigated.

As a result of the analysis, the most important sources of the problems in social adaptation were determined as the language barrier and differences in culture and lifestyle. The fact that the population of Syrians had increased dramatically in border cities brought about a demographic change, which in turn created distrust. Especially in Kilis, the local residents had become the minority and this was the cause of uneasiness and concern among them. When the economic impacts were analyzed, the biggest problem was that refugees had been employed as cheap labor. In the border cities, 40% of the citizens had lost their jobs because of Syrians and the local community complained about the missed job opportunities. As for the political and security impacts, the level of insecurity of the local residents was reported to have increased. There had been several arguments between skilled Turkish workers and Syrians in the border cities. One noticeable finding was that the refugees living in cities, in particular, were seen as threatening. Moreover, the local community felt itself increasingly insecure when the refugees were living altogether in ghettos.

Topkaya and Akdağ (2016) analyzed the attitudes of Social Sciences teacher candidates toward Syrian refugees. The research was carried out during the spring semester of the 2014-2015 academic year through face-to-face interviews with 18 teacher candidates studying at Kilis 7 Aralık University Social Sciences Education Program. As a result of this research, the students stated that they understood the values of their country better following the arrival of the Syrian refugees. Because rental prices had increased dramatically with the arrival of the refugees and the city had become extremely crowded, they had a partially negative attitude toward the refugees; however, individually, they had provided financial aid for the refugees and the government had provided them with educational opportunities.

Sandal, Hançerkiran, and Tıraş (2016) reported that the refugee problem not only affects the people who leave their countries, but also becomes a problem for the countries of asylum. Keeping records of the incoming refugees, accommodating them, and meeting their needs may prevent potential social problems. However, the fact that migration does not come to an end and thousands of refugees are still living off-the-record in cities may also cause future social problems. The authors stated that refugees

had been causing problems by disrupting the public peace in Turkey, and that national and international policies should be developed toward the solution of those problems. Turkey should collaborate with related countries in order to share the refugee burden. Syrians need to be registered and necessary precautions should urgently be taken that would enable them to live in harmony with the local society. Their psycho-social needs should be supported and translators made available, accommodation in cities and basic necessities like beds should be provided, and children who live outside the camps should be able to get an education (Sandal, Haçerkiran, and Tıraş, 2016).

Baban, Ilcan, and Rygiel (2017) studied the prospects of those Syrian refugees who stated that they preferred to make the dangerous journey to Europe and their expectations of achieving full citizenship status in a country other than Turkey. The authors were aware that Syrians were trying to cross the border secretly using the assistance of smugglers in hopes of reaching Europe.

Gülyaşar (2017) carried out a study on the reactions of Syrians and Turkish citizens concerning the issue of Syrians being naturalized, which has lately become an important matter of debate. The findings showed that the Syrians were eager to be Turkish citizens and that they would feel themselves more secure and would obtain equal rights following naturalization. On the contrary, however, most of the Turkish citizens felt that many problems assumed to be caused by Syrians today would increase if they were to be naturalized.

Yildirimalp, Islamoğlu, and Iyem (2017) aimed to evaluate the social acceptance and adaptation process of Syrians who migrated after 2011. Formal interviews were conducted with 30 Syrians who had left the camps and begun living in different cities. As a result, the authors determined that the social acceptance and adaptation process of the Syrians had thus far not gone as expected. They stated that it is important for this process that the economic and social impacts of the Syrian refugees be properly analyzed and the aspects of their social and individual threats and opportunities be taken into consideration.

Yitmen and Verkuyten (2018) investigated positive and negative behavioral intentions toward Syrian refugees in Turkey. The behavioral

intentions were examined in relation to national identification, humanitarian concerns, and perception of threat. A questionnaire was conducted among Turkish participants (n = 605). The results showed that the respondents made a distinction between positive and negative behavioral intentions toward Syrian refugees. Furthermore, higher national identification was related with less positive and more negative behavioral intentions, with perception of threat found to be responsible for these associations.

Çimen and Quadir (2018) analyzed the attitudes of university students toward Syrian refugees. The research study group consisted of 247 students picked via the random sampling method from a foundation university in İstanbul in the 2016-2017 academic year. The research data were collected via the Civil Engagement Scale and the Scale of Attitudes toward Syrian refugees. As a result, the university students were found to agree with the negative views about Syrian refugees. Although they were not sure about either the radical or moderate solution suggestions produced for them, they agreed with the expressions that defended their rights and helped them out. The authors reported that the Turkish population, who have been financially and emotionally supporting Syrians since the beginning, had developed these attitudes because of the extended period and the many negative situations they had experienced. Moreover, in the study, the reason for the more negative and radical attitudes toward Syrian refugees was stated as the extended and indefinite period of their stay as our guests in the country and because they were seen as the cause of economic and the security problems in the country.

Çirakoğlu, Demirutku, and Karakaya (2020) investigated the relationships between contact experience, perception of threat, and attitudes of residents in Turkey toward Syrian refugees. In a study involving 353 individuals, they found that the perception of threat would mediate the relationship between contact experience and attitude. They observed that the nature of the contact was mostly casual, and that high levels of threat and relatively negative attitudes occurred within a specific media-effects context.

Alici (2021) sought to reveal the factors affecting the cultural sensitivities and attitudes of nursing students toward Syrian refugees. The study determined that as the positive attitude levels of nursing students increased, their intercultural sensitivity scores also increased. It was

concluded that the students' intercultural sensitivity levels needed to be improved in order to improve their attitudes toward refugees.

Czaika and Di Lillo (2018) investigated the extent to which anti-immigrant hostility is spatially dependent and spread in 28 European countries, although data for Turkey are not available for the period 2002-2014. The authors showed that European regions that are spatially closer share similar trends in anti-immigrant sentiment than those that are farther away.

Outside of Turkey, another important study was conducted by Lippard and McNamee (2021). In this study, which included 1181 adult male individuals in Northern Ireland, investigated the public attitudes in 2015 toward Syrian refugees. They found that those having lower socioeconomic status, having no minority friends, having a bias against Muslims, being elderly, holding prejudices, being Protestant, being a Unionist, and having British identities were associated with less welcoming attitudes toward Syrian refugees.

There have been many articles published on Syrian refugees in Turkey. In most of those articles, inferences have been based on in-depth qualitative interviews using small samples. This study examined the causal relationship of multicultural ideology, intercultural relationship, intergroup tolerance, and perceived threats among groups. This relationship, which was assumed to be potentially effective in developing negative attitude toward refugees, was investigated through a proposed structural model.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1. Research Model and Hypotheses

Ward and Masgoret (2006, 2008) aimed to test a model of attitudes toward refugees. In the research carried out in 2006, 500 households, and in 2008, 2020 households in New Zealand were set as the research sample. The model developed by Ward and Masgoret was entitled “Social psychological model for refugees”. Figure 1 presents the proposed research model developed according to the Ward and Masgoret (2006) model. However, there were two important differences between Ward and Masgoret’ model (2006) and our proposed model. In the first of these, “intergroup anxiety” factor was negative in Ward and Masgoret’ model (2006), but “intergroup tolerance” factor was positive in ours. The other difference was that while the factor of

attitude towards refugees was positive in their model, but this factor was negative in ours. In this model, $A^{(+)}$ was defined as multicultural ideology-related and $B^{(+)}$ as intercultural relationship-related exogenous latent variables, whereas $C^{(+)}$ as intergroup tolerance, $D^{(-)}$ as a perceived threat among groups, and $E^{(-)}$ as a negative attitude toward refugees were defined as endogenous latent variables. In Figure 1, ξ_A represents multicultural ideology, ξ_B intercultural relationship, η_C intergroup tolerance, η_D the perceived threat among groups, and η_E negative attitude toward refugees; ζ_C , ζ_D , and ζ_E identify error terms that belong to the latent variables of intergroup tolerance, perceived threat among groups, and negative attitude toward refugees, respectively; γ_{DA} shows the direct effect of multicultural ideology on the perceived threat among groups; γ_{CB} shows the direct effect of intercultural relationship on intergroup tolerance; β_{DC} shows the direct effect of intergroup tolerance on the perceived threat among groups, and β_{ED} shows the direct effect of the perceived threat among groups on negative attitude toward refugees.

On the other hand, Stephan et al. (1998) argued that there are four main threats that constitute negative attitudes toward immigrants: (a) realistic threat, (b) symbolic threat, (c) negative stereotypes, and (d) intergroup anxiety. Realistic threats refer to concrete threats that arise as a result of the country's scarce resources, especially economic assets and employment opportunities. Symbolic threats relate to differences in norms, beliefs, and values that threaten the worldview of people living within the country. Finally, the study suggested that refugees feel threatened in connection with intercultural interactions because they fear rejection, ridicule, or exploitation by non-group members (Stephan & Stephan, 1985; Stephan et al., 2000). It was assumed that greater acceptance and support of multicultural ideology in the society could reduce the perceived threat among groups and that this reduced perceived threat would reduce negative attitudes toward immigrants (Ward & Masgoret, 2006, 2008). Accordingly, the first hypothesis (H_1) of this study is “ H_1 : As the multicultural ideology develops, the level of perceived threat among groups decreases”.

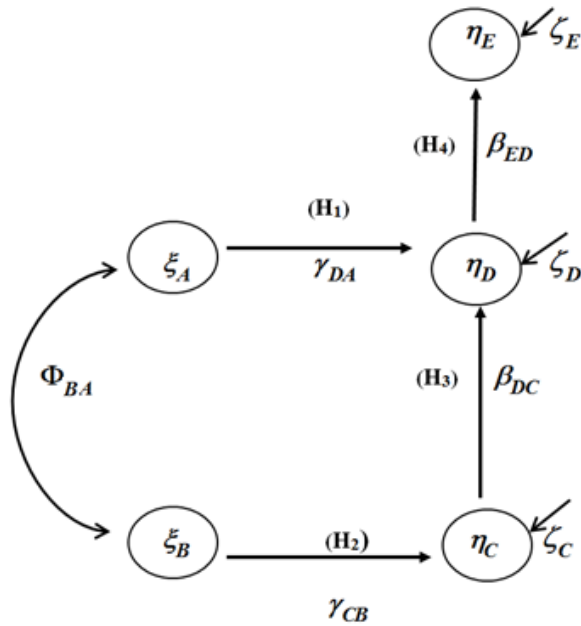


Figure 1: The Research Model for Attitude Toward Refugees (ξ_A : multicultural ideology, ξ_B : intercultural relationship, η_C : intergroup tolerance, η_D : perceived threat among groups, η_E : negative attitude towards refugees, ζ_C , ζ_D , and ζ_E : error terms, γ_{DA} : the direct effect of multicultural ideology on the perceived threat among groups, γ_{CB} : shows the direct effect of intercultural relationship on intergroup tolerance, β_{DC} : the direct effect of intergroup tolerance on the perceived threat among groups, β_{ED} : the direct effect of the perceived threat among groups on negative attitude towards refugees, Φ_{BA} : the correlation between multicultural ideology and intercultural relationship, H_1 – H_4 : Hypotheses)

Berry (2006) states multicultural ideology as “the general and fundamental view that cultural diversity is good for a society and its individual members and that diversity should be shared and accommodated equally”. The multiculturalism hypothesis means that “cultural and economic security leads to intergroup sharing, mutual respect, and a reduction in prejudiced attitudes”. The author states that multicultural ideology and a sense of economic and cultural security lead to greater acceptance of immigrants. It is argued that more intercultural relationships would increase intergroup tolerance, which in turn might result in fewer threats and thus, in attitudes less negative toward immigrants. Consequently, the second hypothesis (H_2) of this study is “ H_2 : As the intercultural relationship level increases, intergroup tolerance level increases”.

Pettigrew and Tropp (2000) evaluated the beneficial effects of contact in reducing prejudice, based on the results of a meta-analysis of more than 200 studies on the contact hypothesis in friendships, workplaces, and neighborhoods. Voci and Hewstone (2003) stated that intergroup anxiety played a mediating role in the effect of contact on Italians' attitudes toward immigrants. Accordingly, the third (H_3) and fourth (H_4) hypotheses of this study are “ H_3 : As the level of intergroup tolerance increases, the level of perceived threat among groups decreases” and “ H_4 : As the level of the perceived threat among groups decreases, the level of negative attitude toward refugees decreases”.

2.2. Data Collection and Procedure

The data collection tool was developed using Ward and Masgoret (2006, 2008), Mori (2012), the European Social Survey (2017), and the public opinion surveys of Eurobarometer. The items of the data collection tool were not directly translated from English, but adjusted in a way that the meanings would remain the same. This tool was divided into three sections as the demographic information, the attitudes, and the behaviors, order to evaluate the attitudes and behaviors toward Syrian refugees. In the demographic information section, questions such as gender, age, and income status were included. The section related to behavior used a five-point Likert scale (1- Never – 5-Always), the section related to the attitudes also used a five-point Likert scale (1-I strongly disagree – 5-I strongly agree). The factors (multicultural ideology, intercultural relationship, intergroup tolerance, the perceived threat among groups, and negative attitudes toward refugees) and items of this tool are given in Table 1. The Cronbach alpha (α) coefficient of the data collection tool was calculated as 0.85.

In May 2018, the questionnaire was applied via a link online to students studying at the three state universities in Eskişehir (a metropolitan city geographically located in the center of Turkey, with a population of 888,828). The analysis was based on data obtained from 343 students who voluntarily filled out the questionnaire.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Demographic Information

Of the 343 students participating in the study, 50% (n = 173) were female, 31% (n = 108) were 17-20 years old, and 59% (n = 203) were 21-24 years old, whereas the rest (n = 32, 9%) were older than 24 years. Although 85% of the students (n = 291) had a medium income status, the rate was quite low for those with high (n = 25, 7%) and low (n = 27, 7%) income status.

3.2. Measurement Model

To analyze the data, LISREL 8.80 was used and two routes were followed: first, the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Figure 2) and then, the structural equation modeling (SEM). First, the measurement model was analyzed to evaluate the validity of convergence, and then, the structural model was analyzed to investigate the strength and the direction of the relationships among the structures ($\chi^2 = 81.47$, $df = 55$, $p = 0.01172$). The fit criteria of the model are given in the last column of Table 1.

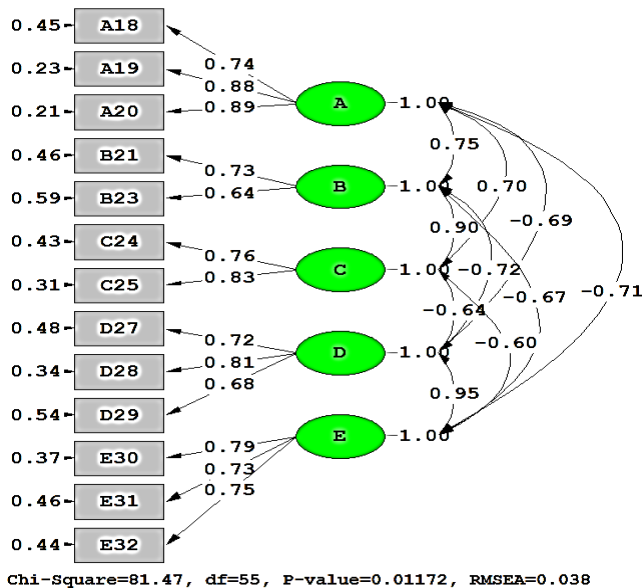


Figure 2: The Measurement Model (A: Multicultural ideology, B: Intercultural relationship; C: Intergroup toleration; D: Perceived threat among groups, E: Negative attitude toward refugees)

Before carrying out the data analysis, the dataset was checked for the multivariate normality assumption ($\chi^2 = 3154.21, p < 0.01$). The Robust Maximum Likelihood Estimation technique was then applied because the dataset was not normally distributed.

2.3. Convergent Validity

To test the convergent validity, three criteria were considered. First the CFA standard factor loadings of each observed latent variable should be higher than 0.50 and statistically significant. Second, the composite reliability (CR) value of each structure should be close to 0.70 or higher. Third, the average variance extracted (AVE) for each structure should be close to 0.50 or higher. When the convergent validity of the study, as shown in the Figure 2 and Table 1, was checked, the standard factor loadings were between 0.64 and 0.89, the CR values were higher than 0.70 except for one, and the AVE coefficients were higher than 0.50, except for one of them. These results confirmed the convergent validity of the structures.

2.4. Structural Equation Model

The structural equation model is given in Figure 3. The fit criteria and parameter estimates of this model are given in Table 1. The chi-square test statistics for the model was calculated as $\chi^2 = 88.47$ ($df = 60, p = 0.00983$) and χ^2/df was calculated as $1.47 < 3$.

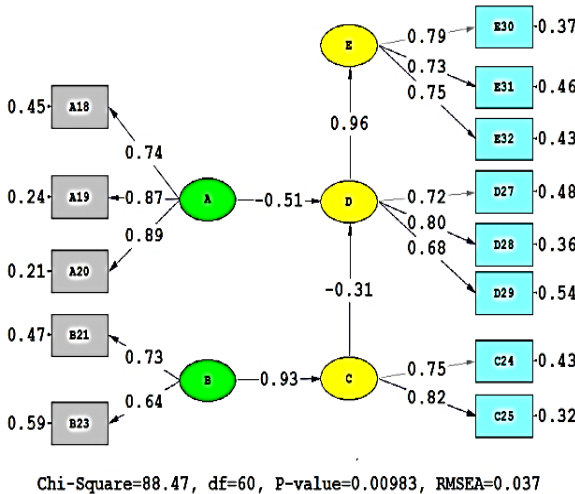


Figure 3: The Proposed Structural Equation Model for Attitude Toward Syrian Refugees (A: Multicultural ideology, B: Intercultural relationship; C: Intergroup toleration; D: Perceived threat among groups, E: Negative attitude toward refugees)

Table 1: The Results for Proposed Structural Equation Model

Factors	Items	Factor L.	R ²	CR & AVE
A: Multicultural ideology	A18. Syrian refugees can maintain their culture in Turkey (Ward and Masgoret, 2008).	0.74*	0.55	0.874 & 0.699
	A19. The cultural diversity provided by Syrian refugees is richness for Eskişehir (Ward and Masgoret, 2008).	0.87*	0.77	
	A20 Refugees increase the richness of social culture (Ward and Masgoret, 2006).	0.89*	0.79	
B: Intercultural relationship	B21. Communicate with refugees (Ward and Masgoret, 2006).	0.73*	0.53	0.640 & 0.477
	B23. I do not feel uncomfortable if I have a refugee neighbor (Mori, 2012).	0.64*	0.41	
C: Intergroup toleration	C24. Although there are some issues, I tolerate refugees (Ward and Masgoret, 2006).	0.75*	0.56	0.757 & 0.609
	C25. The rights of refugees should be considered and respected.	0.82*	0.66	
D: Perceived threat among groups	D27. Refugees negatively affect the economic structure of the society (Ward and Masgoret, 2008).	0.72*	0.52	0.778 & 0.540
	D28. I believe that migration increases crime.	0.80*	0.64	
	D29. The opportunities provided for refugees are more than the opportunities provided for Turkish citizens (Ward and Masgoret, 2008).	0.68*	0.46	
E: Negative attitude toward refugees	E30. The number of the refugees accepted to the country should be limited (Ward and Masgoret, 2006).	0.79*	0.63	0.801 & 0.573
	E31. The illegal refugees should be deported.	0.73*	0.54	
	E32. The citizenship rights that are provided for refugees should be limited.	0.75*	0.46	

* $p < 0.01$, L: Loadings, CR: Composite Reliability, AVE: Average Variance Extracted

The other criteria showing the fit of the model were the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.037 < 0.05, the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) = 0.031 < 0.05, the Normed Fit Index (NF) = 0.98 > 0.90, the Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 0.99 > 0.90, the Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.99 > 0.90, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) =

0.99 >0.90, the Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI) = 0.96 >0.90, the Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.93 >0.90, the Consistent Akaike Information Criterion (CAIC) = 300.44 < Saturated Model CAIC = 622.23, and the Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI) = 0.48 < saturated model ECVI = 0.53. It was accepted that all of the fit criteria showed good fit and therefore, the structural equation model was valid.

The results of hypothesis testing are given in Table 2. It is obvious that all the hypotheses were supported. The value which was estimated as $\gamma_{DA} = -0.51$ means that one unit of increase in the level of multicultural ideology will cause 0.51 unit of decrease in the level of the perceived threat among groups, $\beta_{DC} = -0.31$ means that one unit of increase in the level of intergroup tolerance will cause 0.31 unit of decrease in the level of the perceived threat among groups, $\gamma_{CB} = 0.93$ means that one unit of increase in the level of intercultural relationship will cause 0.93 unit of increase in the level of intergroup tolerance, and $\beta_{ED} = 0.96$ means that one unit of increase in the level of the perceived threat among the groups will cause 0.96 unit of increase in the level of the negative attitude toward refugees.

Table 2: The Results of Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses	Flow direction	Standardized parameter estimates	Decisions
H_1	$A \rightarrow D$	-0.51*	Supported
H_2	$B \rightarrow C$	0.93*	Supported
H_3	$C \rightarrow D$	-0.31*	Supported
H_4	$D \rightarrow E$	0.96*	Supported

* $p < 0.01$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \eta_C &= \xi_B \gamma_{CB} + \zeta_C = 0.93 \xi_B + 0.14, & R_C^2 &= 0.86 \\
 \eta_D &= \xi_A \gamma_{DA} + \beta_{DC} \eta_C + \zeta_D = 0.51 \xi_A - 0.31 \eta_C + 0.43, & R_D^2 &= 0.57 \\
 \eta_E &= \beta_{ED} \eta_D + \zeta_E = 0.96 \eta_D + 0.08, & R_E^2 &= 0.92
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

From the R^2 values in Equation (1), 86% of the change in intergroup tolerance is explained through the intercultural latent variable; 57% of the change in the perceived threat among groups is explained through multicultural ideology and intergroup tolerance latent variables, and 92% of the change in the negative attitude toward refugees is explained through the perceived threat among groups.

DISCUSSION

Because the number of refugees in Turkey exceeds millions, refugees and the people living in the country are in contact in every type of setting. This interaction can sometimes result in problematic situations and conflicts due to negative attitudes and behaviors on both sides. In order to prevent these clashes, it is important to identify the factors that cause the public to have a negative attitude toward refugees. Therefore, it is thought that this study will contribute to the literature in this respect.

In this research, the attitudes of university students toward Syrian refugees were investigated via the Ward and Masgoret (2006) model. Following the literature review, a research method related to attitudes was indicated. This proposed model was used to analyze the effects on attitudes of factors like multicultural ideology, intercultural relationship, intergroup tolerance, and perceived threat among groups. As a result of the research, it was revealed that perceived threat plays an important role in predicting the attitudes toward refugees. It was found that multicultural ideology led to less threat from the refugees and a sense of more satisfactory attitudes. As the frequency of interaction with refugees increased, the intergroup tolerance level increased. When their level of anxieties decreased, the perception of threat level decreased and more positive attitudes emerged. In addition, we noted that when the acceptance level of multicultural ideology increased, positive attitudes also increased and likewise, more frequent interactions would increase positive attitudes. When the paradigms of our research were compared with the research of Ward and Masgoret (2006), the coefficient of correlation between multicultural ideology and intercultural relationship was 0.26 for Ward and Masgoret (2006), whereas it was 0.75 in our study. The path coefficient between intercultural relationship and intergroup tolerance was 0.93 in ours. However, Ward and Masgoret (2006) found the path

coefficient was -0.37 because they took intergroup anxiety, which has a negative effect instead of intergroup tolerance. When these two coefficients were compared, the coefficient was more than two times higher in our research. The fact that the related coefficient was quite high in our study could mean that as Turkish and Syrian culture and religious beliefs are similar, the increase in the intercultural relationship was likely to strongly affect the level of intergroup tolerance. The path coefficient between multicultural ideology and perceived threat among groups was -0.85 in Ward and Margoret's study (2006), whereas it was estimated as -0.51 in ours. The path coefficient between the perceived threat among groups and negative attitude toward refugees was 0.96 in our study. However, Ward and Masgoret (2006) found the path coefficient was -0.93 because attitude towards refugees had a positive effect in their model. If the sign of the coefficient was ignored, it could be said that the two values were quite close to each other. Çirakoğlu, Demirutku, and Karakaya (2020) found that the process that would translate casual contact into negative attitudes would involve an increased perception of threat. In addition, they obtained that as the perceived threat level increased, negative attitude towards refugees increased. Although their model was different from ours, the direct effects of perceived threat on negative attitudes towards both for female and male Syrian refugee targets were 0.84 and 0.74, respectively.

Another point that draws attention in the study is the fact that many of the university students had negative attitudes toward refugees. However, despite these negative attitudes, they did not show negative behavior toward them and their tolerance limits were higher than expected. The response to "Although there are some issues, I tolerate the refugees" was given by 64.5% as "I partly/strongly/totally agree".

In Erdoğan's (2015) study, 41.8% totally agreed with the statement that "Syrian refugees disturb the peace and social morality by committing crimes like violence, theft, smuggling, and prostitution where they live", whereas the percentage of students who agreed with the statement that "I believe that migration increases crime" was 46.9% in our study. The percentage who agreed with the statement that "Taking care of this many refugees damages Turkey's economy" was 29.1% in his study, whereas the percentage of those who agreed with the statement that "Refugees negatively

affect the economic structure in the society” was up to 45.8% in our study. Considering the fact that the perceived threat among groups had increased over the last year, these results can be predicted to likely cause an increase in negative attitudes toward Syrian refugees and these negative attitudes may be reflected in negative behaviors.

CONCLUSIONS

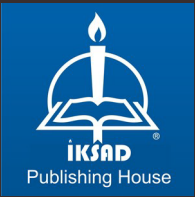
Nearly every day, the issue of increasing threats may lead to negative situations for both sides. Although living together with Syrian refugees is now inevitable, ideal living standards need to be provided for both sides. The research model used in this study should be developed with emphasis on methods to reduce the perceived threat among groups. If an inference is made using the parameter estimations in our study with the intention to reduce the negative attitude toward refugees, the first thing to be done would be to develop a multicultural ideology and intercultural relationships between the societies. When these two attitudes are developed in the positive direction, the tolerance level among the groups will rise, the higher tolerance levels will reduce the threat perceived among the groups, and in turn, the reduced threat among the groups will develop positive attitudes toward the refugees.

As for the parts of this research to be developed, the effects on behavior of the exogenous latent variables in the model, especially the negative attitude variable, could be analyzed by adding a behavior latent variable to the model. By adding a behavior variable to the model, future studies could also evaluate the negative attitudes of the public toward refugees that later develop into behaviors. After adding a behavior variable to the model, the research could be further developed by applying the survey to both students and the public.

REFERENCES

- AFAD-Republic of Turkey Ministry of Interior Disaster and Emergency Management Presidency. (2017). *Field study on demographic outlook, living conditions and future expectations of Syrians in Turkey*. https://www.afad.gov.tr/kurumlar/afad.gov.tr/25337/xfiles/17a-Turkiye_deki_Suriyelilerin_Demografik_Gorunumu_Yasam_Kosullari_ve_Gelecek_Beklentilerine_Yonelik_Saha_Arastirmasi_2017.pdf.
- Alici, N. K. (2021). Cultural sensitivity and attitudes towards refugees of Turkish nursing students: A cross sectional descriptive study. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 80, 1-6.
- Baban, F., Ilcan, S., & Rygiel, K. (2017). Syrian refugees in Turkey: Pathways to precarity, differential inclusion, and negotiated citizenship rights. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 43(1), 41-57.
- Berry, J. W. (2006). Mutual attitudes among immigrants and ethnocultural groups in Canada. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 30(6), 719-734.
- Boyras, Z. (2015). Syrian refugees example of the immigrant problem in Turkey. *Zeitschrift für die welt der Türken / Journal of World of Türk*, 7(2), 35-58.
- Canyurt, D. (2015). Syrian refugees after Syria developments: Risks in Turkey. *Academic Sight International Refereed Online Journal*, 48(2), 127-146.
- Czaika, M., & Di Lillo, A. (2018). The geography of anti-immigrant attitudes across Europe, 2002–2014. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 44(15), 2453-2479.
- Çimen, L. K., & Quadir, S. E. (2018). Examination of university students' attitudes towards Syrian refugees in the context of their civil participation. *Journal of the Human and Social Science Researches*, 7(2), 1251-1273.
- Çirakoğlu, O. C., Demirutku, K., & Karakaya, O. (2020). The mediating role of perceived threat in the relationship between casual contact and attitudes towards Syrian refugees in Turkey. *Journal of Refugee Studies*, 34(3), 2984-2999.
- Erdoğan, M. M. (2015). *Syrians in Turkey: Social acceptance and integration*. Bilgi University Press.
- European Social Survey. (2017). *ESS round 6 questionnaire*. ESS ERIC headquarters c/o city university London. https://www.europeansocialsurvey.org/docs/round6/fieldwork/united_kingdom/ESS6_questionnaires_GB.pdf.
- Gülyaşar, M. (2017). Syrians and citizenship: An assessment in the framework of local people and Syrian refugees. *International Journal of Society Researches*, 7(13), 679-705.
- Lippard, C. D., & Mcnamee, C. B. (2021). Are refugees really welcome? Understanding Northern Ireland attitudes towards Syrian refugees. *Journal of Refugee Studies*, 34(3), 3091-3112.
- Mori, I. (2012). *Living in England/Wales/Scotland/N. Ireland today survey 2012 mainstage questionnaire*. https://www.europeansocialsurvey.org/docs/round6/fieldwork/united_kingdom/ESS6_questionnaires_GB.pdf
- Orhan, O., & Gündoğar, S. S. (2015). *Effects of the Syrian refugees on Turkey*. Center for Middle Eastern strategic studies, ORSAM report no. 195. Center for Middle Eastern studies.

- Pettigrew, T. F., & Tropp L. R. (2000). Does intergroup contact reduce prejudice: Recent meta-analytic findings. In S. Oskamp (Ed.), *Reducing prejudice and discrimination* (pp. 93-114). Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Republic of Turkey Ministry of Interior Directorate General of Migration Management. (2016). *2016 Turkey migration report*. https://www.goc.gov.tr/kurumlar/goc.gov.tr/YillikGocRaporlari/2016_yiik_goc_raporu_haziran.pdf
- Republic of Turkey Ministry of Interior Directorate General of Migration Management. (2017). *Irregular migration statistics*. <https://www.goc.gov.tr/duzensiz-goc-istatistikler>
- Sandal, E. K., Hançerkiran, M., & Tıraş, M. (2016). Syrian refugees in Turkey and their reflections in Gaziantep province. *Gaziantep University Journal of Social Sciences*, 15(2), 461-483.
- Stephan, W. G., & Stephan, C. W. (1985). Intergroup anxiety. *Journal of Social Issues*, 41(3), 157-175.
- Stephan, W. G., Ybarra, O., Martinez, C., Schwarzwald, J., & Tur-Kaspa, M. (1998). Prejudice towards immigrants to Spain and Israel: An integrated threat theory analysis. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 29(4), 559-576.
- Stephan, W. G., & Stephan, C. W. (2000). An integrated threat theory of prejudice. In S. Oskamp (Ed.), *Reducing Prejudice and Discrimination* (pp. 23-46). Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Topkaya, Y., & Akdağ, H. (2016). Views of social studies teacher candidates on Syrian refugees: The case of Kilis 7 Aralık University. *Çankırı Karatekin University Journal of Institute of Social Sciences*, 7(1), 767-786.
- Tunç, A. S. (2015). Refugee behavior and its social effects: An evaluation on Syrians in Turkey. *Turkish Journal of TESAM Academy*, 2(2), 29-63.
- Ward, C., & Masgoret, A. M. (2006). An integrative model of attitudes toward immigrants. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 30(6), 671-682.
- Ward, C., & Masgoret, A. M. (2008). Attitudes toward immigrants, immigration, and multiculturalism in New Zealand: A social psychological analysis. *International Migration Review*, 42(1), 227-248.
- Voci, A., & Hewstone, M. (2003). Intergroup contact and prejudice toward immigrants in Italy: The mediational role of anxiety and the moderational role of group salience. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, 6(1), 37-54.
- Yildirimalp, S., İslamoğlu, E., & İyem, C. (2017). A research on social acceptance and integration process of Syrian refugees. *Bilgi Journal of Social Sciences*, 35(2), 107-126.
- Yitmen, Ş., & Verkuyten M. (2018). Positive and negative behavioural intentions towards refugees in Turkey: The roles of national identification, threat, and humanitarian concern. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, 28(4), 230-243.



ISBN: 978-625-8405-64-4