

Recent Trends, Applications, and Suggestions in Education

Editörler: Dr. Hakkı BAĞCI, Dr. Cihat ATAR, Dr. Özlem ASLAN BAĞCI



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EĞİTİM
yayınevi

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THE USE OF DISPLAY AND REFERENTIAL QUESTIONS IN THE TURKISH EFL CLASSROOM CONTEXT

Lale Gökçe GENÇ¹, Cihat ATAR²

1. INTRODUCTION

Having a prominent role in paving the way for classroom interaction, teacher questions are classified into two distinct types as display questions (DQs) and referential questions (RQs) (Brock, 1986; Long & Sato, 1983). Among the two question types, RQs, which are defined as higher-level questions that stimulate higher order thinking skills such as analyzing, evaluating, and synthesizing (Bloom et al., 1956), have been found to be the one instigating genuine communication in the classroom (Al-Muani, 2006; Brown, 2001; Chaudron, 1988; Nunan 1991; Nunan & Lamb, 1996). However, being a part of language classroom modes as two different interactional features proposed by Walsh (2006; 2011), DQs and RQs both are argued to be facilitators of classroom interaction when used in compliance with the mode and the pedagogical goals of the classroom. In the light of these, the present study aims to find out which of these two interactional features is more prevalently utilized in a Turkish EFL classroom context. Considering the aim, the data were collected through the analysis of a video-recording. The lesson took place at a private high school in Sakarya, Turkey, and the classroom consisted of 22 intermediate level tenth-graders. The analysis of the data was made on the basis of the Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT) framework, developed by Walsh (2006). As a result of the analysis, it was revealed that the EFL teacher was more likely to use RQs in her attempts to initiate classroom interactions with her students. Considering that, relevant implications and suggestions for future researchers were provided in the Discussion.

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BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Functioning both as a bridge between input and output and a contributor to language development (Arifin, 2012), classroom interaction is defined as a spoken and written practice of communication that takes place through the exchange of information or thoughts between two or more members of a classroom (Green & Joo, 2017). It consists of two main types as teacher-student interaction and student-student interaction, which are expected to take place in a reciprocal way (Al-Naimat, 2011). For the actualization of these two types of interactions in language classrooms, there is one aspect that has the utmost importance. It is coined as a term by Walsh (2011) as *classroom interactional competence* (CIC) and defined as “teachers’ and learners’ ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning” (p. 158). Believing that interaction is essential in a classroom, Walsh (2011) asserts that CIC facilitates the management of turn-taking between teachers and students, which is one of the critical skills for ensuring interactions to be as natural as in real-life settings. Hence, the role of CIC in interaction in language classrooms where students are prepared for using their target language not only inside but also outside their classrooms is regarded as prominent (Ibraheem, 2017).

Acknowledging the broadness of interactions in second and foreign language classrooms, Walsh (2006, p. 66) comes up with the proposition of *language classroom modes*, categorized into four as *managerial* (i.e., pedagogical goals revolve around practices related to classroom management, and teacher talk is more prevalent), *material* (i.e., pedagogical goals are based on classroom materials, confirmation checks, student participation, etc., and interaction includes form-focused feedback, scaffolding, and corrective repair) *skills and systems* (i.e., pedagogical goals are the facilitation of language use in the correct forms, sub-skill practice, etc., and interaction is similar to the material mode with adjustments such as direct repair, extended teachers turns, and display questions), and *classroom context* (i.e., pedagogical goals focus more on the facilitation of oral fluency development with the integration of meaningful context, and interaction is based more on student and less on teacher turns, referential questions, minimal repair, and so on).

Taking these classroom modes into consideration, Walsh (2006; 2011) suggests that it is possible to reach success in the initiation of classroom interaction if interactional features involved in teacher talk are compatible with the pedagogical goals of the classroom mode. According to the literature, teacher questions are of the interactional features that are commonly encountered in teacher talk (e.g., Erlinda & Dewi, 2016; Hayano, 2013; Hong, 2006; Lee, 2008; Mehan, 1979; Wintergerst, 1994; Zohrabi et al., 2014). Having a crucial place in the initiation of classroom interaction, the involvement of questions in teacher talk serves as a medium to elicit specific information, check for student comprehension, arouse their awareness and

attention, foster in-class participation, pave the way for authentic communication, provide students with opportunities to give vent to their minds, activate and assist the development of their critical thinking skills, track their language learning progress, and so on (Brown & Wragg, 1996; Cotton, 2003; Lee & Kinzie, 2012; Liebscher & Dailey-O’Cain, 2003; Morgan & Saxton, 1991; Qashoa, 2013; Richards, 1996; Yang, 2006). According to Brown and Wragg (1996) and Ozcan (2010), the prominence of teacher questions also stems from the fact they stimulate recall, stir students’ creativity and imagination, and facilitate the development of their problem solving and critical thinking skills.

To gain insights into these aims and enable language teachers to provide their students with better chances to communicate in contexts where English is learned as a second (ESL) or foreign language (EFL), teacher questions are classified into two distinct categories in literature as *display questions (DQs)* and *referential questions (RQs)* (Brock, 1986; Long & Sato, 1983). Display questions, also regarded as *known-information questions*, are posed with the aim of eliciting information from the interlocutor(s) although the answer is already clear and known by the questioner (e.g., *What is the first chapter about?*) (Qashoa, 2013). Being an interactional feature of the *skills and systems mode* with its use in the classroom, DQs are posed as teachers’ intention to ensure if students can ‘display’ their knowledge on a subject matter. In the case of their extensive use in classroom interaction, DQs can turn out to be a part of the *material mode*, as well. On the other hand, RQs, also known as *information-seeking questions*, are the ones that are placed in because the questioner does not genuinely know what the answer is (e.g., *How do you think reading books regularly affect one’s personal development?*) (Ozcan, 2010). Being an interactional feature of the *classroom context mode*, RQs are a question type that is beyond the level of the former one since there is not one correct way to field the question this time. Rather, the aim is to make the interlocutor air his/her own subjective opinion and judgement as a response and have the opportunity to have an experience of classroom interaction that is as close as possible to the ones taking place in the real life (Nunan 1991; Nunan & Lamb, 1996). They also create space for learning via inviting more elaborated responses (Walsh, 2011)

In countries where English is learned as a foreign language (EFL) (e.g., Turkey, Saudi Arabia, South Korea, Japan, and so on.) (Kachru, 1985), students have limited or no chance to be engaged in real-life interactions outside their classroom. For this reason, EFL teachers are in the limelight in the process of providing their students with opportunities to interact in their target language. Here, posing questions are of utmost importance for the teachers to promote classroom interaction (Qashoa, 2013).

It has widely been accepted in the literature that EFL teachers should give more place to RQs in interactions with their students because, by comparison with the display questions, they are the ones stimulating the students' spoken language outcomes through authentic communication (Al-Muani, 2006; Brown, 2001; Chaudron, 1988; Nunan 1991; Nunan & Lamb, 1996). In the same vein, recent studies investigating the frequency of teacher questions used in EFL classroom revealed that EFL teachers were in tendency to integrate more RQs into their interactions with students rather than DQs (Fitriani & Amilia, 2017; Qashoa, 2013; Sivaci, 2020).

In spite of the predominance of RQs in the recent studies in terms of both their uses in language classrooms and contributions to students' enhancement in their spoken language production, some studies unveiled there were also EFL teachers who were stuck in posing DQs throughout their lessons by believing that it was easier to elicit information and evaluate their EFL outcomes (Qing-qiu et al., 2004; Shomoossi, 2006). As stated in Ellis (1993), what some teachers take for granted is that DQs enable them to manage their classroom and instructional time more easily and effectively. What is more, there have been arguments in the literature regarding the negative effects of RQs on the enhancements in students' EFL learning outcomes. According to what Alwright and Bailey (1991) and Dobber et al. (2017) propounded in their studies, RQs leave students with confusion and lack of verbal interaction only because there is no fixed response, and they cannot reach one through classroom materials. However, it can be assumed that those assertions have a dead end since there have also been studies finding out that students having been exposed to RQs throughout their classroom interactions more frequently ended up with higher rate of verbal interaction compared to the ones being exposed to DQs more (e.g., Ellis, 1994; Xing & Yun, 2002; Zohrabi et al., 2014). Zohrabi et al. (2014) also revealed that students' EFL proficiency levels did not have any negative effects on their attempts to take part in classroom interactions initiated by EFL teachers' RQs.

In a broader aspect, the fact that Ellis (1994) and Xing and Yun (2002) deduced in their studies that DQs were more predominant in teacher-driven language classrooms, where the interaction mostly was one-way, from teacher to student. Whereas, student-driven language classrooms included RQs leading up to two-way interactions between teacher-student and student-student just like how natural and real-life interactions occur. That being the case, it can be implied that it is not the use of RQs but DQs that might give rise to lack of interaction. Being on the same page, Boyd and Rubin (2006) pointed out that the emergence of authentic language use is not in the nature of DQs. Teacher questions should generate "longer and more syntactically complex" responses (McNeil, 2012, p. 397), which are more

predominant in the daily use of language, so that students could also make progress in the process of getting ready for interactions outside the classroom, and that is what RQs offer. Walsh (2011), on the other hand, offers a relativist perspective and argues that their value depends on their being used according to the modes and thus purposes in the classroom.

To approach these two types of questions from a cognitive framework, Blooms' taxonomy, proposed by Bloom et al. (1956), signals that the level of teacher questions affects the level of their students' language production. Accordingly, DQs are regarded as lower-level questions as their response is based on knowledge and comprehension only, whereas RQs fall into the category of higher-level questions as the responder is expected to analyze, evaluate, and synthesize before reaching an outcome. What is usually expected from students with the use of DQs is to give closed or mechanical responses that would demand them to rely solely on their already existing knowledge and end up with an already expected and simple output (Brown, 2001; Erlinda & Dewi, 2016). On the other hand, it is by means of the RQs that students are provided with opportunities to manipulate their already existing knowledge, add it upon the process of logical reasoning, and come up with a relevant and relatively richer response out of innumerable possibilities (Hong, 2006; Qashoa, 2013; Zohrabi et al., 2014). That is to say, from DQs to RQs, students are expected to think more and more critically and creatively, and be prepared to keep up with any complexity they might encounter in the real-life uses of their target language.

Taking the literature into consideration with all its controversies and implications, the present study aims to find out whether the teacher in our study uses RQs more frequently than DQs through an observation of one of her English lessons that took place at a high school EFL classroom setting in Turkey when she was a pre-service teacher. Hence, the researchers hope that the study can serve as a contribution to the field of English Language Teaching (ELT). In the light of the aim, the research question of the study is as follows:

1. Is the EFL pre-service teacher in tendency to include display questions (DQs) or referential questions (RQs) in her talks during the classroom interactions taking place in her lesson?

2. METHODOLOGY

Taking into consideration the aim and research questions of the present study, it was designed as qualitative research that was established upon an observation. As Denzin and Lincoln (1994) describe, qualitative research primarily concerns the act of interpreting a phenomenon in its natural environment and making sense of the meaning people bring to it. Being specifically focused on the uses of DQs and RQs in classroom interaction through an observation in its natural environment, namely

an EFL classroom, this study was implemented as explained in the following subsections.

2.1. Participants and Setting

The study was conducted at a private high school located in Sakarya, Turkey, with the participation of 22 intermediate level tenth graders and one female pre-service EFL teacher. The students were all Turkish, non-native speakers of English, who had been learning it as a foreign language for around 9 years. The Turkish EFL teacher who was also a non-native speaker of English was in the process of carrying out teaching practices within the scope of her practicum services. As for the lesson, it was a 40-minute session with the objective of activating the students' creativity and critical thinking skills through production-based activities on some of the inventions in history.

2.2. Data Collection

The data were collected through the video recording of a 40-minute EFL lesson, which could be done based upon the ethical permission of Sakarya University for the teaching practice course taking place within the scope of its practicum services. As a data collection instrument, a self-evaluation framework named Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT), proposed by Walsh (2006) with the aim of promoting "awareness and understanding of the role of interaction in class-based learning and to help teachers improve their practices" (p. 110) was resorted to. According to the framework, what needed to be done before the data analysis procedure was to note down some details such as the profile of the participants, class size, aims of the lesson, and the materials used throughout the period, and commence the data collection procedure by taking into consideration its following first step:

1. Make an audio/video recording from any part of your lesson that involves you and your students.

The SETT framework enables teachers to reflect upon their own teaching skills and provides them with a chance to broaden their horizons by collaborating with their colleagues, as well (Walsh, 2006).

2.3. Data Analysis

Upon the video recording of the lesson, the following guidelines of the SETT framework were followed throughout the data analysis procedure:

2. Watch the recording and try to detect the extracts, including the interactional features you aim to identify (i.e., DQs and RQs),

3. Reflect on yourself and evaluate your teacher talk by taking into consideration what features you aimed to integrate in your lesson and how that ended up.

3. FINDINGS & DISCUSSION

By means of the SETT framework (Walsh, 2006), the video recording of the 40-minute EFL lesson was observed, and the DQs and RQs included in the EFL teacher's talk were identified and examined. The frequencies of both question types are presented in Table 1. Descending to their particulars, some of the questions detected throughout the lesson are illustrated as four extracts in total and discussed by comparing how the teacher researcher had intended to pose them to her students and how they eventuated in reality.

Research Question: Does the EFL teacher utilize referential questions more frequently than the display ones in her lesson?

Table 1. Distribution of the DQs and RQs used by the pre-service EFL teacher during the classroom interactions with her students

<i>Question Type</i>	<i>Frequency (f)</i>
<i>Display</i>	<i>10</i>
<i>Referential</i>	<i>14</i>
<i>Total</i>	<i>24</i>

As Table 1 demonstrates, the analysis of the observed EFL lesson ended up with the identification of 24 teacher questions in total. Among the questions, 10 of them were DQs whereas the remaining 14 questions were RQs. What could primarily be inferred from these findings is that the EFL teacher benefitted from both DQs and RQs in her lesson to initiate and maintain classroom interaction with her students. Even though it was not a huge one, there still was a difference between the amount of attempts she made for using the two question types, and RQs were the prevailing one. Consequently, it could be implied that the preservice EFL teacher was more in tendency to integrate RQs unlike the teachers who prioritized DQs in the studies of Qing-qiu et al. (2004) and Shomoossi (2006). With the prevailing use of RQs detected in her talk, the findings of the present study shared the same results as the ones conducted by Fitriani and Amilia (2017), Qashoa (2013), and Sivacı (2020).

To dig deeper into how DQs and RQs were used throughout the observed lesson, the following four extracts will be discussed.

Extract 1. Warm-up session

-
- 1) T: What do you see in this picture?
 - 2) S2: Sun clock!
 - 3) S3: Sun clock!
 - 4) T: Do you all agree?
 - 5) The whole class: Yes!
 - 6) T: Okay, it is called as sun clock or sundial. Why do you think it is called as sundial? What might be the reason behind it?
 - 7) S4: It may be about the numbers, dialing the numbers.
-

In Extract 1, the teacher first initiated the classroom interaction by asking the students what they saw in the picture she demonstrated them, which was an instance of DQ (line 1). With that question, the teacher aimed to attract the students' interest and check their background knowledge about the topic of the day. When she asked (line 4) whether the rest of the classroom agreed with the students' response (lines 2-3) to the question, the teacher intended to pose an RQ there, indeed, to signal that she was open to listen to their opinions; however, the limited scope of the question seemed to hinder that and the whole class responded with a short confirmation. Still, it was crucial that she managed to enable her students to take the turn. Passing to the following RQ about the possible reasons behind the formation of the word *sundial* (line 6), it was noticed that the teacher achieved enabling a student to put her thoughts into words through a richer and syntactically more complex expression. Thus, it can be inferred that the assertions in the related literature (Al-Muani 2006; Brown, 2001; Chaudron, 1988; McNeil, 2012; Nunan 1991; Nunan & Lamb, 1996) regarding the potential of RQs leading up to more authentic responses and what was observed in Extract 1 were compatible with each other.

Extract 2. Transition to the upcoming activity

-
- 1) T: What are we going to do now?
 - 2) S5: Work in pairs.
 - 3) T: Yes, that's right.
-

In Extract 2, it is seen that the teacher asked "*What are we going to do now?*" (line 1). Although the answer may be obvious from the teacher's perspective, she probably poses the question with the aim of making sure whether her instructions were comprehended by the students, which is of purposes for including DQ in teacher talk (Brown & Wragg, 1996; Cotton, 2003; Morgan & Saxton, 1991; Qashoa, 2013; Richards, 1996; Yang, 2006). Considering her aim behind initiating such a teacher-student interaction, including a lower-level question (Bloom et al., 1956) could be regarded as to the point. Hence, it could be deduced from Extract 2 that involving a DQ in teacher talk may enact its own effective sides as long as it is used when necessary. As Boyd and Rubin (2006) also asserted, the point here is not the use but the overuse of DQs, which makes it an issue because the question type does not let students experience the authentic uses of their target language. That is why, EFL teachers should not completely ignore DQs but tend to use more RQ so that students can both be familiar to the system and mechanics of English and have enough opportunities to receive authentic language input and produce authentic outcomes (Al-Muani, 2006; Brown, 2001; Chaudron, 1988; Nunan 1991; Nunan & Lamb, 1996). On the other hand, the different modes and sub-goals of lessons should also be taken into consideration as suggested by Walsh (2011).

Extract 3. Activity 2

- 1) T: What are the advantages and disadvantages of using a clock?
 - 2) S6: Clock is advantageous because we can learn the time by using it. I think it doesn't have any disadvantages.
 - 3) T: It does not have any disadvantages, you say. Okay.
-

In Extract 3, there is another classroom interaction occurring through the use of a RQ. The teacher asked her students to think critically about the invention of the clock and explain its pros and cons (line 1). As it can be understood from the question itself, it was time for the students to rely more on subjectivity and reality. It was time to activate their higher order thinking skills by reasoning out the question, associating it with their real-life experiences, and coming up with their own judgements (Hong, 2006; Qashoa, 2013; Zohrabi et al., 2014). As a consequence, it was noticed that the student taking the turn used the chance to make a longer speech compared to the responses received through the DQs. Thus, again, it might not be incorrect to infer that RQs provide students with more opportunities to free themselves from the short and ready-made uses of English and be more engaged in practices that can make them be familiar to the complexities of the language that they might encounter in the real-life outside the classroom (McNeil, 2012).

Extract 4. Activity 4

- 1) T: If you had to uninvent one of the following inventions and replace it with yours, which one would you choose? *
 - 2) S2: Mirror.
 - 3) T: You would uninvent mirror. Why?
 - 4) S2: It is not useful.
 - 5) T: You would not look yourself in the mirror?
 - 6) S2: I don't (need) it.
-

**Note: The students had worked on and proposed their imaginary inventions in Activity 3 in pairs before the extract.*

In Extract 4, a brief instance of turn-taking between the teacher and a student is demonstrated. At first, the teacher posed an RQ (line 1) regarding an unreal condition that would require them to decide upon uninventing an already existing invention and switch it with the ones they had proposed in a writing-based activity beforehand. By means of the RQs as higher-level questions on the basis of Bloom's Taxonomy (Bloom et al., 1956), the teacher managed to stir the students' imagination, creativity, and critical thinking skills. Thereafter, it was realized that she did not end her interaction with the student there but posed further RQs (lines 3 and 5) and exchanged turns with the student, which enabled him to produce the spoken language more and made the interaction look more natural compared to the ones initiated by the DQs of the teacher in Extracts 1 and 2. For that reason, it can

be indicated that the classroom interaction taking place in Extract 4 corresponded to the assertion of Ellis (1994) and Xing and Yun (2002) concerning the superiority of RQs when it comes to setting ground for classroom interactions that are closer to the daily uses of English.

Taking into consideration the fact that the pre-service EFL teacher utilized RQs more frequently than DQs, it can be enunciated that the present study is in line with the related literature (e.g., Fitriani & Amilia, 2017; Qashoa, 2013; Sivacı, 2020). In contrast to the assumptions of Allwright and Bailey (1991) and Dobber et al. (2017) regarding less effectiveness in promoting verbal interaction in RQs than DQs, the current study concluded with contrasting findings. Rather, it was in harmony with the arguments mounted in Ellis (1994), Xing and Yun (2002), and Zohrabi et al. (2014). In the light of those, it can be suggested that the prevailing use of RQs in EFL classroom contexts has the potential of enabling students to be exposed to and practice more authentic and complex uses of English through the practices of turn-taking, and facilitating the development of the language along with higher order thinking skills.

4. CONCLUSION

The current study on the comparison between the frequencies and uses of DQs and RQs in classroom interaction revealed that the pre-service EFL teacher in the current study made use of RQs more frequently than DQs while interacting with her students. The DQs posed by the teacher led to shorter and lower-level responses, which enabled the teacher to assess her students' background knowledge and check their comprehension, whereas the RQs fostered more subjective, detailed, complex, and higher-level responses, which enabled the students to experience real-life practices of English. Considering these findings, it can be implied that both DQs and RQs have their own functions, but the overuse of display questions may prevent students from authentic language production and elaborated responses by which students practice the language. That is why, EFL teachers should take actions to develop their CIC, be aware of what opportunities RQs can offer in classroom interactions, and open the way for their students to be competent in interactions both inside and outside their classroom.

The limitations of the present study are its small scale data. In further studies, researchers could use more data to increase the reliability and validity of the results by increasing the number of their observations. Also, recently, mixed-methods studies have started to take place in conversation analysis studies as well. Hence, receiving feedback from teachers and/or students will make the study more valid and insightful.

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AUTISM SPECTRUM DISORDER AND PARENTAL COMPETENCE¹

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Introduction

Individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) are identical to typically developing children in terms of their physical appearance. However, these individuals experience neurological disorders that have a lifelong impact on the development of several abilities and skills. The diagnosis of ASD is made based on the information obtained from the observation and report on a child's behaviors. It is regarded that ASD is characterized by a combination of deficits in social interaction, communication, and imagination as well as flexible thinking (American Psychological Association [APA], 2013). It is well known that the number of children experiencing those difficulties is increasing day by day. The prevalence rate of autism is traditionally reported to have been 4-5 per 10,000 children (0.04%) in the past (Fombonne, 1999), but recent studies have suggested that this rate is increasing gradually. For example, a study conducted on the prevalence of childhood ASD in Iceland suggested that the prevalence of ASD was 3.8 per 10.000 for a group of children born between 1974 and 1983, while the prevalence rate for a group of children born between 1984 and 1993 was 8.6 per 10.000 (Magnusson ve Saemundsen, 2001). As indicated above, ASD was once considered a rare disorder. Recent studies, however, have found that the prevalence rate for all types of ASD is much higher than previously thought. Research findings obtained from the studies conducted in Canada and the UK suggest that 60 per 10.000 or one child in 165 children were identified with ASD (Fombonne, 2006). ASD has been recognized as the most prevalent neurological disorder over time (WHO, 2006), and it is highlighted that ASD can occur in families from all ethnic and racial backgrounds. It is diagnosed more often in males than in females. All around the world, males are diagnosed with ASD four times more frequently than females (Chakrabarti and Fombonne, 2005).

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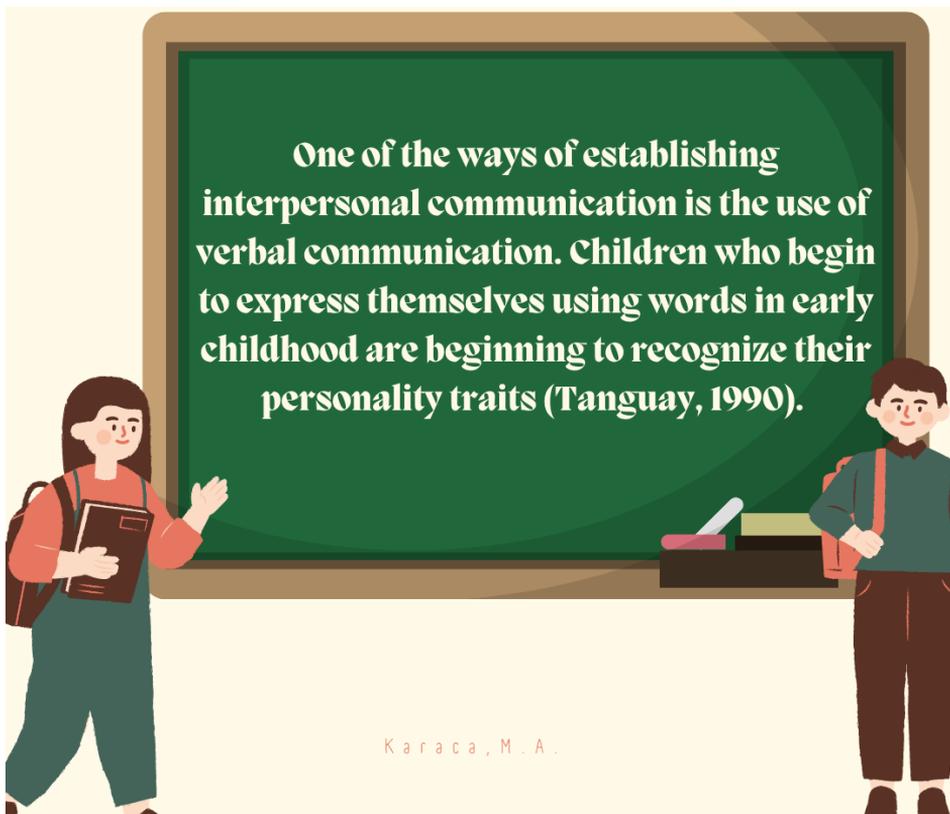
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The diagnosis of the pervasive developmental disorder is now being made at earlier ages (Fombonne, 2003). In addition, more accurate procedures have been used in questionnaires to find and collect data related to ASD cases in recent years. One reason why the studies mentioned above indicate ASD is now more prevalent may also lie in the fact that the tools used to diagnose ASD in children are better off now than they were before. When the 2015-2016 academic year statistical data delivered by the Republic of Türkiye Ministry of National Education are examined, there are 2.276 special education institutions/classes in Türkiye established for children with ASD. It is known that the number of special education classes at the middle school level provided for children with ASD is 859, whereas that number is 1.417 for the primary school level. When the number of students attending special education classes opened for children with ASD is analyzed, there are a total of 1900 students at in primary school level, of which 380 are girls, and 1,520 are boys. The data shows that a total of 1.127 students, including 201 girls and 926 boys are enrolled in secondary schools. Based on the 2015-2016 academic year statistical data, it is also obvious that a total of 89 students with ASD including 16 girls and 73 boys attend inclusive education practices in preschool educational institutions. A total of 1,379 students with ASD including 203 girls and 1,176 boys are enrolled in the primary school level, while there are a total of 853 students including 129 girls and 724 boys attending secondary schools. At the high school level, a total of 175 students with ASD including 36 girls and 139 boys are attending inclusive education programs (Rakap, Birkan ve Kalkan, 2017). Based on the 2018-2019 academic year statistical data delivered by the Ministry of National Education, it is known that there are a total of 4.771 students, including 1.351 in special education institutions, 1260 in preschool inclusive education programs, 2.110 in special education kindergartens, and 50 special education students in private preschools special education programs. However, no explanation was submitted among the data findings in the 2018-2019 National Education Statistics Formal Education Report regarding the number of students with Autism Spectrum Disorder in Türkiye (MONE, 2019).

1.1. Deficits in Social Communication and Interaction

Communication traits about humans were created as distinctive and excellent in comparison with other living things on Earth. The ability to communicate through language is among the human-specific traits (Tomasello, Carpenter ve Liszkowski, 2007). Individuals could interact through language and communication. Language and communication are two separate words that can be generally used interchangeably in everyday speech. When it comes to communication disorders, especially in individuals, it is crucial to understand the difference between communication and language. Language is a system of symbols and codes through which individuals convey their desires, ideas, and emotions to other people in detail. Besides, it enables individuals to express their ideas and communicate their feelings to other people.

Language has two fundamental aspects, namely expression, and understanding. The ability of individuals to use language skills competently requires them to acquire these two basic aspects. Language which is expressed by making sense of words and communicating especially by listening can also be conveyed through various ways such as reading and writing. Thus, communication refers to the motor output of the language, and it determines the antecedents by which people express themselves verbally to other people. The fact that individuals convey the information, thoughts, and ideas they have acquired throughout their life to other people verbally is described as the ability to communicate verbally, that is to say, speaking (Maguire, Yeh and Ito, 2012).



Over time, behaviors in typically developing infants begin to appear in a way in which they respond to various contextual stimuli. These responses may not initially involve a communicative goal (Owens, 2012). But, after the eighth month, babies start to display their communicative behaviors. After 8 months of age, babies start to display several communicative behaviors to get their parents' attention and to receive something they desire for themselves. During this period, babies use some gestures such as demonstrating the object to their mothers and grabbing it in a way his/her mother can see when they attempt to communicate (Paul, 2008; Karaca,2021).

Language has its unique structures and rules, and it involves a system developed in line with these rules. Some of the current views regarding this issue highlight that environmental factors affect language development, while others highlight that factors related to heritage are more influential (Senemoğlu, 1989). It is known that infants communicate verbally through crying, facial expressions, and other sounds from birth although they cannot express their first words by the end of their first year (Bayhan and Artan, 2007). The ability to communicate through oral communication in typically developing babies begins to develop when they use their first words over 12 months of age on average. Also, different styles of communication and social interaction could occur in typically developing babies. Such behaviors are regarded as the antecedents required for verbal communication development (Owens, 2012). A 3 years-old child can use various emotionally charged expressions from their vocabulary and distinguish faces with different emotions like happy, angry, and scared from each other although they are all symbolizing different emotional states, and they can also identify the causes and consequences of the above-mentioned feelings. (Stein and Levine, 1989). Different emotional states of a three-year-old child can be intelligible (Harris, 1989). They can easily understand desire or happiness-based emotions at 3 years of age (Yuill, 1984). Belief-based emotions (those based on thoughts rather than physical events) usually develop at the age of 5 or 6 (Hadwin and Perner, 1991; Harris, Johnson, C.N. Hutton, D., Andrews, and Cooke, 1989). Typically developing children can use their native language with approximately 2000 words (Erden and Akman, 1997). However, cognitive development enables individuals to identify and interact with their social environment by the age of two. Thus, typically developing children start to develop their social skills.

The acquisition of social competence is of vital importance also in individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorder as well as in typically developing children. Social competence is among the key competencies individuals should possess. Social competence is also regarded as a concept based on whether individuals act upon a set of criteria set by the social surrounding in which they live. Social skills are also considered measures of social competence. In this respect, the concept of social competence has been described as a general term involving social skills. When individuals learn social skills properly in their daily lives, they acquire social competence (Ergenekon, 2012).

Social skills regarded as a component of social competence are described as various skills such as asking for help, thanking, apologizing, starting, maintaining, and ending an interaction, collaborating, obeying the rules, and waiting in line. Social skills are important as they help individuals to interact with the people around them (Çiftçi and Sucuoğlu, 2010).

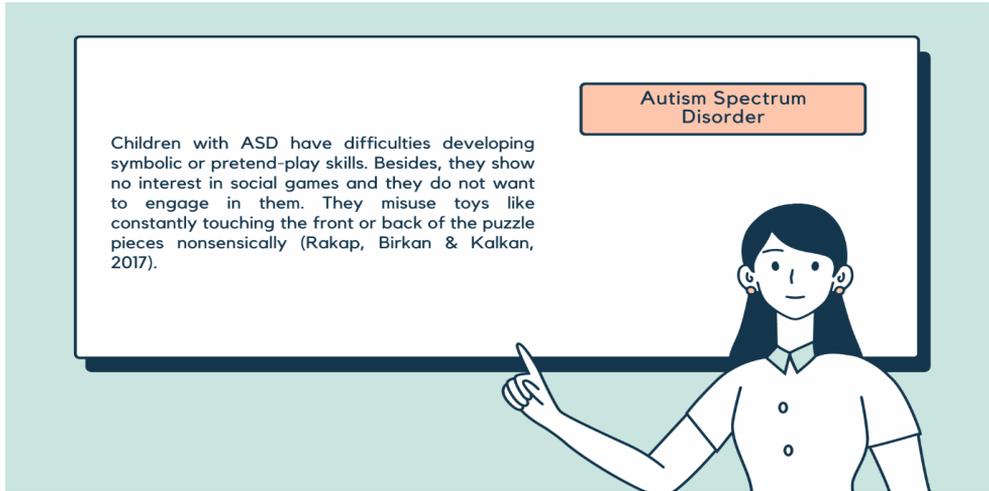
It is observed that typically developing individuals who belong to the early childhood period have accomplished their development related to cognitive and social skills to a large extent. However, this is not the case in individuals with ASD. Difficulties and deficits in language and communication skills faced by individuals with ASD are among the most common difficulties (American Psychological Association, 2013). While the diagnostic criteria for Autism Spectrum Disorder have changed since the initial diagnosis of ASD (Kanner, 1943), deficits occurring in communication and speech, which also occur differently from their typically developing peers have been added as a diagnostic criterion over time (Volkmar, Chawarska, and Klin, 2008).

In the first study conducted by Kanner (1943) on Autism Spectrum Disorder, the developmental characteristics of eleven children aged three to four years were examined. It is indicated that all children examined during the mentioned study have limitations in making contact with individuals and peers around them and showing interest in them. In his study, Kanner defined children with such behavioral deficits as 'children with autistic disturbance of affective contact. In his study, Kanner remarked that all children experience difficulties with communication and language skills. He also emphasized that some of the children have never acquired verbal language skills, while others only have basic language skills such as identifying colors and numbers during their development process. Among the children who participated in the study, however, echolalia occurred in children who could express themselves and form sentences. He noted the misuse of pronouns by those children. The study conducted by Leo Kanner is of great importance in terms of defining certain behavioral characteristics that are associated with Autism Spectrum Disorder.

Another study was conducted with younger age groups during the same periods and as a result, it has been observed that findings similar to the features defined by Kanner were noted. This study highlighted that children participating in the study had difficulties in social interaction skills (Asperger, 1944). The studies conducted following the 1970s suggest that ASD does not occur as a result of a deficit in parent-child interaction but it refers to a neurological disorder. Thereafter, impairment in social communication, interaction, and appropriate use of language has been included in the diagnostic criteria for Autism Spectrum Disorder (Volkmar, Chawarska and Klin, 2008).

Children with Autism Spectrum Disorder have difficulty paying attention to social stimuli around them. It is known that there is a strong relationship between the severity levels of ASD and social skills, especially in children (Demir, 2014). Attention skills oriented toward the existing stimuli in the environment are defined as a skill that occurs over the first months of typically developing children. Having difficulty paying attention to social stimuli occurring in their surrounding may cause serious impairments in social communication (Luiselli, Russo, Christian and

Wilczynski, 2008). Besides, children with Autism Spectrum Disorder experience difficulty understanding other people's speech and interacting with them. Difficulties individuals during early childhood who are diagnosed with Autism Spectrum Disorder experience in their social skills may result in social exclusion and social isolation (peer rejection) by their peers. Thus, enhancing social skills in individuals with ASD is of pivotal importance. It is necessary to include activities with social aspects of objectives in learning environments more often (Scheuermann and Webber, 2002).



Individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorder seem to have just a few friends or no friends among their peers in early childhood. They may act involuntarily to play and communicate especially with peers of their age. It is monitored that children with Autism Spectrum Disorder in early childhood interact more easily with individuals much older or younger than themselves, interact for only special interests, and avoid interactions among the peer group. It is observed that peers in the same age group usually engage in diverse activities such as playing games and eating meals with their friends or family members, while children with Autism Spectrum Disorder prefer to perform those activities alone.

They tend to have difficulty attracting the attention of other people in specific situations or events. When compared to typically developing children who share an exciting event with their family members, individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorder remain incapable of displaying such behaviors. Besides, they may not respond to verbal praise or they may have difficulty sharing their achievement, enjoyment, or interests. The difficulties individuals with ASD experience in social interaction and communication negatively affect their interaction with their environment and make it challenging for them to express their needs and preferences. Thus, various challenges faced by children with ASD in their lives also cause them to display

inappropriate behaviors (Webber and Scheuermann, 2008; Alzrayer, Banda and Koul, 2014; Ramdoss et al., 2011; Matson, Hess and Mahan, 2013).

Individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorder remain unresponsive to interests their surrounding has shown toward them. They may not respond when someone calls out to them or tries to interact with them. In such a case, they may act as if she did not notice or hear. They may remain indifferent to situations or events, which appeal to typically developing children in early childhood, such as someone getting in their surroundings, someone starting to talk, or someone leaving the room. They have difficulty exhibiting various expressions such as smiling, crying, or satisfaction, interpreting and commenting on gestures and facial expressions they display towards other people around for basic emotional states such as being sad, angry, or happy and communicating their feelings to others. According to the theory of mind (Kana et al., 2014; Kaysılı, 2013) which is defined as acquiring the ability to attribute mental states—beliefs, intents, desires, pretending, knowledge, etc.—to oneself and others and to understand that others have beliefs, desires and intentions that are different from one's own, children with ASD are incapable of expressing other people's emotions.

Difficulties in initiating joint attention, adapting socially to various environments, and responding during the communication process, problems with using eye-gaze, voice, and gestures, difficulties in object-based game skills especially in symbolic plays, deficits in imitation skills that need to emerge early in development are among the other behavioral characteristics facing individuals with ASD (Ökcün-Akçamuş, 2016). It is observed that children diagnosed with Autism Spectrum Disorder in early childhood make no eye contact or make unusual eye contact in a short period, and they never use gestures and facial expressions or they rarely make use of them, and they stand too close to others or stand far away from them during the conversation. Accordingly, they have limitations in various non-verbal behaviors essential for social interaction, such as not managing to adjust the physical distance as required in social settings, and using abnormal tone of voice or emphasis features (Kana et. al, 2014; Kaysılı, 2013).

Individuals with ASD during early childhood have difficulty using their gestures and facial expressions under their functions. One can notice that these children experience delays in using sounds for communicative purposes and producing sentences or words in an appropriate form for talking in comparison with their peers. They have a variety of difficulties (limitations) in initiating, maintaining, and ending conversations with the people around them. It is indicated that they act selectively on particular issues during the conversation. Therefore, children with ASD either avoid talking about topics apart from certain special interests or speak reluctantly. They experience difficulties with a variety of skills such as fulfilling any given instruction, making eye contact, or completing a task or an activity assigned to them successfully (Ökcün-Akçamuş, 2016).

It has been noted that they use personal pronouns incorrectly instead of using their names while they are expressing their needs. For example, instead of using “I want water”, they might say “He/she wants water”. They repeat other people’s phrases, and sentences they read in a book or hear on the TV out of context and not relevant to the current environment. They repeat words that make sense to them or the ones they have made up. However, they use a different language like a formal and serious conversation while communicating. They have difficulties initiating, maintaining, and ending a conversation about a topic. They may repeat back other people’s sentences or words while communicating. There seem to be some limitations, especially in early childhood such as not being able to speak a single word despite being older than two years of age, and not creating simple sentences including two words despite being older than three years of age as well. When the communication skills of children with ASD are examined, it is seen that they use simple grammatical structures after they have started to acquire speaking skills or repeat particular mistakes while speaking. Such situations cause delays in the language development of children with ASD. It seems that they experience limitations in the frequency or variety of meaningful words, syllables, and sounds. When the language skills of children with ASD were examined especially in early childhood, it was noted that these children can produce consonant sounds less effectively and frequently than vowel sounds. Therefore, they have difficulties and delays in their development related to phonetics (Rakap, Birkan and Kalkan, 2017). Children with Autism Spectrum Disorder may have some difficulties with receptive and expressive language skills. It is suggested that 50 % of individuals with ASD did not develop functional speech. For this reason, individuals with ASD have difficulties creating social interaction and exhibiting appropriate behaviors. However, these difficulties may vary in terms of their degrees and types (Bristol, Cohen, Costello, Denckla, Eckberg, Kallen and Minshew 1996).

The limitations that occur in social interaction and communication and several behavioral characteristics they have may negatively affect the learning and development of children with Autism Spectrum Disorder in early childhood (Kurt, 2009). A child with ASD may have difficulties acquiring higher-level skills. Therefore, people with ASD might need support to learn the complex skills that adults have. For example, a 4-year-old with ASD may need to learn basic social rules such as sharing toys with the help of an adult.

Alternative forms of communication for children with ASD having difficulty communicating may need to be used (Da Fonte, Boesch, Young and Wolfe 2019). Social communication defined as mutually-developing social emotional limitations and being one-sided refers to the fact that the individual has difficulty communicating with his/her peers. He/she responds inappropriately to others’ feelings and has difficulty sharing the happiness of people around him/her or his/her interests. It

is noted that they have difficulties with nonverbal communication behaviors used in social interaction. The reason why they have insufficient nonverbal social communication or their nonverbal social communication is much more different than their peers can be explained by the fact that they remain incapable to use facial expressions and arm-hand movements or understand them, and they give brief glances to others' eyes, and they have difficulties with using body language or making eye contact. They have difficulties developing and maintaining relationships with the people around them. They experience difficulties producing pretend plays. Besides, they have trouble making friends. It is noted that they have difficulties participating in pretend play and adjusting behaviors to suit various social contexts (American Psychological Association [APA], 2013).

I.2. Restricted, repetitive patterns of behavior, interests, or activities, as manifested by at least two of the following, currently or by history

Difficulties tend to occur as hyper- or hypo-reactivity to sensory input or showing unusual interest in sensory aspects of the environment. It is defined as smelling or touching people or objects, apparent indifference to pain/temperature, adverse response to specific sounds or textures, and visual sensibility with lights or movement. It is based on highly restricted, fixated interests that are abnormal in intensity or focus compared to their peers. It is manifested as the feeling of strong attachment to or preoccupation with various objects, and excessively circumscribed or perseverative interests towards them. It is also manifested as adherence to routines, or ritualized patterns of verbal and nonverbal behaviors. It is noted that these children have an insistence on sameness. They experience extreme distress at small changes. They have difficulty shifting attention from one task to another. They may insist upon the same routine, certain types of food, the same environment, or perfection. Stereotyped or repetitive behaviors occur in speech, use of objects, or motor movements. They engage in repetitive movements such as twirling and flapping their arms and rocking from side to side. Besides, it is observed that the characteristics of ASD are the use of unique stereotyped phrases, echolalia, repetitive use of objects, or idiosyncratic phrases (American Psychological Association [APA], 2013).

Many young children with ASD have sensory processing difficulties which affect their learning, behaviors, and daily life. Individuals with ASD may experience both hypersensitivity and hyposensitivity than they need to be in some cases. Therefore, unstable sensitivity situations occur in children with ASD. It is crucial to pay attention that they are generally more different than their peers in terms of sensory issues. Because differences related to sensory issues can cause individuals with ASD to exhibit anxious or avoidant behaviors, insist on sameness, have difficulty with movement and coordination, face self-care problems, and display hyperactive or hypoactive behaviors (Williams 1992; Lawson 2000; Grandin 1995). They might flap their arms and hands, unlike their peers.

It is mentioned that they have limited interests that differ in intensity and focus compared to their peers. They insist upon doing the same routine. They tend to show either over-responsiveness or under-responsiveness to sensory input. The characteristics addressed here may occur in the early childhood of a child with ASD. The symptoms here cause significant harm to children's social and community adaptation. The indicators included in the current study cover the whole life, but not a certain period or developmental milestone. Therefore, this condition causes clinically significant impairment.

I.3. Parenting Competence

All parents have hopes for their babies' development. When a child is born, some parents experience a variety of feelings of anxiety. This anxiety becomes even greater when the child is born with special needs because parents may not be aware of what the term 'special needs' means for the future (Seligman ve Darling, 2007). Beighton and Wills (2016) examined various aspects of parenting a child with special needs and noted that the most common words used by parents are 'joy', 'hope', and 'pride'. Bavin and Bower (2008) described some of the problems experienced by parents when their child has a disability. These range from acceptance of the child's disability and acceptance of help.



DEFICITS IN SOCIAL SKILLS ARE INCLUDED IN THE DIAGNOSIS OF ASD.

DEFICITS IN SOCIAL SKILLS ARE INCLUDED IN THE DIAGNOSIS OF ASD. ALTHOUGH THE FACT THAT CHILDREN WITH ASD OFTEN HAVE DIFFICULTIES OBEYING INSTRUCTIONS, THEY EXHIBIT HURTFUL OR AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIORS TOWARD THEMSELVES OR OTHERS IS NOT CONSIDERED AS CRITERIA IN THE DIAGNOSIS, THEY FREQUENTLY OCCUR IN CHILDREN DIAGNOSED WITH AUTISM SPECTRUM DISEASE. SUCH PROBLEM BEHAVIORS ARE GENERALLY CONSIDERED CHALLENGING AND STRESSFUL CONDITIONS FOR PARENTS



Therefore, after the early diagnosis process, it is required parents of children with ASD should be allowed to prepare more appropriately for the process, different strategies should be developed and parents should actively participate in the process through parenting education programs. It can be seen that children with special needs can learn and acquire independent living skills if they fulfill their duty regarding their children's education (Karaca, 2021).

Every child with ASD is unique, with his/her own different needs. Educational support is provided with an individualized program (Çıkkılı, Gönen, Aslan Bağcı and Kaynar, 2020) that is based on a great variety of alternatives ranging from speech and language therapy to applied behavior analysis, from medicine to special diets. One logical approach to treatment might be to break social skills into small component parts and teach these basic skills in a stepwise fashion. Some thoughts may mislead us within this process. In other words, what was initially considered a "basic skill" might become incredibly complex over time, which can result in a parent's failure to teach the necessary skills.

Communication between individuals with special needs and their parents is regarded as important for implementing any educational interventions. To enhance communication, Novak and Cusick (2006) suggested five components: develop a relationship, set mutually agreed goals, select activities, support implementation, and evaluate the outcome of the intervention. Communication between parents and individuals with ASD offers opportunities for them to identify the strengths and needs of their children, and engage with strategies that would help with their child's development. Wiart, Ray, Darrah, and Magill-Evans (2010) highlighted the importance of establishing a trusting relationship between parents and child so that family goals, instructions, and level of participation in the process could enhance. Unaided forms of communication are those that do not require external equipment to communicate. Vocalizations (auditory cues), facial expressions, body movements, and intensive interaction (Hewitt, 2019) can be given as examples for them. Eye-gazing, sign language, the child's own individual signs, and speech can be listed among these. Aided communication systems are those that require external equipment to aid communication. For example, objects, photos on body signs (Lee and MacWilliam 2008), line drawings, symbols, Picture Exchange Communication Systems (PECS), and electronic devices are some of them (Hong and Rumford, 2020).

The difficulties parents have regarding the training of their children's language and communication skills cause significant problems in the development, education, and appropriate supervision of those children. There are also many studies noting that parental competence and behaviors are of capital importance for children's development and education Şahan, 2011; Babadoğan, 2003; Strom, Strom, Strom, and Collinsworth, 1995). Therefore, it is known that family issues, pedagogical

competence, and the attitudes of parents are closely related to the development of children's social skills (Özyürek, 2015; Wang, 2008; Aktaş-Özkafacı, 2012; Rinaldi and Howe, 2012; Seven, 2007). When the parents' views on the difficulties with social interaction in ASD (Mameghani, Gençoğlu, Ersanlı, and Dicle, 2019; İnce, 2017; Töret Özdemir and Bülbül, 2019; Töret, Özdemir, Selimoğlu and Özkubat, 2014; Hoppe, 2005) are examined, it is clearly understood that parents need to teach social skills to their children.

It has become apparent that the importance of parental involvement concerning the development of social and emotional skills of children with ASD in Türkiye is understood. It is emphasized that parenting competencies should be enhanced to help children maintain healthy social, emotional, and personality development. There has also been a significant increase in the effective educational program for parents to ensure that parents maintain healthy interaction and communication with their children by emphasizing the importance of parental education in educational institutions (Çağdaş and Seçer, 2005).

Interaction-based intervention programs in early childhood are needed for the development of educational competencies to enable parents to teach their children with ASD social skills. Recent studies suggest that significant progress has been made in the social engagement skills of children with ASD through such programs (Selimoğlu and Özdemir, 2018). The fact that parents' competencies related to a child's education and development is considered significant makes it necessary for the pedagogical competencies to improve in this field. It has been reported that when parents are involved in parent education programs, communication and interaction of parents with their children have improved, and parent-child communication is more effective and open, but if the parents' pedagogical competencies are not sufficient, children could experience negative identity and personality problems (disorders) (Özel and Zelyurt, 2016).

Parents report that they believe they lacked the skills related to teaching speech and communication skills concerning their support for their children's learning and training in the past years. For example, National Early Childhood Programs such as Head Start were designed to rescue some children from parental dominance. However, after the studies confirming the effect of parents on language development in children as of 1971, the program shifted from Head Start to Homestart, which emphasized that they should get support from parents. Considering the case from the point of trainers, the idea that parents can teach a variety of skills to their children gained acceptance later. If parents must teach children, schools also have a responsibility to help parents learn especially how to maintain teaching language skills effectively to their children. (Zigler, 1971; Strom, 1973). Because it is known that parents of children with ASD have limited competencies to develop the language and communication skills of their children (Karaca and Sarı, 2021)

For example, parents have the responsibility to improve the attention skills of children with ASD. Attention skill is among the most important skills as it refers to the ability of an infant or child to orient to, shift between, and maintain focus on events, objects, tasks, and problems in the external world (Van de Weijer-Bergsma, Wijnroks, and Jongmans, 2008).

Attention skills are among the prerequisite skills to acquire communication skills. The attention and listening skills of children develop through stages. A 0-to-1-year-old child may drift from one activity to another. To maintain communication, parents should choose motivational activities for children. A 1-to-2-year-old can concentrate on an activity he/she has chosen. Parents should try to establish dialogues and comment on what the child with ASD is dealing with. They need parental support to focus attention during the whole process. A 4-5-year-old kid can focus solely on one activity in one sitting. It is important that during the communication process, parents frequently use social reinforcements such as the phrase “Excellent, you’re looking at the toy”. Children aged 3-4 can focus on one activity. Nevertheless, they can orient their attention from the activity toward an adult. Children aged 4-5 can not only focus on the activity but also listen to the adult (Sharma and Cockerill, 2014).

When parents reasonably make sure of how their children feel and understand their feelings, they should use reflective statements to indicate this situation. Reinforcements are generally a powerful source of motivation for children. Pictures related to popular characters or animals that express an emotion should be used in the activities. It is necessary to enable the child to put the pieces together. Storybooks should often be read or used as an activity tool, taking the development of children with ASD into account. The facial expressions or stories related to the child’s favorite characters with an emotional meaning should be obtained (Turhan and Vuran, 2015; Hong and Rumford,2020).

Parents should encourage a child with ASD who can verbalize his/her feelings to reflect on his/her feelings instead of making them tell them. For example, when his/her friend picks up his/her toy, questions like ‘I wonder how this situation makes you feel should be asked. A sourcebook or file divided into chapters for each feeling should be designed and photos related to lived experiences should be attached. The photos of anger, fear, and sorrow may pertain to symbols and figures that represent those feelings rather than facial expressions (for example, fireworks images to manifest fear). The above-mentioned emoticons can also be stored in a digital photo frame or tablet, however, the one that is most appropriate for the individual needs of the child with ASD should be used. Whatever method is used, it will be necessary to use materials frequently that could head the feelings to help children with ASD learn by repeating the feelings (Hong and Rumford,2020).

It is known that the fact that difficulties and incompetencies related to the social skills of children with ASD cause behavior problems and sleep disturbances

concerning ASD are among the most common difficulties faced by parents (Bilgin and Küçük, 2010). Photos or various symbols may be used to support the emotional development of children with ASD. The daily schedule should have the necessary features that could support the emotional development of the child. At the end of the daily activities, children with ASD should be asked about how they feel even if parents do not think children understand. The child with ASD chooses a symbol, touches a switch button, and uses a sign as a response, or he/she may verbalize his/her feelings. Children with OSB who can make a drawing should be provided with empty facial features. In this way, it should be ensured that they mark how they feel themselves. They should be asked how they feel themselves about daily activities. The questions should include attention-grabbing features with facial expressions. For example, "I'm smiling because I feel happy to see that your face is shining" (Akgün-Giray, 2015; Ökcün-Akçamuş, 2016; Güven and Diken, 2014; Hong and Rumford, 2020).

Early intensive behavioral interventions such as Applied behavior analysis (ABA) are frequently used to help ensure the social, language, and communicative development of children. If the individual with ASD does not develop significant social skills, difficulties may occur in social interactions. If the necessary early invention methods are not applied when an individual with ASD avoids focusing on human faces, it is likely to have difficulties establishing communication with him/her. For example, if a toddler with ASD avoids situations that require social interactions, and prefers to observe inanimate objects rather than people, different educational interventions should be used. For example, in Applied Behavior Analysis, reinforcements are used to help toddlers with ASD look at human faces. Eye contact, joint attention, and other basic social skills can be achieved in this way (Erbaş, 2015).

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SCHOOLS FOR HEARING-IMPAIRED STUDENTS IN TURKEY AND THEIR EDUCATION

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Introduction

Data regarding the hearing-impaired in Anatolia that have been reached so far dates back to the Hittites. Based on them, it could be found out that the hearing impaired led the religious ceremonies during the Hittite period (İlkbaşaran & Taşçı, 2016; Miles, 2009). It has been proved that the first educational practices commenced not only in the last periods of the Ottoman Empire, but also in the history of special education, for the hearing and visually impaired (Kemaloğlu, 2014; Sağlam-Tekir, 2015). However, there has been no evidence that the education for the hearing impaired was carried out systematically within the framework of a school or education programs during those periods. What has been rather known is that efforts were made mostly by certain families or religious institutions on the axis of aid (Kemaloğlu, 2014). In addition, with the effect of Islam's perspective on the handicapped in the Ottoman Empire, hearing-impaired individuals were able to receive education, have a profession, and integrate with the society (Gündüz, 2016). In the Ottoman Empire, the assignment of the hearing impaired was centered especially around the palace and in the courts, which were judicial institutions. It has also been known that hearing-impaired individuals were assigned especially in the palace and employed in various duties in order to ensure confidentiality in court hearings (Demir, 2010; İlkbaşaran & Taşçı, 2016; Miles, 2009). The sign language used by the hearing impaired used to be learned by the sultans in the palace, the harem, the judges and other employees in the courts, and that was considered as a prestige (Demir, 2010; İlkbaşaran & Taşçı, 2016; Sarı, Aslan-Bağcı & Gökdağ, 2021).

It could also be noticed in the names given to the schools established for them that the concepts of *deaf* in the Early Republican years and *hearing impaired* were used for individuals with hearing loss, who were defined with the concept of *mute* in the Ottoman Empire after the 1950s. In the international literature, the concepts used for individuals with hearing loss are *hearing impaired*, *hard hearing* or *deaf*. As for this study, it is based on the concept of the *hearing impaired*, which is the most frequently used one in Turkey. When the education service provided in Turkey is examined, it could be realized that hearing impairment is evaluated according to students' ability to receive education through their residual hearing, rather than the degree of their hearing loss. Moreover, the educational evaluation and placement decision are made by focusing on which educational environment the student could benefit more from.

When referring to the education of the hearing-impaired in Turkey, limiting it only to the Republic of Turkey might in a way might add up to ignoring the roots. For this reason, the fact that effort beyond that has been in these days was made in the education of the hearing impaired in the last period of the Ottoman Empire might be regarded as a point of view in order to ensure the integrity of the education studies from this period. In the related literature, it is possible to encounter studies, conducted in Turkey on hearing-impaired students, methods and technologies used in the education of hearing-impaired students and studies investigating their developmental characteristics (Bağlama, Haksız & Uzunboylu, 2018; Demir & Tiryaki, 2014; Piştav-Akmeşe, Kayhan, Kirazlı, Öğüt & Kirazlı, 2018; Yaman, Dönmez, Avcı & Kabakçı- Yurdakul, 2016); reading and writing skills of hearing-impaired students, listening skills, characteristics of educational materials, teacher and expert opinions on diagnosis, evaluation and education processes (Sarıkaya, 2011; Piştav- Akmeşe & Kayhan, 2016; Tiryaki, 2015; Yazçayır & Girgin, 2019); educational programs for hearing impaired students (Aslan- Bağcı, 2009; Gürgür, Akçamete & Vuran, 2005; Turgut & Taşçı, 2011); communication methods and dates used by the hearing impaired (Akalın, 2014; Atayurt-Fenge & Subaşıoğlu, 2019; Balcı, 2016; Demir, 2010; Demiröğen, 2016; Girgin, 2003, İlkbaşaran & Taşçı, 2016; Kemalöğlü, 2014; Sağlam- Tekir, 2015; Sarı, Aslan-Bağcı & Gökdağ, 2021; Tanyeri, 2016). It could be seen that there has been a need for both schools, which provide the integration of the hearing-impaired with the society and are a gateway to social life, and studies that fully address the education in them. In this respect, the present study might be considered as a contribution to the literature for those working in the field and a guide in determining the training program and training approaches by creating a memory from the past to the present in the education of the hearing impaired. The aim of this study is to focus on the process from the last period of the Ottoman Empire to the present by considering the schools established for the hearing impaired, their education, teaching programs, and educational approaches in it.

Educational Institutions Established for Hearing-Impaired Students in the Late Ottoman and Republican Periods

Referred to as *mute* in the Ottoman palace, the hearing impaired used to serve in a close contact with the sultan according to the records of the Ottoman Empire (Akalin & Oral, 2013; Sağlam- Tekir, 2015). Evidence was also found that individuals with hearing impairment had been received education in the Enderun School, lived their own culture in the palace, and used sign language in the Ottoman Empire since the fifteenth century (İlkbaşaran & Taşçı, 2016; Miles, 2000; Sarı, Aslan-Bağcı & Gökdağ, 2021). The nineteenth century was a time when the empire went through policy changes and reforms in all fields, and the field of education was one of them. The Ottoman Empire started to make efforts to become a modern social state to a significant extent at the beginning of the nineteenth century (Sağlam- Tekir, 2015). Those efforts included ensuring the health, education, safety and well-being of individuals with disabilities. It could be seen that the most important educational reforms took place during the reigns of Sultan Abdulmecid and Abdulhamit II (Gündüz, 2016; İlkbaşaran & Taşçı, 2016).

The First Constitutional Period could be acknowledged as the oldest date when information regarding the first systematic effort for the education of hearing-impaired students could be reached in the Ottoman Empire. In the reign of Abdulhamid II, Grati Efendi proposed the establishment of a school for the deaf-mute in Istanbul, through a letter she presented to the sultan (Sağlam- Tekir, 2015). With the instructions of the Sultan, the first school for the deaf-mute of the Ottoman Period in Istanbul was established in the Business School under the administration of Grati Efendi, who was an Austrian citizen (Gündüz, 2016; Kemaloğlu, 2014). Thus, it became the first special education school in the history of Turkey (Çitil, 2009). In 1915, the Regulations for the Deaf-Mute Demirel, 2013 were prepared taking into account its European counterparts, and the School for the Deaf-Mute was attached to the Ministry of Education (Balçı, 2016; Demirel, 2013). Between the years of 1910 and 1921, schools for the hearing impaired were also established in Izmir, Thessaloniki, and Merzifon (Atayurt-Fenge & Subaşıoğlu, 2019; Tanyeri, 2016; Turgut & Taşçı, 2011). After the establishment of the School for the Deaf-Mute in Istanbul, the second educational institution established for the hearing impaired in the history of Turkey was the Izmir Deaf, Mute, and Blind Institution, which was affiliated to the Ministry of Health and Social Assistance (Akalin & Oral, 2013; Çitil, 2009).

After the founding of the Republic of Turkey, schools for the hearing impaired were established in different cities of the country until the 1950s (Akalin, 2014; Atayurt-Fenge & Subaşıoğlu, 2019; Turgut & Taşçı, 2011). According to the sources of the Turkish Statistical Institute (TSI) and the Ministry of National Education (MoNE), there were schools for the hearing impaired in Ankara and İzmir in the early 1950s (Çitil, 2009). With the law numbered 5822 enacted in 1951, all special

education schools and schools for the hearing impaired were transferred from the Ministry of Health and Social Assistance to the Ministry of National Education and were connected to the General Directorate of Primary Education (Akalin, 2014; Atayurt-Fenge & Subaşıoğlu, 2019; Çitil, 2009; Turgut & Taşçı, 2011). Until 1951, special education had been carried out with the perspective of care and assistance. Later on, it turned into education as the primary approach (Çitil, 2020). Until 1980, schools for the hearing impaired had been managed under the General Directorate of Primary Education. After that period, the following twelve primary schools were established: *Seyhan Hearing Impaired Primary School* in Adana in 1962, *Dosteller Primary School for the Hearing Impaired* in Istanbul in 1969, *Dede Korkut Primary School for the Hearing Impaired* in Erzurum in 1970, *Ahmet Yesevi Primary School for the Hearing Impaired* in Eskişehir, *Konevi Primary School for the Hearing Impaired* in Konya, *19 Mayıs Primary School for the Hearing Impaired* in Samsun, *Buruciye Primary School for the Hearing Impaired* in Sivas in 1972, *Halime Çavuş Primary School for the Hearing Impaired* in Kastamonu in 1973, *Akşemseddin Primary School for the Hearing Impaired* in Malatya, *Ibn-i Sina Primary School for the Hearing Impaired* in Bursa in 1975, *Cemal Nevzer Erçis Primary School for the Hearing Impaired* in Develi, and *Anafartalar Primary School for the Hearing Impaired* in Çanakkale in 1979. As for secondary schools, the established ones were as follows: *Mimar Sinan Primary School for the Hearing Impaired* in 1964, and the secondary school section of *Yahya Özsoy Primary School for the Hearing Impaired* in 1968 (Çitil, 2009; Çitil, 2020). Considering the primary schools for the hearing impaired, it could be realized that all of them were established in provincial centers, except for the one in Develi, Kayseri.

After 1980, the General Directorate of Special Education and Counseling Services, the name of which used to be the General Directorate of Special Education, Guidance and Counseling Services, were established and all special education schools were gathered under this general directorate. After 1980, primary schools for the hearing impaired were established in Mersin, Istanbul, Van, and Kahramanmaraş. Following that year, vocational high schools for the hearing impaired commenced to be established, as well. The first one was established in Izmir in 1995. Vocational high schools for the hearing impaired provided boarding and day services and implemented a *vocational and technical education program* (Çitil, 2009). Recently in Turkey, thirty-two (32) primary schools, thirty-two (32) secondary schools, and twenty (20) special education vocational high schools for the hearing impaired has been keeping on providing education (sgb.meb.gov.tr, 2022).

Education in Schools Established for the Hearing Impaired

Schools for the deaf-mute in history are the first institutionalized facilities for the disabled, and the greatest attention in the history of special education has been given to the issues of raising deaf-mute children (Löwe, 1992). However, ever since the

first educational institutions for hearing-impaired children were established, there has been a fundamental disagreement on how to achieve the main goal of educating them because speaking language has been adopted as a prerequisite for education.

It has been specified in sources that writing was taught with the one-handed finger alphabet, adapted from the French sign language to the Ottoman alphabet by Grati Efendi in Istanbul School for the Deaf-Mute, the first school for the hearing impaired in the Ottoman Empire (Ali Haydar, 1925, as cited in Akalın & Oral, 2013). In that school, finger alphabet method, called as *dactylogy*, and verbal language were used together for teaching (Sağlam- Tekir, 2015; Taşçı & Turgut, 2011). Grati Efendi also included information about the education of this school for the hearing impaired in his brief. In that brief, he pointed out that the courses in the school were Turkish, French, Geography, Mathematics, Geometry, Painting and Calligraphy (Ali Haydar, 1925, as cited in Akalın & Oral, 2013). Apart from the communication method used for lessons and teaching, no data was found in the sources about the teaching materials, curriculum or books used in Istanbul School for the Deaf-Mute.

Izmir Deaf, Mute and Blind Institution, another educational institution for the hearing impaired, which was established in the last period of the Ottoman Empire, advocated that hearing-impaired students should be educated by speaking, that is, verbal communication, unlike the school in Istanbul (Akalın & Oral, 2013; Taşçı & Turgut, 2011). In that school, the sound equivalents of the letters in the alphabet were explained by Necati Kemal, the school principal of the period when the articulation education focused on the way the sounds were produced and their places of origin (Akalın & Oral, 2013). Besides that, pictures of words were used in the activities of introducing sounds, combining sounds and forming words. Even a speech teaching method of creating texts from known words was implemented (Akalın & Oral, 2013). Besides all those, students were able to communicate with each other by using sign language, as well (Taşçı & Turgut, 2011).

The verbal approach left its mark on the education of the hearing-impaired in the Republican era (Kemaloğlu, 2014). Sign language was banned in schools for the deaf in 1953 (Akalın, 2014). From 1982 to 2013, there were debates about whether to use sign language in schools for the hearing impaired (Demiröğen, 2016). With the entry into force of “The Regulation on the Determination of the Procedures and Principles for the Establishment and Implementation of the Turkish Sign Language System”, published in the Official Gazette dated April 14, 2006 (Akalın, 2014), and the publication of the first *Turkish Sign Language Dictionary* prepared by the team formed in the General Directorate of Special Education and Guidance of MoNE, sign language has been taught and learned in all institutions affiliated to it (Akalın, 2014; Atayurt-Fenge & Subaşıoğlu, 2019; Sarı, Aslan-Bağcı & Gökdağ, 2021).

General education curriculum was used in schools for the hearing impaired between 1950-1980 in the Republican period (Çitil, 2009). Those schools provided education

with a separate education model and accepted boarding or day students. After 1980, both primary schools and vocational and technical secondary schools for the hearing impaired continued to be established (Çitil, 2020). Special education teachers and the ones with special education certificates were working in primary schools for the hearing impaired. However, primary education programs prepared for general education continued to be used in that period, as well. Within that period, primary schools for the hearing impaired implemented the Deaf Primary School Curriculum, which was prepared based on the general education primary education program with the decision of the Board of Education and Discipline dated 09.04.1990 and numbered 44 (Gürgür, Akçamete & Vuran, 2005). Deaf Primary School Curriculum suggests using verbal communication method as a communication method, and Turkish, Social Studies, Social Studies, Science, Mathematics, Religious Culture and Moral Knowledge, Painting and Physical Education courses should be adapted according to the characteristics of hearing-impaired students (MEB, 1991; Gürgür, Akçamete & Vuran, 2005). It could be noticed that the curriculum is not privatized in the high schools established for the hearing impaired, and the curriculum applied in vocational education is implemented. Today, general education programs have been used in special education primary, and secondary schools established for the hearing impaired and individualized education plans (IEP) have been applied for the students. In special education vocational high schools established for the hearing impaired, education has been carried out in accordance with the vocational education programs, and IEP has been prepared and applied for the hearing-impaired students in accordance with the student characteristics (Atbaşı & Özdemir, 2020). There are also special education vocational schools that could be attended by hearing impaired students who have completed primary education but are not qualified to attend a general or vocational secondary education institution (Atbaşı & Özdemir, 2020). In these schools, students with hearing impairment could receive vocational training and serve their internship.

Educational Approaches for Hearing-Impaired Students

The debate on education for the deaf has been characterized from the beginning in two ways as the models of *education together* and *separate education*. In addition to these two education models, there has also been a special education classroom model in practice. The preferred education model should offer the most comprehensive education possible, which might support the equal participation of hearing-impaired students in education with their peers and motivate them to adapt to social life.

Starting from the least restrictive one, education models applied for hearing-impaired students in Turkey could be listed as follows:

- a) Inclusive education in schools at all levels,

- b) Special education classes for hearing-impaired students in general education schools,
- c) Separate education model in special education schools for hearing-impaired students

The schools established in the Republican period are generally those that provide boarding and day education, adopting a separate education model in which only hearing-impaired students continue. In recent years, the model adopted among the education models of the hearing-impaired has been the inclusion model since the special education policy in Turkey has focused on inclusion/integration. The main purpose of inclusion is to provide hearing-impaired students with equal educational opportunities to their hearing peers and to create a socialization environment for them (Kauffman, 1993). Hence, what needs to be done at this point might be to prepare IEPs in the areas where it is necessary for the hearing-impaired students in mainstreaming, to organize the education environment, and to create a support education room (MEB OEHY, 2018). It is emphasized that since IEP development is a team effort, it also requires a sufficient level of cooperation between teachers (Karaca, 2022; Karaca, Toprak, & Çıkılı, 2020). This cooperation on IEP development will increase the level of implementation, and student success of the IEP prepared for hearing impaired students.

In Turkey, until the early 2000s, hearing-impaired students had been directed to primary, secondary and high schools established for them and continued their education in those institutions. With the enactment of Decree Law No. 573 on Special Education in 1997, it could be indicated that the trend in inclusion practices has increased in the country. With the publication of the Special Education Services regulations (2006, 2010, 2012, 2018), the concept of the least restrictive educational environment has come to the fore. Accordingly, determining the requirements of inclusive education such as early diagnosis, individualized education plans and supportive education with legal regulations has allowed the number of students in inclusive education to increase. When the statistics made by MoNE for all disability groups are examined in general terms, it could be seen that the number of students in the primary school period, which was 84,580 in the 2010-2011 academic year, increased to 105,098 in the 2017-2018 academic year. It could also be seen that the number of students receiving inclusive education in the secondary education period increased from 7,775 to 108,753 between the same academic years (Aksoy & Şafak, 2020). According to the statistics of MoNE for the 2019-2020 academic year, while 317,511 of the hearing-impaired students continued to integrate, 3,126 of them attended special education schools.

Continuing their education through mainstreaming not only contributes to the development of hearing-impaired students, but also contributes to the professional development of their hearing peers, families and teachers (Akçamete, 1998;

Marschark, Shaver, Nagle & Newman, 2015; Sari, 2010; Stinson & Kluwin, 2011; Swart, Engelbrecht, Eloff, Pettipher & Oswald, 2004). As a result, statistical data, studies in the field, and legal regulation steps signify that hearing-impaired students have increasingly been benefiting from mainstreaming practices in Turkey. Nevertheless, it has been revealed in the literature that hearing-impaired students are unsuccessful in inclusion practices (Cook & Friend, 2010; Punch & Hyde, 2011; Vermeulen, Denessen & Knoors, 2012). According to the literature, the failures of hearing-impaired students in inclusive environments in Turkey are the inadequate provision of support education services to hearing-impaired students in the mainstreaming environment (Sari, 2010), and the lack of physical and educational arrangements in general education classes that are in line with the needs of the hearing-impaired students (Sucuoğlu & Kargın, 2006). At the same time, it is stated that teacher attitudes towards inclusion and the anxiety level of teachers have a significant effect on the success of inclusion, and that pre-service teachers' early acquaintance with inclusion environments reduces the level of anxiety and positively affects the success of inclusive education (Çıkılı & Karaca, 2019; Sarı & Bozgeyikli, 2002).

Education of the Hearing Impaired in Turkey Today

In Turkey, hearing-impaired students are placed in an educational environment after their medical and educational diagnosis. The educational performance of the child with hearing loss, the degree of hearing loss, and the age at which the hearing loss occurs are among the criteria that determine the educational environment the student will be placed in. Taking all these criteria into consideration, the educational environment for the student is determined and the placement decision is made by evaluating how much the hearing-impaired student could make use of the educational environments. Whether hearing loss occurs before or after birth is another important point for the education of hearing-impaired individuals since it is easier for children who already know the spoken language to communicate in spoken language than the ones with congenital deafness. The communication model preferred by the child is also closely related to the educational environment. As in the education of all disability groups, the requirement to receive education in the least restrictive environment is also crucial for students with hearing impairment. The educational environment in which the students can be together with their peers and exhibit their performance at the highest level without leaving their family and social environment is regarded as the least restrictive educational environment for the student (Luckner & Friend, 2011; Marschark & Spencer, 2009).

According to the statistics of the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) for the 2019-2020 academic year (www.sgb.meb.gov.tr, 2021), the distribution of hearing-impaired students who continue inclusive education in Turkey is as follows:

1. The number of hearing-impaired students who continue inclusive education in pre-school is 789.
2. The number of hearing-impaired students who continue inclusive education in primary school is 119,307.
3. The number of hearing-impaired students who continue inclusive education in secondary school is 142,670.
4. The number of hearing-impaired students who continue inclusive education in secondary education is 55,534.
5. The total number of hearing-impaired students attending inclusive education at all levels is 318,300.

The special education classroom model is the model in which hearing-impaired students receive their education together with other hearing-impaired students within the body of general education schools (Stinson & Kluwin, 2003). According to the Ministry of National Education, Special Education Services Regulation (2018) Article 26, the process of opening special education classes is explained as follows: “In accordance with the Special Education Evaluation Board Report, special education classes are opened in public and private schools for students with special education needs, who are decided to receive education in a separate class, in line with the proposal of the provincial or district special education services board, with the approval of the Governor’s Office”. Hearing-impaired students who receive education in special education classes receive education in line with individualized education plans specially prepared for them and could attend classes with their hearing peers in classes such as painting, free activities, physical education.

Another education model for hearing-impaired students is a *separate education model*. It is an education model provided in schools at different levels where only students with hearing loss are registered. In Turkey, the class size should not exceed ten (10) students in special education schools where hearing-impaired students attend (MEB OEHY, 2018). Curriculum and individualized education plans applied in its general education schools and special education schools established for the hearing impaired are implemented. In addition, adaptations could be made in the general education curriculum based upon the level of the student.

According to the statistics of MoNE for the 2021-2022 academic year (www.sgb.meb.gov.tr, 2022), the distribution of hearing-impaired students who continue their education in special education schools in Turkey is as follows:

1. The number of hearing-impaired students continuing their education in primary schools for the hearing impaired is 673.
2. The number of hearing-impaired students continuing their education in secondary schools for the hearing impaired is 920.

3. The number of hearing-impaired students continuing their education in secondary education institutions for the hearing impaired is 1045.
4. The total number of hearing-impaired students who continue their education in special education schools at all levels is 2638.

Taking into consideration the distribution of the number of students in inclusive and separate education institutions in Turkey, it could be seen that the number of hearing-impaired students has been increasing day by day in inclusive education environments. In their study, Sari (2010) pointed out that what is more important than whether educational approaches are together or separate is the fact that educational experience in these educational environments takes place in three areas, which are *academic, cultural, and social*. Hence, it could be uttered that the educational environment that would be beneficial for each student might differ depending on the individual characteristics of the students; however, the adaptation of the curriculum and the arrangement of the educational environment are of crucial criteria in order for the students to acquire the achievements.

Discussion and Conclusion

As a result of this study, in which the educational institutions and curricula of hearing-impaired students were examined within the framework of accessible resources, it could be inferred that the discussion about the communication model used in the education of the hearing-impaired has left its mark on the education history of the hearing impaired. The perception of verbal communication and sign language methods as two opposite understandings has led to academic failures of hearing-impaired individuals and their inability to participate effectively in social life. For instance, at the Milan Conference held in 1880, the use of sign language in education was prohibited, on the grounds that hearing impaired individuals could learn to speak and participate in society more easily with verbal communication methods. Although there was an official apology for the prohibition of the use of sign language in education (Moores, 2010), approximately 130 years after the Milan Conference held in 1880, this apology has been considered a belated step for the education of the hearing impaired. The use of these two approaches together in accordance with the language development characteristics of hearing-impaired individuals might be an approach that could facilitate learning, academic success, career acquisition, and thus integration into social life.

Another significant point is the fact that the emphasis on joint education had not been made clearly until the publication of the Decree-Law No. 573 of 1997, although the schools established for the hearing impaired had already been designed as joint or separate educational institutions. In the following years, a separate education model was adopted in the education of the hearing impaired in Turkey. With that model, primary schools, middle schools, and high schools, where only

hearing-impaired students could receive education were established. The most crucial step towards the mainstreaming/integration approach in Turkey was taken with the publication of the Special Education Services Regulation (SESR) in 2006. It is not possible to talk about a complete success due to reasons such as the inclusion/integration philosophy not being fully understood and the inadequacy of support education services in practice. Despite this, it could be seen that the placement of students with special needs and hearing-impaired students in mainstreaming programs has accelerated and that the number of hearing-impaired students who received education in an integrated environment have increased with the 2006 SESR.

The success of the education of hearing-impaired students is closely related to factors such as educational programs, educational environment, student characteristics, family support, and trained personnel. Among these, the origin of school learning could be considered as educational programs. When evaluated in that context, it could be suggested that the preparation and implementation of individualized education plans and the adaptation of education programs for hearing-impaired students might promote academic success. General education curricula are applied at all levels in schools for the hearing impaired in Turkey. However, it has been asserted that especially primary education programs are not suitable for hearing impaired individuals in terms of objectives, content, and evaluation items (Aslan- Bağcı, 2009; Gürgür, Akçamete & Vuran, 2005; Tiryaki, 2015). On the other hand, while creating the determining elements of special education programs, students' self-direction should be taken into account during the implementation process (Karaca, 2022). In this respect, adapting education programs and educational environments for hearing-impaired students might enable them not only to achieve academic success, but also to be more effective socially and professionally.

The fact that resources related to the education programs of the schools for the hearing impaired established in the last period of the Ottoman Empire were limited also limits the inferences to be made about the education programs in this period. In the first years of the Republic of Turkey, the negative effects of coming out of a great war and the impossibilities of the newly-founded state caused the inability to focus on the education of the hearing impaired. However, the crucial steps taken by the state in such difficult conditions could be regarded as proof that an effort was made to fulfill the responsibilities regarding individuals with special needs. By the 1980s, there were fourteen primary and two secondary schools established for hearing-impaired students in Turkey (Çitil, 2020). Today, with the inclusion approach coming to the fore both in Turkey and the rest of the world, hearing impaired students have been provided with education in environments where they could be together with their peers the most. By providing the necessary conditions such as assistance programs and adaptation of training programs for the success of

inclusion, inclusive education environments for hearing impaired students might become more efficient.

In conclusion, academicians working in the field need further research on both educational institutions, education programs, and teaching methods and techniques for the hearing-impaired. The studies to be carried out in this field could not only illuminate the past period but guide future studies and applications with the experiences of the past. It is also hoped that scientific research based on education programs and teaching methods might contribute positively to the academic success and social participation of the hearing impaired by providing evidence for practice.

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STRATEGIC APPROACHES IN HEALTH EDUCATION AND HEALTHCARE

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1. INTRODUCTION

There is a reciprocal relationship between the development and health system of countries. The main point of this relationship is constituted by health education and strategic approaches. In this context, the explanation of the health education system, strategic planning and applied strategies in healthcare, and the concepts of strategic human resources training, career management in health and motivation in healthcare are going to be explained in this paper.

Strategic management in health is possible with the ability to consciously discover quality, to integrate self-education and management, and to integrate the quality of education with the quality of strategic management in health. The importance given to people positively affects the quality strategy that develops and renews itself in every field as a whole and takes place in the health education of the future (Marşap, 2015, p. 520). Future management, decisions taken and the quality of service are related to the quality of strategic management in health. Quality in health education and strategy also encompasses fitness for purpose and safety of use (Porter, 2011, p. 165).

It is possible to see well-designed work plans in all successful organizations. These work plans point out the objectives including the core issues of the organization. It also includes strategic planning for the sector's access to leadership in line with the mission, vision, aims and objectives. The measurement and evaluation of key processes here might become continuous with the analysis and implementation of rework processes. One of the most substantial factors determining the quality of healthcare is that health professionals provide the qualified training they have received in healthcare (Marşap, 2015, p. 521).

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Training in health reflects the power and ability of individuals working in the healthcare department to produce new ideas. It also is a fundamental factor that causes the individual or group to acquire up-to-date health care behaviors within the health organization. Moreover, it indicates the status of people in the society regarding accessing, understanding, using when necessary, and making decisions regarding health literacy levels. In this process, if there are adverse events, individuals might experience difficulties as a result of untimely termination of their treatment, disrupting the drugs they use regularly, and neglecting preventive healthcare. Moreover, their behavior for their own health might be insufficient (Tuzcu, 2015, p. 1). The way to eliminate this deficiency primarily is the search for quality in health education and investment in people (Marşap, 2015, p. 545).

Health education provides a result that seeks excellence, and designs, develops, contributes and reinforces all these processes with its applications. It is among the main objectives of health education to internalize the value of health to the society and to ensure that people behave in a healthy manner in the health problems they encounter (Özvarış, 2011, p. 4). Health education is a dynamic process. At the end of this dynamic process, it is extremely significant to change the behavior of the individuals who receive training. In the case of not being ready to receive the training, it is likely to be challenging to observe any change in the behaviors of these individuals (Kelly & Falvo, 2000, p. 242). The final stage of health education is the strategic evaluation of results. Making corrective and future-oriented strategic plans and supporting these plans with applications could only take place through provided training. When it comes to the result, it could be noticed by observing the health and welfare level of the society.

1.1. Health Education

The health systems of countries basically cover the financing, organization, use of resources, relevant institutions, and all the authorities who implement and decide on healthcare. Health systems have three main purposes, namely, the improvement and promotion of the health status of individuals in the society, the provision of financial protection to individuals against the costs in case of illness, and the evaluation of health not only as the absence of disease and infirmity, but as a state of complete physical and mental well-being. Health education, aiming to help individuals protect their health, enhance it with a future orientation, and increase their quality of life, has a significant place in lifelong education and learning (Yurtseven, 2015). Having a prominent place also in the development of healthcare, health education is as old as human history. As also touched upon Tabak (2000)'s study, it is seen that issues related to health such as cleaning, hygiene rules, significance of environmental health, protection from diseases and many more are mentioned in all religious books.

A qualified health education contributes to both the protection of the health of individuals and the speed of improvement in the health indicators of countries

(Annels, 2007, pp. 15). In addition to the health education provided for individuals in the society, these educational practices should be provided for health workers who are trained in their fields. The training provided for healthcare professionals who follow change and innovations, learn new practices, and are equipped with the necessary talents and skills could also contribute positively to the quality of the service provided. With the competencies gained through training, health workers could be supported in providing error-free, effective and efficient healthcare (Altındış & Ergin, 2018, p. 160).

The health indicators of developed countries and the quality of life of their citizens have entered the path of development with health training activities, along with economic, environmental and structural regulations. With the help of health training activities, it is ensured that healthy individuals have a healthy social environment, in addition to the safety, living conditions, performance and productivity of the employees (Tones, 1997). In the Alma Ata Declaration (1978), what needs to be done at the point of protection and improvement of health are listed as follows (Gökkoca, 2001, pp. 371):

- ✓ Planning of studies in the field of health education
- ✓ Expansion of nutrition and environmental healthcare
- ✓ Access to clean water resources and fight against infectious diseases
- ✓ Mother-child health and family planning education

As could be seen from the listed items, health education takes the first place in the solution and prevention of health problems that could be encountered widely in the society. Health education is one of the leading ways for individuals to catch up with change, to protect and improve health. In this context, health education is the education practices carried out in order to adopt, enforce and make the use of healthcare a habit with the aim of providing a healthy future to individuals and societies (WHO, 2001). Consequently, health education is the whole of interactions that determine the change of knowledge, attitude and behavior in relation to ensuring and improving the health welfare of societies in a sustainable way (Smith, 1993). All these interactions encompass all formal or informal education in schools, workplace, family, and social environment.

1.2. Basic Principles of Health Education

Health education is a type of education that should be given to all people without any discrimination. The aim here could be explained as providing health education and raising awareness of the public in this sense, especially on first aid, mother-child health, elderly care and any other issues regarding the health future of the society (Akgün, 2014, p. 2). Positive developments related to the health of individuals could contribute positively to the lifestyles of individuals as well as the development of health sciences (Özden, 1993, pp. 3). In the planning of health education activities

that affect these positive results, determining the training needs, choosing the group to be educated, preparing the plans, implementing them and making evaluations are crucial for the positive development of the process (Özden, 1993, p. 70). There are some basic principles for health education to take place. These basic principles could be encapsulated as follows:

Open Target Principle: One of the main aims of health education is to answer the questions “What do we aim for at the end of the training?” and “How do we measure it?”. Health education is developed through plans prepared in accordance with the level of the audience to be provided. In addition, the development processes are explained in written form (Ülkü, 2010).

The Principle of Individual Differences: Health education encompasses many subjects. For this reason, it should be ensured that the training provided is organized in accordance with the characteristics and needs of the individuals and that the education subject is chosen accordingly (Yılmaz, 2007).

Sequence Principle: Health education topics should be explained from concrete to abstract and from the known to the unknown. This order is significant for understanding and assimilating the subject (Ayyıldız, 2013).

The Principle of Conformity: The information provided along with instances from real life during health education facilitate learning. In this context, current issues could be mentioned (Barutçugil, 2002).

Principle of Application: It is the observation of the application in daily life as a result of the behavioral change that is desired to be achieved with the health education received (Ülkü, 2010).

Principle of Continuity and Evaluation of Results: It is crucial that the education provided is sustainable. Evaluation of health education results with scientific methods is the principle of making necessary corrections and preparing reports. (Ulusoy & Gökkoca, 2001).

In the perspective of these principles, it could be stated that the outputs resulting from the health education process will ensure an increase in the health literacy levels of the societies and the development levels of the countries will increase compared to other countries, which will make the countries valuable in this context.

1.3. Health Education Practices in Healthcare

In today's world, through the development of modern technologies, the availability and consumption of information has increased. Healthcare includes not only trusting healthcare providers, but also accessing most internet-based health information while searching for information that patients and their relatives need. An integrated health education practice is crucial for providing reliable information and quality service to close the gap that might occur between patients and health care providers and to benefit from the blessings of technology. This integrated approach

could be easily understood by the patient thanks to the patient education programs, which might result in the occurrence of a mutual interaction with the application of the acquired knowledge.

In the following paragraphs, health education practices in healthcare are explained both from the perspective of health workers and individuals in the society.

All activities in health education have been carried out with the aim of improving the competence, knowledge and skills of health workers in terms of quality practices. In the wake of the activities implemented, orientation and technical training practices in health are organized. Likewise, managerial health quality skill training is provided for health managers. Health education programs prepared to increase the quality skills required by managers are original programs (Marşap, 2014, p. 219). By means of these programs, health education practices offered in healthcare consisting of different disciplines (doctor, midwife, nurse, medical secretary, physiotherapist, etc.) enable more accurate and faster diagnosis, treatment and evaluations (Shue, 2010, p. 360).

As for health education practices for individuals in the society, they are carried out with the understanding of team spirit in the wake of the increasing importance of health education. In this process, the role of health professionals working in primary family health centers is of utmost importance. It is especially important for pregnant women who come for the examination to have easy access to the information they need both for themselves and for their future children. In addition, training on vaccination activities and geriatric services is provided. Besides that, both health education practices in primary health care and consultancy services are worked on to be provided in all countries.

As a result of the health education and counseling services provided for patients, it has been concluded that the patients felt better, did their exercises, and had an increase in their general satisfaction levels. The increase in the mutual satisfaction level has been considered among the positive outcomes of health education. As a result of the health education provided on the subjects of basic healthcare, the following issues occur (Botello et al., 1999; Ely et al., 1998):

- ✓ Unnecessary applications to the doctor are prevented
- ✓ Workload of healthcare workers is getting lighter
- ✓ Health workers are protected within the framework of legal responsibilities
- ✓ Costs spent on healthcare are decreasing
- ✓ The health knowledge level of the society is increasing.

In this sense, putting the health education provided into practice should be among the main aims of all health professionals and politicians who shape the society. However, in order to achieve these aims, the health education requested by the patients should be provided by using technological means (Maly et al., 1999).

Due to the dynamic nature of health education, educational materials to be used should be decided based upon the audience during preliminary preparations so that success could be reached at the end of the process (Aslantekin & Aslan, 2006). The responsibilities shared between health service providers and individuals benefiting from this service and the ability to carry out the communication process in a healthy way in both parts signal the point reached through health education. At the end of the health education practices, patients no longer participate in treatment and care issues passively, which indicates the significance of health education and practices (Balçık et al., 2014, p. 322). In this sense, it must not be forgotten that the presence of healthy individuals in society equals to a healthier world.

2. STRATEGIC APPROACHES IN HEALTHCARE

Today, modern health strategic approaches might not be a repetition of strategic approaches that used to be considered accurate in the past. Strategic approaches to life-related health require diversified methods and applications. In cooperation with the global health world, health strategies could successfully and confidently continue their institutional development. Accordingly, future health-related strategic governance victories could be achieved through the universal acceptance of humanitarian values and aims (Marşap, 2015, p. 1).

The strategic health system gains continuity and stability dynamism as a result of scientific and rational approaches. Strategic approaches in health are approaches with their own characteristics that improve performance and are carried out with an interdisciplinary scientific understanding that requires observation, research and strategic partnership participation in the strategic dimensions (Marşap, 2015, p. 72). The significance of the strategic approach in modern health management and its benefits to health managers could be explained as follows (Eren, 2014, p. 15; Marşap, 2015, p. 77):

- ✓ Health managers determine their own system and subsystems, taking into account the environmental conditions
- ✓ They create new opportunities by associating his system and different systems
- ✓ They evaluate the results not one by one, but by considering the whole universal system
- ✓ They bring together experts trained in different branches of science through sequential processes, including interdisciplinary activities
- ✓ They provide an innovative dynamism at every stage of strategic approach thinking and implementation.

In the development process of innovative strategic health systems, there have been recent approaches related to the provision of healthcare and their use for educational purposes, thanks to new computer networks. These could be counted as computer assisted distance education approaches, online training in a computer environment,

synchronous and asynchronous teaching, and virtual health presentation methods. (Marşap, 2015, p. 88). The development of information technologies has enabled the services provided in healthcare to be provided in a flexible, fast and simple way. Moreover, the development of computers has facilitated the spread of technology, telemedicine, and e-health applications (Zineldin, 2015).

While national and international health policies and practices develop, access to healthcare increases through innovative approaches. Thuswise, financial gains are made and patients are provided with a healthier and higher quality service (Andreassen et al., 2015). In the context of strategic approaches, concepts of strategic management, strategic human resource training in health, and career management and motivation in healthcare are explained.

2.1. Strategic Management in Healthcare

Today, several organizations have to act in their sector in order to survive and reach their aims. The organizations need to make salient applications for being superior to their competitors in the sector and sustainability (Kaygusuz & Dokur, 2009, p. 5; Porter, 1996, p. 64). Starting from this point, the definition of strategy, strategic management, its basic concepts, and strategic management issues in healthcare are being addressed.

Strategy is to be in constant interaction between the units in order to increase the organizational performance by the managers of the organization (Hill et al., 2013, p. 3). It also adds up to the effort to harmonize the organization's resources with the internal and external environment, and to transform its competencies and capabilities into competitive advantage through perceiving and evaluating appropriate opportunities (Jonson et al., 2005, p. 3).

The concept of strategy is also explained in the traditional and modern sense. Strategy, which goes back to BC in the traditional sense and was first used to gain success in wars, dates back to Sun Tzu's book *The Art of War*, written in 500 BC. (Uğurluoğlu et al., 2009, p. 7). In terms of management science, it is explained in Kennet R. Andrews' study, *Business Strategy Concept*, that the organization should understand the opportunities and threats related to the external environment within its own structure, and act accordingly after determining its strengths and weaknesses (Bozkurt, 2020: 8). The book *Competitive Strategy*, written in 1980 by Michael Porter who is a significant figure in strategy and is well known in the literature, also has quite a prominent place (Kaygusuz & Dokur, 2009, p. 5).

Strategic management encompasses all of the managerial activities of an organization done in order to achieve its long-term performance. It is essential to plan, implement and control the strategy and take necessary corrective actions in order to achieve the predetermined objectives within the organizational structure (Efil, 2015, p. 21). Strategic management, which includes general management

principles, also has its own characteristics. These features are as follows (Dinçer, 2013, pp. 36):

- ✓ The strategic management process is the top management function.
- ✓ It includes issues related to the long-term objectives of the organization regarding the future.
- ✓ It is an open system that requires the organization to be in constant interaction with its environment and performs the exchange of information, energy, raw materials, etc.
- ✓ Actions are taken to prevent the differentiation of objectives among the units by creating a hierarchy for objectives.
- ✓ It uses resources in line with the objectives with an effective strategic planning.
- ✓ It exhibits socially responsible behaviors towards the society by making use of the diversity of information.

Strategic management starts with strategic thinking, which allows sector managers to be consciously in change and to work in this direction (Ülgen & Mirze, 2004, pp. 32). The strategic management process, including the vision and mission statements that the organization creates in order to achieve its aims and objectives, consists of certain steps (Göksel, 2010, p. 46). The first step is the vision, mission, values and management philosophy that determine the direction of the organization. The second one is the analysis of the internal and external environment of the organization and the understanding of its strengths and weaknesses. While the third one is about strategic choices, the fourth one explains the phases of the implementation of the strategy and the evaluation of its results (Bayraktaroğlu, 2002, pp. 49).

Based on these explanations, some basic concepts related to strategic planning and strategic management are briefly defined in the following paragraphs.

Vision and Mission: Vision demonstrates the direction that the organization intends to reach. It dreams of the future with dreams, while mission depicts the moment and draws a description in line with the aims and objectives of the organization. (Lucke et al., 2004, p. 81). Vision also includes the mental processes related to the implementation, perception, evaluation and explanation of the plans for all the activities that organizational managers think to do about the future. Moreover, it guides managers in making strategic decisions (Eren, 2010). On the other hand, in mission, the reason for existence is written and evident especially in institutionalized organizations. The general objectives of the organizations are explained in their missions (Aktaş, 2014).

Basic Values: Basic values are the values that include the formation of the identity of the organization, how the organizational culture and climate are perceived by the employees, and provide information about the general atmosphere of the organization (Tutar, 2016, p. 158). Institutional value, economic value, aesthetic

value, social values, political values and sacred values of the organization could be considered among these values. Basic values have prominent roles in the motivation of the employees regarding their perceptions of trust in their organizations. For instance, *the open-door policy* reflects that communication is considered as a significant value in the organization, as employees are aware of that they have the opportunity to meet their superiors when they need to (Bozkurt, 2020, pp. 34; Sabuncuoğlu & Tüz, 2016, pp. 48).

Internal and External Analysis: It is the fact that organizations do not follow a closed process while using their resources in a competitive environment and take into account social and technological developments in internal and external environmental analysis. The significant point here is that the managers who make the analyzes know what they are looking for and make the analysis by making use of the right data from the general to the specific. (Porter, 2015, pp. 435).

SWOT Analysis: The use and evaluation of objective information in strategic analysis is crucial in terms of taking certain decisions. (Hatipoğlu, 1995, p. 137). SWOT analysis includes the strengths and weaknesses of the organizations against their competitors and the opportunities and threats in the environment in which they survive (Güney, 2017, p. 443).

Strategic Aims and Objectives: While determining the objectives of the organization, it is their ability to define how much and why they do the work they do with their field of interest. Strategic aims and objectives have a significant place in measuring the performance of managers (Ülgen & Mirze, 2013, p. 70). The significant point is that the objectives of the organization are understood and adopted among the employees and the relevant units. To provide an instance, if there is an aim mismatch between the human resources department and the R&D or marketing departments of a business, the units will only act in accordance with their own objectives and it will be difficult to achieve the objectives in the general framework, which will pose a problem and disrupt coordination (Akgemici, 2008, p. 525). Objectives, on the other hand, are the situations that come to the stage of concrete implementation of the determined strategic objectives (Dinçer, 2013, p. 175).

Hospitals, which are the most significant components of strategic management in healthcare, have quite a dynamic structure. Due to the dependence of hospitals on ever-changing technology, it is necessary for them to follow current developments in a competitive environment. As a result of the changes in the medical world, a structural change has occurred in the diagnosis of many different diseases in individuals and in the organizations operating within healthcare in contemporary life. Within the scope of this structural change, hospitals include many different units. Mainly, nursing services, medical care, administrative and financial management and technical services constitute the general framework of the structure. Within this

framework, it might be quite difficult to ensure the coordination of the units both in terms of quality and quantity. Strategic planning makes it easy for this complex structure to make basic decisions (Porter, 1996, p. 61; Gough et al., 2009, p. 859).

In terms of hospital managers, it is about strategic planning and management's questioning of current work and understanding processes in order to shed light on the future, apart from routine work. In these processes, if the managers lose their sense of direction while managing the health institutions, there might be wastage in the use of resources. As a result of this situation, which is not in line with the vision of the health strategy, an increase in the health problems of the society could be observed. The preparation of strategic planning in this direction, on the contrary, is a beginning, not an end (Marşap, 2015, p. 107; Gül & Kırılmaz, 2013, p. 100).

There are some questions to be asked while presenting strategic planning and strategic management in hospitals. Searching for answers to questions such as "What should the hospital do in the external environment?", "What can the hospital do in the internal environment?", and "What does the hospital want to do in terms of the hospital's vision and mission?" is evaluated in terms of strategic positioning. This positioning helps hospital managers to prepare for the future by blending them with technology with an understanding that embraces the scientific discovery of the future. During this preparation, efficient use of the resources and creating synergy in the employees are among the most significant strategic steps (Marşap, 2015, p. 111; Gümüş, 2013, p. 23).

2.2. Strategic Human Resources Training in Healthcare

Today's age is the information age. Now, the need for information on an individual and organizational basis has become even more significant. Knowledge is the most significant power. In order to attain this power, organizations should not leave their employees alone in terms of training opportunities, but should offer them opportunities. Employees who take advantage of this opportunity could be the most significant source of power for the organization. The Chinese poet Kuan Tzu, who had experienced the significance of education 2600 years ago, wrote the following lines (Söyük, 2020, p. 131):

If you are thinking a year ahead, plant seeds,
If what you are planning is for ten years later, plant a tree
But try to educate your people for a hundred years from now
Sow a seed once, get a crop once
Plant a tree once, get ten crops
The product gets a hundred once the nation is educated
Give someone fish, they would be satisfied once
Teach someone to fish so that they could have their fill for a lifetime

Providing seminars, courses, theoretical and practical training in order to prepare people for a profession, to support their progress in the field and to follow a dynamic process against innovations will identify people with their profession. Likewise, it is also essential to provide in-service training to employees after they are employed. In-service training is a part of continuing education. The training provided increases the skills of the employees and make them even more valuable in the eyes of the society (Söyük, 2020, pp. 134).

In the strategic human resource management perspective, training also has an economic purpose. This could be expressed in the shortest way synonymous with the phrase “training for production”. The aim emerging as a result of this identification is that the organizations realize the production, which is explained as goods and services, at the highest level with the lowest cost. In short, it is the aim of reaching the optimal point in production. Economic tools that organizations expect from training could be counted as increase in production and quality, decrease in costs, time saving, decrease in work accidents, improvement of work methods and decrease in personnel turnover (Sabuncuoğlu, 2016, pp. 158). The methods that should be processed in the field of education could be applied in different ways between institutions. Here, it is crucial that the general objectives and policies of the organization and the training provided overlap, are compatible and have a spiral relationship. (Sabuncuoğlu, 2016, p. 160). To create such a spiral relationship, especially large enterprises should organize an education unit, education board, and education experts (Sabuncuoğlu, 1996, pp. 161). In this organization, educational specialists take an active role in the measurement and evaluation of training results by carrying out the training activities themselves.

Healthcare are services where both theoretical and practical applications are carried out intensively. The adaptation of healthcare to the development and change of our age and the development of professional standards are only possible through education. Among the most essential objectives of the health sector is the idea of providing qualified health care services and applying the treatments deemed necessary. Hospitals could only achieve their objectives at the level they aim at, only by teams that constantly improve themselves in the face of scientific and technological developments. In the formation of teams for these objectives, the role of educators is also prominent in the training provided in all processes from the lowest level to the highest level. Moreover, it necessitates the presence of an educational expert fulfilling this role within the organizational structure. In this context, training provides direct and indirect benefits to many people (Söyük, 2020, pp. 135).

Strategically, human resources training is effective in the process of developing the strategy in health institutions. Especially in the strategic decision-making phase and in the strategic process, there are strategic approaches that envisage the participation

of everyone working from the lowest to the highest level. These approaches depend on the continuation of the healthy development of the organization, the learning of the employees and the methods of using the knowledge they have. At the beginning of training, strategy formation occurs in people's minds. In this context, individual cognition gains importance in the perspective of strategic management and human resources. Cognitive approach, along with the training, involves the organization in the process for a common aim (Sarvan et al., 2003).

The aim of strategic human resource management and training in health institutions is to bring the institution to a better position in the future compared to today. Strategies developed for this aim naturally carry some risks. Evaluation of risks and training to be taken in strategic decisions are also substantial in terms of risk management. If decision trees, probability theories, information support systems and artificial intelligence are utilized to facilitate the decisions to be taken in these training practices, the speed of strategic decision making might increase. Accordingly, the risks could be reduced (Okoroh et al., 2006).

In order to minimize the risk of mistakes while making strategic decisions, attention should be paid to middle-level managers and employees in critical positions in health institutions, as well as senior management. Since these people play a prominent role in the provision of healthcare and in decisions, it is essential to provide information about the strategies and to be continuously supported with training (Yardan, 2019, p. 273). Some methods are also used to evaluate the effectiveness of the training. For instance, at the end of the training, attenders are asked to fill out the evaluation forms. In addition, the fact that the trainers are evaluated by the trainees is valuable in terms of the quality of the training. (Söyük, 2020, p. 148). In general, human resources training in healthcare also ensures that people's learning tendencies undergoes a certain behavioral change in the face of social expectations.

In addition to the characteristics of other service sectors of healthcare, practical training has a distinctive place due to its unique characteristics. In virtue of the complex structure of health institutions, the presence of highly qualified specialists provides an integration with both patients and employees through traditional education and decision-making methods, information security in health, following and using developing technologies. This integration creates a positive effect in the structure of health enterprises and employees as soon as possible, ensuring that educational activities are harmonized in the form of consensus. In this context, as a result of strategic human resources training, the formation of an information security culture, increase in quality, and the formation of continuously developing and effective training models provide great advantages to organizations in terms of strategic sustainability and competition (Marşap et al., 2010, pp. 36).

2.3. Career Management in Healthcare

Career encompasses one's whole life. The most commonly used meaning of career is to advance in a job, earn more income, take on more responsibilities and subsequently gain power and prestige (Gibson et al., 1983, p. 238). The term *career* is based on the Latin words "carrus" (carriage) and "carrera" (road), the French word "carrier" (race track), and the English Word "career" (occupation). In the past, career was used to mean the trail of the horse carriage on the road; however, today, it is used in order to mean the continuous progress of individuals in the sense of a profession. The Turkish Language Institution, on the other hand, defines the concept of career as the stage, success and expertise that individuals achieve in their profession with time and effort. As it could be inferred from these definitions, career is a concept that shows the success graph of employees, their positions related to their professions, and their horizontal and vertical progress within the organization.

Career management ensures that the system is integrated with strategic plans, career paths are determined, the significance of information about career paths, and job vacancies are announced to employees and job seekers. It also includes providing consultancy services and organizing training programs to increase the performance of employees, to raise awareness (Barutçugil, 2004, p. 321). Moreover, it is the provision of organizational support at the point of realizing the career objectives of individuals by combining the objectives of the organization with the objectives of the employees (Söyük, 2020, p. 150).

Addressing a career in human resources management strategically helps organizations increase their knowledge and evaluate their position in the market. In addition, it highlights training and information and employee behaviors in line with the strategies determined in order to retain employees in critical positions for the organization, to increase productivity, and to realize the expected success for the future (Barutçugil, 2004, p. 321). Career management commences with identifying and researching a need. Recognizing one's self-awareness enables one to make an objective assessment of their values, beliefs, wishes and aims. Being aware of what is going on around them also allows individuals to develop their professions and seize new opportunities (Barutçugil, 2004, p. 325). The process of individuals catching all these opportunities and career stages in relation to their career objectives can be explained as follows in relation to life (Söyük, 2020, p. 153).

Exploration Stage (Ages 0-25): It is the stage when people first commence working on their careers. At this first stage, individuals analyze what they could do and which occupational group their competencies are identified with. As a result of this analysis, individuals commence trying some jobs and test themselves. They realize their strengths and weaknesses about the job they are testing. In this way, they get to know themselves and go on the path of self-development by compensating for their deficiencies. This stage covers the period from birth to 25 years of age.

Installation Stage (Ages 26-35): Individuals now commence to work. They evaluate the extent to which they realize their expectations in this period of adulthood. At this stage, security and physical needs are at the forefront. The healthier individuals manage this stage and make their choices correctly, the easier it will be for the next stages. Moreover, this stage might vary according to the economic and political stability of the countries. In particular, the unemployment situation of the countries is of great interest to the individuals at this stage.

Mid-Career Stage (Ages 36-50): At this stage, individuals commence making transition from being an apprentice to a master and from being a student to being constructive. Their work is of significance to them now. Those who are successful at this stage are rewarded, their authority is increased, and more responsibilities are assigned. They also try to preserve their careers at this stage. At the mid-career stage, individuals might also encounter various crises. Instances of these could be negative one such as divorce, illness, alcoholism, and death of a loved one. In this process, individuals could also come up with different career plans.

End-of-career Stage: Despite being in the maturity period, individuals are now physically aged. At the end-of-career stage, learning slows down and experience increases. In addition, individuals are more in a teaching position and are respected by their environment. The number of individuals who tend to rise at this stage is less. They experience the dark age in their careers.

Retirement and Decline Stage: Generally, this stage covers the age of 65 and above. Retirement is the last stage of individuals' careers. While some employees make plans for retirement at this stage, others continue to provide consultancy services by not leaving their organizations. Career strategy in healthcare is the strategy prepared to meet and maintain the human resources needs in the public and private sectors. Healthcare is one of the most essential components of the service sector. In this sense, two phases emerge while developing this strategy. The first phase is to determine the application process with a certain flow chart in order to provide human resources, whereas the other one is the phase of developing within the system with the flow of assignment, providing human resources for the vacant positions through promotion and meeting the needs (Barutçugil, 2004, p. 323). It is crucial to recruit talented people to new positions, as healthcare is among the services provided uninterruptedly and includes various specialists. Especially in the private sector, recruitment processes, advancement within the organization and dismissal of unsuccessful ones are among the methods applied. In public healthcare, on the other hand, strategic career planning and decisions are shaped in line with the political decisions of the countries. In this sense, the administration could create different organizations and systems according to the country's needs (Barutçugil, 2004, pp. 324).

It is necessary to develop career planning studies by human resources managers in health institutions. This requirement necessitates receiving professional consultancy services and planning and real applications in line with the needs. Having become chain hospitals, some could hire their own health personnel within the institutions in line with their career planning. These hospitals enable them to work by appointing these health workers they hire to suitable positions and by offering promotion opportunities (Söyük, 2020, p. 160).

In summary, career planning in terms of human resources management in healthcare strategically benefits both institutions and employees. In terms of healthcare professionals, quality improvement enables individuals to see their own future and create their planning accordingly. In terms of health institutions, employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, and trust index enable people to show realistic behavior (Can et al., 2016, p. 219).

2.4. Motivation in Healthcare

In a competitive environment, organizations have to use all their resources effectively and efficiently in order to survive. The key factor in effectiveness and efficiency is the availability of highly motivated human resources. Humanity is the greatest resource and wealth of organizations. For employees, concepts such as trust, belief, pride, harmony are crucial in terms of morale and high motivation. The ones whose morale and desire to achieve work and enthusiasm have increased could also demonstrate the performance expected from them with motivation (Tutar, 2016, p. 29). Motivation contributes to the positive development of many attitudes and behaviors in organizations. It has a special place in terms of health institutions (Çimen et al., 2019, p. 23).

In Turkish, the concepts of “motiv”, “saik” or “harekete geçirici” are used for motivation. The word motivation was first used by psychologists in the USA and England. Motivation is the behavior of advancing towards a goal. In other words, it is a purposeful behavior undertaken to achieve the objective (Keser & Güler, 2016, p. 185). It is also the behavior of employees towards an objective with their own wishes and desires (Özdemir & Muradova, 2008, p. 147).

According to studies on motivation, there are three elements that motivate people. The first element is the objective. Here, the answer to the question “What individuals want to do?” is sought, and that is also their own choice. The second element is power, which is about how much effort individuals put into their aims. This could also be expressed as concentration. The third stage is patience. Here, the focus is on how long individuals could endure in the process of reaching their aims. This element is also regarded as stability (Arnold et al., 2010, p. 310).

The motivation process commences with individuals feeling a need. The aim of these individuals is to satisfy their desires against their needs. While the ones meeting their needs are satisfied and feel comfortable, the individuals whose needs

are not met experience restlessness (Sabuncuoğlu & Tüz, 2008, pp. 40). To explain this process with a brief instance, it could be imagined that individuals are thirsty during an important meeting. The feeling of thirst triggers the desire to drink water. The thirst message is perceived by the brain. At the end of the message, individuals take action to quench their thirst. Meeting their needs increases their motivation, helps them focus, and the tension they experience disappears (Keser & Güler, 2016, p. 187).

The word motivation also sounds a bit mysterious. When it comes to motivation, it is considered as a dust that will turn into energy when it is sprinkled on individuals. The matter of fact here is to know the factors that motivate individuals and to meet their needs in order to motivate them. There are theories that might help managers to understand the factors that motivate individuals and to maintain motivation. These are content theories and process theories. Factors that cause individuals to be motivated could be internal and external. If a force from within causes people to act, it is called *internal motivation*, and if there is an external force, it is called *extrinsic motivation*. Intrinsic motives are explained by content theories, whereas extrinsic ones are explained by process theories (Tutar, 2016, p. 33).

The human element has utmost importance in the health sector, where labor is used intensively (Özer & Bakır, 2003, p. 118). Due to their structure, health institutions include many professional groups. The efficiency of the employees of these professions, which are different from each other and have a spiral relationship between them, is related to the motivation tools used. While highly motivated healthcare professionals increase the quality of the service provided, they also play a positive role, especially on patients who need reinforcement and motivation (Küçükler & Mergen, 2016, p. 303). Likewise, motivated healthcare professionals could provide a better and more adaptive service in terms of patient care (Memiş et al., 2015, p. 222).

If healthcare organizations could not adequately motivate their employees, there might be a negative impact on the healthcare system as a whole. An unmotivated health worker might have a tendency to leave the job and move to another institution. The high turnover rate of health workers is a challenging issue in the health sector (Choong et al., 2012). In the case that health workers could not be motivated, the following issues might occur (Gilson, 1994):

- ✓ Discourtesy towards patients and their relatives
- ✓ Working slowly or not coming to work
- ✓ Poor quality in the diagnosis and treatment process of the patient
- ✓ Negative effects due to not providing the patient's treatment on time

In addition to these negativities, the following work motivation strategies could be used for the motivation of health workers (Rosak, 2015):

- ✓ The first strategy is communication. Good communication between managers and employees increases motivation.
- ✓ The way managers behave towards their subordinates is significant.
- ✓ Providing job opportunities for healthcare workers and job enrichment prevents monotony.
- ✓ Feeling safe in the wake of improving social and personal rights that would trigger behavior change
- ✓ Benefiting from material and moral rewards to increase motivation

In Turkey, the Ministry of Health initiated the Health Transformation Program in 2003. Among the most essential components of the program is a “highly motivated health workforce equipped with knowledge and skills”. Certain steps have also been taken to solve the problems of human resources involved in the provision of healthcare. Considering that the motivated health worker is likely to contribute to the organization at a high level, the significance of taking steps towards the motivation of health workers has emerged once again (T.C. Sağlık Bakanlığı, 2010). To determine the results based on this significance, performance and quality improvement studies have been carried out in hospitals by the Ministry of Health, and different scales were also used to measure the motivation levels of the employees in Turkey (Kıdak & Aksaraylı, 2009).

At this point, it should be noted that motivation needs to be taught as a skill to institutions and individuals to achieve the desired results in the health sector in the long term and to increase the health and welfare share of the society.

3. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In today’s world, health education provided for individuals and societies has a positive effect on the development of countries. Through the education of societies, the lifestyles of individuals develop in a healthy way. Once societies are healthy, countries demonstrate a positive development in social and economic terms, and have the opportunity to act more independently in terms of social and economic aspects compared to other countries. Accordingly, the training of healthcare professionals, following the developing technologies and the ease of accessing up-to-date information for those receiving healthcare through these training practices, which provide web-supported health training over the internet in addition to formal education, also facilitates the understanding of many health problems and the successful planning and implementation of treatment of patients. This increases the level of health and welfare of countries.

Healthcare is a complex service that includes a large number of occupational groups who have received different training practices, have different abilities and different social statuses. In this context, strategic management and meeting the necessary training needs require the implementation of different strategic

approaches. In particular, health managers must plan the maid training of health workers, provide support for their career processes with a constantly learning organization approach. Additionally, activities that increase the motivation of the employees are professionally involved in the work in relation to this requirement.

Determining the strengths and weaknesses of employees and institutions with a strategic approach in healthcare, evaluating opportunities in the competitive environment, identifying risks with a proactive approach against threats and taking future-oriented measures could make institutions even more valuable in a competitive environment strategically. Bringing together the aims of the organization and the employees, exhibiting trust-based approaches and a sustainable quality output, and increase in performance with the training provided positively support health institutions to provide an effective service.

Demonstrating an effective strategic human resources management, making them feel that they are with their employees in all processes from the first recruitment to retirement, and strengthening the job satisfaction of health workers and their commitment to their institutions with psychological contract will provide a multifaceted benefit for the society. In this regard, it might be easier to raise health, health workers and healthy generations. Hence, it could be implicated that education should be present in every phase of individuals and employees' lives.

With the help of strategically training human resources, employees could both follow the developments in the world related to their profession and make correct directions and practices in case of illness and need, in line with health literacy and general health information within the family. Since healthcare cannot be postponed and it cannot be predicted when they will be needed, it is crucial to transform the information obtained through health education into a lifestyle, taking into account public health from the birth of individuals to their death. Based upon that, instructors are expected to adapt themselves to rapidly changing information and health technologies.

Health is an indispensable need for everyone. Thus, health strategies developed for this need strengthen health systems by contributing to healthcare that individuals and society value. Health management strategies applied in a modern sense are healthcare strategies that provide effective and safe health practices with minimum loss of resources and maximum efficiency to people in need of health. Immediate resolution of problems encountered during implementation could be achieved with a truly continuous improvement strategy. To conclude, in health education, it is crucial to support the design of education systems with policies to be formed on the basis of continuous improvement in the light of scientific and technological developments.

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EXAMINING ATTITUDES TOWARDS DISTANCE EDUCATION OF ASSOCIATE DEGREE STUDENTS IN TERMS OF DIFFERENT VARIABLES

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1. Introduction

Learning is a phenomenon that runs through the whole life of the individual and occupies an important place. With the development of communication technologies from the past to the present, learning environments are changing daily to meet the learning needs of individuals. People of all ages who use differentiated learning environments can contribute to their learning by using these educational environments. The phenomenon of learning can be defined as the process by which individuals acquire knowledge, experiences, and skills that are the reason for changes in their decisions and behaviors throughout their lives (Selçuk, 1999). In another definition, learning is defined as a permanent behavioral change in behavior that occurs as a result of the individual's interaction with the environment at some level (Senemoğlu, 2013).

Technologies used to create, transmit, store, share, or exchange information can be referred to as information and communications technology. Since the 1980s, when Internet technology became widespread, innovations have occurred in many areas, such as society, science, and education, thanks to the development of information and communication technologies. The period that has emerged due to these innovations is called the Information Age. It can be seen that the information needs of individuals are increasing day by day with the information age. The process of development and change in the field of information and communication technologies affects the systems for accessing and transmitting information and leads to the emergence of various tools, methods, and concepts (Kurbanoglu & Akkoyunlu, 2001). This process has expanded the possibilities by changing the methods of communication and interaction between individuals. In addition, new learning environments have

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emerged due to changes in information access and communication styles (Bozkurt, A. 2015). One of these learning environments is distance education.

The concept of distance education has been defined by many researchers in the process that evolved with its emergence. Moore (1990) states that distance education includes all arrangements in which learners and instructors are at different times and places and that in a planned learning environment, education is provided to individuals through print or electronic communication methods. In another definition, Moore and Kearsly (2012) define distance education as planned learning and teaching activity that requires a particular institutional organization in which teaching and learning activities take place in different locations and interaction is conducted using communication technologies. Based on these definitions, distance education is understood as having teachers and learners in separate locations, using information and communication technologies, conducting learning and teaching activities at the desired time by removing time constraints, using printed materials or electronic aids, and being a planned and programmed educational activity that requires a particular institutional organization.

The definitions show that distance education environments have several advantages and limitations. The advantages of distance education are: Independence of time and place, minimizing inequality of opportunity in education, educational diversity, increasing the quality of education, creating a rich learning environment, enabling learning at one's own pace, individuals taking responsibility for learning, supporting lifelong learning (Kaya, 2002). It can be seen that distance education offers many useful opportunities to learners. However, in addition to these benefits, some limitations of distance education should not be ignored. These limitations include: the risk of procrastination, low academic achievement or career expectations, lack of learning discipline, need for more feedback, lack of interaction, prevention of social contact among learners, dependence on communication technologies, dependence on learners' technological skills, increased anxiety, and negative attitude. (Hillesheim, 1998; Kaya, 2002; Horzum, 2015).

The importance of learning through distance education environments is increasing day by day. Especially with the declaration of Covid-19 as a worldwide pandemic, restrictive measures have been taken in many areas of life. As part of the measures taken in this context, a transition from face-to-face to distance education has been made at all levels of education in the field of education. This affected approximately 7.19 million students in higher education throughout Turkey (Bozkurt, 2020). This situation shows that the importance of distance education has become more prominent during the pandemic period.

In addition, higher education institutions offer many courses via distance learning as part of face-to-face courses. While Council of Higher Education (CoHE) 5(i) courses and university common elective courses can be offered via

distance education, at most 40% of the field courses can only be offered via distance education. This situation indicates that the importance of distance education will continue to increase in all programs of higher education (YÖK, 2002).

People of all ages continue to learn in the distance education environments developed. It is important to determine the attitudes of individuals who receive education with distance education method towards distance education for the effectiveness and sustainability of education. The studies on the attitudes of individuals in different age groups towards distance education in different fields of higher education examined in the literature are given below.

In the study conducted by Ateş and Altun (2008) with a total of 129 3rd and 4th-grade students of Ege University, Faculty of Education, Computer Education, and Instructional Technologies in the academic year 2006-2007, they examined the attitudes of computer teacher candidates towards distance education in terms of different variables. As a result of the study, it was found that attitudes toward distance education did not differ significantly by gender and class. The participants' previous status in distance education, experience in using computers, and perceived computer skills greatly influenced their attitudes toward distance education.

In 2014 Kar et al. study of 308 students at four different universities in India examined university students' attitudes toward e-learning. As a result of the study, it was found that the students participating in the study had high attitudes towards e-learning, and their attitude scores did not show any significant difference concerning the variables of gender, educational status, and place of residence.

Yıldız (2015) investigated students' attitudes toward distance education and included 653 students who received Pedagogical Formation Education at Abant İzzet Baysal University, Faculty of Education, during the 2014-2015 academic year. As a result of the study, it was found that 49.5% of students do not prefer to take courses with distance education in the future; students' attitude towards distance education was moderate, and attitude towards distance education did not differ significantly by gender but significantly by age and department.

In the study by Sezer (2016), in which 414 students from the Faculty of Medicine at Hacettepe University participated, students' attitudes toward e-learning and distance education were investigated. As a result of the study, it was found that students' attitude toward e-learning was neutral and while students' attitude towards e-learning showed a significant difference in the variables of gender and academic achievement, there was no significant difference in the variable of grade level. However, it was concluded that students consider distance education as a helpful practice in terms of time and have limitations in terms of communication.

Peytcheva-Forsyth et al. (2018) investigated students' attitudes toward online learning and distance education in their study with the participation of 590 students

studying at Sofia University. As a result of the study, it was found that the variables of gender, age, and whether or not one is working influence students' attitudes toward distance education. In addition, it was found that students' level of digital literacy and their attitude toward online learning are essential for a successful distance education process.

In the study conducted by Yılmaz (2020) with 265 students of Necmettin Erbakan University, Faculty of Health Sciences, Physiotherapy and Rehabilitation Department, students' attitudes toward distance education were investigated. According to the study, no significant difference was found in students' attitudes towards distance education according to gender and class variables. It was found that students participating in the study had a disadvantageous attitude towards distance education. It was found that the efficiency of distance education is low for 87.5% of students in applied courses and 78.5% in theoretical courses, 90.3% prefer formal education, and 9.7% prefer distance education.

Ferrer et al. (2020) examined the effects of students' attitudes toward online learning on their motivation and participation in education in their study involving 574 students from Australian higher education institutions. The study's findings include the interaction dimension in online learning and the importance of designing online learning environments that support students' learning experiences.

In the study by Goldag (2021) in the academic year 2020-2021, with the participation of 723 students in vocational schools at Malatya İnönü University, students' attitudes toward distance education were investigated. As a result of the study, it was found that students did not develop either positive or negative attitudes toward distance education, and there was a significant difference according to gender, classroom, computer ownership, fixed and mobile internet, and problems in participating in live lessons.

Ismaili (2021), in his study involving 108 students at Eötvös Loránd University in Hungary, investigated the effects of distance education on students' satisfaction and attitudes toward their education. As a result of the study, it is found that students have a positive attitude and willingness to participate in distance education courses after the pandemic.

When the studies in the literature are examined, it is seen that there are studies with individuals from different educational levels, departments and age groups. In addition, studies with students with an associate degree seem to be rather limited.

Knowledge of students' attitudes and thoughts about the process is essential in distance education. Attitudes generally occur in two forms: positive and negative attitudes. Identifying the causes of negative attitudes is essential to increase efficiency and facilitate better learning in distance education. Students' positive attitudes toward distance education will increase their success and learning efficiency and

decrease the dropout rate. For this reason, a study was conducted to investigate students' attitudes toward distance education. The results obtained will guide the improvement and regulatory actions that should be implemented to correct the reasons for students' negative attitudes toward distance education.

1.1. Aim of The Study

The aim of this study is to examine the attitudes of associate degree students studying at Sakarya University Vocational School of Health Services towards distance education in terms of different variables. For this purpose, answers to the following questions were sought.

1. How are the attitudes of associate degree students towards distance education?
2. Do associate degree students' attitudes towards distance education differ according to the following variables?
 - a) Gender
 - b) Class
 - c) The case of taking courses in a distance education environment before
 - d) Participation methods in distance education environments
 - e) The device they use while participating in distance education courses

2. Method

The current study is a quantitative study designed according to the cross-sectional survey model, one of the survey models, which is one of the general research design models. According to the survey model, individuals' opinions, attitudes, interests, skills, etc., regarding a situation or event in the past or present. are defined as studies in which the characteristics are determined. (Büyüköztürk et al., 2020). In addition, relational screening models were also used in line with the sub-purposes of the research.

2.1. Participants

The participants of this research are 263 associate degree students studying at Sakarya University Vocational School of Health Services in the fall term of the 2021-2022 academic year. The demographic information of the students in this research is shown in table 1.

Table 1: Demographic Information of the Participants

Variables		f	%
Gender	Female	196	74,5
	Male	67	25,5
Class	1. Class	168	63,9
	2. Class	95	36,1
Have you ever taken a course in a distance learning environment before?	Yes	233	88,6
	No	30	11,4
Which method do you mostly follow your lessons in the distance education environment ?	Live Participation	171	65,0
	Playback	92	35,0
Which devices do you attend your lessons in the distance education environment?	Computer	97	36,9
	Smartphone	102	38,8
	Computer and Smartphone	64	24,3

Of the students participating in the research, 168 (74.5%) were female and 67 (25.5%) were male. When the classes of the students are examined, 168 (63.9%) students are studying in the 1. Class and 95 (36.1%) students in the 2. class. While 233 (% 88.6) students have taken courses in distance education environments before, 30 (% 11,4) students have not taken courses in distance education environments. While 171 (% 65.0) of the students follow their lessons with the live participation method in the distance education environment, 92 (% 35.0) students follow their lessons up with the playback method. 102 of the students (% 38.8) attend their lessons on a smartphone, 97 students (% 36.9) on a computer, and 67 students (% 24.3) attend their lessons both on a computer and from a smartphone in the distance education environment.

2.2. Distance Education Attitude Scale

The data of the study were collected using the “Personal Information Form” and the “Distance Education Attitude Scale” developed by Arslan and Bircan (2019) , which consists of 21 items and 5 factors. The scale is coded from 1 = “never agree” to 5 = “always agree”. Scale factors consist of “Advantages of Distance Education for Participants” 6 items, “Technical Dimension of Distance Education” 5 items, “Distance Education Request” 4 items, “Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education” 3 items and “Problems Encountered in Distance Education” 3 items. Cronbach’s α for the overall scale is 0.907. The Cronbach alpha values for factors of the scale were; 0.869 for the Advantages of Distance Education for Participants, 0.807 for the Technical Dimension of Distance Education, 0.827 for the Distance Education Request, 0.657 for the Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education and 0.657 for the Problems Encountered in Distance Education found. Cronbach’s α was found to be 0,78 in this study.

2.3. Data Analysis

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software package (SPSS 25.0) was used to analyze the data. In the analysis of the data, the level of significance was taken as .05. While entering the data collected within the scope of the study, incomplete and irregularly filled data were detected and removed from the data set. As a result of this process, the number of data, which was 266, was determined as 263. In order to determine whether the data is normally distributed, kurtosis and skewness values were checked. The Skewness and Kurtosis values are shown in table 2.

Table 2: Skewness and Kurtosis Values

Distance Education Attitudes	Skewness	Kurtosis
Advantages of Distance Education for Participants	-,296	-,481
Technical Dimension of Distance Education	-,471	,112
Distance Education Request	,866	,207
Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education	-,238	-,504
Problems Encountered in Distance Education	-,009	-,260

When Kurtosis and Skewness values are between -1.5 and +1.5, the distribution is considered normal (Tabachinick & Fidell, 2013). Since the Skewness and Kurtosis values of this study are between -1.5 and +1.5, the data show a normal distribution. For this reason, *independent samples t-test* was used when investigating differences in variables with two different subgroups, and *one-way analysis of variance* was used when investigating differences in variables with more than two subgroups.

3. Findings

Table 3: Distance Education Attitudes by Gender of Students

	Groups	n	\bar{x}	Sd	df	t	p																																												
Advantages of Distance Education for Participants	Female	196	3,95	,67	261	-,731	,465																																												
	Male	67	4,02	,73				Technical Dimension of Distance Education	Female	196	3,44	,81	261	-1,353	,177	Male	67	3,60	,83	Distance Education Request	Female	196	3,80	1,09	261	-1,812	,071	Male	67	4,07	,88	Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education	Female	196	3,35	,92	261	-1,239	,216	Male	67	3,51	1,07	Problems Encountered in Distance Education	Female	196	3,06	,96	261	,183	,855
Technical Dimension of Distance Education	Female	196	3,44	,81	261	-1,353	,177																																												
	Male	67	3,60	,83				Distance Education Request	Female	196	3,80	1,09	261	-1,812	,071	Male	67	4,07	,88	Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education	Female	196	3,35	,92	261	-1,239	,216	Male	67	3,51	1,07	Problems Encountered in Distance Education	Female	196	3,06	,96	261	,183	,855	Male	67	3,04	,97								
Distance Education Request	Female	196	3,80	1,09	261	-1,812	,071																																												
	Male	67	4,07	,88				Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education	Female	196	3,35	,92	261	-1,239	,216	Male	67	3,51	1,07	Problems Encountered in Distance Education	Female	196	3,06	,96	261	,183	,855	Male	67	3,04	,97																				
Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education	Female	196	3,35	,92	261	-1,239	,216																																												
	Male	67	3,51	1,07				Problems Encountered in Distance Education	Female	196	3,06	,96	261	,183	,855	Male	67	3,04	,97																																
Problems Encountered in Distance Education	Female	196	3,06	,96	261	,183	,855																																												
	Male	67	3,04	,97																																															

When the analyzes made according to Table 3 are examined, it is seen that the attitude scale of university students towards distance education; Advantages of Distance Education for Participants [$t_{(261)} = -.731, p>.05$], Technical Dimension

of Distance Education [$t_{(261)} = -1.353, p > .05$], Distance Education Request [$t_{(261)} = -1.812, p > .05$], Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education [$t_{(261)} = -1.239, p > .05$] and the Problems Encountered in Distance Education [$t_{(261)} = .183, p > .05$] dimensions does not show any difference significant compared to gender variable.

Table 4: Distance Education Attitudes of Students According to Their Previously Taking Courses in Distance Education Environment

	Groups	n	\bar{x}	Sd	df	t	p																																												
Advantages of Distance Education for Participants	Has Taken Course	233	3,97	,69	261	,768	,443																																												
	Hasn't Taken Course	30	3,87	,65				Technical Dimension of Distance Education	Has Taken Course	233	3,47	,83	261	-,816	,415	Hasn't Taken Course	30	3,60	,77	Distance Education Request	Has Taken Course	233	3,91	1,03	261	1,589	,113	Hasn't Taken Course	30	3,59	1,08	Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education	Has Taken Course	233	3,37	,98	261	-,712	,477	Hasn't Taken Course	30	3,51	,85	Problems Encountered in Distance Education	Has Taken Course	233	3,06	,97	261	,327	,744
Technical Dimension of Distance Education	Has Taken Course	233	3,47	,83	261	-,816	,415																																												
	Hasn't Taken Course	30	3,60	,77				Distance Education Request	Has Taken Course	233	3,91	1,03	261	1,589	,113	Hasn't Taken Course	30	3,59	1,08	Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education	Has Taken Course	233	3,37	,98	261	-,712	,477	Hasn't Taken Course	30	3,51	,85	Problems Encountered in Distance Education	Has Taken Course	233	3,06	,97	261	,327	,744	Hasn't Taken Course	30	3,00	,84								
Distance Education Request	Has Taken Course	233	3,91	1,03	261	1,589	,113																																												
	Hasn't Taken Course	30	3,59	1,08				Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education	Has Taken Course	233	3,37	,98	261	-,712	,477	Hasn't Taken Course	30	3,51	,85	Problems Encountered in Distance Education	Has Taken Course	233	3,06	,97	261	,327	,744	Hasn't Taken Course	30	3,00	,84																				
Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education	Has Taken Course	233	3,37	,98	261	-,712	,477																																												
	Hasn't Taken Course	30	3,51	,85				Problems Encountered in Distance Education	Has Taken Course	233	3,06	,97	261	,327	,744	Hasn't Taken Course	30	3,00	,84																																
Problems Encountered in Distance Education	Has Taken Course	233	3,06	,97	261	,327	,744																																												
	Hasn't Taken Course	30	3,00	,84																																															

When the analyzes made according to Table 4 are examined, it is seen that the attitude scale of university students towards distance education; Advantages of Distance Education for Participants [$t_{(261)} = .768, p > .05$], Technical Dimension of Distance Education [$t_{(261)} = -.816, p > .05$], Distance Education Request [$t_{(261)} = 1.589, p > .05$], Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education [$t_{(261)} = -.712, p > .05$] and the Problems Encountered in Distance Education [$t_{(261)} = .327, p > .05$] dimensions does not show any difference significant compared to by the cases of taking courses in the distance education environment before variable.

Table 5: Distance Education Attitudes of Students According to Class Levels

	Groups	n	\bar{x}	Sd	df	t	p																																												
Advantages of Distance Education for Participants	1. Class	168	3,93	,71	261	-,946	,345																																												
	2. Class	95	4,02	,65				Technical Dimension of Distance Education	1. Class	168	3,47	,84	261	-,470	,639	2. Class	95	3,52	,79	Distance Education Request	1. Class	168	3,71	1,10	261	-3,344	,001	2. Class	95	4,15	,86	Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education	1. Class	168	3,29	,97	261	-2,159	,032	2. Class	95	3,56	,93	Problems Encountered in Distance Education	1. Class	168	3,03	,98	261	-,573	,567
Technical Dimension of Distance Education	1. Class	168	3,47	,84	261	-,470	,639																																												
	2. Class	95	3,52	,79				Distance Education Request	1. Class	168	3,71	1,10	261	-3,344	,001	2. Class	95	4,15	,86	Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education	1. Class	168	3,29	,97	261	-2,159	,032	2. Class	95	3,56	,93	Problems Encountered in Distance Education	1. Class	168	3,03	,98	261	-,573	,567	2. Class	95	3,10	,93								
Distance Education Request	1. Class	168	3,71	1,10	261	-3,344	,001																																												
	2. Class	95	4,15	,86				Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education	1. Class	168	3,29	,97	261	-2,159	,032	2. Class	95	3,56	,93	Problems Encountered in Distance Education	1. Class	168	3,03	,98	261	-,573	,567	2. Class	95	3,10	,93																				
Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education	1. Class	168	3,29	,97	261	-2,159	,032																																												
	2. Class	95	3,56	,93				Problems Encountered in Distance Education	1. Class	168	3,03	,98	261	-,573	,567	2. Class	95	3,10	,93																																
Problems Encountered in Distance Education	1. Class	168	3,03	,98	261	-,573	,567																																												
	2. Class	95	3,10	,93																																															

When the analyzes made according to Table 5 are examined, it is seen that the attitude scale of university students towards distance education; Advantages of Distance Education for Participants [$t_{(261)} = .946, p > .05$], Technical Dimension of Distance Education [$t_{(261)} = -.470, p > .05$] and the Problems Encountered in Distance Education [$t_{(261)} = .567, p > .05$] dimensions does not show any difference significant compared to by class levels variable. Also Distance Education Request [$t_{(261)} = -3.344, p < .05$] and Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education [$t_{(261)} = -2.159, p < .05$] dimensions do show any difference significant compared to by class levels variable. As a result of the analyzes made, it was concluded that the 2.class students' requests for distance education ($\bar{x} = 4,15$) was higher than the 1. Class students' requests for distance education ($\bar{x} = 3,71$). The 2. class students stated that the teaching efficiency of distance education ($\bar{x} = 3,56$) is higher than the 1. class students ($\bar{x} = 3,29$).

Tablo 6: Distance Education Attitudes According to Students' Participation Methods in Distance Education Environments

	Groups	n	\bar{x}	Sd	df	t	p																																												
Advantages of Distance Education for Participants	Live Participation	171	3,97	,66	261	,271	,786																																												
	Playback	92	3,95	,74				Technical Dimension of Distance Education	Live Participation	171	3,55	,78	261	1,681	,094	Playback	92	3,37	,89	Distance Education Request	Live Participation	171	3,80	1,01	261	-1,522	,129	Playback	92	4,00	1,09	Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education	Live Participation	171	3,51	,86	261	2,854	,005	Playback	92	3,16	1,10	Problems Encountered in Distance Education	Live Participation	171	2,94	,89	261	-2,618	,009
Technical Dimension of Distance Education	Live Participation	171	3,55	,78	261	1,681	,094																																												
	Playback	92	3,37	,89				Distance Education Request	Live Participation	171	3,80	1,01	261	-1,522	,129	Playback	92	4,00	1,09	Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education	Live Participation	171	3,51	,86	261	2,854	,005	Playback	92	3,16	1,10	Problems Encountered in Distance Education	Live Participation	171	2,94	,89	261	-2,618	,009	Playback	92	3,26	1,05								
Distance Education Request	Live Participation	171	3,80	1,01	261	-1,522	,129																																												
	Playback	92	4,00	1,09				Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education	Live Participation	171	3,51	,86	261	2,854	,005	Playback	92	3,16	1,10	Problems Encountered in Distance Education	Live Participation	171	2,94	,89	261	-2,618	,009	Playback	92	3,26	1,05																				
Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education	Live Participation	171	3,51	,86	261	2,854	,005																																												
	Playback	92	3,16	1,10				Problems Encountered in Distance Education	Live Participation	171	2,94	,89	261	-2,618	,009	Playback	92	3,26	1,05																																
Problems Encountered in Distance Education	Live Participation	171	2,94	,89	261	-2,618	,009																																												
	Playback	92	3,26	1,05																																															

When the analyzes made according to Table 6 are examined, it is seen that the attitude scale of university students towards distance education; advantages of distance education for participants [$t_{(261)} = .271, p > .05$], technical dimension of distance education [$t_{(261)} = 1.681, p > .05$] and the distance education request [$t_{(261)} = -1.522, p > .05$] dimensions does not show any difference significant compared to by methods of participation in distance education environments variable. Also teaching efficiency of distance education [$t_{(261)} = 2.854, p < .05$] and problems encountered in distance education [$t_{(261)} = -2.618, p < .05$] dimensions do show any difference significant compared to by methods of participation in distance education environments variable.

As a result of the conducted analysis, it was found that the teaching effectiveness of distance education of students participating in distance education environments with the method of live participation ($\bar{x} = 3,51$) was higher than the teaching effectiveness of distance education of students participating in distance education environments with the method of playback participation ($\bar{x} = 3,16$). Besides as a result of the conducted analysis, it was found that the problems encountered in distance education of students participating in distance education environments with the method of playback participation ($\bar{x} = 3,26$) was higher than the problems encountered in distance education of students participating in distance education environments with the method of live participation ($\bar{x} = 2,94$).

Table 7: Distance Education Attitudes of Students According to the Devices They Use While Participating in Distance Education Courses

	Groups	N	X	Ss	sd	F	p	Significant Difference
Advantages of Distance Education for Participants	Computer	97	4,04	,69	2 260 262	1,016	,364	-
	Smartphone	102	3,91	,70				
	Computer and Smartphone	64	3,94	,67				
Technical Dimension of Distance Education	Computer	97	3,57	,88	2 260 262	,901	,408	-
	Smartphone	102	3,42	,77				
	Computer and Smartphone	64	3,45	,81				
Distance Education Request	Computer	97	4,02	1,01	2 260 262	1,575	,209	-
	Smartphone	102	3,76	1,08				
	Computer and Smartphone	64	3,83	1,02				
Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education	Computer	97	3,49	,95	2 260 262	1,144	,320	-
	Smartphone	102	3,28	,8				
	Computer and Smartphone	64	3,41	,95				
Problems Encountered in Distance Education	Computer	97	2,98	1,06	2 260 262	,731	,483	-
	Smartphone	102	3,14	,87				
	Computer and Smartphone	64	3,04	,92				

When the analyzes made according to Table 7 are examined, it is seen that the attitude scale of university students towards distance education; Advantages of Distance Education for Participants [F(2-260) = 1.016, p>.05], Technical Dimension of Distance Education [F(2-260) = .901, p>.05], Distance Education Request [F(2-260) = 1.575, p>.05], Teaching Efficiency of Distance Education [F(2-260) = 1.144,

$p > .05$] and the Problems Encountered in Distance Education [$F(2-260) = .731$, $p > .05$] dimensions does not show any difference significant compared to Devices they use while participating in distance education courses variable.

4. Results and Discussion

The main purpose of this research is the attitudes of associate degree students towards distance education and the advantages of distance education for the participant, the technical dimension of distance education, the desire for distance education, the teaching effectiveness of distance education, the problems encountered in distance education sub-dimensions, gender, class, status of taking courses in a distance education environment before, The method of participation in distance education environments is to examine the relationships between the device variables participated in distance education courses.

As a result of the research, it was found that students' attitudes towards distance education did not show a significant difference in terms of all sub-dimensions of the scale according to the gender variable. There are studies in the literature that support the results of the research and reveal that the gender variable does not make a difference on the attitudes of students towards distance education (Kışla, 2005; Ateş & Altun, 2008; Lenka & Ravi, 2012; Okhovati, 2015; Li & Lee, 2016; Yılmaz, 2020; L. Yakar & Z. Yakar, 2021; Geçer & Bağcı, 2022). However, there are studies in the literature showing that male students have a more positive attitude towards distance education than female students (Dhamija, 2014; Sezer, 2016; Yıldız, 2016; Fidan, Buluk, & Equalti, 2020; Göldağ, 2021; Ismaili, 2021). In the study conducted by Yıldız (2016), it is stated that male students have more positive attitudes than female students in the sub-dimension of the advantages of distance education to the participant. Işık et al. (2010) and Kar et al. (2014) in their studies concluded that female students' attitudes towards distance education are higher than male students.

Another result obtained in the study was that the students did not show a significant difference in terms of the advantages of distance education for the participant, the technical aspect of distance education, the desire for distance education, the effectiveness of distance education and the problems encountered in distance education, compared to the variable of previously taking courses in a distance education environment. In their study, Ateş and Altun (2008) concluded that the attitudes of students who have taken courses in a distance education environment before are more positive than students who have not taken courses in a distance education environment before. The fact that students have not taken courses in a distance education environment before and have not experienced this environment can be expected to have a negative impact on the efficiency and effectiveness of distance education courses, as well as their attitudes towards distance education (Yıldız, 2016).

The results of the research students; The advantages of distance education for the participant, the technical aspect of distance education and the problem dimensions encountered in distance education do not show a significant difference according to the grade level variable. In addition, it is seen that the distance education desire of the 2nd grade students and the dimensions of the teaching effectiveness of distance education are higher than the 1st grade students. When the studies in the literature are examined, there are studies that support the results of the research and conclude that students' attitudes towards distance education do not differ significantly according to the grade level variable (Sezer, 2016; Hacıömeroğlu & Elmalı, 2021). In the study of Sezer (2016), in which he examined the attitudes of medical students towards e-learning, it was concluded that there was no significant difference in the sub-dimensions of students' susceptibility to e-learning and avoidance of e-learning according to the grade level variable, and that there was no significant relationship between the attitude towards e-learning and grade level. has been reached. However, there are also studies in the literature stating that the grade level variable differs significantly on students' attitudes towards distance education (Durmuş & Bağcı, 2013; Yağcı et al., 2015; Göldağ, 2021). In Göldağ's (2021) study with the students studying at vocational school, it was concluded that the students studying in the 2nd grade had more positive attitudes than the students studying in the 1st grade.

The results of the research students; In terms of the advantages of distance education for the participant, the technical aspect of distance education and the dimensions of distance education desire, there is no significant difference in terms of the method of participation of students in distance education environments. In addition, it was concluded that the teaching effectiveness of the students who participated in the distance education environments with the live participation method was higher than the teaching effectiveness of the students who participated in the distance education environments with the follow-up participation method. It was found that the problems encountered in distance education of the students who participated in the distance education environments with the follow-up participation method were higher than the problems encountered in the distance education of the students who participated in the distance education environments with the live participation method.

The research results showed that the students' attitude scale towards distance education; The advantages of distance education for the participant, the technical aspect of distance education, the desire for distance education, the teaching effectiveness of distance education and the dimensions of the problems encountered in distance education do not show a significant difference according to the device variable that is attended to distance education courses.

In the light of the findings obtained, it is seen that the attitudes of the students participating in the research towards distance education are generally positive and

there is no difference according to their gender and taking courses for distance education. It is known that one of the main reasons for these results is that distance education is used by every group of students, especially during the measures taken in the field of education within the scope of the Covid-19 pandemic. Considering that distance education is actively used by every student group in this process and it allows students to receive education regardless of time and place, it can be thought that students' attitudes towards distance education are evaluated positively. In other studies that can be done, both students' thoughts towards distance education environments and their satisfaction and attitudes towards distance education environments can be examined by working with student groups at different education levels. Thus, more efficient design of distance education environments and creation of more effective distance education platforms for students of all ages will be ensured. It is also important to bring distance education environments to a level where they can be used more effectively and more actively, especially for extra situations such as epidemic periods.

5. Ethics Declarations

Necessary permission was obtained from the author who owns the "Distance Education Attitude Scale" used as a data collection tool in this study. Ethics committee approval for this study was obtained with the decision of Sakarya University Educational Research and Publication Ethics Committee dated 11/01/2022 and numbered 23.

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INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

Dr. M. Abdalbaki KARACA¹

Inclusive education covers special education practices based on the principle that by providing support education services, individuals with special needs continue their education together with their normally developing peers in public and private pre-schools, primary schools, secondary schools and non-formal education institutions (The Regulation Governing Special Education Services, 2018). In inclusive education practices, it is essential to place students with special needs in schools where inclusive education is given. Inclusion is defined as the education of students with special needs in general education schools together within their normally developing peers, by providing support services either to them or the classroom teacher or both when necessary (Sucuođlu and Kargin 2006). In Turkey, children having similar emotional, mental, physical and social characteristics receive education in general education schools and classes (Özgür, 2011).

The inclusion means that everyone, regardless of individual differences, accepts and respects the student with special needs, and inclusive education should be prepared taking the special needs of the children into account. It does not mean that the child keeps up with the school; on the contrary, it means that the school keeps up with the child. Additionally, inclusion in education does not mean that all children will be transferred from private special education schools to normal schools. The inclusive education requires special education schools and normal schools to work more closely. In this way, it can be observed whether each child receives the most appropriate education.

In an inclusive education environment:

1. Children with normal development,
2. The classroom teacher,
3. Teachers of different branches,

4. School counselor,
5. School management,
6. School staff, and
7. Families need to coordinate.

Moreover, as institutions:

1. Guidance and research centers,
2. Provincial and district directorates of national education, and
3. Non-governmental institutions and organizations need to cooperate.



There are several reasons for inclusive education practices. Some of those are:

1. In inclusive education, negative attitudes towards diversity can be changed and the ground required for a fair and non-discriminatory society can be created. Accordingly, children with normal development, in the classroom, should be informed about the inclusion students (Sarı, Gökdağ and Aslan Bağcı, 2019).
2. Rather than establishing a system of different schools for different disability groups, it is less expensive to create schools that offer co-educative practices for children who are suitable for inclusive education. That's why; the least restricted environment for students with special needs should be created as much as possible.
3. In inclusive education, teaching methods that all children benefit from, and meet their individual differences should be developed. In classroom activities, students with special needs should be taken into consideration.

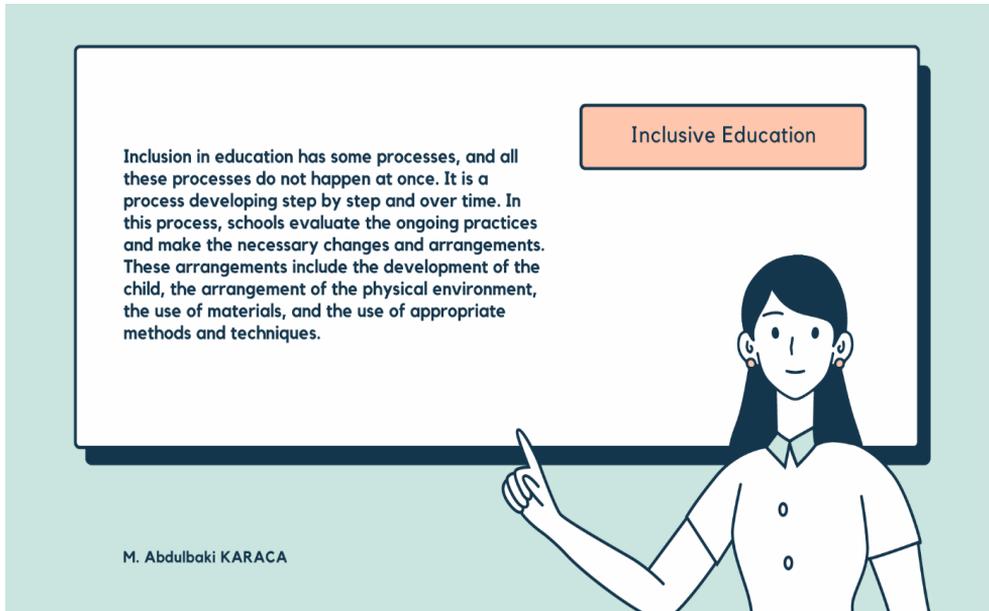
Teachers play an important role for students with special needs to take their place in society and work life. For this reason, the following practices of teachers will help inclusion practices be successful. Accordingly, teachers should;

1. Identify the specific needs of each student and try to meet those needs using appropriate strategies.
2. Evaluate classroom planning and practices as a whole.
3. Prepare individual plans for students.
4. Follow students, using simple checklists, while learning.
5. Create observation charts.
6. Relate the student behaviors to normal development patterns.
7. Involve both parents and students in the assessment.
8. Learn how to use the evaluation results for educational purposes.
9. Attach importance to the education of children with special needs so that they can live independently.
10. Cooperate with families and school staff in order to equip the students with the predetermined qualifications in the yearly goals.
11. Strive to be present in multicultural environments (to appreciate the value of diversity and respect differences).
12. Acquire pedagogical knowledge for students with special needs.
13. Focus on gaining new knowledge, skills and competencies by reviewing their learning needs.
14. Believe that basic competencies can be taught in accordance with the needs of students with special needs.
15. Be informed about the practices and researches related to inclusion.
16. Participate in vocational training programs related to inclusion.

In addition to the ability to guide students with special needs, the professional development of teachers and school staff depends on the knowledge, skills and responsibilities of teachers. What's more, teachers' skills in teaching students with special needs can have lasting positive effects on students. The pedagogic formation courses during the undergraduate program do not equip the teachers with all the qualifications they need in their careers. That's why; the rapid increase in the needs for teaching new methods requires teachers to be aware of their own learning requirements (Donnelly, 2010).

It is for sure that classroom teachers have certain responsibilities for students with special needs, and inclusion practices guided by teachers and counselors will be more effective. Additionally, peer-teaching is an effective way of inclusive education among student groups. It is also stated in literature that teachers should

be aware that the theory and practice related to special education do not contradict each other (Karaca, 2018).



The inclusive education process will be more successful when primary school teachers have the knowledge about the needs of students with special needs, appropriate teaching techniques and curriculum strategies. Ouane (2008) describes the inclusive education as an ongoing process aiming to provide qualified education for everyone that meets the abilities, characteristics and learning expectations of the society, eliminating all sort of discrimination and respecting diversity and different expectations.

Arnesen, Allen, and Simonsen, (2009) consider the inclusive education not only as inclusion of students with special needs in schools, but also as the process of making schools suitable for inclusion practices, in order to make societies and schools aware of diversity.

1.1. Identification/Follow up/Classification

Identification; it is the medical, psycho-social and educational evaluation process in order to determine the adequacies and inadequacies, individual characteristics and interests of individuals who need special education in all areas of development.

During educational evaluation and identification, characteristics of the individual in all areas of development, his/her qualifications in academic disciplines and educational needs are determined for educational purposes, and the least restricted educational environment and special education services are determined. In order to plan special education services and ensure continuity in education, the development

of individuals in need of special education at all levels of education, starting from early childhood, is followed (Regulation for Special Education Services, 2018).

As a result of the student's incompetence, s/he is identified as a student with special needs if s/he cannot fulfill what is expected of him/her, compared to his/her peers, and perform age-appropriate roles in the society. The needs and requirements of each student with special needs may differ. Therefore, students identified by experts are placed into appropriate programs in accordance with their needs (Özsoy, Özyürek, and Eripek, 1998).

Identification of students with special needs is the first step to be taken in the education of these students since it is not possible for a student who is not correctly identified at the beginning of the education process to adapt to the educational environment. In other words, all elements of education depend on the student's correct identification. The first question to be asked for a student receiving education is the question of "who". Unless it clearly is known in detail "who will be taught", it is not possible for the student to get proper education (Karaca, 2018). Finally, the evaluation process starts at the end of determining the performance, and the education programs (Çıkılı, Gönen, Aslan Bağcı and Kaynar, 2020). It is guaranteed by laws that the materials used in this process will not discriminate against any religion, language, race or culture.

Taking the works of the Guidance and Research Centers (GRC) into account, it is obvious that these centers do especially identification, guiding, placement and follow-up. They are expected to provide special education counseling for teachers who need information about inclusive and support education. In the Regulation for Special Education Services, sections related to inclusion are explained in detail, and the 68th article necessitates identification, evaluation and follow-up processes to be done in cooperation. According to the 68th article; "The decision-making process requires the cooperation of the family and the school's educational identification, follow-up and evaluation team."

1.2. Educational Identification and Evaluation Stages

There are some stages to be followed in the educational identification and evaluation process. They are;

1. Preparing evaluation reports by the teacher, which has the information about the current status of the students,
2. Submitting the evaluation reports to the school counseling services,
3. In order for the student to be evaluated properly, the school administration should call the guidance and psychological counseling services committee for a meeting on a certain day and time,
4. Making evaluations about the student by the committee and deciding whether the student should be directed to the Guidance and Research Center,

5. Informing the parents about all the decisions and taking their opinions into account,
6. Creating an educational evaluation request form in accordance with the opinions and consent of the parents,
7. Initiating the necessary procedures by the school administration and submitting the documents to the guidance and research center,
8. Deciding on the date and time of the educational evaluation and identification by the experts working at the guidance and research center,
9. Directing the student to a health institution for medical diagnosis, if necessary,
10. Making the educational evaluation and identification on the pre-determined date and preparing the Special Education Evaluation Board Report according to the identification results,
11. Placement of students with special needs in an appropriate state school or including them in inclusive education practices depending on decision of the Special Education Services Board. This placement decision should be delivered to the school, parents and the guidance and research center (Directorate of Special Education and Guidance Services, 2015).

Schools must also enroll the students whose educational evaluation and identification have not been made by guidance and research centers. In the 1st article of the regulation (ref (d)) of the General Directorate of Special Education Guidance Services: The necessary measures are taken in the enrollment and attendance of the students who need inclusive education in all types and levels. In addition, it is stated that individuals in need of special education, whose educational evaluation and identification have not yet been made by guidance and research centers, will be enrolled in schools/institutions.

Each identification and evaluation is repeated at least once every 6 months by the educational identification, follow-up and evaluation team. In order to offer appropriately planned educational opportunities to students with special needs, there should be multidimensional and continuous evaluations (Pretti-Frontczak and Bricker, 2004). Studies reveal that classroom teachers use observation, test and oral evaluation techniques more frequently in inclusive education. End-of-teaching assessments are important for students with special needs to be successful in inclusive education practices. Therefore, when teaching is completed, the student should be evaluated. If the objectives determined at the beginning of the teaching process cannot be reached, the re-teaching process should come to the agenda, and some changes should be made regarding the process (Sarı and İlik, 2014).

1.3. Importance of the Teacher in Inclusive Education

Sometimes, children cannot learn while they attend the school. Students with special needs cannot be expected to adapt to a system where their individual needs cannot be met. In a system that adapts to children instead of adapting children to school, it is expected that teachers have the competence to enable all children to participate in the educational processes. They should make the appropriate arrangements in classrooms for children with special needs. Inclusion practices at school should include studies on how to create the most appropriate social inclusion environment so that students with special needs can socialize with their peers. The presence of students with different learning levels in the classroom requires the teacher to make new arrangements in the classroom.

Therefore, using the appropriate teaching methods and techniques, classroom teachers can contribute to the education of students with special needs (Atar, Aslan Bağcı and Bağcı, 2021). This will also have positive effects on the professional development of teachers. According to Florian and Rouse (2009), teacher training prepares individuals for a profession that accepts individual and collective responsibility to improve the learning and participation of all children. This includes students with special needs, especially those who have hearing impairment, visual impairment and mental disabilities.

Sarason (1990) states that there are two groups of students at schools, those with normal development and those with special needs. Teachers, having graduated from the undergraduate programs, state that if they choose to work with one of them and neglect the other, they will make themselves incompetent over time. That's why, inclusive education programs are thought to be important to increase the success of teachers in inclusive practices. Florian (2007) puts forward that teachers should understand different developmental aspects of the students with special needs. This will ensure that teachers do not regard students with special needs as individuals lacking education. Thus, as Smith (2003) emphasizes, there is a need for teachers who know what to teach and how to teach.

1.4. Benefits of Inclusive Education

Inclusive education has some benefits for students with special needs, students with normal development, teachers and families. Brief descriptions for some of these benefits are available below.

1.4.1. Students with Special Needs

Inclusive education has many benefits for students with special needs. Some of them are;

1. It reduces undesirable behaviors while increasing positive ones.
2. It helps students with special needs to be more courageous.
3. It develops feelings of responsibility.

4. It increases success and develops harmony with peers.
5. It increases self-confidence.
6. It enables students to develop communication, cooperation and social life skills.

1.4.2. Students with Normal Development

Inclusive education has some benefits for students with normal development. Some of them can be listed as;

1. Develops a desire to help people.
2. Develops living skills with students with special needs.
3. Decreases the prejudice towards students with special needs.
4. Offers the opportunity to be with individuals with different characteristics.
5. Develops tolerance towards students with special needs.

1.4.3. Teachers

Inclusive education has some benefits for the teachers of inclusive students. Some of them are;

1. They acquire the skills in treating children with different developmental characteristics.
2. They gain the ability to organize the classroom environment and to implement a curriculum suitable for the needs of the children.
3. Using different teaching methods and techniques, they develop their teaching skills.

1.4.4. Families

In addition to its benefits for inclusive students, students with normal development and the teachers, it has benefits for the families as well. Some of them are;

1. They have the opportunity to share new experiences and information with families.
2. They learn about new ways of helping their children.
3. Learn their rights and responsibilities.
4. They have the opportunity to actively participate in the educational processes.

1.5. Framework for Inclusive Education and Peer Support

The concept of “good teaching” is thought of as a major factor in quality teacher education. Such a framework needs to be based on four basic dimensions.

FRAMEWORK FOR INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

01 RELATIONAL CONCEPTS IN THE UNIVERSITY CURRICULUM,

02 THEORY AND PRACTICE-BASED ACTIVITIES BETWEEN THE SCHOOL AND THE UNIVERSITY,

03 SOCIO-CULTURAL RELATIONS BETWEEN THE PROGRAM PARTICIPANTS,

04 PERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS THAT HELP SHAPE THE IDENTITY OF EACH TEACHER.

Additionally, it is emphasized that the socio-cultural dimension is related to the other three areas and the participants wish for social interaction. A dynamic and consistent inclusive education program according to cultural and political needs compatible with communication is the heart of the education program.

In order for students with special needs to create multiple learning outcomes, teachers should create an interactive learning environment. Peer support should also be available during the process. When preparing inclusive education programs, the content must have some explanations about the peer support. Rix, Hall, Nind, Sheehy, and Wearmouth, (2006) highlighted the benefits of interactive approaches of peer groups in developing academic and social skills. In addition, they also buy in the idea that teachers and students interact with students with special needs and create teaching opportunities for peer education in inclusive education practices. Therefore, teachers in each school should do what is necessary for students with special needs, and all teachers and staff in the school should be aware of how to meet the needs of these students during inclusion practices (Sarı, 2002).

1.6. The Legal Foundations of Inclusive Education

The right to education is guaranteed in local and international laws. It is the responsibility and under the guarantee of the state. Therefore, all children with special needs have the right to benefit from all the rights granted to them. Countries are responsible for implementing practices that prevent the social exclusion of children with special needs by providing a healthy and safe learning environment. Particularly, teaching these children in the same environment with their peers has emerged as a rapidly increasing practice in recent years.

We come across with the right of students with special needs to benefit from being taught in the same environment with their normally developing peers in the Salamanca Statement declared in 1994. In the statement, it is declared that “It is recommended to all countries to expand the comprehensive education, while dealing

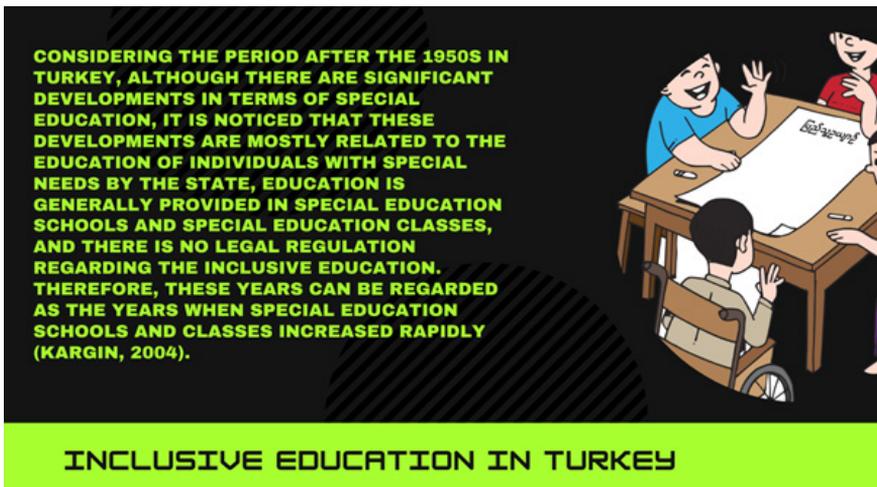
with discrimination, to create a society that includes all people with or without any disabilities.” In this spirit, in Turkey, the right to education of students with special needs is guaranteed both in local and international laws.

1.6.1. Local Laws In Turkey

1. 42nd article of the Constitutional Law
2. Law Numbered 222 on Primary School and Education
3. Law Numbered 1739 on Basic National Education
4. Decree Law Numbered 573 on Special Education
5. Law Numbered 2916 on Children in Need of Special Education
6. Law Numbered 5378 on Disabled Persons
7. Regulation for Special Education Services (2018)

1.6.2. International Laws

1. Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948
2. European Convention on Human Rights in 1952
3. The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in 1966
4. World Programme of Action Concerning Disabled Persons in 1982
5. Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1989
6. Education for All in 1990
7. Standard Rules on the Equalization of opportunities for Persons with Disabilities in 1993
8. The Salamanca Statement in 1994
9. The World Education Forum in 1994
10. United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities in 2006



Identifying the degree and type of disabilities of students with special needs is legally guaranteed due to three reasons. The first one of them is making an evaluation in order to protect the legal rights of families and individuals with special needs. The second one is making an evaluation in order to offer the opportunity to benefit from special education services. The last one is making evaluations in order to determine both the adequate and inadequate aspects of the students (Gürsel and Vuran, 2010). Below are the details about the legal regulations in Turkey.

1.6.3. Law Numbered 1739 on Basic National Education

In the 8th article of the Law of Basic National Education, Numbered 1739, accepted in 1973, it is stated that “The necessary measures are taken to teach children in need of special education”. The regulation issued in 1992 also mentions inclusive education in classrooms in primary schools along with students with normal development.

1.6.4. Law Numbered 2916 on Children in Need of Special Education

In Turkey the Law on Children in Need of Special Education, numbered 2916, was first issued in 1983 regarding the education of children with special needs. However, it is thought that the articles in the law are not fully implemented. Following this law, “Circular on Preschool Education of Children with Special Needs” was issued in 1987.

1.6.5. The Decree Law Numbered 573 on Special Education

While there were no articles about inclusion in the Law Numbered 2916 on Children in Need of Special Education, the need for inclusion was emphasized in the Decree Law Numbered 573 on Special Education dated 30.07.1997. In its 12th article it is stated that “The education of individuals who need special education is done in accordance with the individual education plans, together with their peers, by using appropriate methods and techniques in schools and institutions of all types and levels.” Moreover, the Regulation for Special Education Services by Ministry of National Education, which was issued based on this decree, defines inclusive education as educational support services for individuals in need of special education to continue their education in public and private preschool, primary, secondary and non-formal educational institutions together with their peers without disabilities.

In our country, inclusion is first defined in the 3rd article of the Decree Law Numbered 573 on Special Education, which was issued in the repeated issue of the Official Gazette dated 06.06.1997 and numbered 23011. In the 12th article of the same decree, it is noticed that inclusion is given priority in the education of students with special needs.

Additionally, the legislation mentions the support services for the first time. Therefore, considering the decree law numbered 573, it includes equal opportunities for students with special needs and equal participation in educational environments,

together with their peers with normal development. In the Decree Law Numbered 573 on special education, an article states that “It is essential to develop an individualized education program for individuals with special needs and to implement individualized education programs”. This article makes the individualized education programs compulsory. Accordingly, for inclusive education, educational environments and programs are prepared for students with special needs depending on their needs.

1.6.6. Law Numbered 5378 on Disabled Persons

The purpose of Law Numbered 5378 is to ensure that individuals with special needs benefit from fundamental rights and freedoms, protect their birthright, ensure their full participation in social life on equal terms with other individuals, and make the necessary arrangements to take measures in order to prevent their disabilities. In addition, the Law Numbered 5378 on Disabled Persons covers individuals with special needs, their families, institutions and organizations serving individuals with special needs, and all other relevant units. The law includes regulations for accessibility, sheltered workplace, reasonable arrangements, rehabilitation and public service centers.

It is stated in the 4th article of the Law Numbered 5378 on Disabled Persons that;

- a) It is essential to respect the individual autonomy of persons with disabilities, including the freedom to make their own choices on the basis of the inviolability of their human dignity.
- b) One cannot discriminate against people due to their disabilities, and the fight against discrimination forms the basis of policies for the disabled.
- c) It is essential to ensure equal opportunities for disabled people to benefit from all rights and services.
- d) It is essential to ensure accessibility for disabled people to live independently and participate fully in society.
- e) It is essential to prevent all kinds of abuse of the disabled and disability.
- f) It is essential to protect family integrity in the provision of services for the disabled.
- g) It is essential to take the best interests of the child into account in services for disabled children.
- h) It is essential to prevent disabled women or girls from being exposed to multidimensional discrimination and to ensure that they benefit from their rights and freedoms.
- i) It is essential to ensure the participation of the disabled, their families and non-governmental organizations representing the disabled in policy making, decision-making and service delivery processes for them.
- j) Opinions of the Ministry of Family and Social Services are taken into account in legislative arrangements for the disabled.

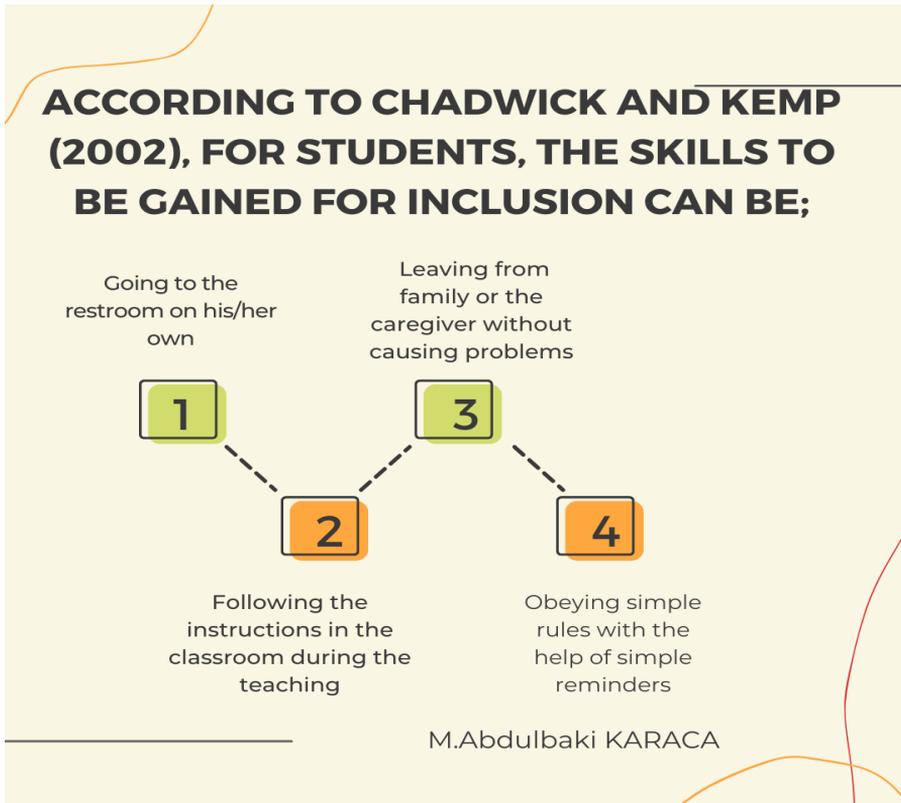
1.6.7. The Regulation for Special Education Services (2018)

In the Regulation for Special Education Services, dated 2018, it is stated that *“Board of Special education services places the individual in need of special education to an appropriate public school or institution depending on the report of the board of special education and evaluation. This board, in accordance with the report of the Board of Special Education and Evaluation and the request of the parent, may also take the decision for a student attending private schools to continue his education through inclusion in the school s/he attends.”* In addition, it is stated that *“The necessary measures should be taken to open support education classrooms and special education classrooms in public and private schools and institutions that provide education services through inclusion at all types and levels.”* which makes support education services necessary in inclusion practices for students with special needs. In the Regulation for Special Education Services (2018), educational environments for mentally retarded and autistic students are also clearly stated. What’s more, job descriptions of the staff responsible for the education of individuals with special needs are made (Karaca, 2018).

1.7. The Teaching Methods and Techniques in Inclusion Practices

Effective classroom management means that all the students in the classroom are involved in the educational process. Therefore, teachers need to know various classroom management methods and teaching strategies. In inclusive education practices, teachers should review the curriculum and find ways to teach the subject in different ways for students with special needs since the best educational adaptations that can be used for the education of children with special needs are possible through effective methods and techniques. This is the only way for the whole class to participate in educational activities (Sarı, 2008). According to the Decree Law Numbered 573 on Special Education, published in the Official Gazette Numbered 23011, the appropriate methods and techniques should be used in the education of students with special needs in schools and institutions. The article defines inclusive education as *“The education of individuals who need special education is done in accordance with appropriate methods and techniques in schools and institutions of all types and levels, together with their peers, according to the individual education plans”*. Considering the fact that students with special needs have the same rights as their peers, in educational environments, in order for these students to be successful there is a need for an effective classroom management, an education program suitable for the students, and effective teaching methods and techniques (Battal, 2007).

Teachers should teach students with special needs the skills of preparation for inclusion using effective teaching techniques. Therefore, revealing teachers’ opinions and taking the advantage of their opinions during the implementation are thought to be important for effective inclusive education practices (Odluyurt, 2007).



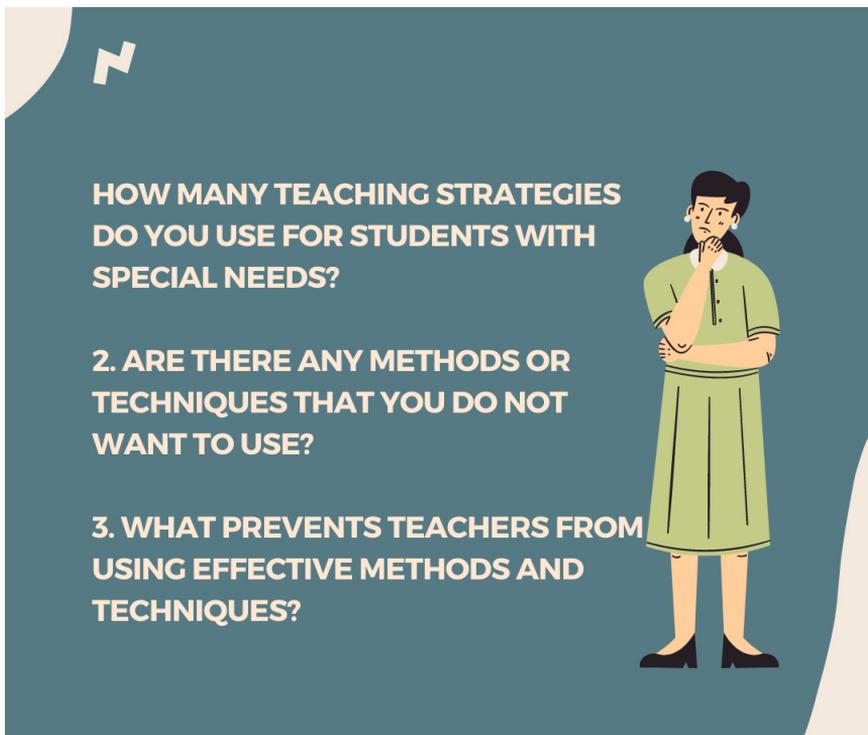
In order for the inclusion practices to be done successfully, it is highly important for the teachers to pay attention to the principles of inclusion, to have a good command of the content of the program, and to be able to use methods and techniques (Battal, 2007). While the objectives in the program are functional and generalizable, the effects of the methods and techniques used in the educational activities should systematically be examined (Pretti-Frontczak and Bricker, 2004).

Lewis and Norwich (2005) state that there should be no discrimination in teaching with the aim of ensuring effective learning of individuals with special needs. Instead, he states that there is a need for more activities, more exemplifications, and careful evaluations. However, they highlight the idea of continuity which is regarded as a special process of concentration in education. It has come out that implementing special educational strategies taking the needs of students into account is helpful for children with special learning difficulties and dyslexia. According to Rink (2002), content suitable for the development of students should be created during inclusion practices. What's more, clear and practical instructions should also be provided.

In a research done by Battal (2007), teachers who teach inclusive students in their class stated that they knew appropriate methods and techniques for students with special needs in the inclusive education process. In addition, teachers stated that they could help by doing activities for the ones having reading and writing

difficulties, for the ones having difficulties in solving mathematical problems, for the ones having emotional and behavioral problems, for the ones having special learning difficulties, for the ones having social adaptation problems and for the gifted ones. However, Kayaoğlu's (1999) research revealed that since the teachers did not get education related to the methods and techniques used in inclusive education, they were insufficient on this matter.

In the study done by Vural and Yıkmış (2008), classroom teachers stated that in inclusive education practices, they did not have enough time to adapt the teaching to students with special needs. In addition, it was revealed that teachers had a lack of knowledge about instructional adaptations for students with special needs and the use of effective methods and techniques. According to teacher statements, the reason for this was that the classes were crowded and that they could not get support from experts for students with special needs. In another study, it is stated that classroom teachers experience problems because they cannot implement different teaching methods and techniques in classrooms (Sucuoğlu and Kargın, 2006). Therefore, one should focus on the answers to the following questions in inclusion practices.



HOW MANY TEACHING STRATEGIES DO YOU USE FOR STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS?

2. ARE THERE ANY METHODS OR TECHNIQUES THAT YOU DO NOT WANT TO USE?

3. WHAT PREVENTS TEACHERS FROM USING EFFECTIVE METHODS AND TECHNIQUES?

The infographic features a dark teal background with a white stylized 'N' logo in the top left corner. On the right side, there is an illustration of a female teacher with dark hair, wearing a light green short-sleeved dress and black shoes, standing with her hand on her chin in a thoughtful pose. The text is presented in white, bold, uppercase letters.

You should work with another teacher or groups of teachers to plan a lesson using different strategies. In the learning and teaching processes, while reorganizing the learning process, the teacher should always ask himself/herself “Which method should I use?” This question will help the teacher to use the right method in his/her courses.

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EDUCATION, MULTICULTURALISM AND MEDIA: A SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY PERSPECTIVE

Dr. Ekmel GEÇER¹

Introduction

Multiculturalism policies have emerged in the twentieth century as a state policy to ensure the integration of immigrant groups without loss of their original cultures and are seen as a response to the failure of modern nation-states, which tend to emphasise unity and uniformity over difference and identity (Murdock, 2018). The leading political principles of the multicultural model are tolerance among different ethnic groups, and the recognition and respect for individuals' cultural identities. Thus, multiculturalism has almost been the natural feature of modern society due to globalisation, diverse cultures and ethnic identities and arises either from national minorities wishing to maintain themselves as a different society alongside the major culture or from individual immigrants wanting to integrate into larger society by becoming accepted as full members (Reitz, Breton, & Kisiel, 2009). Multiculturalism as a liberal political viewpoint has improved the pluralist society design. It has progressed as an expression of the political, social and educational system, which states that different cultural traditions may live together in peace and equality. Multiculturalism itself includes different pluralist approaches, which handle cultures in society from different aspects. For instance, while *liberal theory* stresses individual rights, the *communitarian approach* focuses on social and group rights (Jones, 2009).

The liberal theory describes the individual as one who chooses, examines, observes and changes his/her life when needed. Thus, society must offer different life options. Social and/or governmental organisations' primary mission should be to protect and preserve these options. According to liberal theorist authors like Locke, Hobbes, Montesquieu and Kymlicka, the state should not define multiculturalism

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or force people to behave in a predefined set of moral values as cultures are not comparable and have different definitions of what constitutes the 'good life' with no one type being superior. In this regard, liberalism strives to design a society in which people from different backgrounds/ethnicities can reside, believing and trusting in the justice system they are dependent on. Liberal theories are against state-supported multiculturalism which they regard as *interventionism*. They believe it leads societies where migrants are absorbed to form ghettos and become resistant to any positive change (Kymlicka, 1995)

Liberal theory sublimates cultural diversity as it enhances the alternatives in hand but maintains that the individual should also be able to resist cultural diversity when it forces him/her to change. If the freedom of an individual is protected s/he will contribute to society differently and so another culture will be shaped around her/him. Because personality and skills are gained from society individuality should only be handled within the context of social and political life which are the two main factors in the structure of individual life. However, Kymlicka indicates that states (without preventing the major identities from succeeding in political and economic institutions) should help ethnic identities to express themselves and be proud of their cultures. He also emphasizes group rights alongside individual rights and maintains that groups have responsibility for their members and the society they live in (Kymlicka, 1995: p. 35).

However, communitarians like Charles Taylor and Michael Walzer criticise liberalism's narrow focus on *individuality* stating that it ignores social and group features and continues life without caring for the *social good* and thus rejecting other life options. So, while liberal theory opposes *group rights* to champion individual rights, communitarian theory stresses group rights limiting individual rights for the social good. Communitarians celebrate and encourage diversity, especially as a cultural value and support the representation of difference as a positive social good (Kymlicka, 1995, p. 151) but criticise liberals who they believe isolate the individuality of different groups from their historical, social, and political contexts. In this regard Taylor, while describing identity, stresses its relationship with history, environment, society, and citizenship duties among which education seems to be a structuring factor (Taylor, 1994).

Despite their interchangeable usage with multiculturalism, *cultural diversity* is used to refer to non-ethnic social groups which have often been excluded for various reasons. It has two main sources. The first is coexistence within a given state of more than one nation and the second is immigration. Debates about cultural diversity have led certain countries like Australia and Canada, to develop multiculturalism as part of state policy to recognise differences within society (Kymlicka, 1995, p. 25). It does not only offer special services to minorities but also promises to make people live together with the awareness of cultural diversity (McGhee, 2008).

Therefore, it has been seen as a means of stopping ethnic or cultural conflicts and increasing tolerance in the modern world. Moreover, it will enhance life quality through enriching the experience, expanding cultural resources, and creating more alternatives in terms of social life (O'Donnell, 2021)

Today, most countries are culturally diverse, and the multiculturalist model offers a vision where differences between groups are not only appreciated but also institutionalized in formal power-sharing coalitions. Its application in Australia, for example, makes it possible to say that cultural diversity has “provided a medium for dealing with identity and difference which is neither separatist nor assimilationist” (Stratton and Ang, 1998: p. 131). This cultural diversity will increase the alternatives for an individual and contribute to freedom of choice in the society he/she lives in. Moreover, it will enhance the quality of life by enriching the experience, expanding cultural resources, and creating more alternatives in terms of social life. Therefore, educational institutions should also behave responsibly to flourish the multicultural environment in their curriculum and other sociocultural activities (Bennett D. , 2013).

In light of diverse cultures, (especially in many European countries and North America) and the need to understand and overcome the problems of society with various group members, cultural diversity has been a challenge for researchers and one of the main subjects of scholars of the 21st century. When researchers try to define cultural diversity they focus on *culture* – which a study identified at least 156 definitions – and usually highlight the frame of culture that formed an individual's interaction with society. Cultural diversity, in this regard, is usually tackled with the term *multiculturalism* and related subjects like identity, ethnicity and nationalism. Accordingly, both *cultural diversity* and *multiculturalism* have been used to recognise and respect different cultures without creating a separation or hierarchy between them (Dicks, 2004).

Cultural diversity issues have also been debated in terms of the mainstream media's capability to represent it and the pressures on the minority media or media professionals who have been marginalised. These representations then have been extended to the media's role as tools for education and improving social-cultural cohesion. Therefore, to understand the relationship between education, media representation and psychology, *this chapter* will examine the concepts of multiculturalism theories from diverse points of view and discuss their applications through a psychological and educational perspective. After giving a general approach to cultural diversity and media debates, the historical background of multiculturalism in an educational context will more broadly be analysed. Such a theoretical approach will contribute to the discussions regarding the education and multiculturalism relationship and will also give insights into how education contributes to or harm the level of learning and understanding in a classroom setting.

Cultural Diversity: A hidden racism?

The political opposition to cultural diversity claims that in the long-term diversity destroys the unity of the people and harms the nation-state. Therefore, multiculturalism policies in some countries are approached with much doubt and diversity is considered a threat to the existence of the nation which will create a never-ending conflict. If any ethnic group receives *private treatment*, it becomes difficult to prevent conflict between them and other groups. On the other hand, since multiculturalism causes people not to become insular, it ghettoises minorities and delays their integration into mainstream society. These applications idealise ethnic groups, religious communities or national identities and describe individuals according to this idealisation. Moreover, relating identity merely to ethnicity causes multicultural policies to ignore ‘individuality’ and a ‘conservative policy’ shelters a ‘secret nationalism’ that will lead to new racism in the long term (Busbridge, 2018)

Multiculturalism critiques also have been related to economic issues. In this link, multiculturalism is not about providing freedom for people but is a cover for states to import cheap labour, allowing them to cope with their economic problems more easily. Zizek goes further and relates multicultural policies to global capitalism and the changing feature of racism. He states that Western Europe imperialism uses multiculturalism to stay alive. Moreover, because it humiliates immigrant cultures and puts its own culture against them, it should be named a ‘new form of racism’. This approach is also related to the ideas that reject the ‘integration’ itself which states that ‘integration’ is a form of nationalism that demands all diversities to be assimilated and accepts that there is “one mainstream, normal set of values, practises and other procedures that other people can learn and adapt to” (Kivel, 2002: p. 234; Kundnani, 2012: p. 114). While minority rights are being protected governments also reduce diversity within the minority itself as they force the community to integrate and add their distinctive contribution to mainstream culture (Kymlicka, 1995, p. 123).

Multiculturalism is also criticised for promoting segregation and preventing the freedom of speech and expression where people often do not feel free to criticize another’s culture (Schmidt, 1997: p. 16). Moreover, cultural diversity is claimed to threaten liberal democracy because the politics of freedom changes to politics of fear; non-political institutions such as religious groups become politicised and then prefer to act as pressure groups. Thus, culture is no longer the sole factor we evaluate but we search for a system of belief where civil discourse ends and peaceful debates around culture become impossible (Sacks, 2009, p. 153). Another argument against multiculturalism is that every group believes in their truths. There is no agreed moral truth. All truth becomes relative. They believe in something and then find support from different mass communication tools. Hence, people have difficulty agreeing on an opinion (Leong and Rivera, 1999).

Although cultural diversity policies are mostly mentioned within the equality and justice context, it has been claimed that cultural diversity does not close the gap between the social classes but on the contrary, deepens the division. Africans coming to the EU can live within mainstream society, but they can only work in low-degree jobs and face difficulties if to work as lawyers or doctors. On the other hand, multiculturalism is presented as the 'highest level' of social morality. However, some immigrants coming from their old lands remain within their old cultures as they struggle to cope with the new mainstream culture which they feel is imposed on them via official establishments such as schools or other political institutions. Another point is that government, as in the British context, usually presents religious leaders as the representatives of diverse groups. This causes multicultural societies to be described as 'multi-religious' or 'multi-beliefs' societies. This 'conservative' point of view in the end causes the return to the 'single-culture' concept by imposing 'mainstream' culture as the 'multi-religious'. Another point is that immigrants are always mentioned by their cultural background to prove cultural diversity in society. That limits immigrants to their ethnic identity even if they want to escape from it (Forrest and Dunn, 2006).

Cultural diversity policies are usually supported because they seem to struggle against nationalism or racism making immigrants/minorities feel better. However, there are still questions remaining: Do cultural diversity policies struggle against discrimination or is the target only to protect nationalist culture? Is education related to cultural diversity able to overcome nation-state boundaries? Does not multiculturalism re-produce the nationalist doctrines by forcing culture and identity to be mentioned within the context of roots and races? Does not this pressure look like racist ethnocultural disciplines that limit the identities into biological diversities? Does multiculturalism create equality or does the nationalist tendency within a country exclude 'other cultures' from outside of national 'mainstream culture to preserve the latter for the next generation?

It is not about whether we should have multiculturalism or not. It is about the extent to which multiculturalism has become the dominant policy of society. Even the multicultural critiques do not accept a complete denial of ethnic and cultural rights. What they say is cultural diversity should not be the determining value that drives our social structure. *Nancy Frazer* states that there is the politics of redistribution and the politics of recognition. There is tension between the two. The politics of redistribution is ensuring greater equality, so the difference disappears. That is the idealized model in France. Nevertheless, in the UK politics of recognition becomes much more significant. It is about acknowledging cultural diversity, protecting it, and respecting it. So rather than reducing difference, it increases difference (Fraser and Honneth, 2003). For example, in the UK Islamic Schools are established but in France, that is not constitutional behaviour and is not tolerated as laicism policies

structure the multiculturalism policies. What should be done then? There is no doubt that multiculturalism policies have contributed to democracy. Furthermore, it also assumes that there is no need to debate the necessity of multiculturalism, where people cannot have their essential rights such as life, language and citizenship. These kinds of countries and their citizens prefer to ban any difference rather than apply multicultural policies. Consequently, no matter what they call it: multiculturalism, cultural diversity, or something else, those countries should ask this question: What are the things that hold people together in multinational countries such as USA, Britain, Switzerland and Canada?

Media Courses as a Way of Creating a Multiculturalism Awareness

Media courses are significant parts of the cultural circle that produce and disseminate traditional or recently manufactured motifs. News producers while creating a news story critically analyse the stories they receive and give them an understandable shape through the customs of the audiences. In this regard, the practices of the media and journalism many times go beyond technical issues. They are accused of being the *spin doctors* of public opinions who make propaganda or manipulate the followers to direct them in a specific political, cultural or nationalist trend. Based on these claims the critiques regarding the media professionals for their alleged economic relations attempts to hide the reality and their considerations of power have been the themes that the modern democracies have challenged (Koltsova, 2009: p. 13).

Given that this chapter also deals with multiculturalism and education concerning the media, in this section the representation of cultural diversity within the media will be discussed by looking at the debates on the media's role to structure or characterise others and creating an awareness regarding multiculturalism. This brief overview of relevant literature on media and cultural diversity will help us to structure and understand the relationship between educational activities and multiculturalism policies as education has been regarded as one of the main responsibilities of mass communication tools along with entertainment, socialisation, culturalization and information (Bajrami & Shabani, 2019).

Besides news producing, journalism also focuses on how to represent it. News narratives are supposed to offer a limited and re-produced or demolished image of what they cover. The appearances about the social realities do not have a powerful meaning unless they are turned into news texts. Thus, media professionals while creating media items also improve some stereotypes, prejudices and attitudes against some groups which is described as otherization, alienation or marginalisation. Therefore, social science and media studies have focused on the representation of cultural diversity, minorities or opposition groups on different occasions. Studies that look for these exemplifications suggest that the media representations are those which reinforce the existing norms and discrimination in society. Chomsky

and Herman in this regard state that the media standardize the information through disseminating it and because the audiences do not oppose this communication they also contribute to this standardisation. They then relate this to *manufacturing consent* which refers to the moral and ideological dominancy of the media on the people (Chomsky and Herman, 1994).

Media while otherising any group, individual or ideology usually humiliates them through discriminatory stereotyping making it difficult to know whether this discrimination is based on racism, xenophobia or nationalism which are all interrelated. Here racism emerges without race or getting out of its biological circle but goes further to reject any cultural diversity. Thus, discrimination in the media can form any economic, social, cultural or political hegemony and serve to strengthen the effect of dominancy (Bonilla-Silva and Dietrich, 2011).

Moreover, media elites present an ideological circle for social groups and events that mainstream society has less information about. Dijk states that the media elites shape the approaches regarding minorities because they are sufficiently influential to access the public sphere (Van Dijk, 2008: p. 107). He also states that as the mainstream people are not appropriately well in touch with the minorities within their society, they structure their approaches through the media representation rather than interacting directly with them. He found that the immigrants were usually mentioned in English and Dutch newspapers through an immoral identity context such as crime and violence and that the interviews with the audiences concluded that racism was being reproduced and people were directed by the press for how to think and speak about the ethnic minorities (Van Dijk, 1991: p. 254). For instance, in the research conducted by Haynes and others, it was demonstrated that the Irish print media caused a misrepresentation of immigrants within Irish society based on fear (Haynes et. al, 2006). In parallel with this study, Murji also found that the representation of foreigners was not different from the existing mainstream stereotypes in his study which examined the imagination of others in the Commission for Racial Equality (CRE) advertisements (Murji, 2006: p. 278). Again, Ocando in this context suggests that pro-asylum campaigns by NGOs in the USA also “tend to frame pro-asylum seekers in terms of race” (Ocando, 2010: p. 116).

The term *Islamophobia* has also been examined by researchers, especially after the 9/11 USA attacks in terms of media and cultural diversity relations. Hollander, in her research, suggests that the 9/11 attacks have increased ‘discrimination’ towards Muslims in America and that this discrimination has been fed by white racist traditions. Of course, Islamophobia attracted many researchers around the world such as Hussain and Miller’s *Multicultural Nationalism: Islamophobia, Anglophobia, and Devolution*; Allen’s *Islamophobia* (Allen, 2010), Lean’s *The Islamophobia Industry* and Feket’s *A Suitable Enemy: Racism, Migration and Islamophobia in Europe* (Feket, 2009). Again, in this context, in the article

examining racism and Islamophobia in Australia, Dunn and his colleagues state that the current Muslim stereotypes are recreated through racialization supported by the perceptions of threat and authorisation. Following this, they also indicate that destructive media representations of Muslims in the country are intensely associated with the antipathetic political discourse (Hussain and Miller, 2006).

The discrimination of diversities or racist approaches in the last century is influenced by the representation of the media (television, cinema, print and online media) and their ability while structuring a superior imaginary nation at a distance from others. Media outlets while structuring this discriminative narrative may apply legitimization such as accusing the minorities of being the cause of uncertainty in the country and representing the mainstream as the main sufferer. Undoubtedly it will be incorrect to claim that media professionals are always doing this intentionally. However, because they usually benefit from the daily pre-determined formation and clichés while constructing the news, they cause the discriminative discourse to continue. In fact, what is important here is the approach of the media professionals. When they tend to judge an issue rather than inform about it, they seem to build a discriminative language (Signer et. al, 2011).

Education in a Multicultural Environment

Because many countries are now somehow accepting refugees due to social conflicts or wars multicultural education is now very much on the agenda of education systems and nowadays turns out to be an idea or a reform. Additionally, because students from diverse countries face difficulties when they move to new societies multicultural education endeavours to provide and create equal educational opportunities for all students from different racial, ethnic, religious, sexual, cultural and social-class groups (Bağcı and Efilci, 2019). Multicultural education hence changes the environment for students in which all mainstream and refugee ones feel free to express their opinions and reflect their diverse backgrounds so that mainstream communities may also benefit from the diversity there and enhance their point of view. Therefore, multicultural education is a program or a detailed organisation that administrators, teachers, policymakers and even politicians should carefully keep and consider (Banks, 2008).

While talking about multicultural education Banks and Banks seem to be the most prominent scholars of the related literature. They define it as “an idea, an educational reform movement, and a process whose major goal is to change the structure of educational institutions so that male and female students, exceptional students, and students who are members of diverse racial, ethnic, language, and cultural groups will have an equal chance to achieve academically in school. They more deeply dive into it and state that “the term multicultural education describes a wide variety of programs and practices related to educational equity, women, ethnic

groups, language minorities, low-income groups, and people with disabilities” (Banks & Banks, 2001).

Banks talks about five dimensions of multicultural education which are: content integration, the knowledge construction process, prejudice reduction, an equity pedagogy, and empowering school culture and social structure (Banks, 1995a). *Content integration* as might be understood from the names suggests that teachers should be benefitting from various cultures, ethnicities and religions to increase awareness of the students about diverse approaches and ethnicities. Thus, students will be able to deal with other disciplines and use different approaches and concepts belonging to other cultures. or deals with the extent to which teachers use examples and content from a variety of cultures (Bağcı and Bağcı, 2020). *The knowledge construction* process, on the other hand, describes how teachers help learners and students comprehend the intrapersonal or interpersonal prejudices they have investigated, and determine how the biases, frames of reference, and perspectives within a discipline influence how knowledge is constructed within it. Students also learn how to build knowledge themselves in this dimension (Bennett, 2011).

Being one of the main rules for a multicultural environment *prejudice reduction* talk about how teachers, educators and lecturers should teach people, students, and pupils how to reduce their prejudices and discriminative feelings against others (Kayhan et al., 2019). When considering psychological and behavioural sciences terms such as confirmation bias or cognitive bias it will be easier to understand that children come to educational institutions or schools carrying pre-learned judgements. Therefore curriculum, education materials and activities should carefully be organised by educational experts to help students with learning respect and tolerance towards others. These contents may include positive images, framing and discourses about the foreigners in the community or outreach to people (Kaya & Aydın, 2016).

An *equity pedagogy* is somehow about including students from diverse backgrounds and so that support them to be more successful within the society that they recently joined. Some studies suggest that when a student from different backgrounds get together and collaborate, they become more successful and instead of *social loafing* group motivation will speed them up and finish tasks more professionally and quickly (Bağcı et al., 2018). They get more productive when they are working with different ethnicities and cultures (*social facilitation*).

Students from different racial and ethnic groups must feel that they have equal status in intergroup interactions, teachers and administrators must value and support cross-racial interactions, and students from different racial groups must work together in teams to pursue common goals. Multicultural education was found to be effective in promoting educational achievements among immigrant students (Zaldana, 2010).

Aside from the dimensions mentioned above, it is better to note that structuring a multicultural atmosphere at schools is not only for the managers or the teachers. On the contrary, policymakers, politicians and ordinary citizens should work together to create a culturally diverse environment to make students have broader horizons and teach them how to be cooperative and live in peace with different ethnicities, cultures and religions. Therefore, to implement multicultural education successfully, teachers and administrators should be able to have longer policies and implement them without any hassle. This will in the long run help students and other staff habituate to living in a multicultural school setting and the wider environment. “An education system, which does not recognize its problems and challenges as they exist but instead creates superficial challenges and solutions, is bound to fail in the long run.” (Özturgut, 2011)

Conclusion

Multicultural education has many benefits although a multicultural setting may also sometimes cause tensions between diverse groups to arise. First of all, it is possible to state that people learn about themselves when they study with diverse cultures. They will increase self-awareness and learn more about their own cultures, perceptions and mentalities that their own community developed for years. While getting used to living with others they will be able to improve their ability to tolerate differences and easily adopt different cultures. Through communicating with others, the negative approaches may decrease, barriers might be overcome and they will be more open to dialogue and so to learning and personnel improvement.

Furthermore, multicultural education help students develop self-confidence as they will be able to see that they can easily contact others and learn from them. This will in the long run help them build trust as they start to understand each other and cooperate in solving the problems (*contact theory*). The more they trust others the more they will feel friendship and this will motivate them to be more successful. A multicultural class setting also will help students to be more creative as they can listen to people from diverse backgrounds and have different and sometimes innovative and traditional solutions for different issues.

Better to also note that people in a multicultural environment will also be able to develop effective communication, creativity and critical thinking skills. All these three are crucially important in a globalised and technologized world where people tend to have borders and software technologies do much on behalf of the human being. In this technological world not people with information overload will succeed but those who can be creative, collaborative and critical will. This is only possible when and where people can get out of their comfort zones and echo chambers. Multiculturalism thus will push people to talk to others and so improve their listening skills, and learning abilities highlighting common grounds developing

mutual understanding and meeting at the minimum common ground. Clegg and Banks put this as (Clegg & Banks, 1977):

An important goal of multicultural education is to help students acquire the knowledge and commitments needed to make reflective decisions and to take personal, social, and civic action to promote democracy and democratic living. Opportunities for action help students to develop a sense of personal and civic efficacy, faith in their ability to make changes in the institutions in which they live, and situations to apply the knowledge they have learned.

Nevertheless, all these activities and actions to make students more aware of multiculturalism should have a long life as it will be quite difficult for the students to acquire cultural diversity skills only through short processes and lectures. The activities should also be very informative and create a cognitive awareness through which people will be able to develop long-lasting behaviours and habits like tolerance, listening and respect. These actions may start from teaching them not to mock foreigners, have jokes about their cultural or religious lives to how to spend time in harmony with them to gain a broader cultural, religious and ideological point of view. These activities could be projects in which students can have intercultural communication and engage in multicultural social actions. Thus, when students learn and understand the perspective of those who are from diverse backgrounds, they will be able to more effectively to contribute educational and democratic progress of the society in which they live together.

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