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Table of Contents:

Youtubers' Effect on Children's Values: Parents' Views..…….…..…..1
Cihat Yasaroglu
Mehmet Ali Boylu.

Reflections of a Social Constructivist on Teaching Methods....…….…....16
Dr. Erdem Erciyes

2020 Vision: How a Global Pandemic and the Black Lives Matter Movement Focused our Teaching……...……27
Ramsey, Scott
Greeson, Kimberley M.
Affolter, Emily
Gano, Gretchen
Dunbar, Rachel

A Study on the Construct Validity of the Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale (BFNE)….……40
Sabahattin Çam
Esef Ercüment Yerlikaya

The Problems and Opinions of School Administrators during COVID-19 Pandemic: A Qualitative Study from Turkey....……57
Tufan Aytaç

Determining Children's Primary School Readiness Level.....……80

Yalçın Bay

Dondu Neslihan Bay

Performance Measures of the Academic Managerial Spine…...……..…..……..111

Nitza Davidovitch

Eyal Eckhaus

Play Like A Woman! An Overview of Gender from The Perspective of Physical Education Football Players' Female Students.....….131

Naci Kalkan

Sabiha Gizem Engin

Youtubers' Effect on Children's Values: Parents' Views

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Abstract

Introduction: Values are the criteria that affect a person's adequate knowledge, emotion, and behavior. Values education should include an effort to acquire values and prosocial behaviors in education. Role models are also an important resource in values education. Children's cognition, emotion, and behaviors are widely affected by YouTubers who are considered as symbolic role models. Parents, the other important figure in character education, try to mediate between family/social values and popular culture. This paper focuses on portraying parents' views on YouTubers' effect on children's values. Method: 365 parents participated in this research, and the survey research design based on a quantitative research was used. A questionnaire with three parts was developed by researchers, which is used for data collection. The first part is used to determine demographic information, the second part gathers information on parents' views about their children's daily routines and the time spend on YouTube, and the third part shows the effect of YouTubers on values. Based on the analysis carried out, the data collected by descriptive analysis such as mean and standard deviation were analyzed. Results: The findings reveal that YouTubers are not considered as role models. Parents have a negative attitude towards you tubers, and they worry about the time their children spend on YouTube.

Keywords: Information, Prosocial Behaviors, Social Influencers, Digital Moral.

Introduction

Value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence (Rokeach, 1973). The broad term "values education" encompasses and in practice often places a particular

emphasis on teaching civic and moral values. It is closely related to other terms in current use, including spiritual, moral, social and cultural development (Halstead & Taylor, 2000), and also character education (Lickona, 1991). Someone cannot talk about education without also talking about values education. Values education is an integral part of the educational process.

As excellent learners, children learn values in different ways (Slavin, 2008). Bandura and Mischel (1965) asserted three types of models in Social Learning Theory: live, verbal, and symbolic. Live models demonstrate behavior in person. A verbal instructional model explains or describes the behavior. A symbolic model can be fictional characters or real people who demonstrate behaviors in books, movies, television shows, video games, or internet sources. According to Bandura (2001), learning directly from models is a more efficient way of learning than others. Modeling influences serve diverse functions—as tutors, motivators, inhibitors, disinhibitors, social prompters, emotion arousers, and shapers of values and conceptions of reality (Bandura, 2001). As children observe their behaviors, it is probable to behave like these role models. Therefore, the role models' way of conduct is effective in values education.

Since parents are accepted as live and verbal models, children begin to learn values very early in life, initially from their families (Halstead & Taylor, 2000). Lickona (1991) accepted parents as children's first moral teachers and parents also have the most enduring influence. Supporting Lickona, Nursi (1995) claims the mother as "man's first master and most influential teacher." Learning and acquiring values go on with other sources like media, peers, playgroups, careers, local community and other agencies (Halstead & Taylor, 2000). In addition, children can take their role models from princess, heroes, and sports idols (Biskup & Pfister, 1999). Children can copy observed behavior. Bandura et al. (1961) found that children response aggressively to aggressive models.

Symbolic modeling provided by television, films, and other visual media is one of the most influential sources of social learning (Bandura, 1977). Human judgment, values, and conduct can be altered directly by televised modeling. The influence of models in activating, channeling, and supporting the behavior of others is abundantly documented in both laboratory and field studies. The types of models who predominate within a social milieu partly determine which human qualities, among many alternatives, are selectively activated (Bandura, 2001). In line with Vygotsky's zone of proximal development, children's media skills and media activities, next to parents' attitudes about media for children, and several children and parent-family characteristics (Nikken & Schols, 2015) can be considered important in values education.

Symbolic modeling is central to a full understanding of the effects of mass communication (Bandura, 2001). By the age of knowledge, the interest in the internet has increased and consequently, the internet has become the main part of one's daily life and educational systems as well (Halstead & Taylor, 2000). The internet, computer games, digital video, mobile phones, and other contemporary technologies provide new ways of mediating, communicating, and representing the world (Buckingham, 2015). Due to their screen size, mobility, ability to stream content, interactive capability and decreasing costs, mobile devices are fast becoming the preferred media choice for kids (LeBlanc et al., 2012). Children use mobile devices to play games, watch videos, communicate, take pictures, and access applications (Kabali et al., 2015). Outside the school, children engage with these media, not as technologies but as cultural forms (Buckingham, 2015).

Today, the internet and its social websites and interactive media (e.g., Facebook, YouTube) have created the do-it-yourself (DIY) celebrity (Driessens, 2012). Nowadays, people can develop their content and engage in applications of weblogs, social networking, and online journalism. They share their experiences and opinions about everything. Often starting as a hobby, creating online content on a personal blog or channel can become a fulltime job. By creating content on a daily basis, large communities are built up with thousands of loyal followers. YouTube is one of the most popular platforms on which creators share their content (Westenberg, 2016). YouTube remains a firm favorite among children. 5- to 15-year-olds are more likely to pick YouTube as their platform of choice over on-demand services (OFCOM, 2020). A poll conducted recently reported that over half of 1,000 children and teenagers between the ages of 6 and 17 who participated in the survey wanted to be a YouTuber or vlogger when they grew up. Similarly, another poll of 3,000 kids revealed that America's youth would prefer YouTube stardom over being an astronaut, a teacher, or even a famous musician (Tenbarge, 2019).

While high-profile YouTube stars remain popular, children are now increasingly drawn to influencers who are often local to their area, or who have a particular shared interest – known as 'micro' or 'nano' influencers. Influencers are generally social media users with more than 1.000.000 followers. Micro-influencers, on the other hand, are considered experts in a particular niche, for instance, cookery, fitness or fashion and have between 1,000 to 1,000,000 people as followers. Nano-influencers are social media users with 1,000 to 5,000 followers, and they are influential at a local level (OFCOM, 2020). YouTubers are an integral part of the teen culture as influencers and protagonists help to initiate the teenager into specifically aimed multimedia products. Also, they are both commercial brands and role models at the same time (Aran-Ramspott et al., 2018). Social influencers like YouTubers are used to spread messages rapidly among their large-scale

networks of loyal followers against relatively low costs (Westenberg, 2016). As they affect their followers with online contents, YouTubers can be considered as symbolic models according to Bandura's theory. Since YouTube offers easy-to-use graphical user interfaces and short videos, even children 2-3 years old can activate the next video from the playlist. Preventing children from watching or listening to harmful content is vital for the safe psychological development of children because of the high plasticity in young brains (Buzzi, 2012).

Researches report the child and internet relationship and the effect of technology. LeBlanc et al. (2012) found a dose-response relation between increased times spent watching television and decreased psychosocial health or cognitive development. Another study assumes that increased levels of electronic media use predicted poorer well-being outcomes (Hinkley et al., 2014). Exposure to TV and video games has been correlated with concerns of more significant problems. When earlier attention problems and gender were statistically controlled, the correlation of television and videogames with attention problems remained significant (Swing et al., 2010). Nowadays, children prefer watching YouTube content instead of television (Martínez & Olsson, 2019). Teachers and students use technology more frequently outside school than they do during class time (Means, 2010).

However, this inevitably falls within the interests and responsibilities of parents. Parents often try to protect their children by critically supervising the child, talking to the child about media content, monitoring the child's digital whereabouts, or applying restrictions to the content accessed or the length of time of media use. In contrast, parents who feel that the media offer educational or entertainment opportunities more often co-use the media with their child or actively discuss the content. Both negative and positive expectations can trigger greater involvement of parents and therefore increase awareness of potential and actual problems (Nikken & de Haan, 2015).

Children might also benefit from the supervision as they attempt to evaluate the content of videos. Concerning young people carrying out personal or school research related to political or social issues, teenagers need to be mindful so as not to solely seek out the YouTubers who express opinions with which they agree (Preece, 2017).

Looking at the statistics, children's homes in 2019 are increasingly 'connected' and smart technology is becoming a more commonplace (OFCOM, 2020). Almost all children used mobile devices, and most of them have started using it before the age of one. Parents provide children devices when doing house chores to keep them calm, and at bedtime (Kabali et al., 2015). Barbovschi et al. (2015) reported daily internet use at home as 67%. Most households had television, tablets, and smartphones. Content delivery applications such as YouTube and Netflix (Kabali et al., 2015) were popular.

Also, tablets are the most popular devices (OFCOM, 2020). Digital 2020 research indicates that 74% of the population of Turkey have access to the internet. These users spend an average of 7.5 hours on the internet, and YouTube is the second popular digital platform that they visit (Digital 2020 - We Are Social, n.d.).

Recently, more attention has focused on technology and its effect on children. Well-being (Hinkley et al., 2014), app economy and mobile parenting (Burroughs, 2017), negotiation of girls about YouTubers (Martínez & Olsson, 2019), the effect of video games on prosocial behaviors (Gentile et al., 2009), parenting mediation and support (Nikken & de Haan, 2015; Zaman & Mifsud, 2017), toddlers' online viewing (Elias & Sulkin, 2017), parents' views on children's media usage (Dinleyici et al., 2016), electronic media communication among opposite genders (Boniel-Nissim et al., 2015), video sharing web sites as an alternative educational environment (Ata & Atik, 2016), the influence of YouTubers on teenagers and children (Ramos-Serrano & Herrero-Diz, 2016; Westenberg, 2016), YouTubers' social functions and their influence on pre-adolescence (Aran-Ramspott et al., 2018), and YouTubers as role models (Alzara, 2019) are some prominent studies of the field.

Previous studies show that there is no data on parents' views about the effect of YouTubers on children values. As YouTube is the most widely used platform which children are exposed to in the world, its content is watched inevitably, and its content can shape children's values as well. Therefore, the effect of YouTubers on values is considered essential. As the effect of YouTubers has not been searched, it is hoped that this research would contribute to the literature and help policymakers, families, and educators.

The Aim of the Research

The purpose of this study is to determine the view of parents on YouTubers effect on children's values. Survey research designs are quantitative research procedures whereby researchers survey a sample or entire population of individuals to describe population attitudes, opinions, behaviors or characteristics (Creswell, 2012).

Method

Participants

The study participants consisted of 365 student parents. The demographic distribution of the parents is as follows: 143 of the parents who participated in the research are male, and 217 are female. 88.6% of the participants are between ages 20-39, and 31.4% are between ages 40-64. Three hundred and seven (85.3%) participants stated that they are from middle socioeconomic status, 11 (3%) of the participants stated that they are from

high socioeconomic status, and 42 (11.7%) stated that they have low income. When the origin of the participants are taken into consideration, 12.7% (46 people) of the parents in the study group live in the Mediterranean Region, 18.8% (68 people) in the Eastern Anatolia Region, 13.6% (49 people) in the Aegean Region, 14.1% (51 people) in the Southeastern Anatolia Region, 11.9% (43 people) in the Central Anatolia Region, 6.9% (25 people) in the Black Sea Region, and 21.9% (79 people) in the Marmara Region. While the parents who affirmed using a family filter consist of 36.3% of the participants, and the parents who stated no using a family filter are 43.5%, the ratio of the parents who do not know what a family filter is consist of 20.2% of the participants. Also, 14.1% of the parents have one child, 49.9% have two children, 24.1% have three children, 9.7% have four children, and 2.2% have five or more children. Furthermore, 84 (21.5%) parents have children attending the first grade, 115 (29%) parents have children attending the second grade, 84 (21.5%) parents have children attending the third grade, and 114 (28.70%) parents have children attending the fourth grade.

Instruments

A questionnaire with three parts was developed by researchers to be used for data collection. First part is to determine demographic information like gender, region, educational level of the family, and children's grade. The second part gathers information on parents' views about their children's daily routines and the time spend on YouTube. In order to determine parents' attitude about YouTubers' effect on children's values and character, the participants are asked to answer 23 items questions utilized on a 5-point Likert scale which is found to be highly reliable (alfa = .95). Examples of the items are "YouTubers positively affect the value of Love." and "YouTubers, positively affect the moral values." The mean score between 1.00-1.80 is accepted as "Strongly Disagreed", 1.81-2.60 "Disagreed", 2.61-3.40 "Disagree Moderately", 3.41-4.20 "Agree", and 4.21-5.00 "Strongly Agree".

Procedure

Before undertaking the research, ethical clearance was obtained from Bingöl University for the present study. The study included an anonymous online survey administered. The survey link was sent to parents via cell phones and was posted on social media platforms like Facebook and Twitter. Of the study population, 435 parents completed the questionnaire. After the answers were checked, 74 responses were eliminated because of missing data. Data management and analysis were performed using SPSS 25.0.

FINDINGS

Parents' Views about their Children's Daily Routines and the Time Spent on YouTube

When the parents' views on the use of YouTube by children are examined, it can be seen that the rate of parents who stated that their child spends 0-2 hours a day on YouTube is 71.5%, 19.9% for 3-4 hours, 6.1% for 5-6 hours, and 1.9% for 7 hours or more. The ratio of the parents who stated that they are concerned about the time that their children spend on YouTube is 51.1% (184 parents), the ratio of the parents who stated that they are partially concerned is 36.1% (130 parents), and the ratio of the parents who stated that they are not concerned is 12.8% (46 parents). 60.5% of the parents think that there is no change in the face to face interaction of their children with their friends, 35.2% stated that meetings are reduced, and 4.4% think that meetings are increased. While 29.6% of the parents stated that their children's emotional states do not change after spending time on YouTube, 25.4% stated that sometimes their children are unhappy, 7.4% stated that their children are mostly unhappy, 33.3% stated that their children are generally happy, and 4.3% stated that their children are always happy.

Regarding the question of whether they talk to their children about the YouTube content that their children watch, 4.7% of the parents stated that they never talk, 42.1% stated that they sometimes talk, 41.6% stated that they usually talk, and 11.6% stated that they always talk. Two hundred and nine (58.2%) parents think that sometimes YouTube content contradicts the values that they teach, while 27 parents (7.5%) think that the YouTube content always contradicts the values that they teach.

Parents were asked to indicate by making multiple choices who is the most important role model in shaping the values of their children. Accordingly, 95% of the parents stated that parents are the most important role models. In this question, where multiple choices are possible, 71.7% perceive teachers as the second most important role models. This is followed by the peer group with 56% and finally YouTubers with 16.6%.

Twenty-four (6.7%) parents would like their children to be YouTubers, and 331 parents (91.9%) do not want their children to be YouTubers. The number of parents whose children are already YouTubers is only 5 (1.4%). While the rate of parents who welcomed their children following YouTubers is 8.2%, the rate of those who do not want or do not support is 91.8%. One hundred and forty-nine parents stated that their children take YouTubers as examples, 152 parents put forward that their children do not take YouTubers as examples, and 59 parents stated that they are not aware whether their children take YouTubers as examples or not. While the parents who see Youtubers as the most important role models constitute the 16.6% of the total

parents, the ratio of the parents who do not see YouTubers as the most important role model is 83.4%.

Parents' Views about the Effect of YouTubers on Values

Questions regarding the YouTubers' effects on the formation of students' values were asked to the parents. The answers given by the parents were analyzed using the 5-point Likert scale. It was seen that the parents' opinions regarding all the questions except one is averaged between 1.98 and 2.78 and were within the evaluation ranges of "Disagree" and "Moderately Agree". According to this, parents think that YouTubers positively affect children to behave positively ($\bar{x}$ = 2.16; *sd* = .93), have a positive perspective on life ($\bar{x}$ = 2.08; *sd* = .88), daily decisions taken ($\bar{x}$ = 2.16; *sd* = .88), their values ($\bar{x}$ = 2.01, *sd* = 1.04), and establishing positive family ties ($\bar{x}$ = 1.99, *sd* = .68). The parents' opinions regarding YouTubers being a part of children's daily life ($\bar{x}$ = 2.3, *sd* = 1.14), watching YouTubers broaden horizons ($\bar{x}$ = 2.25, *sd* = 1.01), increase happiness ($\bar{x}$ = 2.32, *sd* = .97), and making children gain new skills ($\bar{x}$ = 2.16, *sd* = .96) are between "I strongly disagree" evaluation range. Parents only have moderately positive views about YouTubers affecting the children positively based on their profession choices ($\bar{x}$ = 2.78, *sd* = 1.08).

Several statements were presented to parents to determine the effect of YouTubers on student values, and parents were asked to state the effects of YouTubers on these values. Nearly all the scores regarding the values are in the "I strongly disagree" evaluation range when the mean scores regarding the answers given by the parents were considered. The following are the findings based on the values: Respect ($\bar{x}$ = 1.98, *sd* = .87), moral values ($\bar{x}$ = 1.99, *sd* = .93), responsibility ($\bar{x}$ = 2.03, *sd* = .92), righteousness ($\bar{x}$ = 2.04, *sd* = .89), integrity ($\bar{x}$ = 2.04, *sd* = .92), compassion ($\bar{x}$ = 2.07, *sd* = .87), tolerance ($\bar{x}$ = 2.08, *sd* = .89), self-control ($\bar{x}$ = 2.08, *sd* = .88), charity ($\bar{x}$ = 2.09, *sd* = .91), empathy ($\bar{x}$ = 2.10, *sd* = .88), patriotism ($\bar{x}$ = 2.10, *sd* = .98), friendship ($\bar{x}$ = 2.19, *sd* = .89), and benevolence ($\bar{x}$ = 2.19, *sd* = .93).

Conclusion

This study was carried out to explain parents' views on the effects of YouTubers on the values of the primary school children. Nearly half of the parents use a family filter for the internet. Almost one-third of the parents stated that they do not use a family filter, whereas one-fifth of the parents stated that they do not know what a family filter is. Family filters can filter the content that the parents cannot control. OFCOM data indicate that nearly half of the parents use a family filter. Almost half of all the parents whose children use a tablet or a cell phone reported that they know how to use a family filter (OFCOM, 2020).

When the parents' opinions regarding the time that their children spend on YouTube were gotten, most of the parents stated that their children spend 0-2 hours on YouTube. However, the online time spent is 0-2 hours according to the parents' statements, and the internet surfing rate in Turkey is 74%. Users spend 7.5 hours online on average, and YouTube is the second most visited platform. American Psychiatric Association recommends that children aged 2 and under should not have more than 2 hours of screen time. When the parents' opinions are considered, it can be said that children's screen time complies with APA data. According to different results from other studies (Kabali et al., 2015), children under 1-year-old use telephones because parents let their children use smartphones before putting them to bed or while they are doing chores so that the children behave. However, OFCOM data (2019) pointed out in 2019 that houses with children are more "connected" and "smart." In another study, Gentile et al. (2014) reported that nearly half of the children in the sampling group have access to the screen time. Even though the screen time increased in Turkey due to the COVID-19 outbreak (BAU, n.d.), the time stated by parents can be considered normal. This fact can be regarded as positive for student development. Generally, there is a negative correlation between the time spent watching TV and success. On the other hand, there is a positive correlation between being introverted and ostracized, having social and attention problems, anger issues and crimes, and spending time in front of the TV (Özmert et al., 2002).

Another result points out that most of the parents are concerned about the time that their children spend on YouTube. Parents do not think that the time spent on YouTube seriously affects the time the students spend face to face with their friends. One-third of the total parents stated that the interaction between their children and friends decreases. In addition, nearly one-third of the parents stated that there are no changes in the emotional state after spending time on YouTube. One-third stated that they observed their children being happier, while the remaining one-third stated that they observed their children being sadder. This finding point out that YouTube content has different effects on the emotional state of children. In another study, Gentile

et al. (2014) stated that screen time (TV/film, video games, computer games) keeps children away from social and physical activities.

Half of the parents, who participated in the research, spoke to their children about YouTube content. OFCOM data reports that most of the parents spoke to their children about online safety (OFCOM, 2020). Parents must talk to and guide their children about the contents they watch since the family is the place where values are gained. Parental guidance is vital since children learn right and wrong from their families. For example, Turkmen Karaağaç (2015) states that parents should talk to their children about the interpretation of the advertisements and the content regarding watching TV. Furthermore, Turkmen Karaağaç (2015) stated that children should be guided so they can understand the difference between reality and fiction, and learn that problems can be solved without violence.

According to more than half of the parents, the values of the content that their children watch contradict their morals. This contradiction can be explained by the conflict between the priorities of parents and children, and parents' tendencies to protect their values. Preece (2017) put forward that teenagers and children prefer watching YouTube content that is coherent with their ideas. On the contrary, Westenberg (2016) stated that parents observe the online behaviors of children, and they do not know the Youtubers that the children watch. On the other hand, YouTubers can misbehave in some videos. Teenagers, who find misbehaving funny or cool video, may imitate the behaviors that can cause them to get into trouble, and it can be said that such situations cause problems between the parents and children.

According to this study, while parents regard mothers, fathers, teachers, and the peer group, respectively, as the most important role models, they also stated that YouTubers are the least important role models. Parents do not see YouTubers as important role models in the formation of values for their children. Stating parents as the most critical role model can be interpreted as the parents' being aware of the fact that parents are the most crucial value transmitter in values education (Lickona, 1991). Teachers were seen as the second most important role models in this study. The public expects teachers to assume a role that reflects moral values since teachers are effective in teenagers' and children's life (Lumpkin, 2008). However, some studies also point out different results. For example, Sanderse (2013) claimed that teachers misbehave sometimes. Bricheno and Thornton (2018) stated in their study that only 2.4% of parents take teachers as role models. The research of Christus Rex Information Service (Biskup & Pfister, 1999) pointed out that only 10% of the participants took pop stars as role models. Even though few of the participants stated that they took people who are in their close circle as role models, they do not count teachers among them. It can be said that teachers have higher values in Turkish culture.

Another result points out that parents do not want their children to be YouTubers. The ratio of the parents whose children take YouTubers as role models and those who do not are nearly similar. Besides, parents do not approve of their children to follow a YouTuber. When these three results are considered, while children have YouTubers in their lives, parents do not want their children to be like YouTubers or take them as examples. One of the reasons for this is that parents perceive YouTube contents as a threat to the family structure. It can be said that various YouTuber's behaviors or statements do not suit the value system of the families/viewers. According to Alzara (2019), not all YouTube content is entirely negative, but parents not being aware of this fact can have adverse consequences. In addition, as stated above, parents not perceiving YouTubers as the most important role models correspond to the study findings of Westenberger (2016). Although children try to be more like their favorite YouTubers, most of the parents do not approve of this tendency. Parents' negative perceptions of YouTubers can explain this finding.

Parents are concerned about the time that their children spent on YouTube. Very few parents are not concerned. There are studies in the literature that have similar results. For example, Alzara's (2019) study also found that parents are concerned about their children watching YouTube. In the literature, it is possible to see studies in parallel with this result.

Based on this study, parents do not believe that YouTubers have positive effects on children's values, are part of their lives, help children to gain positive perspectives towards life, help the children gain positive behaviors, make positive decisions in their daily lives, contribute to values education and family ties, broaden the children's horizons, and contribute to their happiness and in gaining new skill gain. The parents partially believe that YouTubers contribute to the profession selection of the children. Similarly, parents do not believe that YouTubers contribute to children's values such as respect, moral values, responsibility, righteousness, integrity, compassion, tolerance, self-control, charity, empathy, patriotism, friendship, and benevolence.

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Reflections of a Social Constructivist on Teaching Methods

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Abstract

This paper aims to examine how the combination of theory and practice work effectively in teaching and supporting the learning process. Action research methodology was followed in the research by designing a plan of action in the practicing environment. The research focuses on the interaction of the researcher and participants. Mixed approaches of social science heavily influenced this research by implementing social constructivist understanding of teaching methods. The mixed teaching approach of Biggs and Tang, *constructive alignment*, was used in teaching sessions by utilizing social constructivist theory, reflexivity, intended learning outcomes, assessment tasks, peer review, and teaching learning activities. The findings of this research present practical recommendations for scholars. Constructive alignment feedback should encourage students to express whether or not their learning is improved in relation to learning outcome. Preparing more visual aids and a greater relaxed atmosphere would possibly help to gain an enhanced level of students' attention for an indirect but more efficient participation. There is an urgent need for teaching skills through master-classes workshops such as "Teaching with Emotional Intelligence", "Assessment of/for Learning", and "Creating Productive Classroom Environments".

Keywords: Social constructivism, constructive alignment, self-reflexion, teaching methods, academic teaching.

Introduction

Social constructivism seeks to understand how humans interpret or construct issues in social, linguistic, and historical contexts (Schwandt, 2001). The knowledge of social constructivism is shaped by oneself and the participants' experiences, views, and background knowledge (Creswell, 2013; Smith et al., 2012; Howell & Annansingh, 2013). "Constructions are not more or less true in any absolute sense but simply more or less informed or more

sophisticated. Constructions are alterable, as are their associated realities" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p.111).

Social constructivism itself is created through interaction of teacher and students. As a result, constructivism creates and develops knowledge through the investigation process. The results are then created by consensus and individual constructions with the investigator's compositions (Howell & Annansingh, 2013). In this research, the researcher followed a social constructivist view of learning which emphasizes the importance of shaping knowledge by increasing the participation of learners (Scribner, 1985; Cole, 1990; Rust et al., 2005).

During the researcher's undergraduate period and after his graduate studies, he was not concerned of the possibility of becoming a professor in the future. However, in lieu of focusing on teaching methods, he only concentrated on passing his university courses. Yet, at the stage of his doctorate degree, his outlook changed as this degree gave him the option of becoming a professor in two years. Therefore, in line with this view, he has been trying to develop his teaching skills through analysing the literature of teaching approaches and observing the methodology of professors. To complement these means, he has also been relying on a few teaching experiences that he previously had. Back in 2004, for a period of 4 months, the researcher taught a class on military writing rules. Later in 2012, he taught a class on military management systems for a three-month course. Although these short teaching periods may not be deemed as enough experience for an instructor, yet they did provide a basic understanding of the methodology of teaching classes. Furthermore, he has experience working at army human resource management units during his professional working years in the military and as a result he is rather familiar with practices of army management and its writing rules. Also, has tried to transfer this practice-based knowledge to other students. Presently, the researcher tasked himself with discovering more efficient ways to link students with each other, and instructions, with the goal of passing on his know-how from research and experience to them.

The course in question is one regarding the topic of leadership where the students had learned the main motivation theories in existing literature. This was done a week before commencement. For this reason, the assumption of their basic familiarity and understanding regarding motivation concepts could be taken just the way it was given. Moreover, some of these students have had work experience as foreign employees in Switzerland. To this end, their participation and opinions were very valuable in the lesson.

The Research Methodology

The research design of the study illustrates interactions of the researcher and inquiry in social science which investigates ideas and activities that are difficult to observe or interpret. This research establishes flexible, interactive, explorative, and qualitative research designs. In addition, it provides an in-depth understanding as it relates to the research topic. Although utilizing abductive reasoning is of significant importance, it helps to establish a more flexible and free research environment during the process of knowledge production. Based on the methodology of the research, action research was used. The researcher was involved actively at every step of the research process and reflected his observations from praxis.

Lewin et al. (1939), as the pioneers of action research, combined their work with the idea of doing experiments. They utilized the results of experiments gained in the workplace and took them well beyond their socio-technical design to develop a theory (Gustavsen, 2001, 2008; Bradbury et al., 2013). Thus, action research deals with cases in the field or real world (Greenwood & Levin, 2000). Nowadays, action research is mostly used for enhancing conditions and practice in administrative, leadership, social, and community setting environments (Craig, 2009). The inquiry of action research identified the research problem and designed a plan of action in the practicing environment. To reach a conclusion for improving practice, the observations and reflections of the researcher were gathered and analyzed. The research methodology provided involvement of the researcher.

The plan of the research comprises of five steps: (1) Session design, (2) Teaching session, (3) Learning outcomes (4) Peer review, (5) Self-reflection. Data gathering for this action research was in the second and third steps. Before action research, formal permission was taken from the university. In addition, details of the research were shared with the participants and their consents were granted.

Structure, learner activity and participation, professionalism materials and resources, areas of strengths and weakness, and overall impression are main headings of data analysis. These headings were also provided to the research colleague before the peer review section.

The researcher gave two hours teaching lessons as a guest lecture on a second-year undergraduate leadership course in a private Swiss university. Ten students of different nationalities – Russian, Azerbaijani, Swiss, Swedish, Indian, Romanian, Ukrainian, and Pakistani – participated, while only one was of the female gender. Also, some of the students have business experience in the multinational work environment. While choosing university and participants, random samplings and volunteerism principle were utilized.

During the teaching session, the researcher spoke about “Motivation concept”, as he was very familiar with it because he has been working on it

for almost two years. The researcher wanted to show students how theory and practice can complement each other and how knowledge gained from their academic life can be useful in their subsequent work cycle. Then again, he did not view this lesson as a one-way street. The students' participation was also an important element of the project because an essential aspect of his studies is the examination of the role of foreign employees in a multinational work environment. While looking at the students' profiles – such as their work experiences in a multinational setting, diverse nationalities, living in a cosmopolitan environment, and education in international universities with professors from a wide array of countries – he thought that it could be a good opportunity to gain from their perspectives for the advancement of his doctoral thesis as well.

The researcher asked many questions from the students, initiated numerous discussions, and encouraged them to express their opinions freely while in his class. Thus, this helps to stimulate their participation in support of the teaching sessions. The belief behind this method lies on the importance of creating an ongoing relationship between the two main actors in a learning process: the teacher and the student. Moreover, he had two general aims for this process: firstly, transferring his knowledge, and secondly, gathering the students' perspectives to reflect them back onto his understanding. In order to realize these aims, and to minimize the separation gap which normally exists between teachers and pupils, he tried to follow a friendlier approach rather than the customary approach. The main difficulty he foresaw was the session's starting time, 9.30 AM. Since it is the first class of the day, it became important to find a mechanism for gaining the students' attention. As a result, he would begin class by recounting some jokes. Afterwards, he would talk about future projects, discuss general daily issues, and share some anecdotes. At the end of all these conversations, he would usually connect them with the doctoral topic and tried to infer to the students what Kant (1995) had mentioned when he concluded that "theory and practice are two sides of the same coin, and therefore, they should not be separated but should instead be reflected whole in each other".

Findings

Under a constructivist approach, the researcher specially focused on the interactive discussion element by looking at the student's own perspective about motivation. He also stated how they constructed the meanings of motivation. Basically, he looked for the meaning of motivation to them. After then, he opened a discussion about the definition of motivation and later developed one general definition that was shaped by the students' own perspectives. Finally, he connected this definition to similar previous motivation theories. Interestingly, the students brought their individual experiences and tried to create a common definition by listening to each other

views and comparing them with prevalent theories. Hence, this constructive approach helped him so much to combine theory and practice.

Furthermore, his approach does not only take into consideration constructivist theory but a combination of theories, intended learning outcomes, teaching/learning activities, and their evaluation. He followed Biggs and Tang's (2011) constructive alignment teaching approach. Rather than following traditional theory-based approaches, he aims to focus on what students should do to learn effectively. According to this approach, two principles are necessary: "a constructivist theory of learning and alignment between the intended learning outcomes of the course, the teaching/learning activities and the assessment tasks" (Ibid: 95). "Intended learning outcomes are written from the students' perspective, indicating the level of understanding and performance they are expected to achieve as a result of engaging in the teaching and learning experience" (Ibid: 100). In the feedback process of teaching sessions, he included the intended learning outcomes in each teaching session as activities and assessed if the students have reached the intended outcomes or not.

In regards to his feedback, he asked the students at the end of the session if they gained a better understanding about motivation concept, if they can explain how motivation theories have been shaped by history, and if they can explain how to combine theory and practice in the research process. Moreover, in the beginning of the session, he presented intended outcomes to the students. At the end of the session, he returned to the page of learning outcomes and inquired from the students if they felt the learning outcomes have been achieved, and they confirmed that such was the case. However, one of the shortcomings was that he should have asked them how they learnt what he taught them. He realized that within constructive alignment, feedback should focus on what Biggs and Tang (2011, p.97) refer to as "not only what is to be learned, the topic, but how it is to be learned and to what standards". Thus, the teacher should encourage students to express if their learning is improved in relation to learning outcome.

Discussion

Reflexivity provides a mutual and continuing interaction between the self and knowledge. The self develops knowledge but it is also developed through knowledge (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009). Teaching and learning have a similar relationship which can be defined as mutual reflective. Thanks to the interaction between teacher and learners, the one teaching may come to learn new things from the students as well. Therefore, this reflexive relationship establishes and changes the person teaching as well.

The researcher did not spend an inordinate amount of time to develop the presentation content because before preparing it, he spoke with the regular teacher of the class regarding what the students had already learned. Also, he

examined the class syllabus and later realized that the research topic fit rather well with the flow of his lessons. With this understanding, he decided to devote two hours of teaching the students in this process after they had learned the main motivation theories. He developed the presentation information based on his doctoral thesis. In lieu of spending too much time gathering information, he focused on the session design and plan, and on how he could improve students' possible assimilation of knowledge. Moreover, he also saw this lesson as an opportunity. He desired to see theoretical knowledge reflect upon those who have basic information about motivation, culture and leadership, and also those who have some work experience in a multinational work environment. As a result, he constructed the lessons' instructions based on the students' participation and his doctoral research. However, he came to realize that, as an alternative to having asked many questions in order to stimulate their participation, he could have prepared more visual aids and a greater relaxed atmosphere to have possibly gained an enhanced level of their attention for an indirect but more efficient participation on their behalf.

Moreover, in the pursuit of creating a sincerer class environment, despite the strategy of sharing anecdotes in a humorous context, he was not as successful in gaining the students' full attention as had desired. Thus, this is mainly due to his formal academic approach. Looking back, he believes this was perhaps his principal mistake with roots lying on the fact that a sophomore undergraduate class normally lacks the proper philosophic background necessary for the success of the approach he utilized. Even yet, the students ended up learning general leadership, culture, and motivation theories. Likewise, he came to realize that the students had learned only mere common and basic materials from their previous lessons and surprisingly had forgotten many points which they had been familiarized with merely a week before. For his future lectures, one of the first things that he will take into consideration is simplifying his arguments per the level of students' discernment.

In the two hours' lesson he delivered as a guest lecturer, he did not relay his session plan and presentation to the regular teacher of the class in advance. Instead, he only examined the class syllabus and generally discussed what he had seen him talk about in his session. However, rethinking the situation according to his current conclusions, he realizes that if he had consulted with the regular teacher of the class prior to delivering his lesson, most likely she could have warned him about the level of the students' understanding so he could have avoided speaking over their heads and planned his session accordingly. Therefore, he can admit now that he had falsely assumed that for the planning of the lesson. Also, he should only take into consideration his own perspective of the manner in which the class should be conducted. Yet it is obvious that the regular teacher of the class was an integral component of the process. This, however, is just as instrumental as his own

knowledge and the successful planning of the session. Hence, the proper strategy aims to combine his own knowledge of theory and practice with the understanding and experience of the regular teacher, vis-à-vis his students' background and frame of mind.

Feedback has been recognised by many scholars as the most important component of the learning process (Hattie, 1987; Black & William, 1998; Gibbs & Simpson, 2002; Rust et al., 2005). According to the social constructivist approach, students' active participation in response to the feedback process is just as important as an element (Rust et al., 2005). As a result, students have been encouraged to participate in feedback activity which is very important for reaching intended learning outcomes.

As a public-school graduate, the researcher has attended such institutions even for his higher education pursuits. Likewise, his previous teaching experiences were rendered in public school settings. According to his limited experience, student profiles are different depending on if they are attending public or private university. In the recent class, which he conducted, unfortunately a number of the students seemed as if they were not pursuing their higher education out of their own freewill and were perhaps forced by circumstances, such as their parents' desire to attend. Also, he made this conclusion based on his observations of their behaviour, such as a few who seemed aloof during the lesson. Still, he did make a special attempt to involve them in the discussion and learning process but they did not show any interest to answer any of the questions put to them. Even when he heard something incorrect but meaningful from them, he tried to encourage their independent opinions. Still, he felt as if there was something more that he could have done to reach them. For example, in the planning phase of his session, he could have prepared a more flexible and adaptable strategy that took into consideration this little but important detail.

In order to gain deeper and well-defined reflections, peer review activity was also utilized in this research. It has two dimensions. Firstly, the research was reviewed by his colleague. He viewed this peer review activity as an opportunity and tried not to err in his judgement. Listening to an external opinion is very useful for finding one's strengths and weaknesses. According to his reviewer, there are no problems regarding his level of knowledge, way of presentation, or demonstration of special issues in order to raise students' class participation. His main problem seems to lie in finding ways to simplify the information. The review also helped him to remember one of his communication problems. In his conversations, he falsely assumes that the person listening to him must have some basic knowledge of what he is speaking of. Conclusively, there is no need to discuss the relevant details to help them fully understand what he is trying to say. Consequently, he needs to learn the methodology for expressing himself in a more comprehensive and

simplified manner, and not just as a lecturer. Another important lesson expounded by the review was the importance of actively utilizing short clips and videos in a lecture. For his next lecture, he will give special attention to this review.

For the second stage of the peer review project, he reviewed his colleague's weaknesses and strengths. However, even before beginning the review, he made a mental map of what constitutes positive and negative comportments of a teacher. This process was not just very useful for the purposes of the review but also because it helped him remember his previous teaching experiences. In addition, during the review process, he got the opportunity to compare his teaching approach to that of his colleague. Observing this different method helped him with the realization of important details regarding teaching, such as: how to provide clarity, how to establish good communication between teacher and students, and how to discern the level of students' understanding.

In his future lectures, he is planning to attain more knowledge from student feedback while he is constructing his lecture. In order to achieve this, he will ask for their anonymous written feedback. It would also be helpful to ask oneself: "If I was one of my own students in this class, what would raise my interest in the topic at question?" Therefore, he will put himself in the students' shoes next time he is to prepare a lecture. One of the good things that he admired about his colleague was how she developed her teaching technique according to the profile of the student. She connected the lesson with his special interests. It has to be taken into consideration though her lessons were administered to individuals on a one-to-one basis, which made it more conducive to focus on students' profiles. In addition, the same technique would be more difficult in regards to large classes. For larger classes, perhaps, it would be more realistic to focus on the overall profile of the class and the lessons would be tailored accordingly.

Another issue which the peer review opportunity made him aware of is that in order to discover the level of the class and students, it is perhaps a good idea to administer an introduction test to the students and form the class and teaching approach according to the results. Another important lesson which he learned from his colleague is to put the same question to the students from different angles and perspectives in order to reach them more efficiently. This approach reminded him of Einstein's famous quote: "Insanity is doing the same thing over and over again and expecting different results." Thus, he must learn to utilize different approaches with the goal of reaching the same destination. Overall though, it was very useful to discuss teaching techniques with a colleague. Sharing mutual ideas provided a better understanding of learning and developing efficient ways of teaching.

Conclusion

The researcher has a very limited teaching experience and this limited experience becomes a valuable opportunity to highlight what is weakness in teaching. Most especially, during peer review process, he has benefited from his colleague's teaching approach because contrary to him, she is an active researcher and has many experiences about teaching. Therefore, her methods such as providing sincere teaching environment and using different teaching incentives gave him some clues about how to develop a good teaching exercise. He has also realized that he should observe more teaching sessions of experienced scholars and he should seek voluntary teaching opportunities for himself to gain more experiences.

In addition, the two-hours teaching session has helped the researcher to see areas that needs improvement, such as gaining the students' full attention as desired, simplifying arguments, and preparing a more flexible session plan. In order to develop teaching ability, he concluded that there is an urgent need for a more professional development in teaching. Examples includes teaching skills master-classes workshops such as "Teaching with Emotional Intelligence", "Assessment of/for Learning", and "Creating Productive Classroom Environments".

In a nutshell, constructive alignment feedback should encourage students to express if their learning is improved in relation to learning outcome or not. Preparing more visual aids and a greater relaxed atmosphere has possibly gained an enhanced level of students' attention for an indirect but more efficient participation. Therefore, there is an urgent need for teaching skills master-classes workshops such as "Teaching with Emotional Intelligence", "Assessment of/for Learning", and "Creating Productive Classroom Environments".

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2020 Vision: How a Global Pandemic and the Black Lives Matter Movement Focused our Teaching

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Abstract

Prescott College, a small liberal arts institution in Arizona, offers limited residency Master's and doctoral programs as well as undergraduate programs. Prescott's philosophy centers experiential, community-based, and self-directed learning. While this higher education institution's distance-learning programs are positioned well for broad shifts to online classrooms, we were not without our own struggles to adapt swiftly in Spring 2020. To discover lessons learned and potential strategies of navigating on-going shifts into these uncharted waters, we chronicle how Prescott College's doctoral program adapted its programming in the face of a global pandemic and a racial justice movement that are now issues front and center on the world stage.

Keywords: Higher education, online learning, Black Lives Matter, culturally responsive teaching, COVID-19.

Introduction

2020 Vision: How a Global Pandemic and the Black Lives Matter Movement Focused our Teaching

Prescott College, a small liberal arts institution in Arizona, offers limited-residency Masters and doctoral programs as well as undergraduate programming. Prescott's philosophy centers experiential, community-based, and self-directed learning. While this higher education institution's distance learning programs are positioned well for broad shifts to online classrooms, we, a limited residency doctoral faculty, were not without our own struggles to adapt swiftly in Spring 2020. This article chronicles how Prescott College's

doctoral program adapted its programming to accommodate a global pandemic and a racial justice movement now issues front and center on the world stage.

In this opinion piece, we bring the pedagogy and educational practices of our doctoral program into conversation with the larger landscape of the COVID-19 pandemic, and more recently, within the context of racial justice in which the killing of George Floyd was, for many, the tipping point. Inspired by an urgent need for an in-depth reflection regarding how to restructure students' learning experiences, we enumerate the ways in which we produce and disseminate knowledge in line with our social and environmental commitments to sustainability as inextricably connected to social justice. We as faculty asked ourselves two questions: 1) How can our curriculum be made accessible, relevant, and meaningful when we are physically distanced from one another and situated in diverse settings and home contexts? 2) To what extent is racial justice centered and advanced through our curricula and how can our instruction positively advance social justice?

Who We are Collectively

Our collective positionalities as authors have an impact on how and what we teach. The intersecting and diverging identities among us inform and fuel our teaching work and scholarly praxis. Among us, we have a range of dominant and minoritized identities with respect to power, oppression, and privilege. We represent various gender, racial, and ethnic identities. Many of us have caregiver responsibilities for children and other family members. We also represent placed-based geographic diversity within the United States (specifically Hawai'i, Alaska, Washington, Arizona, and Alabama). Sustainability Education is transdisciplinary, and thus, our scholarly training spans education, science and technology studies, and environmental studies and sciences. This range of social identities, lived experiences, and training have fueled our perceptions and pedagogical practices before and through the COVID-19 pandemic.. Our racialized identities play an active role with respect to our accountability for the Black Lives Matter movement and how we believe we can participate meaningfully.

As we endeavor to promote social and environmental justice, we have been intentional in the steps we take to prevent devastation associated with the disadvantages that some groups in our communities may face. Yet, while we recognize that marginalized populations have a history of being neglected socially, professionally, and academically, our focus is not limited to these populations. Rather, in our sustainability curricula, as we strive to ensure that our natural resources are protected, we do so with all in mind.

Methods

This piece does not convey formal research methodology in the sense of data collection and analysis. Rather, our methods reflected a synthesis of self-reflection that conveys our shifting pedagogical practices in the last six months. Our team met weekly throughout COVID-19, George Floyd's lynching and beyond, to support each other through implementing emergent and responsive curricula, student support, and symposium planning. This article reflects our own experience of praxis, centering our mutual spirit of collaboration, communication, and adaptation. We began this paper by identifying the Prescott College doctoral program goals, with each of us addressing how our teaching in 2020 manifested itself to align with those goals. Then, the paper's focus moved beyond that organizing structure. Each contributor spent time on this paper both independently and in community, offering suggestions and revisions to further reflect each educator's thinking and distinct positionality. The methods involved writing, revising, discussing, and idea pollinating on our shared experience.

The Spring 2020 Educational Landscape

In response to the COVID-19 pandemic, educational institutions from primary to higher education made an abrupt shift to online instruction. These adjustments have real and immediate consequences on student psyches and their families as well as broader social and economic impacts. There is little doubt that COVID-19 and, simultaneously, an increased commitment to anti-racist praxis (reflection and subsequent action) alter the landscape of higher education, and that many of these shifts will likely endure. Institutions that cannot adapt to this changing backdrop may not survive. While many schools were thrust into reaction mode to immediately offer online courses in the face of the COVID-19 pandemic, colleges and universities already offering limited-residency programming have advantages.

The Backdrop of Distance Learning

While online learning assumes access to a computer and the internet, which both presume a baseline of economic resources, the distance platform may offer greater student diversity and varied perspectives, potentially enriching learning outcomes. In some instances, online education may equalize access for students that otherwise might be unable to participate in face-to-face classroom settings. Conveniently, they do not need to travel or deviate from their daily schedules in drastic ways to further their education (Dereshiwsky, 2016; Fox, 2017). In addition, the added capacity of this distance-learning platform to offer students the space to think, reflect, and integrate ideas as contrasted to taking lecture notes within a limited time period may contribute to meaningful learning.

The capacity for Web-based programming to shift to a student-centered approach also has the potential to promote equity. By creating the space for students to be more involved in their educational journey, they have more of an equal say in creating their individual and collective learning, which creates a democratizing effect on participants (Dhilla, 2017; van Oostveen et al., 2016). We have found that sharing with students this type of agency can promote meaningful learning as students can participate in actively co-authoring courses online that tailor assignments, outcomes, and even assessments to their goals.

Equity and Grace

While helping students to tailor meaningful goals and outcomes, as Foster et al. (2018) argued, an effective instructor within the online classroom needs to be more engaged and accessible to their students. This is particularly important during unsettling times such as the current pandemic. Schwartz (2020) contended that online instructors increased involvement in students' lives may be particularly important given the need for more connection and reassurance during these sometimes chaotic and fearful times. Schwartz stated,

We now have an essential opportunity to be an authentic solid presence in the lives of others, a vital element of collegiality and leadership even in calm times. When we provide this steady presence, we show students how they might do the same for others. As we engage with students remotely, we construct learning spaces (synchronous and asynchronous), and then through each interaction, we create small moments of big possibility. Every communication has the potential to say: "I see you," "I care," and "You matter." And we are connected, even from afar (para 9).

Such connection is even more apparent with the increased video conferencing with this the global pandemic. It means that facultys' personal lives are as exposed to the public as their students'. Despite Jackson's (2020) discussion of *videoclassism*, as revealing class discrepancies between students and professors, in many ways, seeing faculty in their homes can likewise positively disrupt the hierarchy that often positions faculty in professional, pedestalized, and somewhat depersonalized office spaces. With personal responsibilities permeating the bounds of student/faculty meetings such as caregiving for children or elders, or the persistent cat in the Zoom frame, we inherently build intimacy with our students and colleagues. The personalization of the learning environment is a reminder to humanize learning and teaching through and beyond the COVID-19 pandemic. While we often invisibly carry our responsibilities in our psyches, they become visible to those with whom we work and learn. These glimpses of personal realities are reminders to think, teach, and act more equitably. If, for example,

it is difficult to schedule a meeting at a fixed hour because a baby may need care, faculty and students must work together to create a schedule that allows for flexibility. Such cooperation can inspire more grace for faculty and students alike to build a new world that aligns the personal with the professional, rather than posing them in opposition to each other,

As practitioners who strive to provide meaningful scholarship to students in the most equitable way possible, we view the task of learning through an equity lens. Our educational premise is that there cannot just be treasure for some; there must be treasure for all. Equity is central.

One example of how the central focus on social justice plays out in our programs is evident in the way we deliver instruction. Most of our students live and work far from our physical campus in Prescott, Arizona. The vast array of residences, coupled with the lived experiences of our students, add so much to our program. We capitalize on that diversity. Our effort to better understand the collective rights and obligations of work that are generated from our student body shines through clearly in the projects they produce and through their expressive voices. In the midst of the pandemic, we realized that we would have to make significant adjustments to our program. We changed schedules, granted accommodations, and rapidly incorporated variations to what is normally a formal plan for student capstone presentations, dissertation celebrations, and other expressions of student work that figure in formally to our degree-granting structure. Yet, our eyes never shifted from the mission to encourage equity and to advance education that sustains.

Towards A Just Approach

Culturally responsive teaching, or teaching with and for justice, challenges didactic pedagogical approaches that are often conflated with whiteness. Teaching outside of the walls of a classroom, through COVID-19 and simultaneously for racial and social justice can and must be done. This begins with being in right and just relationship with students. Given that the latest accounts of anti-Black police violence and protests for Black Lives Matter are experienced differently by students of different racialized identities, it is important that the institution offer racial affinity spaces for students to process and caucus their experiences. In our case, one of us who is white leads an anti-racist affinity group for white faculty and students, and one who is a person of color leads a Black, Indigenous, People of Color (BIPOC) anti-racist affinity group for BIPOC students and faculty. These spaces are generating significant interest, meaningful engagement and interest.

Prescott College, with its mission centered on social justice and environmental stewardship, is well positioned to ally with the Black Lives Matter (BLM) movement. In line with this mission and prior to the current health crisis, the college cultivated Patrisse Cullors, a BLM founder, as a

faculty member and program director of a novel online MFA in Social and Environmental Arts Practice. The U.S.'s 50-state demonstrations for racial justice have been given particular focus, possibly in part because people have had more time to pay attention to national trends (compounded by disparate racialized health outcomes that COVID-19 has revealed). Rarely has there been as diverse and broad a flow of information and viewpoints on particular social and planetary issues in real time. From newspaper outlets and televised speeches to social media platforms and community spokespersons, the colossal flow of information about COVID-19 has helped to save lives (Finset et al., 2020). This intensely illustrates the importance of making important research available to a wide range of people and through a varied assortment of venues. Access to information that is more open and accessible to non-scholars as well as the scholarly community may have helped to save lives as well as prepare us to be better able to reduce the vulnerability to phenomena such as climate change (Camarillo-Naranjo et al., 2019).

Normalizing the 'New Normal'

The global pandemic and the deaths of individuals like Breonna Taylor and Ahmaud Arbery remind us that the walls of academia are not the sole place for learning. These types of exposure to how things are connected at a systemic level offer valuable insights for educators, particularly those working in the online platform who have the flexibility to offer more space for deep reflection. Likewise, the brutal death of George Floyd and the collective responses it sparked has created an urgent scene of extensive contemplation about what it means to own/take further accountability for the color of one's skin. In what ways can each of us be held accountable for broader, institutional inequities? In many instances, social distancing and the Black Lives Matter movement force us as educators to reevaluate how we approach every encounter. In many cases, it inspires deep reflection on what is considered *normal*. As a result, many of us have increased our awareness of how our actions are interconnected and have broader implications.

As revealed in reflection, the pandemic crisis has made visible the degree to which people are inextricably connected to one another regardless of geography. We watched how, in a fleeting matter of weeks, this new contagion swept around the globe, touching every continent. Today, we struggle to absorb the lesson that donning a face mask is not merely for the protection of self, but a crucial step in reducing infection in others. Even as stark differences and health inequities between and among individuals and groups become apparent in this moment, paradoxically, community and the collective matter more than ever. A key challenge for the Prescott College Sustainability Education program orientation is how to recognize community,

and also to form and reform communities to achieve ecological and socially just aims.

We see that COVID-19 has only exacerbated and elevated racialized and socioeconomic stratification in the United States. According to an NPR story, Dr. Marcella Nunez-Smith, director of the Equity Research and Innovation Center at Yale School of Medicine, noted "We know that these racial ethnic disparities in COVID-19 are the result of pre-pandemic realities. It's a legacy of structural discrimination that has limited access to health and wealth for people of color" (Godoy & Wood, 2020). It is important in higher education leadership that we continue to address issues of ethnic disparity and find opportunities to address and combat discriminatory stratifying patterns.

The current conditions have forced each of us to reassess not only our lives as individuals and instructors but the doctoral program at Prescott. We have reviewed course titles, descriptions, and course plans. We have evaluated the PhD Program Mission to ensure it aligns with racial justice goals. We offer racial affinity spaces with students and faculty to explore what is emergent for them in their racialized bodies. In the process we examined how any changes feel for the students. We shifted our week-long symposium to a webinar and are striving to make it interactive along with being conscious of being *on the screen* for long periods of time. All these steps, we feel have helped knit the fabric of a learning community while ensuring safety of social distancing.

Building Community Online

Though the online platform may be less galvanized than in the traditional face-to-face lecture approach, the professorial lecture approach—especially in times of COVID-19—must give way to greater flexibility. Instructors need to offer new, active student-centered learning opportunities as well as new forms of community. While traditionally the setting of academic learning communities meant a *walled classroom,* where a professor lectured to students from the front of the room, often from a place of privilege, expecting students to be able to recite their wisdom on an exam, that setting of the physical classroom with its accompanying approach is less effective than engaging students in active learning (Deslauriers et al., 2011; Egelandsdal & Krumsvik, 2019; Evans, 2013; Freeman et al., 2014). Additionally, Cochran-Smith and Villegas (2015) argued that more enduring and meaningful learning outcomes are generated by "active construction wherein learners drew on prior knowledge and experiences-both individual and sociocultural—as they built new understandings" (p.10).

Beyond valuable networking, creating this sense of community through online collegiality also increases student connection to the content itself (Moore, 2014). Due to the physical separation between instructor and student and among students, there is a perceived barrier to creating community

in the online platform. However, community can be created, but it requires different approaches, the flexibility offered by the online environment presents an opportunity to shift the way of instruction to active learning and creating community that goes beyond walls.

In these times, our notions of community may shift and need to be re-examined. This includes identifying what constitutes a community and whose community are we including or omitting (either knowingly or unknowingly). As there is a radical shift to online teaching, educators should consider how might communities of learning and engagement look different in times of social distancing, and how educators can foster or increase student connection and learning in virtual environments. In practice, faculty found that moving project evaluations and critiques as well as dissertation defenses online in the spring symposium not only preserved the rigor of the moment for students sharing their work, but also invited participation and perspectives from a far greater number and diversity of peers and colleagues around the world. In future planning, faculty will poll all students to understand what topics the symposium should cover, and what they wish to do or see differently in order to feel their needs and hopes are better being met.

As many institutions move toward an online platform either in response to current conditions or more permanently, finding and leveraging meaningful learning opportunities is vital. Learning in community, to us, also means community engagement. Even in a time of distance learning, this brings immediacy and urgency to our studies. Questions that drive our inquiry broadly include: What does this/my community need? How can I take steps to find out and to take action? What, specifically, do the Black and Brown students wish for?

One of the ways that students can push their learning beyond the classroom and to share their research and interests with the community is via Community Based Experiential Learning (CBEL) projects. CBEL projects create mutually beneficial relationships with their community. Students are afforded the opportunity to connect theory and practice, make learning relevant, and establish peer support, as well as be *of service* to create a durable, useful outcome for the community. These multifaceted, interdisciplinarity opportunities that are often cited as crucial to meaningful learning, can be difficult to achieve without innovative approaches (MacLeod, 2018).

These types of community-based efforts re-envision the role of education, shifting the narrative of knowledge generated by academics and then applied in a one-way direction (Nicotera et al., 2019). For example, Oscar Medina, a doctoral student, collaborating with his Tierra y Libertad (Land and Freedom) class built a sustainable food system at the K-20 Changemaker Campus near downtown Tucson. The project, Culturally Responsive and Sustaining Barrio School Garden, engaged youth in an adaptive sustainability

experience at the local and community level by addressing issues related to unsustainable food systems, drought and climate change, nutrition and health, and the reclaiming of traditional farming techniques in the Sonoran Desert.

With CBEL projects, students become the agent of their learning aligning their interests with their community to create a tangible deliverable (B. Santo, Personal Communication, April 15, 2020). Through CBEL endeavors, students apply what they are learning, enhance their problem-solving skills, establish valuable networks, and enhance overall engagement. Additionally, students can take advantage of the capacity of the Internet to expand their network by reaching out to scholars in the field, as well as to local experts. This approach assures that learning goes well beyond the walls of a classroom lecture hall.

What is also key here is to emphasize that while these CBELs have shown great success in strengthening student learning, CBEL experiences are also opportunities to dismantle hierarchies of knowledge production which places the academy at the pinnacle. In alignment with our social justice lens and values, the CBELs intent is to work *with* communities by using the principles of participatory action research, culturally responsive teaching, critical race theory, and anticolonialism. Students begin by acknowledging the power differentials and structures that may become evident in community-based work and ensure their learning does not impart unintentional harm (Stoecker, 2016). To design these community-based learning opportunities requires collaboration and active listening, centering what the community may want or need. Through the development and actualization of their CBEL projects, students consider how knowledge can be co-created and recognize the role power and positionality play in community-based learning. These types of community-based projects foster valuable networks and deep connections among the students and members of the community, something that has become even more important during this time of isolation.

A Responsive Shift

Traditionally, the culminating event at Prescott College is an in-person symposium whereby all students and faculty come together, in person, to share knowledge. The dissertation presentations and keynote speakers anchor the symposium. In response to the need for social distancing created by COVID-19 in the Spring of 2020 and to follow social justice values, education, and anti-colonial frameworks, an online Sustainability Education Symposium allowed for scholarly research to be shared more widely, given it was free of cost and accessible to anyone with the technology to join. We were able to do this though the Zoom webinar platform.

Planning and hosting a virtual symposium was both invigorating and challenging, as we thought about how best to preserve key elements of

experiential learning, collaborative knowledge building, networking or community building, and personal engagement that comes with the symposium at Prescott College. One workshop focused on not only sharing our experiences of decolonizing pedagogy, but to also enact it through digital engagement and collaborative knowledge building and meaning-making. Several technological applications, such as Google Docs, Kahoot, and Padlet, served as a virtual springboard for collaboration and sharing. The two keynote speakers for the event were BIPOC women who both spoke to power and privilege in their talks, with anti-racist and decolonizing orientations. Symposium turnout was high for our tight-knit community (averaging about 100 people per session). Dissertation committee members showed up in full force across institutions, states, and countries. Given its broad reach, this online symposium was so well attended, we began to wonder why we did not do this virtually in the past. The pandemic and its laying bare racial inequities have fundamentally altered education and the role professors play in the lives of students. Leading from the heart, committing to explicit anti-racist teaching and learning, and meeting students where they are, we believe, is a valuable first step toward lasting and meaningful learning. We are striving to continue to live these values as this challenging time of uncertainty continues.

Conclusion

The COVID-19 pandemic and subsequent global response sparked the conception of this manuscript. Yet a series of events from the killing of George Floyd to nationwide Black Lives Matter protests to the more recent racist attacks and death threats on one of our Prescott College professors have invited increased urgency to our writing. As professors in a Sustainability Education doctoral program, we strive to build leadership skills that foster environmental and social justice values and pedagogies in sustainability education. In order to shift from these theoretical frameworks towards direct action, we have examined how this shows up in our teaching, with particular emphasis on how as educators, we have responded to the events and movements of 2020. We have hope that by offering examples of our commitment for change —beyond performativity—holds both our institution and other Predominantly White Institutions accountable for enacting a pedagogy that centers compassion and justice.

Embedded in the intersection of justice and compassion in teaching, Michalinos Zembylas (2017) wrote “Pedagogies of compassion are ‘critical,’ in that they aim to transform students and educators as well as the educational institutions and the communities that they serve by identifying and challenging sentimentalist and moralistic discourses that often obscure inequality and injustice” (p. 174). Similar to Zembylas’s pedagogy of compassion, the Sustainability Education Doctoral Learning Outcomes are deeply rooted in

social justice and (re)humanizing pedagogy. While we are committed to leading with the heart, building community, and being intentionally anti-racist in our curriculum and instructional practices, what is key here is to acknowledge that it is not enough to say we have arrived or are purportedly *woke*, but instead, will continue to strive for racial, social, and environmental justice.

Many institutions of higher education are finding themselves in a radically shifted political, social, and cultural milieu of 2020. There is pressure to move courses fully online, consider how systemic racism shows up, and plan for what is deemed the new normal. It is our hope to offer the reader some of the lessons we have learned from teaching in 2020 that challenge the dominant neoliberal and racist underpinnings of higher education, while fostering meaningful and transformative learning experiences.

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A Study on the Construct Validity of the Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale (BFNE)

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Abstract

This study aimed to test the construct validity of three different forms of the Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale. The Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale (BFNE), the Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale-Revised (BFNE-II) and the Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale-Straightforward (BFNE-S) were applied to a group of 652 people in total, including 339 females, 313 males, 320 university students, and 332 high school students. To examine the factor structure of the scales, confirmatory factor analysis was performed. Item analysis were conducted to compare the psychometric properties of straightforwardly scored and reverse-scored items. To investigate the internal consistency coefficients of the scales, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated. As a result of the confirmatory factor analysis performed for three different forms of the scale, it was found that the BFNE did not fit well to a two-factor model, while the BFNE-II and BFNE-S fit well to a single-factor model. The item analyses conducted for three different forms, and the calculated internal consistency coefficients also revealed that the BFNE-II and BFNE-S had better psychometric properties than the BFNE. These findings are in parallel with the findings obtained in studies conducted on the construct validity of the original English version of the BFNE in the last 15 years. Based on these findings, it was concluded that BFNE-S is the appropriate tool to measure the fear of negative evaluation of high school and university students in Turkey due to its theoretically based, robust factor structure and its high internal consistency coefficient despite consisting of fewer items.

Keywords: BFNE, BFNE-II, BFNE-S, validity, reliability.

Introduction

The Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale (BFNE; Leary, 1983) is a tool that aims to measure a dimension of social anxiety (Leary, 1983). The scale consists of 12 items with answer options between "not at all characteristic of me" (1) and "extremely characteristic of me" (5). Eight of the items are straightforwardly scored, and four items are reverse-scored. Leary (1983) revealed that the brief version of the scale had quite similar psychometric properties to the original version, developed by Watson and Friend (1969) and consisting of 30 items. Since the years when the BFNE was revised, it has been stated to be the most widely used tool to measure the fear of negative evaluation of individuals (Carleton, Collimore, McCabe & Anthony, 2011). However, despite its common use, many studies have been carried out on the construct validity of the scale. Not only this but also discussions based on the results of these studies have continued for many years.

The scale was assumed to have a single-factor structure until the study examining the construct validity of the long and brief versions of the Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale conducted by Rodebaugh, Woods, Thissen, Heimberg, Chambless, and Rapee (2004) (Leary, 1983; Turner, McCanna & Beidel, 1987; Stopa & Clark, 2001). One of the two actual results reached by Rodebaugh et al. (2004) in this study is that the response approach based on five-point rating, instead of the double (dichotomous) response used in the extended version, allows for more sensitive measurement. The second result is that the single-factor structure assumed in previous studies, both in the short and long versions, was not confirmed. As a result of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), it was found that the single-factor structure had weak fit indices. The researchers tested the two-factor model by collecting the reverse-scored items and straightforwardly scored items of the brief version of the scale under different factors and allowing a correlation between these two factors. As a result of the test, it was found that the two-factor model had acceptable fit indices. In the study comparing the two-factor and single-factor models related to the scale, it was determined that the two-factor model showed a significantly better fit than the single-factor model. In the study, it was stated that the two-factor model had better fit indices, but the reverse-worded items could cause confusion and erroneous responses in respondents. To avoid this situation, it was recommended that only straightforwardly worded items should be included in the brief version of the scale. Thus, it was suggested that both the reliability and the discriminant validity of the scale would increase.

In another similar study on the scale (Weeks, Heimberg, Fresco, Hart, Turk, Schneier & Liebowitz, 2005), it was concluded that the BFNE had a two-factor structure consisting of straightforwardly worded and reverse-

worded items. In this study, it was observed that the researchers, who reached a conclusion parallel to the result obtained by Rodebaugh et al. (2004) regarding the construct validity of the scale, also agreed with the concerns of Rodebaugh et al. (2004) about using the scale with both straightforwardly and reverse-worded items.

From the findings obtained in these two studies, it is found that the straightforwardly worded items of the scale provide a psychometrically, more robust measure of the fear of negative evaluation, that is highly correlated with other scales measuring social anxiety and is more sensitive in detecting intervention-based changes in fear of negative evaluation. Furthermore, it is emphasized that the reverse-scored items scored in the past uses of the scale may have caused errors in the measurement of the fear of negative evaluation. Since the scale is widely used both in practice and research, it is observed that the researchers (Rodebaugh et al., 2004; Weeks et al., 2005) suggest revising the scale based on the results they reached.

Carleton, McCreary, Norton, and Asmundson (2006), who evaluated the results of the studies conducted to date on the scale and the criticism and suggestions brought to the construct validity of the scale, carried out a study to repeat the results of the factor analysis previously conducted (Rodebaugh et al., 2004; Weeks et al., 2005) and to determine the most appropriate way to be followed for reverse-worded items. Three possible options were discussed in the study: (1) to include reverse-scored items in the scale, but not include them in the scoring, (2) to remove these items from the scale, and (3) to word these items straightforwardly. As a result of the CFA performed for the original BFNE with four reverse-scored items and the BFNE-II with these items revised to be straightforwardly worded, it was found that the two-factor structure for the BFNE fit the data better. In contrast, the single-factor structure for the BFNE-II fit the data better.

Furthermore, while the Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficient was calculated to be .89 for the BFNE, this value was calculated to be .95 for the BFNE-II. Based on these results, Carleton et al. (2006) suggested the use of the BFNE-II, instead of removing the reverse-scored items from the scale or leaving them in the scale and not including in the scoring. (It is also observed that this version of the scale is named the BFNE-R in some publications).

Shortly after this study, Carleton, Collimore, and Asmundson (2007) created a shorter 8-item version of the BFNE-II (BFNE-R) in their research and compared the psychometric properties of the 12-item version and the 8-item version. When creating the eight-item version, the researchers used seven of the straightforwardly scored items in the original scale and one of the four items revised to be straightforwardly worded. As a result of their analysis, Carleton et al. (2007) stated that the 8-item version had stronger psychometric

properties compared to the 12-item version and suggested using the 8-item version.

In the studies conducted on the BFNE by different research groups, with additional samples or using various analyses (Rodebaugh et al., 2004; Weeks et al., 2005; Collins, Westra, Dozois & Stewart, 2005; Duke, Krishnan, Faith & Storch, 2006; Carleton, McCreary, Norton & Asmundson, 2006; Carleton, Collimore & Asmundson, 2007; Rodebaugh, Woods & Heimberg, 2007), similar results are observed. In these studies, it is stated that the straightforwardly worded BFNE items constituted a single-factor structure with sufficient convergent and divergent validity. The reverse-scored items, in contrast, constituted only a methodology-based factor without a theoretical basis, and this could destabilize the findings obtained.

The purpose of including reverse-scored items in scales is to make more appropriate measurements, especially in attitude scales, and to detect inconsistent responses in long scales with many items. Although this application is considered necessary for the original 30-item form of the scale (Watson & Friend; 1969), it may be regarded as not necessary for the 12-item brief version (BFNE). Furthermore, many studies have shown that the items in question constitute a separate factor that does not have a theoretical basis due to their way of expression. For these reasons, the research groups examining the psychometric properties of the BFNE revealed the following three possible options for the revision and use of the scale items.

One of these options is to use only eight straightforwardly worded items on the scale (Rodebaugh et al., 2004; Weeks et al., 2005). The form consisting of these eight items was named the BFNE-S to emphasize that it consists of straightforwardly scored items. Another option is to revise the four reverse-worded items to be straightforwardly worded and use the scale as 12 items (Carleton, McCreary, Norton & Asmundson, 2006; Taylor, 1993). This form, consisting of 12 straightforwardly worded items, was named the BFNE-II (BFNE-R) to emphasize that it was revised. The third option is to use a shorter eight-item version of the BFNE-II, which contains seven of the items included in the revised 12-item scale (BFNE-II) and straightforwardly worded in the original scale and one of the items revised to be straightforwardly worded (Carleton, Collimore & Asmundson, 2007).

In their study conducted to compare these three different options, Carleton, Collimore, McCabe, and Anthony (2011) revealed that the three different forms of the tool mentioned above exhibited a single-factor structure. Moreover, it was observed that the BFNE-S and BFNE-II (BFNE-R) forms of the scale had better fit indices for a single-factor structure compared to the eight-item short version of the BFNE-II. Another critical finding reached in the study is that the BFNE-S, which consists of eight items straightforwardly worded in the original scale, is more successful than the other forms of the

scale in predicting social anxiety in the clinical sample. Based on these findings, Carleton et al. (2011) suggest that the reverse-worded BFNE items, which they consider to be unnecessary and potentially problematic, should be removed from the scale and that the use of the BFNE-S will be more appropriate both in research and for clinical purposes. Likewise, as a result of their study comparing the factor structures of the different forms of the scale, Liu and Love (2016) revealed that the BFNE-S (8 items) fit the single-factor structure better than the BFNE-II (12 items).

It is observed that three different research groups carried out the adaptation studies of the BFNE to Turkish culture. The first one of these is the study conducted by Koydemir and Demir (2007) with university students. In this study, the factor structure of the tool was examined as a two-factor structure, as was examined by Rodebaugh et al. (2004) and Weeks et al. (2005). As a result, the eight straightforwardly scored items were collected in a factor with the load values between .53 and .82, and the four reverse-scored items were collected in the second factor with the load values between .46 and .84. In the criterion validity study, sufficient evidence was obtained for the total score and the scores obtained from the two factors. It was found that the internal consistency coefficients of the factor scores and the total score were also high.

The second adaptation study of the BFNE to Turkish was performed by Bilge and Kelecioğlu (2008) on high school students by translating the scale items into Turkish again. Although the study mentioned the existence of research conducted by converting the expressions of reverse-scored items into straightforward, it was observed that the two-factor structure was tested while examining the construct validity of the tool. In this study, it was concluded that the Turkish form of the scale consisted of a two-factor structure with a total of 11 items, as it was observed that item 4 was not loaded on the relevant factor with an acceptable value. Eight straightforwardly scored items were placed in the first factor, and three reverse-scored items were placed in the second factor. While sufficient evidence was obtained for the first factor in the examination of criterion validity, it was observed that these pieces of evidence were insufficient for the second factor, which included three items. Moreover, considering both internal consistency and test-retest reliability, it was observed that the reliability of the second factor was quite insufficient.

The third adaptation study of the BFNE was carried out by Çetin, Doğan, and Sapmaz (2010) with university students, by translating the scale items into Turkish once again. In this study, it was observed that the corrected item-total correlation value of the 4th item was not sufficient ($r = -.03$) and this item was not included in the analysis, and the psychometric properties of the scale were examined with 11 items. In the study, the construct validity of the tool was tested in terms of both single-factor and two-factor models.

Considering the fit indices obtained, it was observed that both models fit the data well. Based on these results, the researchers took into account the previous single-factor model proposal of Collins et al. (2005). They concluded that the remaining reverse-scored three items on the scale did not measure a different structure from the other eight items. From this point of view, the criterion validity of the single-factor structure of the scale was examined, and as a result, significant pieces of evidence were obtained. It was observed that the scale, also in this form, had high internal consistency (.84), test split (.83), and test-retest reliability (.82).

When the results of the research in the international literature on the scale presented above are examined, it is observed that using only eight straightforwardly worded items will increase the validity and reliability of the measurements regarding the use of the BFNE. In the studies conducted on the fear of negative evaluation in the last decade (Weeks & Howell, 2012; Levinson, Rodebaugh, White, Menatti, Weeks, Iacovino & Warren, 2013; Le Blanc, Bruce, Heimberg, Hope, Blanco, Schneier & Liebowitz, 2014; Menatti, DeBoer, Weeks & Heimberg, 2015; Yap, Gibbs, Francis & Schuster, 2016; Willarosa-Hurlocker, Whitley, Capron & Madson, 2018; Sedighimornani, Rimes, Verplanken & Gauntlett-Gilbert, 2019), it is observed that mostly the BFNE-S form of the scale is used. It is observed that the results obtained on the construct validity in the adaptation studies of the BFNE to Turkish are not consistent with each other, and the last two studies suggested using the scale with 11 items, in other words, with the number of items that is different from the original. In the studies examining the fear of negative evaluation, it can be said that using these different forms of the BFNE, which have different translation texts and different item numbers, may destabilize the measurement of the structure desired to be measured. When the use of the tool in the research in Turkey is examined in the last ten years, it is observed that all the three translation texts of the tool are used with the different number of the items (Doğan & Totan, 2010; Karademir, 2011; Seçer, Halmatov & Gençdoğan, 2013; Ömür, Aydın & Argon, 2014; Irmak, 2015; Çetinkaya-Yıldız & Toprak, 2016; Ben, 2017; Ümmet, Çağlar, İme & Akyıl, 2018). This situation will prevent the comparison of national study results with each other and drawing general conclusions, as well as making it difficult to compare these results with the results of studies conducted in different cultures. It is considered important to carry out studies conducted on the construct validity of the original English version of the scale in the last 15 years for the Turkish version as well and to determine a standard form to be used in studies on the fear of negative evaluation. Therefore, it is necessary to examine the factor structures of different forms of the tool in Turkish culture and to compare their results. The results to be obtained in the study can eliminate measurement errors that will be created by using the scale with different texts and different item

numbers in Turkey and will ensure the comparison of the results of studies to be conducted on the fear of negative evaluation with both national and international study results. Therefore, in this study, it was aimed to examine the factor structures of the original version of the BFNE (12 items), the revised form BFNE-II (12 items) created by revising the four reverse-scored items to be straightforwardly worded, and the form consisting of eight items scored straightforwardly in the original form (BFNE-S) in high school and university students.

Method

Participants

The research was conducted with a study group of 652 people in total, consisting of 320 university students and 332 high school students, receiving education in a state university and three public high schools that provide academic education in a city in the Eastern Mediterranean Region of Turkey. Both groups included high school students studying at all grade levels of three high schools and university students from all grade levels studying in six different programs. While collecting the data, groups were formed according to the data collection form by giving the BFNE form to one student and the BFNE-II form to a student sitting next to him/her, according to the sitting status of both high school and university students. Detailed information on the study groups is provided below.

The BFNE Applied Group: This group included 324 participants, 173 of whom were female and 151 were male. Of them, 164 were high school students (55.5% female, 44.5% male), and 160 were university students (51.3% female, 48.8% male). The age of high school students varied between 15 and 19 years, and the mean age was 16.79 years. The age of university students varied between 18 and 28 years, and the mean age was 21.41 years. There was no significant difference according to the education level and gender distribution of the participants ($X^2 = 0.58$; $p>0.05$).

The BFNE-II Applied Group: In the second group in which the study was conducted, there were a total of 328 students, including 166 females and 162 males. Of them, 168 were high school students (53.0% female, 47% male), and 160 were university students (48.1% female, 51.9% male). The age of the high school students in this group varied between 15 and 19 years, and the mean age was 16.80 years. It is observed that the age of university students varied between 18 and 28 years, and the mean age was 21.41 years, as in the other group. There was no significant difference according to the education level and gender distribution of the participants in this group ($X^2 = 0.77$; $p>0.05$).

The BFNE-S Applied Group: Since the BFNE-S consists of eight straightforwardly worded items in both the BFNE and BFNE-II, the analysis

for the BFNE-S was carried out on a group of 652 people in total, including 320 university students and 332 high school students in the two groups described above.

Measures

In this study, the Turkish form of BFNE, which was previously translated into Turkish by Koydemir and Demir (2007) and examined for its validity and reliability in a sample of Turkish university students was used.

BFNE: The scale includes a total of 12 items, eight of which are straightforwardly scored and four of which are reverse-scored. The items have five-point response options (1=Not at all characteristic of me and 5= Extremely characteristic of me). In the adaptation study of the BFNE performed with 250 university students, it was concluded that the scale exhibited a two-factor structure. Eight straightforwardly scored items were loaded with appropriate values in the first factor, and the four reverse-scored items were loaded with appropriate values in the second factor. The correlation value of the first factor with the total score was .97, of the second factor with the total score was .90, and the correlation value between the two factors was .76. Significant relationships were found between the Revised Cheek and Buss Shyness Scale score and the BFNE total score at a value of .33, with a score obtained from eight items at a value of .34, and with a score of four items at a value of .27. The correlation values calculated for the relationships with the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale scores are -.21, -.22, and -.17, respectively. The Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficients were calculated to be .94 for the total score, .91 for eight items, and .87 for four items. The item-total score correlation values also vary between .61 and .78 (Koydemir & Demir, 2007).

BFNE-II: In this version of the scale, the 2nd, 4th, 7th and 10th items, which were reverse-scored within the framework of the explanations made in the introduction section of the study, were straightforwardly worded, by allowing the scoring as presented below.

Item 2: Even if I do not know for sure that people have a bad impression of me, I become obsessed with this.

Item 4: I am very concerned about what kind of impression I make on someone.

Item 7: The opinions of others about me bother me.

Item 10: Knowing that someone is judging me influences me a lot.

Data Collection and Analysis

For the data collection process, verbal permissions were obtained from the school administration in high schools and from the lecturers of the students at the university. The branches/groups determined to be suitable at the time of data collection were identified in both groups. Information about the purpose and application process of the study was provided to these groups by entering the classrooms at the beginning of the lesson. Besides, scales were distributed to those who wanted to answer the measurement tool voluntarily. One of the students sitting close to each other in each classroom was given the BFNE randomly, and the student next to him/her was given the BFNE-II. It took approximately 10 minutes to fill out the scales in all groups.

The collected data were transferred to the SPSS 22.0 program, and the descriptive analysis of the items was performed. For item analysis, the correlations of the items in the scale with the total score were examined. The internal consistency reliability was calculated using Cronbach's alpha method. Furthermore, whether the distribution of the students in the two study groups differed according to gender and grade level was examined by the X^2 Independence Test. To examine the construct validity of the scale, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using the IBM AMOS 22 statistics program. The significance level of 0.05 was taken as a criterion in the interpretation of the results.

Results

Item Descriptive Values and Item Analysis

In the group in which the BFNE was applied (N = 324), it was observed that the mean values of the items in the data set varied between 2.34 and 3.67 and the standard deviation values varied between 1.16 and 1.36. The skewness coefficients varied between -0.62 and 0.61, and the kurtosis coefficients varied between -0.40 and -1.18. A striking finding in this data set is that the mean scores of eight straightforwardly scored items varied between 2.34 and 2.80, while the values of four reverse-scored items varied between 3.27 and 3.67. As can be seen, each of these four items increases the total score by approximately one point compared to the other items. In this structure in which the scale is assumed to have two factors, the item-total score correlation values with the items in the factor containing eight items varied between .54 and .67 ($p < .05$), while one of the four reverse-scored items (4th item, $r = .02$; $p > 0.05$) did not show a significant relationship with the total score, the correlation values of the other items varied between .27 and .34 ($p < .05$). When the item-total score correlation values of a total of 12 items are examined, it is observed that the values of the eight straightforwardly worded items vary between .51 and .64 ($p < .05$). However, contrary to what has been expected, it is observed that item 4 among the reverse-scored items has a correlation coefficient of -

.22, items 2 and 10 have a correlation coefficient of .19, and item 7 has a correlation coefficient of .28. Moreover, no significant relationship was found between the total scores obtained from eight items and four items (r= .06; p>0.05). While the total score of eight items shows a correlation value of .93 with the score obtained from the overall scale, this value for four items is .43 (p< .05).

In the group in which the BFNE-II was applied (N = 328), the mean scores of the items varied between 2.15 and 2.84, and the standard deviation values were found to vary between 1.11 and 1.36. It was observed that the skewness coefficients of the item scores varied between 0.24 and 0.82, and the kurtosis coefficient values varied between -0.11 and -1.15. In this data set, the mean values of the items straightforwardly worded in the BFNE varied between 2.15 and 2.84. Four items revised to be straightforwardly worded had average values between 2.25 and 2.77, similar to the other items. The correlation values calculated with the total score of the 12 items in this form vary between .49 and .74 (p< .05). A correlation value of .98 was obtained between the total score and the score obtained from eight items, and a correlation value of .90 was obtained between the score obtained from four items. In comparison, a correlation value of .78 was calculated between the scores obtained from eight and four items (p<.05).

When the data in the total sample of the BFNE-S (N=652) are examined, it is observed that the mean values of the items are between 2.51 and 2.82, and the standard deviation values are between 1.18 and 1.36. Furthermore, while the skewness values vary between 0.20 and 0.71, the kurtosis values vary between -0.45 and -1.16. The item-total score correlation values are between .56 and .69 (p< .05).

Construct Validity

Confirmatory factor analysis was carried out to test the construct validity of the BFNE, BFNE-II, and BFNE-S forms, and in the evaluation of the model fit, the fit indices presented in Table 1 were calculated in line with the suggestions of Hu and Bentler (1999).

Table 1: CFA model indices of BFNE, BFNE-II and BFNE-S

	X^2	p	X^2 /df	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
BFNE	154,05	.000	2,91	.91	.87	.88	.077	.074
BFNE-II	172,79	.000	3.20	.93	.90	.91	.082	.045
BFNE-S	136,93	000	6.85	.94	.93	.92	.095	.041

BFNE: Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale, BFNE-II: Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale-Revised, BFNE-S: Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale Straightforward Items

As can be understood from the values in Table 1, although the CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR values met the acceptable fit criteria of the model in the BFNE form in which the two-factor structure of the scale was tested, it was found that the data in this model did not fit well to the model (NFI and TLI values <.90). Considering the fit indices obtained as a result of the confirmatory factor analysis in which the single-factor structure of the BFNE-II, consisting of 12 items among which there are items revised to be straightforwardly worded, and the BFNE-S, which consists of only eight straightforwardly-scored items, was tested, it was concluded that the models showed an acceptable fit to the data for both forms.

The factor loadings, error variances, and t-values of the items related to the three forms of the tool as a result of the CFA are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Factor loadings, error variances and t-values of the items of BFNE, BFNE-II and BFNE-S

	BFNE			BFNE-II			BFNE-S		
Item	R^2	EV	t	R^2	EV	t	R^2	EV	t
1	,61	1,02	11,22*	,71	1,14	12,02*	,64	1,07	16,19*
3	,57	,67	10,70*	,62	1,11	12,34*	,60	,95	16,12*
5	,67	,81	10,59*	,69	,71	11,41*	,69	,61	14,79*
6	,73	,91	11,16*	,70	,89	12,21*	,73	,73	15,30*
8	,72	,91	11,62*	,72	,65	11,65*	,72	,75	15,07*
9	,72	1,12	10,60*	,79	,67	11,33*	,75	,78	15,75*
11	,68	1,34	12,66*	,66	,87	11,91*	,66	,95	16,62*
12	,67	1,18	9,12*	,62	,70	11,54*	,65	,84	16,26*
2	,49	.88	11,10*	,64	,97	11,84*			
4	-,07	.74	10,73*	,73	,52	10,74*			
7	,68	1,00	11,81*	,56	,76	11,59*			
10	,42	,98	4,74*	,51	,91	12,00*			

*p<.05

BFNE: Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale, BFNE-II: Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale-Revised, BFNE-S: Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale Straightforward Items

When the values in Table 2 are examined, it is observed that the factor loadings of the eight items in the BFNE form, in which the two-factor structure of the tool was tested, were within acceptable limits. It was found that the fourth item, which is one of the reverse-scored items, had a negative factor load, contrary to what had been expected in the model. The correlation value between the two factors is .29 (t=2.96; p<.05). In the BFNE-II, the factor loading values of 12 items varied between .51 and .79. In the BFNE-S form, the values of eight items were found to vary between .64 and .75. It is observed that the t-values calculated for the items in all three forms of the scale are significant at the level of 0.05.

Reliability

To examine the reliability of the measurements, Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficients were calculated for three forms. As a result of the analysis, the values of .87 were obtained for the eight straightforwardly scored items of the BFNE, .42 for the four reverse-scored items, and .77 for the overall scale. The coefficient values for the BFNE-II form (with 12 items) and the BFNE-S form (with eight items) were respectively .90, and .87.

Discussion

As stated above, the construct validity of the BFNE (12 items, including eight straightforwardly scored items and four reverse-scored items), BFNE-II (12 items, including eight straightforwardly scored items and four items revised to be straightforwardly worded), and the BFNE-S (eight items worded straightforwardly in the original scale) forms of the Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale was examined in high school and university students in the study. As a result of the CFA conducted, the fit index values obtained for the BFNE form and the factor loadings of the items showed that the tool was not suitable for the two-factor structure. This finding does not support the results of the adaptation studies to Turkish performed in university students (Koydemir & Demir, 2007) and high school students (Bilge & Kelecioğlu, 2008) in which one item (item 4) was excluded from the scale, and indicating that the tool has a two-factor structure. For the BFNE-II form in which the single-factor structure of the 12-item tool was tested, sufficient fit values of the scale to the single-factor structure were achieved. This result is in parallel with the opinion that it is appropriate to use the tool as a single-factor structure. However, the two-factor and single-factor structures of the tool were confirmed in another adaptation study to Turkish conducted with university students (Çetin, Doğan & Sapmaz, 2010). Likewise, this finding of the research supports the findings of Collins et al. (2005) and Carleton et al. (2011), indicating that the single-factor structure has better fit index values. This finding can be considered as evidence for the views of many authors stating that the four reverse-scored items in the scale do not reflect a separate structure. Still, they come together merely because of the way the items are expressed. As a result of the CFA obtained for the BFNE-S form, which contains eight items straightforwardly worded in the original version of the tool, it was found that the model fit the data better. This finding supports the results and suggestions in the latest studies in the international literature on the validity of the scale (Carleton et al., 2011; Liu & Love, 2016) that more valid and reliable measurements will be made with only these eight items.

Carleton et al. (2011) suggested that the tool was more successful in predicting social anxiety in the clinical sample with these eight items and that potentially problematic items should be removed, and the tool should be used both in the clinical setting and in research. When the descriptive values of the scale items were examined in the study, it was observed that each of the four reverse-worded items in the BFNE form had an item mean approximately one point higher than the other eight items. In the BFNE-II form, in which the statements of these items were revised to be straightforwardly worded, the mean item score values were found to be quite similar to the values of the other eight items. The reverse-scored items in the BFNE not only create a factor that

does not have a theoretical basis by gathering under a different factor but also can cause erroneous decisions in cases when decisions are made, especially considering the scores obtained from the scale, such as making a diagnosis. The presence of reverse-worded items may cause the total scale score to increase by approximately four points.

In the item analysis conducted in the BFNE form, it was observed that item 4 did not have an item-total score correlation value in the expected direction, and the values of the other three items were lower in comparison with the straightforwardly scored eight items. This result can be interpreted as that the inclusion of the said items in the scale will weaken the validity and reliability of the measurements. While there was no significant relationship between the total scores of the four items and the eight items in the BFNE form (r=.06), the scores obtained from the four reverse-scored items were moderately correlated with the total score of the scale (r=.43). There is a very high correlation between the eight-item scores and the total score (r=.93). However, in the BFNE-II form, which included four items revised to be straightforwardly worded, a high level of positive correlation was observed between the scores of these items and the scores of eight items (r=.78) and the total score (r=.90). Likewise, there is a near-perfect (r=.98) correlation between the eight-item scores and the total score. These findings suggest that the four reverse-worded items do not have the desired psychometric properties in measuring the construct wanted to be measured, as well as they cause errors in measurements. It is regarded that the use of these items by revising them to be straightforwardly worded is more appropriate for the intended measurement. However, the considerably high correlation between the eight straightforwardly scored items and the total score in both forms (BFNE and BFNE-II) eliminates the need to use these reverse-scored items. This result is also supported by the results of the reliability analysis conducted for all three forms. The weakest reliability coefficient was calculated for four reverse-worded items in the BFNE form (.43). The reliability coefficients of the BFNE-II and the BFNE-S were .90 and .87 respectively.

Conclusion

In the CFA study performed for three forms of the scale, sufficient validity evidence for the BFNE form was not reached. Although there is adequate evidence for the BFNE-II form, the validity evidence for the BFNE-S form is psychometrically stronger. Based on these results, it can be said that the use of the tool with the BFNE-S form has valid and reliable properties in measuring the fear of negative evaluation of high school and university students.

Limitations and Future Directions

The Brief Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale is a tool that can be used to measure social anxiety in research and practice (psychological counselling-clinical-diagnosis-evaluation). It is necessary to examine which of these three forms of the tool better discriminates between individuals with and without social anxiety. Furthermore, this study was conducted with high school and university students. Examining the validity and reliability of the tool with adults who are not involved in academic life will provide further information about the use of the tool with other groups.

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The Problems and Opinions of School Administrators during COVID-19 Pandemic: A Qualitative Study from Turkey

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Abstract

The paper aims to describe the problems faced by some school administrators during COVID-19 pandemic in different cities and to present their opinions regarding the process. As one of the qualitative research methods, phenomenology pattern was used in the research. Data of the study were collected by using the interview technique through semi-structured School Administrators Interview Form. The study group consists of 32 school administrators selected by using purposeful criterion sampling technique. As a result of the research, it is observed that school administrators evaluate the application of Education Information Network (EBA) TV and education portal, which was put into practice by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) due to COVID-19 pandemic, as a positive and urgent measure. School administrators expressed that the most common problems faced during COVID-19 pandemic are low learning motivation of students, parents' inability to create a learning environment at home, and the lack of access to live broadcasts from the EBA TV/education portal. The majority of school administrators observed that teachers were reluctant to teach in live lectures using the EBA education portal or other programs for various reasons and their motivation gradually decreased in the process. It is observed that half of the school administrators did not have an emergency action plan regarding the pandemic process, and they followed the instructions given by MoNE. School administrators stated that skills of technology leadership and crisis management are important requirements during the pandemic process.

Keywords: Education administration, coronavirus (COVID-19), pandemic, education, school.

Introduction

COVID-19 pandemic has affected the education system as it has affected all other areas of life in the world and in Turkey. COVID-19 pandemic has not only affected children's lives but have also affected education and learning-teaching environments and methods. In Turkey, as schools were closed, the education process was interrupted and the children have started education at home. The pandemic has interrupted children's normal school-centered education, but this does not mean that it will stop their learning-teaching process. Described as the new normal in the world, COVID-19 pandemic has affected the education and teaching processes and brought along many problems.

Most countries around the world have temporarily closed educational institutions to control the spread of COVID-19 pandemic. With the outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic in December 2019, 107 countries closed schools as of March 18, 2020. More than 90% of the student population in the world have been affected by the closure of schools. In Turkey, the number of students affected by this situation is 24,901,925 (UNESCO, 2020). While the health of students and the whole society is important in this process in which schools are closed, ensuring the continuity of the education-teaching process has also become important. In this context, many countries and Turkey have been implementing various alternative strategies and practices in order to continue education without interruption. An interesting research finding on this subject is the meta-synthesis study by Viner et al. (2020). In this study, it was stated that in COVID-19's latest modeling studies, the closure of schools prevented only 2-4% of deaths (much less than other social distance preventive measures). Due to COVID-19 pandemic, countries have temporarily interrupted their education and have continued their education with distance education applications (OECD, 2020; Tria, 2020; Ustun & Özçiftçi, 2020, p.147; Yamamoto & Altun, 2020, p.32). COVID-19 pandemic has brought extraordinary challenges and have affected the school community members (students, teachers, parents, administrators, etc.) (Tria, 2020). Thus, the most significant effect of COVID-19 pandemic is the stopping of face-to-face teaching in schools and moving to distance education methods.

In Turkey, the Ministry of Education (MoNE) closed schools all around the country on 16 March 2020 and it has continued distance education since then (EBA TV/portal and other applications). During the pandemic, distance education process in Turkey has continued through the Education Information Network (EBA) and EBA TV which are national distance education platforms (Özer, 2020; TEDMEM, 2020a). In this process, private schools have continued their education by using various distance education programs within their own means.

Therefore, this study determining the effects of COVID-19 pandemic on the education period from the perspective of school administrators is one of the first studies carried out in order to reveal the situation of education in Turkey during the pandemic. It can be predicted that such studies shall be a source for studies related to the effects of COVID-19 pandemic on education and what can be done after this period. Revealing the opinions of school administrators and problems faced by them, who are one of the most important actors of the education process, regarding COVID-19 pandemic period will provide important data on how to establish the education system in the new normal order.

In education, as the 'New Normal' in the post-COVID-19 period, there is a need to consider education and learning systems in the light of emerging opportunities and challenges (Cahapay, 2020). In the educational context, in order to provide and sustain quality education despite the pandemic, the 'new normal educational policy' should be taken into consideration by the MoNE. In this context, this paper focuses on revealing the opinions of school administrators and the problems they are faced with in the education-teaching process while COVID-19 pandemic is still going on.

Purpose of the Study

This study aims to analyze the opinions of school administrators and the problems they are faced with in the education-teaching process while COVID-19 pandemic is still going on. Within this scope, this study aims to address the following research questions:

1. What are the opinions of school administrators regarding the effects of COVID-19 pandemic on education?
2. What are the problems faced by school administrators in the education-teaching process while COVID-19 pandemic is still going on?

Method

Research Design

As one of the qualitative research methods, phenomenology model was used in this research. The purpose of phenomenology studies is to reveal personal opinions and experiences related to a phenomenon at a more general level (Creswell, 2013, 2017; Marshall & Rossman, 2014).

Research Participants

Participants of this study were determined through criterion sampling method which is one of the purposeful sampling methods (Creswell, 2013, 2017; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). Being a school administrator is taken as the main criterion while determining the participants. Study group of the research consists of 32 school administrators who work in public and private

educational institutions in different cities of Turkey in 2019-2020 academic year. Information about the school administrators participating in the study is given in Table 1.

Table 1. *Personal Information Regarding the Study Group*

Gender	**Number**
Male	20
Female	12
Title	**Number**
Headmaster	20
Deputy Head of School	12
Professional Seniority	
0 – 5 years	3
6 – 10 years	4
11 – 15 years	6
16 – 20 years	12
21 years and over	7
Level of Education	
Preschool	7
Primary Education	10
Secondary Education	11
Special Education	4
Type of School	
Public	19
Private	13

Data Collection Process

Interview technique was used as the data collection tool in the study. Data collection tool was created as semi-structured interview form considering the effects of COVID-19 pandemic on education. Data of the study was collected by using the interview technique via semi-structured School Administrator Interview Form. School Administrator Interview Form (SAIF) consists of three sections as being statement, personal information form, and the question form regarding the dimension of the effects of COVID-19 pandemic on education. Data of the study was collected from 32 school administrators through interview method on a voluntary basis. Each interview lasted for approximately 30 minute and all interviews were completed in one and a half months.

Some of the interviews were carried out through mutual synchronous interview by using Educational Project Based on Ahi Proficiency platform (EPBAP-AYDEP) and zoom programs; during this process, detailed written

notes were taken. Additionally, in some sections of the study, the interview was sent to the school administrators according to the selection criteria (by turning the form into Google survey form program) and their answers were received and evaluated.

Validity and Reliability

Interview questions consist of six open-ended questions which are consistent with the aims of the study. SAIF was prepared. It was given attention because research questions have appropriate content and comprehensibility in the context of the effects of COVID-19 pandemic on education. Expert opinions (1 expert on educational management, 1 expert on qualitative research, and two school administrators) were received to ensure the comprehensibility and clarity of the dimensions and questions.

In the content analysis process, the consensus percentage formula of Miles and Huberman (1994) was used. Through this way, the consistency between the codes and themes determined by the researcher and two other independent experts were determined. Two other independent experts are two faculty members working in the field of educational management and educational psychology.

$$\text{Consensus Percent} = \frac{\text{Consensus}}{\text{Consensus} + \text{Divergence}} \text{ x100}$$

In this study, consensus rate between coders was calculated as .94 for the 1st question, .91 for the 2nd question, .91 for the 3rd question, .96 for the 4th question, .92 for the 5th question, and .95 for the 6th question. The inter-rater reliability score for the data analysis of the school administrators' interview was over .90 and this was sufficient (over .80 level) for the reliability of the coding according to Miles and Huberman (1994). According to Miles and Huberman (1994), if 80% and more researcher and expert consensus are provided in a qualitative research, coding study will be considered to be reliable. In this respect, it can be said that the study is generally a reliable study.

Data Analysis

The data obtained from the interviews with school administrators were analyzed after their consents were obtained. The data were coded in the context of the aim of the research and dimensions. Created codes were transformed into themes/categories to reveal the research findings. Summarized and interpreted through the descriptive analysis, data were discussed in detail based on the content analysis (Bilgin, 2006; Yıldırım &

Simsek, 2018). In the study, headmasters were coded as (H) and deputy heads of school were coded as (DH) and by a given number.

Findings

The themes and codes created in line with the opinions of school administrators are given below as dimensions (Figure 1 and Figure 2).

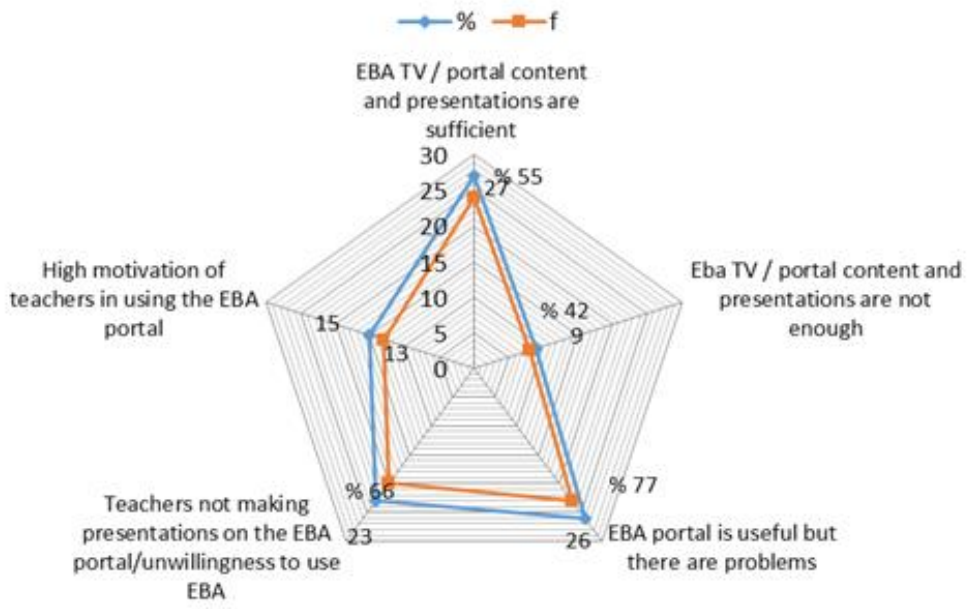

Figure 1. *Thematic fields related to the use of EBA TV/education portal during COVID-19 pandemic*

Considering the opinions and themes that stand out in the context of school administrators' opinions, it is observed that while EBA TV/education portal is considered positive, there are still some problems with the content, presentation, and connection. It is also stated that some teachers do not make presentations through EBA portal and they are reluctant to do so (Figure 1).

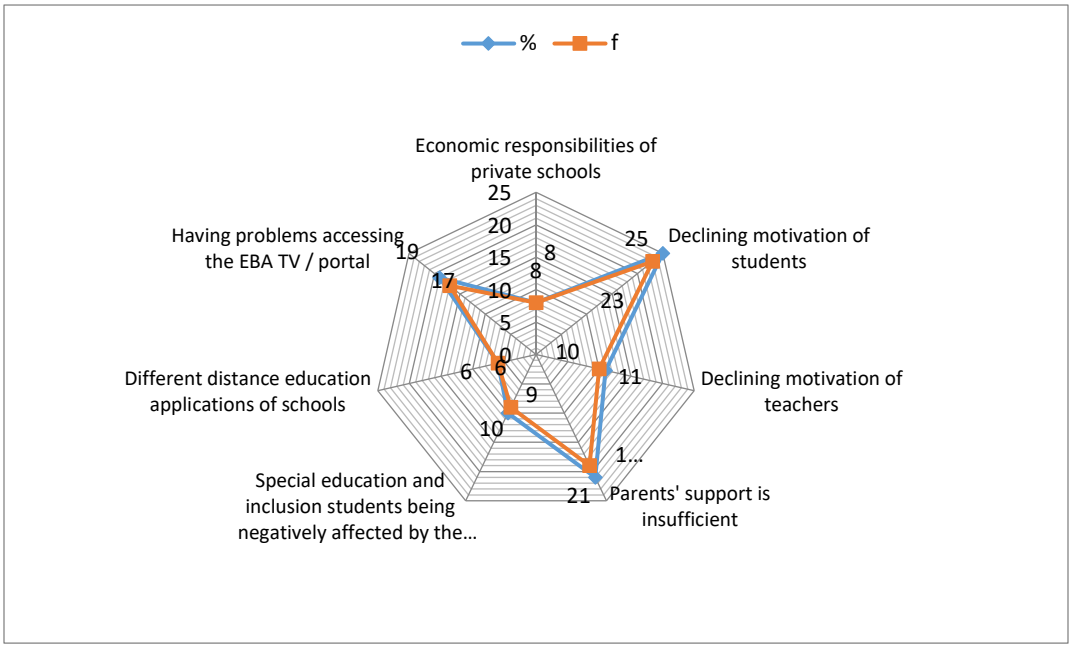

Figure 2. *Problem areas faced by school administrators during COVID-19 pandemic*

School administrators stated that students' learning motivation decreased, that parents could not provide the necessary comfort and support for students at home, and that students had problems with accessing EBATV/portal (Figure 2).

Opinions of School Administrators on the Effects of COVID-19 Pandemic on the Educational Process

Opinions of school administrators on the effects of COVID-19 pandemic on educational process are given in Table 2 as themes/categories.

Table 2. *What school administrators do in the context of the continuity of education during COVID-19 pandemic*

Interview Question (IQ)	Themes / Categories	Frequency (f)
1. When schools were interrupted due to COVID-19 pandemic, what did you do as a school administrator to provide the continuity of students' education process?	Transition to distance education	25
	Weekly distance education program and its implementation carried out by the school administration	19
	Staying in touch with teachers	18
	Creating individual schedules for students who need special education	4

Opinions of school administrators regarding the break on education due to COVID-19 pandemic are collected under the following themes: "Transition to distance education" (f=25), "Weekly distance education program and its implementation" (f=19), "Staying in touch with teachers" (f=18), and "Creating individual schedules (for special education students)" (f=4) (Table 2). Examples of opinions under this theme are given below:

A high school headmaster working in a private school stated as follows:

"Distance education video lectures and live lessons were implemented. We created weekly distance education schedules by using our own infrastructure, we sent them to teachers and parents, we followed it." (H2)

However, the majority of the students without internet connection and computer facilities could not receive distance education through EBA. School administrators suggested that teachers and students should watch and follow the subjects on EBA TV.

School administrators working in private education institutions stated that they experienced some difficulties during the onset and continuation of COVID-19 pandemic. A deputy head of school working in a private school stated as follows:

"Since we have students with special needs, each has individual education plans. Weekly programs were prepared for our students with mild and moderate disabilities who are able to study with their parents." (DH12)

According to the findings, it is observed that the education process was continued by using EBA infrastructure after the school was interrupted by the Ministry of National Education due to COVID-19 pandemic.

Opinions of school administrators regarding the contents and presentations in EBA TV/education portal are given in Table 3 as themes/categories.

Table 3. *Opinions of school administrators regarding the contents and presentations in EBA TV and education portal*

IQ	Themes / Categories	F
2. How do you evaluate the content and presentations of EBA TV/education portal?	Contents and presentations of EBA TV/education portal are effective and useful	18
	EBA education portal is useful but there are some problems	23
	The content is not sufficient	6
	Late additions of contents and activities for preschool education level in EBA, and their inadequateness	6

Opinions of school administrators regarding the contents and presentations in EBA TV/education portal are classified in the following themes: "EBA education portal is useful but there are some problems" (f=23), "Contents and presentations of EBA TV/education portal are sufficient" (f=18), "Contents are not sufficient" (f=6), and "Lack and inadequateness of

contents and activities for preschool education level in EBA" (f=6). Examples of opinions under this theme are given below:

An elementary school headmaster and a high school deputy head of school who are working in public schools stated as follows:

"I generally consider EBA TV and training portal effective in this process, but there may be problems in practice. Distance education conducted by EBA TV and TRT in coordination with the MoNE is more effective in the social isolation of our students." (H5).

"In the feedback we receive from the parents, it is seen that 90% of our students follow the lessons on EBA TV and 10% of them follow the online education." (DH31).

Although EBA TV/education portal is generally considered as a positive education platform, it cannot be effectively utilized due to reasons such as the duration of live lessons at EBA is less, the subjects are taught quickly, the monitoring/follow-up rates are low, teachers are not willing to use it, contents cannot be used in preparing for exams, and not all students have access to internet or computer. A public school administrator stated as follows:

"I think EBA is a very good platform. The country's competent teachers and the knowledge of the ministry are reflected there. There are two prominent problems in EBA: a) The technical infrastructure which is sufficient for the whole country could not be established immediately. b) Applicability and sustainability are difficult without follow-up and coordination in education. Monitoring is also low when watching EBA, which is only at the discretion of the student. Although we create weekly schedules, some teachers make excuses and do not teach even for 1 hour in a week, and then parents call me. I observe such reluctance among half of the teachers." (DH32)

According to the findings, school administrators stated that although EBA TV and education portal, which were put into practice by the MoNE due to COVID-19 pandemic, were positive and useful as an emergency measure, there are some problems such as technical problems in live broadcasts, low hours of lessons in weekly schedules, reluctance of teachers for distance education, and inefficacy of teachers in monitoring students and giving feedback. In this scope, it can be seen that education cannot be provided through this way for a long time during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Opinions of school administrators regarding teachers' attendance and motivation for live lesson education are given in Table 4 as themes/categories.

Table 4. *Opinions of school administrators regarding teachers' use of EBA or other programs and their motivation*

IQ	Themes / Categories	F
3. What are the opinions of school administrators regarding teachers' motivation to continue the education through live lessons via EBA etc.?	Teachers continue live lessons and their motivation is high	13
	Motivation levels of teachers are low and they are reluctant to have live lessons	15
	We do not have live lessons in our school	4

Opinions of school administrators are classified in the following themes: "Teachers continue live lessons and their motivation is high" (f=13), "Motivation levels of teachers are low and they are reluctant to have live lessons" (f=15), "No live lessons" (f=4) (Table 4). Live lessons are carried out by using EBA education portal and other platforms; however, the example regarding the decrease in the motivation of teachers during COVID-19 pandemic is given as follow:

"Very limited number of teachers teach in live lessons through different applications. Competency and motivation of many teachers to teach in live lessons are very low." (DH28)

According to the findings, the majority of school administrators think that teachers' activities of conducting live lessons using EBA education portal or other programs have decreased and their motivation has gradually decreased. However, in this process, it is seen that there are devoted teachers who apply weekly course schedules and use the distance education system effectively.

Opinions of school administrators on the problems they faced in education and management within the scope of COVID-19 pandemic are given in Table 5 as themes/categories.

Table 5. *Problems Faced by School Administrators in the Education Process within the Scope of COVID-19 Pandemic*

IQ	Themes / Categories	F
4. What are the problems you faced in education and management within the scope of COVID-19 pandemic?	Technical connection problems in EBA education portal during live classes and no computer/internet (limited internet quota)	17
	Different applications used by schools	6
	No distance education support for inclusive and disabled students who need special education	9
	Family concerns and inadequate parental support	19
	Having financial difficulties as a private school	8
	Decreasing motivation of teachers and their reluctance to make weekly schedules and to teach in live lessons, lack of communication between teachers	10
	Decreasing motivation of students	23

School administrators pointed out the low motivation of students as the problem area they encountered most (f=23) (Table 5). A high school deputy head of school stated the following which supports this argument:

"According to the feedback I received from teachers, students do not watch EBA TV much. Students' participation in live broadcasts in EBA is good. But the student has gradually started forgetting and missing the school teachers, and we can hardly monitor students' learning progress and performance. The seniors have already left everything." (DH18)

The second important problem area stated by the school administrators during the COVID-19 pandemic is that parents could not provide sufficient

support to their children at home, they could not create a learning environment at home, and could not motivate students (f=19). A high school headmaster stated the following which supports this argument:

"Parents do not know how to spend time with their children and they cannot motivate their children enough." (H5)

School administrators evaluated the fact that some of the students did not have the necessary computer and internet facilities to continue synchronous/asynchronous education from both EBA and other platforms during the COVID-19 pandemic as a problem area of third importance (f=17). During this process, the limited internet quota of students and not having a computer, or having problems in sharing the computer at home, also negatively affected teachers' communication with students. In a sense, this has raised digital inequality. It can be said that during the pandemic, education does not progress well in terms of disadvantaged regions and families.

School administrators identified the lack of inclusion and distance education support for disabled students who are in need of special education as another problem area (f=9) during COVID-19 pandemic. School administrators state that during this process, these students can start their old negative habits again and the learning-behaviour differences between them and other students may increase. A private school administrator stated as follows:

"Since our inclusive students cannot receive educational support during this process, the difference with their peers is gradually increasing, and it will become noticeable when face-to-face education begins." (H25)

School administrators considered the decrease in the motivation of teachers as a problem area (f=10). School administrators express that teachers, especially those working in public schools, are unwilling to prepare and comply with live distance education curricula.

Private school administrators stated that they experienced economic problems during this process (f=8). A private high school deputy head of school also stated as follows:

"As a private school administrator, we have economic responsibilities. We have to calculate balances such as collection-payment and have to fulfill our responsibility to our employees." (H13)

According to the findings, the most common problems faced by school administrators during COVID-19 pandemic can be listed as failure to maintain motivation of students to learn, inability of parents to create a home learning environment for students, students' lack of access to live broadcasts, and connection problems of EBA education portal.

Opinions of school administrators regarding the risk/crisis management during COVID-19 pandemic are given in Table 6 as themes/categories.

Table 6. Opinions of school administrators regarding the risk/crisis management during COVID-19 pandemic

IQ	Themes / Categories	f
5. Does your school have an emergency action/crisis plan for this epidemic process? What have you done in this process?	Preparing and implementing an emergency action plan for COVID-19 outbreak	18
	Carrying out works related to hygiene (disinfecting the school, using hand sanitizers, hanging leaflets about the virus)	14
	No emergency action plan/lack of awareness regarding COVID-19 epidemic	16

School administrators stated that they made and implemented emergency action plans during the COVID-19 pandemic (f=18) (Table 6). It can be seen that with the interruption of schools following the outbreak, distance education plans were made and an action plan was created by holding meetings about the steps to be followed.

According to the findings, it is observed that half of the school administrators prepared and implemented an emergency action plan when they faced the COVID-19 pandemic. In particular, it is stated that distance education programs related to the practice of live lessons in EBA were urgently put into use and practices for ensuring hygiene were carried out quickly. A significant portion of the school administrators stated that they did not have an emergency action plan for this because they encountered such a pandemic for the first time, and that they mostly followed the instructions from the Ministry of National Education.

Opinions of school administrators regarding the education management process during the COVID-19 pandemic are given in Table 7 as themes/categories.

Table 7. *Opinions of school administrators regarding the education management process during the COVID-19 pandemic*

IQ	Themes / Categories	f
6. Has your perspective on education management changed during the COVID-19 pandemic? If so, can you explain?	Being not ready for the distance education process and realizing the importance of face-to-face education and teaching	20
	Necessity to improve crisis management skills	
	Paying attention to hygiene in daily life and in school	10
	As private schools, the importance of organizing the process well and establishing a financial balance (income-expense, debt balance)	14
	Seeing the impact of technology and digitalization in the education process, bringing digital and technology leadership skills to the forefront	8

When considering their opinions on the education management process in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, school administrators stated that they are not ready for the distance education process. They further stated that face-to-face education/teaching is important (f=20) (Table 7). Some school administrators supporting this opinion stated as follows:

"EBA needs to be improved. The importance of interaction in education has emerged, on the other hand, we have seen the effects of technological development on education. We saw that robots can be doctors, but robots cannot be teachers." (DH7)

School administrators stated that an awareness should be developed about giving importance to hygiene and making emergency action plans after the pandemic process (f=14). School administrators stated that emergency action plans in the context of occupational health and safety in schools should be updated, and issues such as protection and fight against pandemics such as COVID-19, hygiene education, etc. should be added to occupational health and safety trainings. Thus, a school administrator stated the following:

"As the school administration, we understood that it is necessary to take precautions by considering the compelling situations to be emerged beforehand." (H2)

School administrators particularly emphasized the need for developing technology leadership skills (f=8) and crisis management (f=10) skills. A school administrator supporting the opinion stated as follows:

"Technology now has a very important place in our lives. And leadership types such as digital leadership and information technology leadership have also entered in our lives, and school leaders should definitely be educated on this subject." (H29)

Private school administrators stated that it is important to establish a financing balance (income-expenditure, debt balance) (f=8) during the pandemic process. A school administrator supporting the opinion stated as follows:

"From the perspective of private school financing, we once again saw the advantage of progressing in a controlled way and the importance of balance in borrowing. Unfortunately, it is not possible for institutions with a high debt burden to survive in this process. The harmony of the teaching staff is also very important." (H30)

According to the findings, more than half of the school administrators stated that the distance education process via EBA could not be carried out properly in ensuring the continuity of education during the pandemic process. By expressing that the importance of face-to-face education and teachers is recognized once more, the place of school and classroom education in the learning process has been recognized again. School administrators stated that more emphasis should be placed on hygiene after the pandemic within the scope of occupational health and safety and that they should be included in the issues related to what to do against the epidemic while making emergency action plans. School administrators have the opinion that technology leadership and crisis management are important needs in the pandemic process and their competencies should be developed in these matters. Private school administrators stated that it is important to establish a financing balance (income-expense, debt balance) during the pandemic process, and that many private schools face the risk of closing down and not paying teachers' wages during this process.

Conclusion

In this study, it is observed that school administrators evaluated the application of EBA TV and education portal, which was put into practice by the MoNE due to COVID-19 pandemic, as a positive and urgent measure. In this study, more than half of the school administrators stated that in ensuring the continuity of education during the pandemic process, distance education process via EBA could not be carried out properly. School administrators stated that they encountered problems in terms of infrastructure, access, and pedagogical issues in the process of teaching lessons using EBA infrastructure in public schools after the MoNE suspended schools due to COVID-19 pandemic. These problems can be listed as experiencing technical problems in live broadcasts, less class hours, unwillingness of teachers to conduct distance education, and that teachers are ineffective in watching and giving feedback to students. In this context, education cannot be continued in this way for a long time and 'new normal' need to be determined in the context of returning to school after the pandemic. School administrators have the opinion that after COVID-19 pandemic, things shall not be the same as before. Due to the importance of school, teacher and face-to-face education shall be realized again in the new normal.

Most of the school administrators stated that teachers were reluctant to teach in live lesson by using EBA education portal or other programs for various reasons. Hence, there was a gradual decrease in their motivation during the process in this study. During the pandemic process, teachers may be inexperienced about what online tools and resources they can use, which methods they can use, and they may need constant support. Without this support, a qualified process management cannot be possible (TEDMEM, 2020a). In the context of this study, school administrators stated that behind the decrease in the motivation of teachers for the educational process, there may be reasons such as low digital learning-teaching competencies, not having the necessary information technology tools, or not having a legal enforcement for not doing live lessons.

As a result of the study, the most common problems faced by school administrators during COVID-19 pandemic are, respectively, the inability to maintain students' motivation to learn, parents' inability to create a home learning environment for students, and the inability to access and connect live broadcasts from EBA TV/education portal. In the study conducted by Cao et al. (2020), it was observed that during the COVID-19 pandemic, anxiety level of one-quatre of university students increased and delays in academic activities were positively associated with anxiety symptoms. Studies (Brazendale, Beets, Weaver et al., 2017; Brooks, Webster, Smith, et al., 2020; Leung, Lam & Cheng, 2020) show that when children are not attending school (for example, on weekends and summer holidays), they are less physically

active, watch screens longer, sleep irregularly, and do not eat a balanced diet which causes weight gain. In the study by Sprang and Silman (2013), it was seen that children in quarantine had an average of four times higher stress scores than children who were not quarantined. A study conducted in Shaanxi Province, authorized by local authorities in the second week of February 2020, found out that the most common psychological and behavioral problems among 320 children and teens aged 3-18 were distraction, irritability, and fear of asking questions about the pandemic (Jiao et al., 2020). The interruption of education in schools has created anxiety, especially for students preparing for exams. In this context, students should be provided not only with academic support for the continuation of learning, but also psycho-social support (TEDMEM, 2020a). In the context of the results of this study, the uncertainty brought about by the pandemic and the uncontrolled learning process is likely to reduce the motivation of students to learn and study.

Due to the restrictions in social life, students can feel anxious, scared or have negative emotions during the pandemic (Özer, 2020). In the study conducted by Brazendale, Beets, Weaver et al. (2017), it was revealed that it is a critical factor for schools to create an interaction between students and teachers and to provide psychological guidance along with providing education materials and distance education for students during such pandemics. In this study, it was observed that although school administrators observed a decrease in students' learning motivation, they did not implement any practices to increase it.

The MoNE provided free internet right to parents' mobile lines for the use of EBA, but it was insufficient to announce this to parents. One-third of the parents were not aware of the content of the EBA application and they had these rights as a result of that. Another application that MoNE has failed to announce is the guidance and information broadcasts for parents on EBA TV. Half of the parents stated that they were not aware of the existence of the application, and only one-third of those who knew were completely satisfied (Yilmaz, Guner, Mutlu, & Doganay, 2020). In this study, EBA TV and education portal application put into practice by the Ministry of National Education due to COVID-19 pandemic was evaluated positively by school administrators. School administrators stated that students' lack of having the opportunity to connect to computers and the internet, and parents' inability to support their children and to create learning comfort at home during this process have caused a decrease in the motivation of students. This may be due to the high expectations created by the MoNE about EBATV/education portal to meet all the learning needs of students.

It is seen that half of the school administrators made an emergency action plan and put it into practice when they encountered COVID-19 pandemic in this research. In particular, it is seen that distance education

programs related to the implementation of live lessons from EBA were urgently put into use. This is alongside practices to ensure hygiene which was carried out quickly. It is also seen that half of the school administrators did not have an emergency action plan regarding the pandemic process and they mostly followed the instructions from the Ministry of National Education. It becomes even more important to take the necessary preventive and protective measures to create a healthy and safe education and training environment in schools, especially during the COVID-19 pandemic.

As a result of the research, school administrators revealed that technology leadership and crisis management skills are important needs in the pandemic process and that their competencies should be improved in these areas. In this context, characteristics and roles of good education, good school, ideal manager, and ideal teacher would change after the pandemic. It is predicted that in the near future, digital learning shall become the main basis of education beyond support or an alternative to face-to-face learning. Due to COVID-19 pandemic, digital learning would increase and become the main learning structure all over the world in the near future (Yamamoto & Altun, 2020, p.33). Most especially in this process, it can be predicted that the function and mission of the school would change in 'the new normal' education order. The new normal of post-COVID-19 era offers an opportunity to rethink the goals of education (Cahapay, 2020). Within the new normal, the situation presents a unique challenge to every educational leader's decision-making process (Thapa, Sotang, Adhikari, Ghimire, Limbu, Joshi & Adhikari, 2020). The Turkish education system should be prepared for the post-COVID-19 era characterized by the 'new normal'. In this study, it is understood from the context of the statements of school administrators that schools would turn into center where face-to-face education is carried out (learning by doing-living, socialization, project-based work, etc.). In addition, e-learning is coordinated. In this process, as school administrators have stated, there would be a need to develop digital/technological leadership skills.

Based on the research, school administrators stated that within the scope of occupational health and safety, more attention should be paid to hygiene after the pandemic. In addition, it has been stated that when making emergency action plans, it is necessary to consider what to do against the epidemic.

With the interruption of education during COVID-19 pandemic, school administrators and teachers working in private education institutions were faced with many stress factors such as anxiety to support students, the possibility of being unemployed, increased expectations of parents from school, and financial concerns (TEDMEM, 2020b). As a result of the research, private school administrators stated that they realized that it is important to establish a financing balance (income-expenditure, debt balance) during the

pandemic process. Furthermore, they opinioned that many private schools face the risk of closing down and not paying teachers' wages in this process.

With the emphasis on "COVID-19 Pandemic is the Litmus Test of Stakeholder Capitalism" (Schwab, 2020), the World Economic Forum stated that it is necessary to secure the job and personal rights of teachers working in official or private educational institutions and also to provide them with psycho-social support in this process. Planning of business administration, ensuring the continuity of employment, and the management and sustainability of school-parent relationships are vital for private education institutions. In this context, the legal regulation that prevents layoffs for three months in order to protect the employment of teachers working in private educational institutions in Turkey and to enable them get a salary is a positive practice.

In the context of the results of this study, the following recommendations can be presented:

- Contents of EBA TV/education portal that can support the access of millions of students and provide an important infrastructure should be enriched, and it should be inclusive for all students (special education, inclusive students, etc.). Deficiencies of EBA system should be identified and developed by considering COVID-19 pandemic as an opportunity and test. Synchronous lesson times in EBA can be kept longer for core lessons.
- More research regarding the online instructional replacements to face-to-face lessons and hybrid learning methods is needed.
- In the OECD (2020) report, it is suggested that the ministries of education of countries form a steering committee or scientific board for COVID-19 pandemic. In this process, it can be suggested that COVID-19 Pandemic Education Scientific Board consisting of members from academicians and bureaucrats with knowledge and experience should be founded.
- During the COVID-19 pandemic, it may be suggested to implement a school-based guidance system that will enable parents to support their children's learning process and to provide guidance in the context of creating learning comfort at home. Parents should be supported to be a part of the learning process and to play a role as the second teacher.
- Distance education support for inclusive and disabled students who need special education should be provided via EBA and parents should be supported in this regard.
- School administrators can be trained to develop digital/technology leadership and crisis management skills.

- Private schools whose financial balances deteriorated during the pandemic period should be supported, and the job security and financial rights of the administrators and teachers working in these schools should be protected.

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Determining Children's Primary School Readiness Level

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Abstract

This study aimed to determine the primary school students' readiness for school and analyze it according to some socio-demographic characteristics Readiness can be defined as having the necessary precondition behaviors and reaching the desired maturity level for the child to be able to learn and develop. The level of readiness of the child is important in achieving the desired goals in education. In the study, the school readiness levels of the first grade primary school students were determined and examined regarding to their personal characteristics. The conducted research contributes to the related literature in the aspect of introducing how ready children in Turkey, which has a different education system and culture, are for school in the beginning stages of primary school. The research was conducted in general survey model, one of the quantitative research methods. 402 students attending the first grade of primary school in Eskişehir province participated in the study. The "Primary School Readiness Scale" (Canbulat & Kırıktaş, 2016) used in the study was filled out by the teachers for each participating student. The children's school readiness levels were examined in the cognitive, affective, psychomotor and self-care skills sub-dimensions of the scale. Descriptive statistics were calculated in the analysis of data, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed; Mann Whitney U and Kruskal Wallis H test, ANOVA, Scheffe Post-Hoc tests were used. As a result of the research, it was found that primary school readiness levels of the following students' groups were significantly higher ($p < 0.05$): the students who had preschool education compared to the students who had not; the students who are 72-84 months old compared to the students who are 60-72 months old; the students whose mothers' education level are high compared to the students whose mothers have lower education and the students whose fathers are working compared to the students whose fathers are not working. Also, significant differences were found in primary school readiness level of some subgroups in the following dimension: girls are

significantly more ready in affective dimension; the readiness of the students whose mother is working is higher in cognitive dimension; and students whose father had a university education and more are more ready in cognitive, affective and psychomotor dimensions ($p < 0,05$). The results obtained from the research were discussed in line with the related literature.

Keywords: School Readiness; Preschool; Primary School; Cognitive; Affective.

Introduction

The period in which the student starts primary school is seen as an important milestone in the life of the student. If the student had not received preschool education, he/she starts to receive education from adults other than their peers and family for the first time. This change in the student's life can lead to consequences where he/she can achieve or fail to fulfill the tasks and responsibilities. The positive or negative experiences of the student who started primary school play an important role in achieving a productive life of education. This research aims to reveal the primary school readiness of the students in Turkey and the effect of some variables on the readiness level.

Readiness, which is also expressed in different terms such as school maturity, preparedness (Erkan & Kırca, 2010), is defined as the language and thinking skills that the child should have before starting school, as well as the skills required for adaptation and success (Noel, 2010). These skills are the skills that show that the child matured in terms of emotional, social, physical and cognitive development areas that should be possessed before starting school (Gündüz and Çalışkan, 2013; Yörükoğlu, 1993). The child, who is ready for school, gets sufficient development with the support of family, environment and school and possesses the necessary knowledge, skills and behaviors (Dinç, 2013). Hence, in addition to the developmental characteristics, some factors affect the child's school readiness, such as family and environmental conditions (Stocks & Oshio, 2009). Regarding school readiness, several studies focusing on the gender and age variables of the child were found (e.g., Arı & Özcan, 2014; Erkan & Kırca, 2010; Öztürk & Uysal, 2013; Yoleri & Tanış, 2014) and these studies revealed a positive relationship between school readiness and the increase in the age of the child (e.g., Vandell, Nenide, & Winkle, 2006). In Turkey, the child's chronological age is considered as the basic criterion to start primary school (Canbulat and Yıldızbaş, 2014). After it has been decided that the duration of primary school education will be four years in the 2012-13 academic year, the age range of starting primary school has been set as 60-66 months (MoNE, 2012). However, it was possible to postpone schooling for up to 71 months with a doctor's report indicating that the child was not developmentally ready for

school (Başbuğ & Kurnaz, 2013; Canbulat & Yıldızbaş, 2014). Studies showed that children who have started primary school according to chronological age have problems in terms of school readiness (Canbulat, 2010; Öztürk & Uysal, 2013). Due to these problems, the age of starting primary school was changed in 2019 after the decision taken by the Ministry of National Education and the upper limit was changed to 69 months (MoNE, 2019).

Another variable that has a significant effect on the child's school readiness level is preschool education (Koçyiğit & Saban, 2014; Yavuzer, 2010; Yoleri & Tanış, 2014). In Turkey, all children are expected to receive preschool training. Planned and systematic preschool education aiming to support children's developmental areas and to improve their skills plays an important role in the child's primary school readiness level (Bütün Ayhan and Aral 2007; Umek, Kranjc, Fekonja, & Bajc, 2008). According to the studies, it is seen that in terms of basic skills and development areas, children having preschool education have a higher level of school readiness compared to children without preschool education. (e.g., Cinkılıç, 2009; Erkan and Kırca, 2010; Esaspehlivan, 2006; Işık, Akosmanoğlu and Bilir, 2015; Magnuson, Meyers, Ruhm and Waldfogel, 2004; Unutkan, 2003; Yazıcı, 2002; Yoleri and Tanış, 2014). Polat and Yavuz (2014) reported that the duration of preschool education increases children's self-esteem, self-concept, mathematical skills, drawing skills, phonological skills, social-emotional development and cognitive-linguistic development. Since the preparation to primary school requires the systematic acquisition of necessary skills and supporting all development areas of the children (Oktay and Unutkan, 2005), preschool education is an important opportunity to be used for the school readiness of disadvantaged children (Polat & Yavuz, 2016; Umek et al., 2008).

Families have a significant effect on the children's school readiness as much as Preschool education. The behaviors and attitudes of the family towards the child are quite effective in making the child ready for education life (Akbag, 2007). The family must fulfill its responsibilities to ensure that the child will be prepared for school from the moment of birth (Dinç, 2013). The socio-economic level of families is a major factor in the effectiveness of a child's environment. Working parents have higher income and, therefore, can live under better circumstances. A supportive home environment, which can be established with better economic conditions, affects the child's primary school readiness significantly (Britto, 2012; Ferguson, Bovaird and Mueller, 2007). Isaac and Magnuson (2011) concluded that there was a positive relationship between the increase in the economic conditions and educational levels and school maturity of the child. The increase in the education level of the family also positively affects children's school readiness (Alakoç Pirpir et al., 2016; Erkan, 2011; Erkan & Kırca, 2010). The research conducted by Arı

and Özcan (2014) on the effect of school maturity on the literacy learning of first-year pupils revealed that the increase in the educational level of the parents increased reading maturity in children.

Starting primary school is an important event that requires the child to be ready for education life, and some factors have an impact on the readiness of the child. The child who starts primary school should be supported in case of deficiencies or inadequacies. This support is only possible by determining how much the child is ready for primary school. This research is considered to be important in terms of revealing the extent of the children's primary school readiness and the factors that affect readiness levels.

Objective of the Study

The purpose of the study was to determine the school readiness level of primary school first grade students, and in line with this purpose, sub-objectives such as determining the level of school readiness of children according to their gender, age, education levels and working status of their parents were determined.

Method

The research was conducted in general survey model, one of the quantitative research methods. This research is based on a relational screening model, which is a research model that identifies the existence and / or the degree of the change between 2 or more variables (Karasar, 2016). “Primary School Readiness Scale” (Canbulat & Kırıktaş, 2016) was used in the study. The children's school readiness levels were examined in the cognitive, affective, psychomotor and self-care skills sub-dimensions of the scale. Descriptive statistics were calculated in the analysis of the data. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed; Mann Whitney U and Kruskal Wallis H test, ANOVA, Scheffe Post-Hoc tests were used.

Participants

In this study, in the 2019-2020 academic year, it was carried out in Eskişehir city center, in 3 state primary schools, with 402 students attending the first year of primary school. In the study, 15 primary school 1st-grade classrooms taught by 15 primary school teachers that are in 3 state primary schools were determined, and data was collected. Within the scope of the research, the distribution of 402 students whose primary school readiness levels were determined based on the easily accessible sampling method, which was not selected, was examined according to some demographic characteristics, and the results are shown in Table 1.

Data Collection Tools

As a data collection tool; With the Personal Information Form, "School Readiness Scale" developed by Canbulut and Kırıktaş in 2016 was used.

Personal Information Form

Personal Information Form was used to collect some demographic information of the children participating in the study. The form contains information on children's preschool education, age, gender, education and working status of their parents. Demographic information about students and parents was given by the classroom teachers, with the permission of the parents.

The table showing the demographic information of the participants is given below;

Table 1. *Distribution of Participants*

		N	%
Preschool Education	Had Preschool Education	374	93.0%
	Didn't have Preschool Education	28	7.0%
Gender	Female	199	49.5%
	Male	203	50.5%
Age	6 years-old	284	70.6%
	7 years-old	118	29.4%
Mother's Education	Primary School	79	19.7%
	Secondary School	88	21.9%
	High School	117	29.1%
	University, Postgraduate	118	29.4%
Mother's Employment status	Housewife	254	63.2%
	Employed	148	36.8%
Father's Education	Primary School	35	8.7%
	Secondary School	72	17.9%
	High School	162	40.3%
	University, Postgraduate	133	33.1%
Father's Employment status	Non-employed	16	4.0%
	Employed	386	96.0%

Regarding Table 1, 93% of the children received preschool education, 50.5% were boys, 70.6% were six-years-old, 29.4% have university/post graduated mothers, the mothers of 63.2% of them were employed, 33.1% have university/post graduated fathers, the fathers of 96% of them were employed.

Primary School Readiness Scale

Primary School Readiness Scale was developed by Canbulat and Kırıktaş (2016) by collecting data from 620 first-year pupils. The assessment tool consists of 33 items and four sub-dimensions: cognitive skills, affective skills, psychomotor skills and self-care skills. The scale was found to be a valid and reliable tool with an internal consistency coefficient of.991. The scale items consist of the following Likert type options: "(5) completely sufficient, (4) sufficient, (3) moderately sufficient, (2) partially sufficient and (1) not sufficient". The lowest score that can be obtained from the scale is 33, and the highest score is 165. The high score attained from the scale can be interpreted as high-level school readiness of the first-year students, whereas the low score indicates low-level school readiness.

The sub-dimensions of the scale can be described as follows:
Cognitive skills; cognitive skills that are expected to be acquired by the child in school readiness,

Affective skills; affective skills that are expected to be acquired by the child in school readiness.

Psychomotor skills: psychomotor skills that are expected to be acquired by the child in school readiness.

Self-care skills: self-care skills that are expected to be acquired by the child in school readiness

The Ministry of National Education aims for 60-72 month-old students who receive pre-education to gain cognitive, affective, psychomotor and self-care skills (MEB, 2013).

Cognitive skills:

- ✓ Completes the missing human picture by drawing arms and legs.
- ✓ Complete 10-25 piece jigsaw puzzle.
- ✓ Creates new shapes by combining geometric shapes.
- ✓ Groups 6-10 objects according to any of their properties.
- ✓ Establishes a relationship between groups of objects from 1 to 10 and numbers.
- ✓ Adds using items 1 to 10.
- ✓ Subtracts using objects 1 to 10.
- ✓ Shows half and whole objects.
- ✓ List the numbers from 1 to 20.
- ✓ Describes how to match, associate, group and order.
- ✓ Establishes cause and effect relationships.
- ✓ Briefly remembers the details in a picture shown.
- ✓ Predicts what might happen after an event.
- ✓ Tells the similarities and differences between objects.
- ✓ Tells the positions of objects in a sequence with respect to each other.

- ✓ Uses benchmarking expressions that report quantities.
- ✓ Tells the days of the week in order.
- ✓ Counts rhythmically up to 20.
- ✓ Tells the names of different time periods of the day.
- ✓ He pays attention to his work.
- ✓ Reason towards the solution of the problem situation.
- ✓ Creates graphics using concrete objects.
- ✓ Reads the object graphic.
- ✓ Creates patterns of three items. (MEB, 2013).

Affective skills:

- ✓ Tells his/her home address.
- ✓ Tells the parent's phone number.
- ✓ Reveals his/her feelings.
- ✓ Explains the emotional expressions of others.
- ✓ Expresses himself/herself in original ways.
- ✓ Follows the rules.
- ✓ When necessary, explains the rules to others.
- ✓ Fulfills given responsibility.
- ✓ Has self confidence.
- ✓ Adapts to new and unfamiliar situations.
- ✓ Communicates easily with new individuals.
- ✓ Behaves in line with their goals.
- ✓ Control your emotions.
- ✓ Undertakes leadership when necessary (MEB, 2013).

Psychomotor skills:

- ✓ Jumps running over the obstacle.
- ✓ Makes the gallop movement rhythmically.
- ✓ Bounces rhythmically.
- ✓ One foot leaps and moves 2-3 m.
- ✓ Throws the ball over the shoulder with one hand.
- ✓ Rolls the ball off the ground with one hand.
- ✓ Hits the target at a certain distance.
- ✓ Bounces the ball 5-6 times on the ground.
- ✓ Skips rope.
- ✓ Stays in balance using different parts of his body.
- ✓ Stands for 9-10 seconds on one leg.
- ✓ Rolls forward without help (Tumbles.).
- ✓ Makes various movements one after another, accompanied by music and rhythm.

- ✓ Creates 2-3 piece compositions using soft materials.
- ✓ When the pattern is shown, it folds the paper diagonally.
- ✓ Looking at the model, draws a circle, triangle, square and rectangle.
- ✓ Draws horizontal, vertical, curved, and curved lines and creates a new shape from them.
- ✓ Holds the pen correctly.
- ✓ Copies numbers 1-5 (MEB, 2013).

Self-care skills:

- ✓ Brushes own teeth.
- ✓ Washes and dries their face.
- ✓ Washes own body.
- ✓ Meets the toilet needs on their own.
- ✓ Takes and fulfills responsibility in daily work.
- ✓ Chooses clothes suitable for weather conditions.
- ✓ Takes off their clothes and dresses on their own.
- ✓ Buttons on/off and snaps on/off their clothes.
- ✓ Ties their own shoes.
- ✓ Uses the cooking tools like an adult.
- ✓ Holds dinner plates or serving tray.
- ✓ Uses the cleaning materials correctly.
- ✓ Realizes situations that may create danger. (MEB, 2013).

Before proceeding with the factor analysis of students' school readiness, the test known as Cronbach's Alpha test in the literature was performed to check the reliability of the measurement method, and the results are given below;

Table 2. *Results of Reliability Analysis for School Readiness Scale*

Cronbach's Alpha	**Number of Items**
,991	33

Regarding Table 2, the reliability coefficient of the 33-item School Readiness Scale, which was applied to 402 students in total, was 0.991 (99.1%). This level shows that the reliability of the measurement method is highly sufficient, and the compliance required for the analysis is ensured. The analyzes conducted for item-total correlations showed that item correlations were around 0.8 and at reasonable levels. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) results are given below;

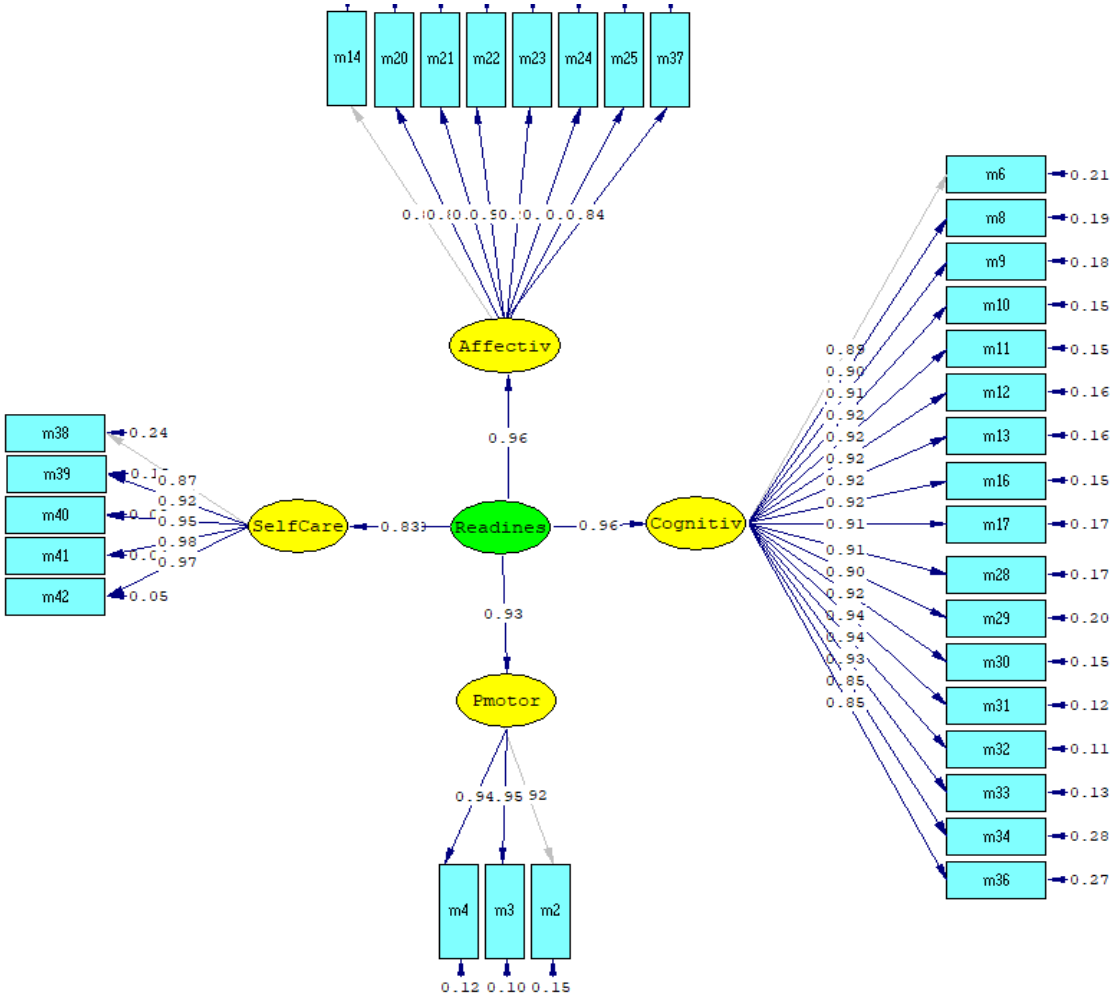
"Primary School Readiness Scale" (Canbulat & Kırıktaş, 2016) was used in the study. The children's school readiness levels were examined in the cognitive, affective, psychomotor and self-care skills sub-dimensions of the scale. The Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed because a previously developed scale was used to analyze the data.

Table 3. *CFA Goodness of Fit Test Values for School Readiness Scale*

Fit Parameter	**Fit Parameter Statistics**	**Acceptable Fit Values**	**Good Fit Values**
RMSEA	0.15	0.05 ≤ RMSEA ≤ 0.08	0 ≤ RMSEA ≤ 0.05
SRMR	0.05	0.05 ≤ SRMR ≤ 0.08	0 ≤ SRMR ≤ 0.05
GFI	0.57	0.90 ≤ GFI ≤ 0.95	0.95 ≤ GFI ≤ 1.00
AGFI	0.51	0.85 ≤ AGFI ≤ 0.90	0.90 ≤ AGFI ≤ 1.00
CFI	0.97	0.90 ≤ CFI ≤ 0.95	0.95 ≤ CFI ≤ 1.00
NFI	0.97	0.90 ≤ CFI ≤ 0.95	0.95 ≤ CFI ≤ 1.00

RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, **NFI:** Normed Fit Index, **GFI:** Goodness of Fit Index, **AGFI:** Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index, **CFI:** Comparative Fit Index

In the evaluation of the indexes, the following criteria were taken into account: 0.90 ≤ CFI ≤ 0.95 acceptable fit, 0.95 ≤ CFI ≤ 1.00 good fit, 0.05 ≤ SRMR ≤ 0.10 acceptable fit, 0 ≤ SRMR ≤ 0.05 good fit, 0.05 ≤ RMSEA ≤ 0.08 acceptable fit, 0 ≤ RMSEA ≤ 0.05 good fit, 0.90 ≤ GFI ≤ 0.95 acceptable fit, 0.95 ≤ GFI ≤ 1.00 good fit, 0.85 ≤ AGFI ≤ 0.90 acceptable fit, 0.90 ≤ AGFI ≤ 1.00 good fit. Being equal to or higher than 0.30 is the criterion taken into consideration while evaluating standardized factor loads. The CFA PATH diagram showing the standardized factor loads is given below.



Test results obtained for the reliability and validity of the dimensions are given below;

Table 4. *Reliability of Sub-dimensions of Readiness Scale*

Dimension	Cronbach's Alfa
Cognitive Skills	0.987
Affective Skills	0.970
Self-Care Skills	0.974
Psychomotor Skills	0.954
Overall Questionnaire	0.991

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the sub-dimensions of the scale were found to be between 0.954-0.987. Accordingly, the measurement tool used in the study was determined to be highly reliable (Büyüköztürk, 2010).

In this section, personal information, confirmatory factor domain, and Cronbach's alpha coefficient about the students participating in the research are tabulated and interpreted. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was determined to be reliable. The scale's sub-dimensions are cognitive skills, affective skills, psychomotor skills, and self-care skills.

Data Collection

In the study, the measurement tool was applied to the children who started their first year in the fall semester of 2019-2020 academic year by 15 teachers working in 3 different primary schools in September. Necessary permissions were obtained before initiating the study, and school administrators and teachers were met voluntarily. The teachers evaluated the readiness of the children based on their observations about the children and filled the scale.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed with SPSS 20 package program. The normality of the variables was checked by Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests. Using the 0.05 significance level, if p<0,05, the variables were assumed to be non-normally distributed. Non-parametric tests were used for variables that didn't show normal distribution. The results were also evaluated at the 0.05 significance level; a significant relationship was assumed if p <0.05, whereas the lack of substantial relationship was assumed if p> 0.05.

To determine the tests that are statistically appropriate to apply, the new dimensions obtained from the scores given to the questions were tested in terms of normality.

Table 5. *Normality Test Results for Sub-dimensions of Readiness Scale*

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Test Statistic	S.d.	p.	Test Statistic	S.d.	p.
Cognitive Skills	.115	402	*<.000	.922	402	*<.000
Affective Skills	.121	402	*<.000	.911	402	*<.000
Psychomotor Skills	.189	402	*<.000	.896	402	*<.000
Self-Care Skills	.203	402	*<.000	.847	402	*<.000

*p<0,05 *H_0: Distribution of data is appropriate for normal distribution*

Regarding Table 5, the zero-hypothesis, which assumes that the calculated dimensions show normal distribution, is rejected with 95% reliability according to Kolmogorov & Simonov Test. Therefore, non-parametric methods were preferred for different tests.

The descriptive analysis was conducted to determine the school readiness of the first-year pupils, and the arithmetic means and standard deviations of the scores were calculated. Confirmatory factor domain and Cronbach's alpha coefficient were tabulated and interpreted on the "Primary School Readiness Scale." Cronbach's alpha coefficient was determined to be reliable. The sub-dimensions of the scale were determined.

Kruskal-Wallis-H and Mann-Whitney-U tests were used to determine whether children's school readiness differed significantly in terms of preschool education, gender, age, and educational and working status of their parents.

Results

Descriptive statistics related to the dimensions of the primary school readiness scale of the children participating in the study are given in Table 6.

Table 6. *Descriptive Statistics for for Sub-dimensions of Readiness*

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Cognitive Skills	17.00	85.00	67.7164	13.54439
Affective Skills	8.00	40.00	32.2786	6.30259
Psychomotor Skills	3.00	15.00	11.9204	2.53920
Self-Care Skills	5.00	25.00	21.1169	3.91222
Number of Observations (N)	402			

Regarding primary school readiness levels of the children displayed in Table 6, it can be said that the averages are quite high. In other words, children are quite ready to start school in terms of cognitive, affective, psychomotor and self-care skills.

The results of independent sample Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis H tests used to check whether these dimensions are affected by the related demographic variables are given below.

Students' readiness levels; Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis H tests were applied to determine whether there was a significant difference according to their pre-school education status, gender and age. The results obtained are given in tabular form and interpreted.

Firstly, the results of independent sample t-test, which test the significance of the difference between the averages of the groups according to the preschool education status, are given below;

Table 1. *Descriptive Statistics for the Sub-dimensions According to Student's Preschool Education Status*

Dimensions	Preschool Education	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cognitive Skills	Had Preschool Education	374	68.9733	12.53304
	Didn't have Preschool Education	28	50.9286	15.50610
Affective Skills	Had Preschool Education	374	32.7326	5.86425
	Didn't have Preschool Education	28	26.2143	8.59525
Psychomotor Skills	Had Preschool Education	374	12.1043	2.40806
	Didn't have Preschool Education	28	9.4643	2.98741
Self-Care Skills	Had Preschool Education	374	21.2861	3.68039
	Didn't have Preschool Education	28	18.8571	5.87344

According to Table 7, it was observed that school readiness scores of the children who received preschool education are higher than the children who did not. Mann-Whitney-U test was used to determine whether this difference was significant.

Table 2. *Mann-Whitney-U Test Results According to Preschool Education*

	Cognitive Skills	Affective Skills	Psychomotor Skills	Self-Care Skills
Mann-Whitney U	1962.500	2742.000	2643.000	3865.500
Z	-5.567	-4.246	-4.509	-2.401
p.	*<0,001	*<0,001	*<0,001	.016*

*p<0.05; $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$

Regarding Table 8, the null-hypothesis claiming that the difference between the group means is statistically insignificant is rejected in cognitive skills, affective skills, psychomotor skills and self-care skills dimensions at a 95% confidence level (p<0.05). Accordingly, it can be said that preschool education is statistically significant on all sub-dimensions of readiness scale. Therefore, the children who receive preschool education are more ready for school.

The results of the test analyzing whether the subscales of readiness scale differ significantly in terms of the gender are shown below;

Table 9. *Descriptive Statistics for the Sub-dimensions According to Student's Gender*

Dimensions	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cognitive Skills	Female	199	68.5327	13.00884
	Male	203	66.9163	14.03559
Affective Skills	Female	199	32.9497	5.76628
	Male	203	31.6207	6.73685
Psychomotor Skills	Female	199	12.0402	2.40966
	Male	203	11.8030	2.66079
Self-Care Skills	Female	199	21.1658	3.82148
	Male	203	21.0690	4.00806

Regarding the school readiness of children according to gender, it is seen that girls' school readiness score is higher than boys. Mann-Whitney-U test was used to determine whether this difference seen in favor of girls constitutes a significant difference between genders.

Table 10. Mann-*Whitney-U Test Results According to Student's Gender*

	Cognitive Skills	Affective Skills	Psychomotor Skills	Self-Care Skills
Mann-Whitney U	18750.000	17857.000	19254.500	20000.000
Z	-1.254	-2.030	-.836	-.177
p.	.210	.042*	.403	.859

$*p<0.05$; $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$

Regarding Table 10, the null-hypothesis claiming that the difference between the group means is statistically insignificant is only rejected in affective skills dimension at a 95% confidence level ($p<0.05$). According to this, it can be said that gender is effective on the affective skills dimension of readiness scale, whereas it is ineffective on the other dimensions. In other words, the school readiness level of the girls differs significantly from boys in the affective dimension.

The results of the Mann-Whitney-U test analyzing the significance of the difference between the students' age groups' means for related dimensions are shown below;

Table 11. *Descriptive Statistics for the Sub-dimensions According to Student's Age Groups*

Dimensions	Age Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cognitive Skills	6 years-old	284	65.1127	13.00834
	7 years-old	118	73.9831	12.78219
	Total	402	67.7164	13.54439
Affective Skills	6 years-old	284	30.9577	6.14072
	7 years-old	118	35.4576	5.52329
	Total	402	32.2786	6.30259
Psychomotor Skills	6 years-old	284	11.3803	2.39621
	7 years-old	118	13.2203	2.40774
	Total	402	11.9204	2.53920
Self-Care Skills	6 years-old	284	20.2887	4.01777
	7 years-old	118	23.1102	2.78207
	Total	402	21.1169	3.91222

Table 11 shows that children's school readiness increases as their age increases. The significance of the difference between the scores was tested by Kruskal-Wallis test.

Table 3 Mann *Whitney-U Test Results According to Student's Age Groups*

	Cognitive Skills	Affective Skills	Psychomotor Skills	Self-Care Skills
Mann-Whitney U	9854.50	9380.50	9300.500	9521.00
Z	-6,560	-7,019	-7,247	-7,085
p.	*<0,001	*<0,001	*<0,001	*<0,001

*$p<0.05$; $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$

Regarding Table 12, the null-hypothesis claiming that the difference between the group means is statistically insignificant is rejected in cognitive skills, affective skills, psychomotor skills and self-care skills dimensions at a 95% confidence level ($p<0.05$). According to this, it can be said that the age factor is statistically significant on all sub-dimensions of readiness scale. Therefore, children's school readiness level significantly increases as their age increases.

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis H test analyzing the effect of mother's education and working status on relevant variables are shown below;

Table 13. *Descriptive Statistics for the Sub-dimensions According to Student's Mothers Education*

Dimensions	Mother's Education	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cognitive Skills	Primary School	79	61.2785	15.27352
	Secondary School	88	66.7614	13.23961
	High School	117	67.8376	12.80555
	University, Postgraduate	118	72.6186	11.28642
	Total	402	67.7164	13.54439
Affective Skills	Primary School	79	29.1899	7.45254
	Secondary School	88	32.0000	5.90149
	High School	117	32.6068	5.92621
	University, Postgraduate	118	34.2288	5.28732
	Total	402	32.2786	6.30259
Psychomotor Skills	Primary School	79	10.9873	2.81704
	Secondary School	88	11.5114	2.50055
	High School	117	12.1282	2.45138
	University, Postgraduate	118	12.6441	2.21697
	Total	402	11.9204	2.53920
Self-Care Skills	Primary School	79	19.9114	4.83892
	Secondary School	88	20.8750	3.97351
	High School	117	21.1197	3.39412
	University, Postgraduate	118	22.1017	3.41788
	Total	402	21.1169	3.91222

Regarding school readiness, according to the mother's educational status, an increase was observed in children's school readiness scores as mothers' education level increases towards university and master's degrees. The significance of the difference between the scores was tested by Kruskal-Wallis test.

In this section, ANOVA test was applied to determine the effects of parents 'education level and working status on students' school readiness. According to the ANOVA results, the significant difference levels between

the education levels and working conditions of the parents and the readiness levels of the students were transferred to the tables and interpreted.

The ANOVA results showing the relationship between mother education level on children's perception of readiness, is given in the table below;

Table 14. *ANOVA Results in Terms of Mother's Education Level*

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Cognitive Skills	Between Groups	6192,056	3	2064,019	12,193	*<,000
	Within Groups	67371,616	398	169,275		
	Total	73563,672	401			
Affective Skills	Between Groups	1221,908	3	407,303	11,022	*<,000
	Within Groups	14706,888	398	36,952		
	Total	15928,796	401			
Psychomotor Skills	Between Groups	150,349	3	50,116	8,191	*<,000
	Within Groups	2435,104	398	6,118		
	Total	2585,453	401			
Self-Care Skills	Between Groups	234,396	3	78,132	5,268	,001*
	Within Groups	5903,109	398	14,832		
	Total	6137,505	401			

*p<0,05 $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 \dots \mu_n$

When the table above is analyzed, it can be seen that the hypothesis, which claims that the difference between the group averages in terms of mother's education level is statistically insignificant, can be rejected in all dimensions ($p < 0.05$). Therefore, it can be said with 95% confidence that the education level of the mother is statistically significant in children's perception of readiness.

In order to determine from which groups causes the difference between the group averages according to the mother's education status, the results of the Scheffe Post-Hoc test that is conducted are given in the table below;

Table 15. *Scheffe Post-Hoc Test Results by Mother's Education Level*

Dependent Variable	(I) Mother's Education	(J) Mother's Education	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Cognitive Skills	Primary School	High School	-6,55913*	1,89460	,008	-11,8782	-1,2400
		University, Postgraduate	-11,34016*	1,89137	,000	-16,6501	-6,0302
	Secondary School	University, Postgraduate	-5,85728*	1,83252	,018	-11,0020	-,7125
	High School	Primary School	6,55913*	1,89460	,008	1,2400	11,8782
		University, Postgraduate	-4,78104*	1,69745	,049	-9,5466	-,0155
	University, Postgraduate	Primary School	11,34016*	1,89137	,000	6,0302	16,6501
		Secondary School	5,85728*	1,83252	,018	,7125	11,0020
		High School	4,78104*	1,69745	,049	,0155	9,5466
Affective Skills	Primary School	Secondary School	-2,81013*	,94215	,032	-5,4552	-,1650
		High School	-3,41696*	,88520	,002	-5,9021	-,9318
		University, Postgraduate	-5,03894*	,88368	,000	-7,5199	-2,5580
	Secondary School	Primary School	2,81013*	,94215	,032	,1650	5,4552
	High School	Primary School	3,41696*	,88520	,002	,9318	5,9021
	University, Postgraduate	Primary School	5,03894*	,88368	,000	2,5580	7,5199

Psychomotor Skills	Primary School	High School	-1,14086*	,36020	,019	-2,1521	-,1296
		University, Postgraduate	-1,65673*	,35958	,000	-2,6662	-,6472
		University, Postgraduate	-1,13270*	,34839	,015	-2,1108	-,1546
	High School	Primary School	1,14086*	,36020	,019	,1296	2,1521
	University, Postgraduate	Primary School	1,65673*	,35958	,000	,6472	2,6662
		Secondary School	1,13270*	,34839	,015	,1546	2,1108
Self-Care Skills	Primary School	University, Postgraduate	-2,19030*	,55986	,002	-3,7621	-,6185
	University, Postgraduate	Primary School	2,19030*	,55986	,002	,6185	3,7621

*p<0,05 $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$

When Table 15 is examined for mother education level, according to cognitive skills sub-dimension; university education level is creating significant difference level from other education levels. This significiency can say for other sub-dimensions too.

The results of the test analyzing the effect of the mother's employment status on relevant variables are shown below;

Table 16. *Descriptive Statistics for the Sub-dimensions According to Student's Mothers Employment Status*

Dimensions	Mother's Employment	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cognitive Skills	Housewife	254	66.7244	13.60869
	Employed	148	69.4189	13.30695
Affective Skills	Housewife	254	31.9449	6.39022
	Employed	148	32.8514	6.12829
Psychomotor Skills	Housewife	254	11.7520	2.61296
	Employed	148	12.2095	2.38833

Self-Care Skills	Housewife	254	21.0039	3.84121
	Employed	148	21.3108	4.03699

As can be seen in Table 16, the school readiness level of the children with working mothers is higher. Mann-Whitney-U test was used to determine whether this ratio makes a significant difference between the groups.

Table 16. *Mann-Whitney-U Test Results according to the Mother's Employment status*

	Cognitive Skills	Affective Skills	Psychomotor Skills	Self-Care Skills
Mann-Whitney U	16477.000	16903.000	16732.500	17585.500
Z	-2.081	-1.701	-1.894	-1.119
p.	.037*	.089	.058	.263

*p<0.05; $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$

Regarding Table 16, the zero-hypothesis claiming that the difference between the group means is statistically insignificant is rejected only in the cognitive skills dimension at a 95% confidence level (p<0.05). Therefore, it is not valid for the remaining dimensions. In other words, it is seen that children are significantly more ready to school in terms of cognitive skills dimension according to the working status of their mother.

The results of the test analyzing the effects of father's education and working status on relevant variables are shown below;

Table 17. *Descriptive Statistics for the Sub-dimensions According to Student's Fathers Education*

Dimensions	Father's Education	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cognitive Skills	Primary School	35	59.4857	15.07700
	Secondary School	72	65.5417	14.39282
	High School	162	67.3210	13.39679
	University, Postgraduate	133	71.5414	11.53027
	Total	402	67.7164	13.54439
Affective Skills	Primary School	35	28.8000	7.32763
	Secondary School	72	31.5139	6.69453
	High School	162	32.3580	6.19418

	University, Postgraduate	133	33.5113	5.55635
	Total	402	32.2786	6.30259
Psychomotor Skills	Primary School	35	10.9429	3.07689
	Secondary School	72	11.0417	2.82562
	High School	162	12.0617	2.36877
	University, Postgraduate	133	12.4812	2.23472
	Total	402	11.9204	2.53920
Self-Care Skills	Primary School	35	19.8286	4.72469
	Secondary School	72	20.6667	4.11113
	High School	162	21.0988	3.96132
	University, Postgraduate	133	21.7218	3.40533
	Total	402	21.1169	3.91222

Regarding school readiness, according to the father's educational status, an increase in children's school readiness scores was observed as fathers' education level increases. The significance of this difference between the scores was tested by Kruskal-Wallis test.

The ANOVA results showing the relationship between father education level on children's perception of readiness, is given in the table below;

Table 18. *ANOVA Test Results According to Father's Education Level*

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Cognitive Skills	Between Groups	4682,723	3	1560,908	9,019	*<,000
	Within Groups	68880,949	398	173,068		
	Total	73563,672	401			
Affective Skills	Between Groups	668,742	3	222,914	5,814	,001
	Within Groups	15260,054	398	38,342		
	Total	15928,796	401			
Psychomotor Skills	Between Groups	134,106	3	44,702	7,258	*<,000

	Within Groups	2451,346	398	6,159		
	Total	2585,453	401			
Self-Care Skills	Between Groups	121,407	3	40,469	2,677	,047
	Within Groups	6016,098	398	15,116		
	Total	6137,505	401			

*p<0,05 $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 \dots \mu_n$

When the table above is analyzed, it can be seen that the hypothesis, which claims that the difference between the group averages in terms of father's education level is statistically insignificant, can be rejected in all dimensions (p <0.05). Therefore, it can be said with 95% confidence that the education level of the father is statistically significant on the perceptions of children about their readiness.

In order to determine from which groups causes the difference between the group averages according to the father's education status, the results of the Scheffe Post-Hoc test that is conducted are given in the table below;

Table 19. *Scheffe Post-Hoc test results according to Father's Education Level*

Dependent Variable	(I) Father's Education	(J) Father's Education	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Cognitive Skills	Primary School	University, Postgraduate	-12,05564*	2,49921	,000	-19,0721	-5,0391
		High School	-7,83527*	2,45216	,018	-14,7197	-,9509
	Secondary School	University, Postgraduate	-5,99969*	1,92483	,022	-11,4036	-,5957
	High School	Primary School	7,83527*	2,45216	,018	,9509	14,7197
	University, Postgraduate	Primary School	12,05564*	2,49921	,000	5,0391	19,0721
		Secondary School	5,99969*	1,92483	,022	,5957	11,4036
Affective Skills	Primary School	High School	-3,55802*	1,15419	,024	-6,7984	-,3176
		University, Postgraduate	-4,71128*	1,17634	,001	-8,0138	-1,4087

	High School	Primary School	3,55802*	1,15419	,024	,3176	6,7984
	University, Postgraduate	Primary School	4,71128*	1,17634	,001	1,4087	8,0138
Psychomotor Skills	Primary School	University, Postgraduate	-1,53835*	,47147	,015	-2,8620	-,2147
	Secondary School	High School	-1,02006*	,35152	,039	-2,0069	-,0332
		University, Postgraduate	-1,43954*	,36312	,001	-2,4590	-,4201
	High School	Secondary School	1,02006*	,35152	,039	,0332	2,0069
	University, Postgraduate	Primary School	1,53835*	,47147	,015	,2147	2,8620
		Secondary School	1,43954*	,36312	,001	,4201	2,4590
Self-Care Skills	Primary School	Secondary School	-,83810	,80114	,778	-3,0873	1,4111
		High School	-1,27019	,72470	,382	-3,3048	,7644
		University, Postgraduate	-1,89323	,73860	,089	-3,9668	,1804
	Secondary School	Primary School	,83810	,80114	,778	-1,4111	3,0873
		High School	-,43210	,55068	,893	-1,9781	1,1139
		University, Postgraduate	-1,05514	,56885	,330	-2,6522	,5419
	High School	Primary School	1,27019	,72470	,382	-,7644	3,3048
		Secondary School	,43210	,55068	,893	-1,1139	1,9781
		University, Postgraduate	-,62304	,45493	,599	-1,9002	,6542
	University, Postgraduate	Primary School	1,89323	,73860	,089	-,1804	3,9668
		Secondary School	1,05514	,56885	,330	-,5419	2,6522
		High School	,62304	,45493	,599	-,6542	1,9002

*p<0,05 $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$

When the table above is examined, it is seen that the source of the difference in terms of cognitive and affective skill perceptions according to the education level of the father consists of primary school graduates. It can be said that students whose fathers are primary school graduates have lower school readiness in terms of cognitive and affective skills. When the students' level of school readiness in terms of psychomotor skills was examined, it was determined that students whose fathers were primary and secondary school graduates were better than those whose fathers were high school and university graduates.

When Table 19 is examined for father education level, according to cognitive skills sub-dimension; university education level is creating significant difference level from other education levels. For Affective skills primary school education level is creating significant difference level from other education levels. For Psychomotor skill sub-dimension, secondary school level is creating significant difference from other education levels. But there are no significant difference for Self-care skill according to father's education levels.

Finally, the results of the test analyzing the effect of father's employment status on relevant variables are shown below;

Table 20. *Descriptive Statistics for the Sub-dimensions According to Student's Fathers Employment Status*

Dimensions	Father's Employment	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cognitive Skills	Non-employed	16	59.0000	19.33218
	Employed	386	68.0777	13.16150
Affective Skills	Non-employed	16	27.6250	8.90599
	Employed	386	32.4715	6.11113
Psychomotor Skills	Non-employed	16	9.9375	3.10846
	Employed	386	12.0026	2.48371
Self-Care Skills	Non-employed	16	18.1250	6.02080
	Employed	386	21.2409	3.76056

As can be seen in Table 20, the school readiness levels of the children whose fathers are working are higher than the children whose fathers are not working.

Table 21. *Mann-Whitney-U Test Results according to the Father's Employment status*

	Cognitive Skills	Affective Skills	Psychomotor Skills	Self-Care Skills
Mann-Whitney U	2145.000	2049.500	1823.000	2171.500
Z	-2.088	-2.302	-2.864	-2.091
p	.037*	.021*	.004*	.037*

*p<0.05; $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$

Regarding Table 21, the zero-hypothesis claiming that the difference between the group means is statistically insignificant is rejected in cognitive skills, affective skills, psychomotor skills and self-care skills dimensions at a 95% confidence level (p<0.05). According to this, it can be said that the father's employment status is statistically significant on all sub-dimensions of readiness scale. In other words, the children whose father is working start school more readily.

Discussion

In this study, primary school readiness of 402 children was analyzed. According to the results of the study, the average scores of the children were found to be high. In similar studies, children's school readiness levels have also been found to be high (e.g., Akay & Ceylan, 2018; Alakoç Pirpir et al., 2016; Erkan and Kırca, 2010).

In this study, primary school readiness levels of the children were analyzed according to some variables, and significant differences were observed. One of these results is that the primary school readiness level of the children receiving preschool education was significantly higher than the children who did not receive preschool education. Similarly, in their research focusing on the effect of preschool education on children's school readiness, Ercan and Kırka (2010) concluded that there was a significant difference in favor of children receiving preschool education. Esaspehlivan (2006) examined the school readiness level of the children who have received preschool education and who have not. As a result of the study, it was found that the school readiness level of the children who received preschool education differed significantly from the children who did not receive preschool education. Alakoç Pirpir et al. (2016) found that there was a significant difference in favor of the children receiving preschool education in their research on the school maturity of primary school first-year pupils. The conclusion that preschool education variable has a positive effect on children's primary school readiness and school maturity (e.g., Arı & Özcan, 2014; Erkan, 2011; Polat & Yavuz, 2016; Unutkan, 2003) supports the result of the present

research. In this context, the Preschool Education Program (MoNE, 2013), which aims to support all developmental areas of the children and prepare them for the next level of education, namely primary education, can be considered to be effectively implemented in educational institutions.

Another variable that predicted the primary school readiness of the children was age. It was found that 7-year-old children's primary school readiness was significantly different than 6-year-old ones ($p < 0.05$). Similar studies have shown that children's school readiness increases as the age of starting primary school increases (e.g., Akay & Ceylan, 2017; Yoleri & Tanış, 2014). On the other hand, in Arı and Özcan's study on the school maturity of first-year pupils, it was concluded that although the increase in age has positively affected the school maturity of children, it did not make a significant difference. Progress occurs in all development areas with the child's biological age, which is also considered as an important factor in getting the child ready for primary school.

Regarding the effect of gender of the child on primary school readiness, the mean scores of girls were slightly higher than boys in cognitive, psychomotor and self-care skills, but a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) was only seen in affective skills. In the study on primary school children. Yurdakavuştu (2012) concluded that girls' emotional intelligence and social skills levels were higher than boys. However, the review of the related studies showed that there was no significant difference according to gender since girls' scores were only slightly higher than that of the boys (e.g., Arı & Özcan, 2014; Cinkılıç, 2009; Erkan, 2011; Yoleri & Tanış, 2014).

The education level of the parents is among the variables that make a significant difference. The study showed that primary school readiness scores increase as the education level of the parents increases. Williams (2002) concluded that the school maturity level of the children increases as the education level of their parents increases. Studies showing that the increase in the education level of the parents positively affects children's school readiness, support this result (e.g., Alakoç Pirpir et al., 2016; Arı & Özcan, 2014; Erkan & Kırca, 2010; Martin, Ryan & Brooks Gunn, 2010; Unutkan, 2003). It can be said that the child may be exposed to more educational support and interaction at home as the education level of the parents increases. Parents with higher levels of education may spend more time with their children, play games and be more responsive to their educational needs. Parents play a very important role in creating a literacy environment at home to support the child (Saracho, 2008).

The study also showed that the working status of the parents, which is an important factor in determining the socio-economic level of the family, is a variable that predicts the primary school readiness of the children. The primary school readiness level of the children whose father was working

differed significantly in all dimensions compared to the children with a non-working father. On the other hand, it was observed that the affective, psychomotor and self-care skills of the children whose mothers were working were slightly higher compared to children whose mothers did not work, and a significant difference was found in cognitive skills scores. It can be said that the socio-economic level of the children whose parents are working is better. Related studies show that the decrease in the socio-economic status of the family causes the child to be disadvantaged in being ready for school (e.g., Jeon et al., 2014; Ramey & Ramey, 2004).

Conclusion

In this study, primary school readiness levels of the children were analyzed according to some variables, and significant differences were observed. One of these results is that the primary school readiness level of the children receiving preschool education was significantly higher than the children who did not receive preschool education. It was found that 7-year-old children's primary school readiness was significantly different than 6-year-old ones ($p < 0.05$). It has been determined that the children who have turned 7 in the first year of primary school have higher levels of school readiness than the six-year-old children. Regarding the school readiness of children according to gender, it is seen that girls' school readiness score is higher than boys. The study showed that primary school readiness scores increase as the education level of the parents increases. The primary school readiness level of the children whose father was working differed significantly in all dimensions compared to the children with a non-working father. On the other hand, it was observed that the affective, psychomotor and self-care skills of the children whose mothers were working were slightly higher compared to children whose mothers did not work, and a significant difference was found in cognitive skills scores.

Recommendations

As a result of this research, where school readiness of the children was examined, it was seen that the school readiness of the children was high, and their readiness levels were affected by preschool education, gender, age, education and working status of their parents. In order to increase children's primary school readiness, the followings are recommended: encouraging children to receive preschool education, waiting for the development of maturity level with age, further supporting boys in terms of affective skills, supporting families to minimize the negative effects that may arise from the education and working conditions of the parents.

Age should not be the only factor in starting children in primary school. In addition to the age factor, children's readiness, developmental

characteristics and individual differences have to be considered as they start primary school. Preschool teachers who prepare children for primary school and classroom teachers who will undertake the education of 60-72 months old children should be trained on the transition characteristics of the target age group, basic needs and school maturity.

Primary School first grade environments should be designed in accordance with students' level of development and characteristics.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This research has expanded the scope of studies focusing on primary school readiness conducted in Turkey. But there were some limitations. It should be noted that primary school readiness of first-year pupils may vary in Turkey due to individual and cultural differences of the children. The study was limited to 402 children. It should be considered that in different regions of Turkey, different variables may affect children's development levels, as well as their primary school readiness levels. Therefore, it is important to work with bigger and larger samples in the future and include different variables that may be effective in primary school readiness.

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Performance Measures of the Academic Managerial Spine

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Abstract

This pioneering study is the first to explore the research output of faculty members that constitute the managerial spine of an academic institution. We related to the managerial spine on four levels of seniority and responsibility at the institution: President, Rector, and Deans; heads of department; faculty members on academic committees and leaders of the program; heads of study tracks and deputy heads of department. Age and gender are also explored.

Empirical data on article citations and teaching surveys were gathered for 88 senior faculty members in a case study of an academic institution in which faculty members occupy or occupied a senior management role. It is evident from the research findings that the first group has the highest h-Index, followed by the second group, and finally, the third and fourth groups. With regard to gender, no conclusions can be reached, as almost all those in this group are men. With regard to age – the group of retirees had the highest output.

The fact that the managerial spine has the highest research output is capable of illuminating the managerial profile of the academic institution. Academic management is unique for being two-headed: with a separation between academic management and administrative management. The research findings lead to the question of whether and to what degree are the considerations taken into account in the decisions of policymakers at the institution academic or are administrative considerations dominant.

Keywords: Performance Measures, Management, Academy.

Introduction

The academic management orientation of institutions of higher education

The academic establishment resembles the church establishment not only in the traditional designations of senior positions – Chancellor, Rector,

Provost, Dean – but also in the basic managerial model originating from the Middle Ages, which has since mostly remained unchanged. It has been designated "shared governance" – meaning separation between administrative management and academic management. This model is based on the admirable desire to protect the academic freedom of those who deal with contents and on the wish to release them from concerns pertaining to constant management issues. Some claim (Almog & Almog, 2020) that the result is a state of "organized disorder" that is almost unparalleled in the modern world (Apkariana, Mulligan, Rotondi, & Brint, 2014).

The academic institution is usually headed by the President, who is also the head of the administrative division (President, Chief Executive, Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor , Principle), where the role of the President is merely symbolic. Politicians, military personnel, legal personnel, and other "formers" are appointed to this position. In a small number of institutions, mainly in Australia where the post was originally kept for a "visitor", and in New Zealand, there is a symbolic role above the church president (Almog & Almog, 2020). When the university contains several campuses, the Chancellor is often the general director of the entire complex, where each campus has a separate president. In countries such as France, Germany, and Poland, the most senior government representative is the symbolic president of several institutions in the same district, which he does not manage in practice. In all versions where the President is a symbolic figure, the Rector is the actual head of the institution.

A comprehensive survey of the features of university and college presidents in the US, held by the American Council on Education in 2017, identified three interesting characteristics (Almog & Almog, 2020):

1. Age – The average age of the presidents was 62 – ten years more than it was 30 years ago. The reason might be the rise in life expectancy. Still, it is more probably related to the general ageing of academic faculty members and the fact that less young people strive for a managerial career in academia.
2. Gender- The proportion of women among all presidents was approximately lim30% (Almog & Almog, 2020).
3. The management feature – The proportion of presidents who came from a minority background was 32.17% in most institutions, where the President is not merely a symbolic figure, he is in charge of fundraising, budget management, strategic planning, and administrative appointments. He is appointed for a set period and, as stated, is considered the most senior figure in the institution although not responsible for academic management. Under the President are deputies appointed in charge of specific administrative areas such as

finance, personnel, marketing and public relations, and they comprise the operational management of the university (Nelson, 2014).

The academic division of the institution is headed by the Rector – a term derived from the Latin word and borrowed from the Catholic church. In Spain he is called *regere*, ruler. In Scotland, it was customary to call him "Lord Rector", in the US and Canada "Magnific Rector", "Vice-Chancellor " (Provost, in England and Ireland), in liberal arts colleges – Deputy Vice Chancellor. In Australia, the Rector is sometimes called "Dean of Faculty" or "Dean of College". In contrast to the President, who is elected by the governing council (usually a search committee searches for suitable candidates), the Rector is elected by all faculty members (for instance in Germany) or by their representatives (these are usually members of the senate and sometimes, for example in Italy, by a designated body that represents the faculty and the students). In some countries (such as the Czech Republic) the chosen Rector is subject to confirmation by the authorities (Nelson, 2014).

In almost all institutions, the Rector is in charge of the professional dimension of the academic work – both research and teaching, including appointments and promotions. His authority changes according to the institution, as does his status in the organization. Still, he is usually above the faculty deans, heads of the professional schools, and sometimes also heads of the intra-university colleges (in the case of a large institution with branches), as well as the student dean, research dean, and library managers (Almog & Almog, 2020). The Rector also heads the senate and the institutional appointments committee and is a member of all the university's managing bodies. In a large number of institutions, the Rector is, in fact, the second-highest-ranking official in the organization and also called senior vice president for academic matters.

Organizational structures that have separate authorities for administration and content are not rare and even operate well in many places. For instance, theatres that have an artistic director and a general director, or schools that have a pedagogical principal and an administrative principal. However, these have a clear hierarchy where one person heads the system and has full decision authority. In institutions of higher education, in contrast, the management model is not hierarchic. Although the President formally leads the institution, in practice, his authority is very limited regarding the core issues of the organization, i.e., research and teaching (including study programs, academic appointments and promotions). The Rector and the President operate concurrently, and their collaboration is based to a large degree on the goodwill and personal chemistry (Almog & Almog, 2020,. Apkariana, Mulligan, Rotondi, & Brint, 2014). The president is responsible of the administrative operations, and the rector is in charge of the academic

issues. However, when the president is also an academic person, that is, has an academic background, his attitude will include academic management, while understanding academic needs.

The two-headed leadership makes it hard to maintain synergic management and in many cases, paralyze the system. When the management of a single institution is divided into two heads that are also appointed separately, this is fertile ground for conflicts of interest and interpersonal tensions. This split also makes it hard to build a vision for the organization. Strangely, the split model was originally intended to allow institutions of higher education to conduct themselves in a supplementary differential manner (on one hand scientific experts and on the other administrative experts), but in practice, most presidents of institutions of higher education around the world come from the academic world. A comprehensive survey held in the US in 2001 found that 62% of all university and college presidents came from the academic world rather than from the administrative and/or business world, wherein public institutions their rate was even higher – 77%, namely, these are not managers with a proven record. In contrast, in private institutions, their proportion was "only" 56%, and these were usually professors with personal connections who made their way to the top of the pyramid by political lobbies, personal ties, and sharp elbows (Kaplan, 2002).

Notably, while in the US the orientation is more "administrative", more "economic" – which also dictates the professional profile of the board of directors and governing council, in Europe it is more "academic" (Almog & Almog, 2020). This fact might have significance for decision-making processes in the institution – whether stemming from academic needs or "business" motives.

Managerial decentralization

All academic institutions have a changing mosaic of disciplinary units called "faculties" (in some institutions the word "school" is used): social sciences, the humanities, exact sciences, natural sciences, engineering sciences, health sciences, educational sciences, and law. A senior faculty member heads each of the faculties called a Dean. Each is comprised of several departments headed by elected faculty members (this role can also be occupied by less senior faculty members). In addition, smaller and more focused academic settings also operate within institutions of higher education, such as laboratories, chairs, and research institutes (Eckel & Trower, 2018).

There is seemingly no fundamental problem and even advantages to decentralization of management, delegation of authority, and its distribution, but the excessive splitting of auxiliary units has a severely detrimental impact on the functioning of academic institutions for several reasons: First of all, the disparities between the departments are at times so large (the nature of

research and studies, the size of the budgets, the demand for studies, and more) that it is hard to apply uniform procedures, an overall policy, and a shared vision to them all. In fact, there is no other example of an organization that manages so many areas from such different content worlds concurrently. For instance, departments such as English literature and nuclear engineering, that have very little in common, can exist in the same institution and receive the same instructions and directives regarding teaching, budgets, appointments, and so on (Eckel & Trower, 2018).

Second, although all units are subject to the same management and the same university committees, in many areas the faculties and departments receive wide managerial autonomy, for instance in managing the budget, recruiting personnel, and developing study programs. The result is a lack of coordination or weak coordination between the units in setting goals, authority, and budgets, as well as many duplicities and waste of resources (Stewart, 2016).

Third, the university structure is so split and non-hierarchic that even simple management decisions require approval and repeat approval involving endless officials and faculty members (department council, faculty council, professional committees, ad hoc committees, and others). Another problem is the professional level of the department heads and deans. Institutions of higher education have gargantuan budgets, employ an army of workers, and hold yielding assets (buildings, halls, pools, property, shares, bonds, and more) that require regular maintenance, complex financial management, and thoughtful investment. This, while a large part of the department heads and deans lack any knowledge and experience in management and finance and did not receive prior professional training. Notably, excellence in research and teaching is no guarantee of management abilities (Hearn & Brown, 2016). In These e often conflicting skills that are rarely found in one person. It is not unusual to see a complete oaf, who can hardly manage his finances, elected department head or Dean. In many cases, the result is amateurish, often negligent management, that has a heavy price. This might explain why many institutions – that contain leading economics and business managers – accumulate giant deficits (Stewart, 2016).

Moreover, it is not rare for faculty members to be selected for management roles (by vote in the department, faculty, or senate) based on irrelevant and mainly political considerations of their colleagues. In many cases the choice is by default, i.e., the person who agreed to take on the role or “accepted the decision of the collective” and “did what was right”. The appointment is often agreed in advance by the senior ranks by using iances and exchange deals, where most of the faculty members are unfamiliar with the needs of the position, the candidate’s managerial skills, and all the more so his suitability for the role. They receive instruction as to who to vote for

and comply. In any case, it is clear to everyone that very little will change (if at all) following the appointment. There are of course faculty members who do well in their managerial role, but due to the current method, this is a matter of chance (Eckel & Trower, 2018).

Another problem with the academic management model is that senior managers resume their role as regular faculty members after three to five years in the managerial position. It may be said, of course, that there is something nice and democratic in this management rotation. Still, professionally this turnover is a disaster, reminiscent of the management problems that afflicted the kibbutzim in the communal era. First, until the new manager learns the secrets of the position, he is already on the way out. Second, the model whereby today you are my boss and tomorrow I will be yours creates contempt for the management role and avoidance of hard and painful decisions (particularly regarding promotions, cuts, and worsening of conditions) (Stewart, 2016).

Only very few survive in management positions over time, mostly not for the right reasons. In practice, in almost every academic institution, there is a small group of bigwigs who have their eye on the management positions and play a game of musical chairs. Many are mediocre scientists, for whom their political, managerial career in academia serves as compensation for lack of intellectual shine or limited scientific success. The true scientific geniuses are usually not attracted to management roles and internal politics to begin with and are invested in their spiritual world where they find their true calling. Hence, a study conducted in 2017 in the US found that only at the top research universities did the presidents have an impressive scientific record. Most of the other institutions examined were headed at the time of the study by inconspicuous scientists, of whom many had found it hard to advance in the academic ranks before being appointed to their prominent administrative role (Brint, 2018).

It is not rare for struggles between bigwigs over senior positions to create bad feelings – not only due to the ego involved but also because those selected usually represent interest groups and coalitions within the institution. Each group wants to ensure maximal control of power and influential positions to help its members with promotions, resources allocated and positions (Waldo, 1970).

It is hard to estimate when the current academic management model will cease to exist, but signs of change are already evident in the field. The financial crisis revealed problems of irresponsible management, disorder, and extreme waste in many institutions, together with weaknesses regarding control and supervision. The image of the academic institutions as bodies that are managed in a measured, thoughtful, and honest manner, as befits scientists and thinkers, is being gradually undermined. The “academic freedom”

umbrella is providing institutions with less protection. In several countries, there are already precedents of court interventions when universities refused to allow government officials to investigate their financial conduct (Hofstadter, 1955).

The considerable financial and management credit given these institutions in the past is diminishing over time and the funding bodies – governments, funds, and donors – are demanding greater involvement and transparency, including employing external advisors. Lately, organizations and associations acting to uphold government standards have been joining this demand, as has the media.

Furthermore, in many countries assessment committees have been established to examine study programs, the composition of the faculty, and the performance of faculty members, to increase g the efficacy of processes and determineg proper priorities for funding research and teaching. Several reports have also been published, which provided data, interpretations, and recommendations concerning the management and funding of academic institutions (Councilt of Higher Education, 2012). Indeed, the reports were as a rule conservative and the recommendations hesitant, making do with minor corrections. Still, it may be assumed that external demands for change will become in time more assertive and frequent (Santiago, Tremblay, Basri & Arnal, 2008).

Notably, supervision of the system of higher education has increased internationally as well. For instance, when Bosnia-Herzegovina asked to join the European Union, it was required to effect a reform in its educational system and adapt it to Western European standards (Jahic & Rahimic, 2017). It may be assumed that in the not too distant future we will see more and more institutions combining the roles of Rector and President and appointing more professional and active boards of directors and governing councils that demand close inspection of account books and strategic plans. Lawsuits too are expected to grow. Many institutions may shift to an accountability model of management as customary in the business world; namely, professional managers overseen by professional directorates (Eckel & Trower, 2018; Stewart, 2016).

Nonetheless, it is doubtful whether all these procedures will suffice to get institutions of higher education back on their feet. In the current state of affairs, it is doubtful whether capable managers, idealist. However, they may be, will wish to become involved in a tough situation with little chance of recuperation. What awaits them is mainly a giant deficit, faculty who protect their cheese and fight for their subsistence, Finance Ministry officials who are extremely strict, an anachronistic structure that is unsuitable for the new era, and finally also a much less sympathetic media. It is no coincidence that in recent years the rate of managers who have left their positions, namely were

dismissed, resigned, left after one term, or did not have their term renewed, has grown (Trachtenberg, Kauver, & Bogue, 2016). For purposes of illustration, from 2011 to 2014, 16 of the 34 presidents at top public research universities in the US resigned or were dismissed (Blumenstyk, 2015).

Academic work

The daily work of scientists in academia is comprised of five complementary activities:

A. Teaching in class, including planning and preparing lessons, checking assignments, and awarding grades.
B. Guiding students for advanced degrees (Master's, PhD, and post-doc).
C. Regular administrative and scientific work, including membership in professional and administrative committees, reviews (articles, Master's and PhD theses, research proposals, promotion portfolios of faculty members, and others) and sometimes also managing a track, department, or faculty.
D. Activities outside the main institution – for a fee or voluntarily – such as counseling, membership in government and public committees, collaborations with commercial bodies and media, and lectures to the wide public.
E. The most demanding task is research.

As stated, the current study is a pioneer study that is the first to examine the research output of faculty members who constitute the management spine of an academic institution. For this purpose, we divided these faculty members into four groups of seniority and responsibility at the institution:

A. President, Rector, and Deans – the most senior academic spine of an academic institution;
B. Heads of department;
C. Faculty members active on academic committees (appointment committees and others);
D. Heads of program, heads of study tracks, and deputy heads of department.

We divided each group in half (upper and lower) concerning the output relative to the h-index.

H1. The President, Rector, and Dean group will have the highest h-index mean.
H2. The Department Head group will have the second h-index mean.
H3. There will be no statistical gender-related difference in any of the groups.

H-index prediction

In addition to teaching (Davidovitch & Eckhaus, 2019a, 2019b, 2019c), publications are the dominant output of academic researchers (Davidovitch & Eckhaus, 2018, 2020; Eckhaus & Davidovitch, 2019a), and have a major effect on their promotion (Eckhaus & Davidovitch, 2019b, 2019c, 2020).

As a measure of research output, we employed Google's h-index, a widely used and studied metrics (Babineau, Fischer, Volz & Sanchez, 2014). The h-index is a measure of both quality (number of citations) and quantity (number of publications) (Hodge & Lacasse, 2011). That is, an h-index value of X is obtained if an entity has X publications that have all been cited at least X times (ibid.). Hirsch demonstrated that the h-index is highly predictive of whether a scientist will be chosen for a fellowship in a national academy or even awarded a Nobel Prize (Hirsch, 2007). The h-index is advantageous for its ability to classify an array of journals, and not only those indexed by Thomson ISI (Hodge & Lacasse, 2011).

Methodology

Sample

Empirical data of article citations and teaching surveys were gathered from 88 senior faculty members of Ariel University who were occupying or had occupied a position. Ariel is a state University. The sample includes the entire population of managerial spine. Age ranged from 32-50 (25%), 51-66 (45.5%), and 67-88 (29.5%). Twenty-nine of the respondents were females, and 59 were males. The roles were ordered in four groups of respondents, where group 1 had the highest and group 4 the lowest responsibility. Group 1 (16 people, 18.2%) - President, Rector, and Deans. Group 2 (55 people, 62.5%) - Department Heads. Group 3 (9 people, 10.2%) - Appointments and committees. Group 4 (8 people, 9.1%) - program heads, track heads, and deputy heads of department.

Analysis

We began by performing a univariate analysis to examine differences in the h-index between the four role groups, followed by a Scheffe post-hoc analysis to identify the group differences, and Duncan's multiple comparison test in order to examine differences between group 1 and the rest combined as one. Next, we performed a sensitivity analysis for group 1. In the next stages we investigated gender and age differences.

Results

Roles' h-index differences

All hypotheses were supported. A univariate analysis was performed in order to examine differences in the h-index between the four role groups, and found a statistically significant difference among them ($F(3,70)=4.87$, $p<.01$)). Means are displayed in Table 1. Next, a Scheffe post-hoc analysis found a statistically significant difference between group 1 and group 2 ($p<.05$) and between group 1 and group 3 ($p<.05$). In Table 1 we observe that group 1 has the highest h-index mean (H1), followed by group 2 (H2), and group 3 had the lowest statistically significant difference in the means.

Next, a Duncan's multiple comparison test was carried out to examine differences between group 1 and the rest of the groups combined as one. The test indicated a statistically significant difference between group 1 and the rest. Figure 1 illustrates the mean h-index for the groups.

Group	N	Mean	SD
1	14	25.79	12.10
2	47	15.11	9.36
3			
	8	11.75	13.76
4	5	12.00	8.86
Total	74	16.55	11.196

Table 1. H-index: groups' mean and SD.

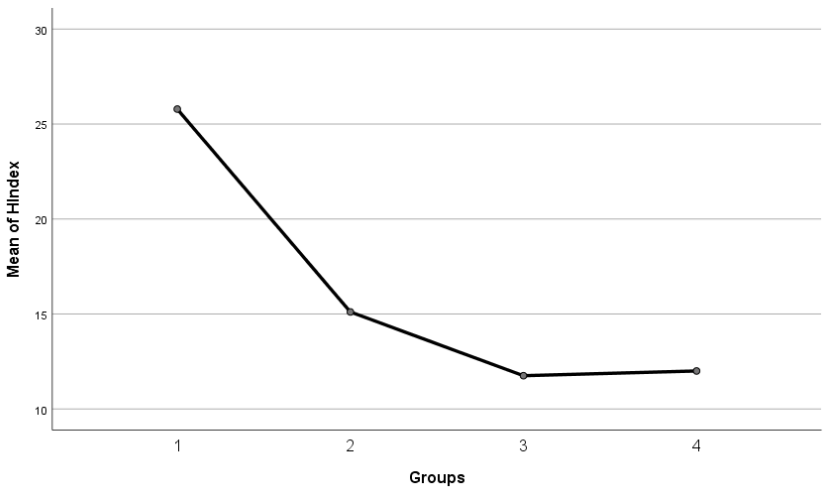

Figure 1. The mean h-index for the groups.

In Figure 1 we can observe that group 1's h-index mean is indeed much higher than the mean of the other groups. It is important to note that the calculation is based on the mean. That is, there may be some with an extreme

amount of citations who take the entire group to their advantage. We therefore performed a sensitivity analysis.

Age

Groups 1, 3, and 4 did not have a large enough sample for age subgroups to be measured. We examined group 2; however no statistically significant difference was apparent in the age subgroups. We also explored a possible trend for the leading group 1, however apart from the four extremes it does not seem to be a trend for age subgroups. Figure 4 displays three typical age groups.

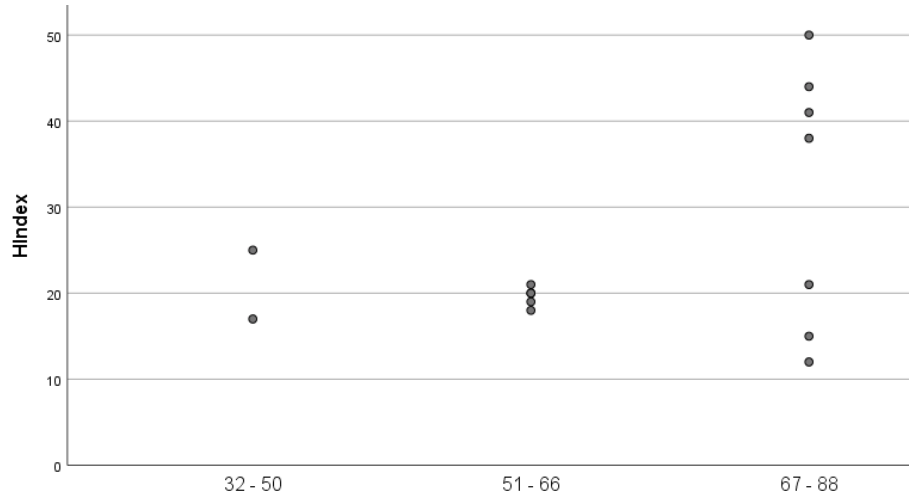

Figure 4. Division of group 1 into age groups.

Gender

We examined gender differences for each of the groups. Table 2 presents the group means; however, no statistical difference was found (H3).

Group		N	H-Index Mean	SD
1	Female	1	17	-
	Male	13	26.46	12.31
2	Female	17	13.53	11.06
	Male	30	16	8.32
3	Female	3	4.67	5.508
	Male	5	16	16
4	Female	2	14	8.485
	Male	3	10.67	10.693

Table 2. Gender-related h-index: mean differences between the roles.

Senate

Since a person who occupies a role may also be a senate member, we examined the senate separately. In order to ascertain the prevalence of senate members regarding the h-index vs. non-senate members, a t-test was used. Results indicated a statistically significant difference between senate members and non-senate members in their h-index ($t = 3.06$, $df = 72.54$, $p<0.01$). Indeed, the mean of senate members (M= 18.65, SD =11.85) was higher than non-senate members (M= 11.59, SD = 7.62).

We next examined gender differences among the senate members regarding the h-index output. A t-test was used, indicating no statistically significant difference between male and female senate members. Note that none of the members in group 4 were senate members and only three people in group 3 were also senate members.

Sensitivity analysis

First, we assigned a serial number to each of the group 1 members found to be the leading h-index group and plotted the h-index output. Figure 2 illustrates the h-index output per each of the group 1 members.

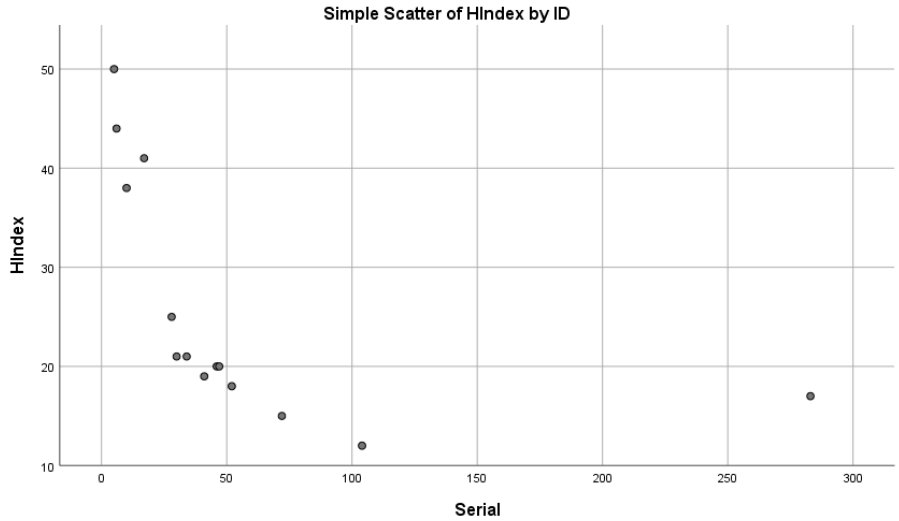

Figure 2. H-index output per each of the group 1 members.

In Figure 2, we observe that there are indeed four researchers with an extreme h-index score compared to the rest. Next, we removed the four outliers and re-examined the role differences. A univariate analysis was performed in order to examine differences in the h-index between the four roles, and a statistically significant difference was found among them ($F(3,62)=4.33$, $p<.05$)). Means are displayed in Table 3. Next, a Scheffe post-hoc analysis found a statistically significant difference between group 1 and

group 3 ($p < .01$). Similarly, as before removing the outliers, in Table 3 we observe that group 1 has the highest mean, followed by group 2, and the mean of group 3 has the lowest statistically significant difference. A statistically significant difference exists, however only between group 1 and group 3.

Next, a Duncan's multiple comparison test was carried out in order to examine differences between group 1 and the rest of the groups combined as one. The test indicated a statistically significant difference between group 1 vs. the two groups 3 and 4 together. Figure 3 illustrates the mean h-index for the groups.

Table 3. H-index: groups' mean and SD.

Group	N	Mean	SD
1	10	18.80	3.58
2	44	13.48	6.90
3	7	7.29	5.91
4	5	12.00	8.86
Total	66	13.52	7.07

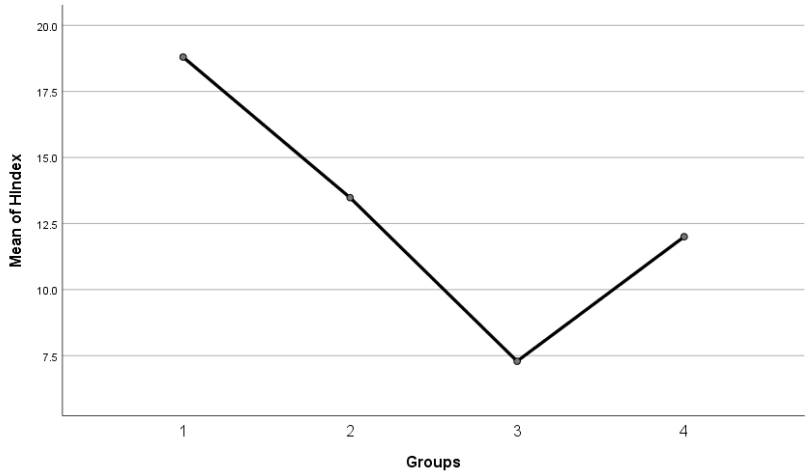

Figure 3. The mean h-index for the groups after removing outliers.

In Figure 3, we can observe the significant difference between group 1 and group 3.

In the next part of the sensitivity analysis, we investigated age and gender differences after dividing each group into two subgroups based on the median of the h-index. Table 4 presents the h-index means of the upper median of all groups. Table 5 presents the h-index means of the lower median of all groups.

Table 4. Upper median means in the h-index.

Age	Group 1			Group2			Group3			Group4		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
32 - 50	1	25.00	.	8	19.25	3.11	1	9	.	1	23	.
51 - 66	1	21.00	.	9	23.78	10.06	2	14.5	4.95	1	20	.
67 - 88	5	38.80	10.90	6	23.67	8.48	1	43	.			
Total	7	34.29	11.83	23	22.17	7.81	4	20.25	15.65	2	21.5	2.12

Table 5. Lower median means in the h-index.

Age	Group 1			Group 2			Group 3			Group 4		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
32 - 50	1	17.00	.	6	8.00	4.20	1	5.00	.	2	4.50	0.71
51 - 66	4	19.25	0.96	12	6.92	4.21	2	1.50	0.71			
67 - 88	2	13.50	2.12	6	11.50	3.73	1	5.00	.	1	8.00	.
Total	7	17.29	2.93	24	8.33	4.36	4	3.25	2.06	3	5.67	2.08

Group 1 upper and lower median

The h-index median of group 1 is 20.50. The upper group includes only males, however no gender implications can be made since most of the initial group consisted of males. In order to identify age differences for the h-index in the lower median group, an ANOVA test was performed. No statistically significant difference was found due to the distribution, where 5 of the 7 people are in the older age group and 1 in each of the other two groups. The older age group has a higher h-index mean.

In order to identify age differences for the h-index in the lower median group, an ANOVA test was performed. A statistically significant difference was indeed found ($F(2,4)=12.19$, $p<.05$). Since the younger age group had only one person, no post-hoc test could be performed. Therefore, we performed a t-test on the second and third (oldest) age groups, which showed

a statistically significant difference ($t(4)=4.93$, $p<.01$). In Table 5 we observe that the second age group has 4 people and a higher mean than the third oldest group. These results indicate that there are 2 people in the older age group, the group which in general is leading with the highest h-index, which hinders the group's general h-index, showing that although the older age group are the most productive, there are some exceptions.

Group 2

The upper median of the h-index includes 14 people. An ANOVA test was employed to examine age differences, showing no statistically significant difference. Table 6 presents the h-index per role for the upper and lower median of group 2.

A t-test was employed to examine gender differences; however, none was found for both the lower and upper median group. We can however observe that the lecturer's rank and experts (senior lecturer expert and associate professor experts) exist only in the lower median group, meaning that they lower the general h-index mean of the entire group.

Table 6. Group 2 upper and lower median roles per h-index

	Group 2 **lower** median			Group 2 **upper** median		
	N	*Mean*	*SD*	*N*	*Mean*	*SD*
Lecturer	2	4.50	0.71			
Senior Lecturer	4	9.25	2.99	2	19.50	0.71
Associate Professor	7	8.43	3.82	10	19.70	3.50
Full Professor	5	9.20	5.76	11	24.91	10.36
Senior Lecturer expert	2	2.00	1.41	.	.	.
Associate Professor expert	4	11.25	3.50	.	.	.
Total	24	8.33	4.36	23	22.17	7.81

Group 3 and group 4

After removing the researchers with the lower median in the h-index (the median is 7 and 8 for groups 3 and 4, respectively), there were too few to reach any statistical inference for the age subgroups, as well as any difference

in the roles. Table 7 presents the role distribution per h-index for the two subgroups of group 3. Similarly, group 4 consists of 5 people, therefore no statistical inference can be made for dividing it into subgroups.

Discussion

We examined the research output of faculty members who constitute the management spine of an academic institution. For this purpose, we divided the faculty into four groups by seniority and responsibility levels in the institution: President, Rector, and Deans; Heads of Department; faculty members operating in academic committees; and program heads, track heads, and deputy department heads. In addition, based on the research literature that relates to research output as dependent on gender and age, these two were explored in our study as well regarding the issue of research output of senior academic officials in an academic institution.

It may be concluded that the research findings indicate that the first group has the highest h-index, followed by the second group, and finally – the third and fourth groups. With regard to gender – no conclusions can be reached, as almost all those in this group are men. This finding might show that in 2020, in the early third decade of the 21st century, the management spine of an academic institution is still comprised, almost exclusively, of men. This despite awareness of the issue in all branches of management and academia in particular, and although the CHE encourages the integration of women in academic administration.

With regard to age – the group of retirees has the highest output. Has academia in Israel and elsewhere managed to integrate "retirees" as mentors of young researchers, supervisors for Master's and PhD theses, while recognizing their contribution – in a world with a rising life expectancy? And in general – how is age-associated with the academic output?

Notably, age and gender do not affect have any the h-index regarding academic output. The research findings indicate that with the degree of responsibility required for the role, the output of faculty members in this role rises as well. In addition, there is significance for "mentors" in academia, for those with a medium and low output. A type of "role model" by the "management spine" as researchers may be significant. Academic leadership is significant, and its meaning is manifested in the management spine.

The low number of women in managerial spine is notable. Eckhaus and Davidovich (2018) argue that the low number of women among senior academic faculty, is a global problem. While the are more females studying advanced academic degrees, but the rate of women among the faculty drops sharply. This may be partly due to the fact that the academic world encourages researchers to occupy a post-doctoral position in a different institution than

where they earned their PhD and this requires mobilizing the entire family which is more difficult for women.

The fact that the management spine has the highest research output has the potential to illuminate the management profile of the academic institution. Academic management is unique for being two-headed, with a separation between academic management and administrative management. The research findings raise the question of whether and to what degree are considerations taken into account in policymakers' decisions academic or are administrative considerations dominant. This fact might have significance for decision-making processes in the institution – whether the attitude is based on the needs of academia or business motivations.

This study focuses on a critical question in the academic world concerning academic background of the managerial spine, which in practice affects both the quality of teaching and the quality of research. For instance, a managerial orientation would be to expand the number of students in the course versus stressing the quality of education that would be directed at reducing the number of students. Another example that often arises in the academic world is the weight given to student teaching surveys. Namely, in many institutions, the teaching quality of faculty members is measured by student satisfaction, i.e., a managerial orientation of client satisfaction rather than the actual quality of the teaching. On the research dimension, it is possible to take as an example the stimulation and weight given in academic institutions to the quantity of publications due to the funding provided based on this output, which comes of course at the expense of research quality that requires time for performance and depth. The greater the academic institution's emphasis on the business dimension, the lower its quality – both in teaching and in research. The business conception is of course, fundamental, and this orientation must be represented in the management spine of all institutions. However, this orientation must be balanced by a management representation with an academic background, one that understands the meanings and implications of decisions from an applied direction in the academic world.

The radicalization of the business orientation might eventually lead to a situation where an academic institution will not differ much from business firms that operate professional courses, and it will no longer be needed. Hence, the business orientation that strives for maximal profit is doing itself a disservice and will bring about the elimination of the institution. This study presents a more efficient state of affairs on the academic level of a managerial spine that presents academic outputs and thus serves as a role model for the faculty members it manages and leads. Nothing, however, is static, people are replaced, and the orientation may change. In summary, we propose that institution heads consider the haphazard attitude involved in the increasing tendency to push academic institutions towards the business dimension and

that they make an effort to maintain the academic quality that has many implications for the younger generation studying at these establishments.

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Play Like A Woman! An Overview of Gender from The Perspective of Physical Education Football Players' Female Students

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Abstract

In this study, by determining the thoughts of women footballers about their experiences in football fields; aims to reveal female footballers and social reactions, and to take steps towards solving the problems. A semi-structured interview form created by the researchers consisting of a total of five questions was used in the interviews with the female football players who are studying at the Physical Education and Sports Department. In the process of creating the questions in the interview forms, a literature review was conducted, and expressions describing the existing situation were included. As a result of the interviews, the concept of "hegemonic masculinity" formed our main theme. There are three sub-themes under the main theme of hegemonic masculinity, which are "negative discrimination, discourses, and expectation". These main and sub-themes that are determined contain various codes. In the light of the data obtained, it could be noted that female football players have not yet earned their rights adequately compared to male football players in 2020, and they have not, however, overcome the barriers of the male-dominated football world in the field and their social lives.

Keywords: Gender, Football, University, Woman.

Introduction

The violence which defines the extremes, roughness, vulgar behaviors is one of the major problems we face in social life. Violence represents the extent of action, a force. This concept is considered in sports and football as the act of changing the outcome by resorting to force, instead of persuading or finding common ground between opposing sides. Being one of the most significant figures of the industrialized world and the fact that the competition attracts the people football has acquired a worldwide network both with the

economy it creates. The social and economic network created by the world of football ensures that the intensity of competition is not lost. Having ties in all kinds of social environments stretching from media, social media, press, audience, groups of friends to the streets may cause the rise of acts of violence and aggression due to the continuous fostering of the intense emotions and competition dynamics contained internally. The level of football has reached with the help of the press, and the media has provided a wide range of influence from international relations to economic impact. It has not been possible for individuals to be indifferent to football matches at the points where these levels have reached. The factors causing individuals to attend football matches as the audience has caused it to become one of the biggest stress release forms (Türkmen, 1998). The process of stress release may cause extreme actions due to a wide variety of causes such as failure to manage the feeling of overexcitement present like football, to it becoming an arena for opposing ideological or religious groups. Although it is evident that this process of stress release has a direct impact on violence and aggression in football, it may negatively affect all stakeholders in this network football has created. Therefore, the organizations working towards preventing violence in football, and the individuals who exert violence have different perceptions. The growing tension between organizations and individuals has contributed to the implementation of various measures. Still, it has not been possible to prevent incidents resulting in the injury or death of many individuals. Thus, it could be noted that violent acts in football have a hidden depth. In-depth analyzing the factors that cause acts of violence and aggression in football can be beneficial not only for decreasing loss of life or property but also for identifying the cultural causes (Dunning et al., 1986). The most common examples of violence in football are the discourse that contains swear words and insults. We see the fact that these expressions generally are stated in a sexist manner is publicly known and academically presented. When we get to the bottom of the historical and sociological bases of this sexist discourse, reasons such as women's role being reduced to doing chores and raising children until the 19th century, women newly starting to take part in labor in the world rapidly developing with the Industrial Revolution caused the struggle of women to achieve the right of equality on a social level to be a challenging and time-consuming period. This situation caused discrimination against and denial of the role of women in sports as well as it had in the workplace (Kidd, 2013). The perspective that prevented women from participating in sports activities fed on the mindset that women lacked physical skills and women's fundamental social duties did not allow such activities. It became inevitable for men to be at the center of sports culturally and numerically when sports activities were defined by high levels of performance, superior physical attributes, talent, success, ambition, and

records (Koca and Bulgu, 2005). Sexist discourse is discussed as the language based on inequality which brings with itself the perspective that the existing patriarchal social structure is absolute. It naturalizes, legitimizes, reinforces, and regenerates this situation (Akbaş, 2012). The fact that sexist language is used as an insult and is focused on womanhood makes it necessary for our country and the world to develop actions towards solutions. It is observed in the course of institutionalization of football that establishing an equivalent to the notion of promoting the equality of language, religion, race, gender that sports suggest, has required highly significant effort in the world of football which has established patriarchal networks. We acknowledge the establishment of several professional leagues after the overcoming of the historical obstacles keeping women from playing football. Nevertheless, the economic gap between male and female football players persists. Many problems of women and the football world are addressed both in academia and on the world media. Being an ongoing behavior in male football, we observe the use of sexist language in female football as well. Starting with this perspective, academically portraying this situation by identifying the experiences and opinions of professional female football players on football fields will be sufficient in demonstrating female footballers and social reactions, and in creating steps to be taken towards solving the problems experienced.

From the results of the study, it is aimed to draw attention to the problems caused by the sexist approach in the world of football, to discuss the solutions and to contribute to the literature by identifying the issues of women's football.

Method

The interviews enable direct quotations about individual experience, opinion, feeling, and knowledge (Patton, 2014).

In this respect, the importance of interviews emerges in terms of the subject, purpose, and context of our study, since the subject is sensitive and to reach conclusions of quality and to be able to extract in-depth and detailed information (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2003). With the idea that the in-depth and detailed information to be gathered from interviews to be conducted with the licensed female football players making up the sample study group would directly impact the goals of the study. The study was chosen to be performed with an in-depth interview technique of qualitative research methods.

A semi-structured interview form created by the researchers consisting of a total of five questions was used in the interviews with the female eight football players who are studying at Manisa Celal Bayar University Physical Education and Sports Department. In the process of creating the questions in the interview forms, a literature review was conducted, and expressions

describing the existing situation were included. Submitted for the expert review, the form was revised according to feedbacks and was made ready for application by the researchers. The questions in the semi-structured form created concerning the determined goals are as in Table 1.

Table 1. Semi-Structured Interview Form Questions

1	1. Do you think there is positive or negative discrimination against women in football?
2	2. Do you think there is a sexist approach in the language used towards women in the football field? Are there any incidents you have experienced or that caught your attention, could you share it?
3	3. Do you think women and men are equal in football?
4	4. How would you interpret and illustrate the behavior towards women in the football field?
5	5. Have you been subject to any aggression during your football career?

The participants of the study are female football players licensed under the Turkish Football Federation. Within the scope of the study, an e-mail was sent to the participants containing information on the purpose of the study, and interviews were planned with eight players who volunteered to participate. The details of the participating players are as in Table 2.

Table 2. Details of the Participants

Participant	**Age**	**Monthly Income (TRY)**	**License(Year)**
Participant-1	21	2650	7
Participant-2	22	2600	7
Participant-3	21	3200	7
Participant-4	23	3000	11
Participant-5	21	2800	7
Participant-6	21	2800	12
Participant-7	23	2850	9
Participant-8	22	3500	10

The researchers planned the interviews according to the date and time mutually agreed with the participants and conducted the interviews at a period suitable for the interviewer. The participants were informed about the study by the researchers, and a consent form that guaranteed the confidentiality of the information and the data only to be used for scientific purposes was mutually signed before the interview. The interviews were recorded with the

participants' agreement. The information about the interviews is presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Details of the Interviews

Participant	**Interview (min.)**
Participant-1	49,36
Participant-2	57,55
Participant-3	67,11
Participant-4	34,28
Participant-5	35,05
Participant-6	46,31
Participant-7	38,22
Participant-8	47,32

The recorded interviews were deciphered and converted into text. The interviews converted into texts have been coded following the content analysis by three researchers who hold doctorate degrees and were made into themes and sampled. Since there is no conceptual structure to guide the analysis of the collected data, this structure has emerged as a result of subjecting the collected data to inductive analysis. This is the main reason why content analysis was chosen for this study. The researchers interpreted the texts separately by looking at the number of concepts in the text, their meaning, the relationship between the concepts, and the emphasis on the ideas and expressions, and then evaluated them comparatively. As a result of the evaluations, a conclusion on the texts in hand has been reached, and the analysis has been completed.

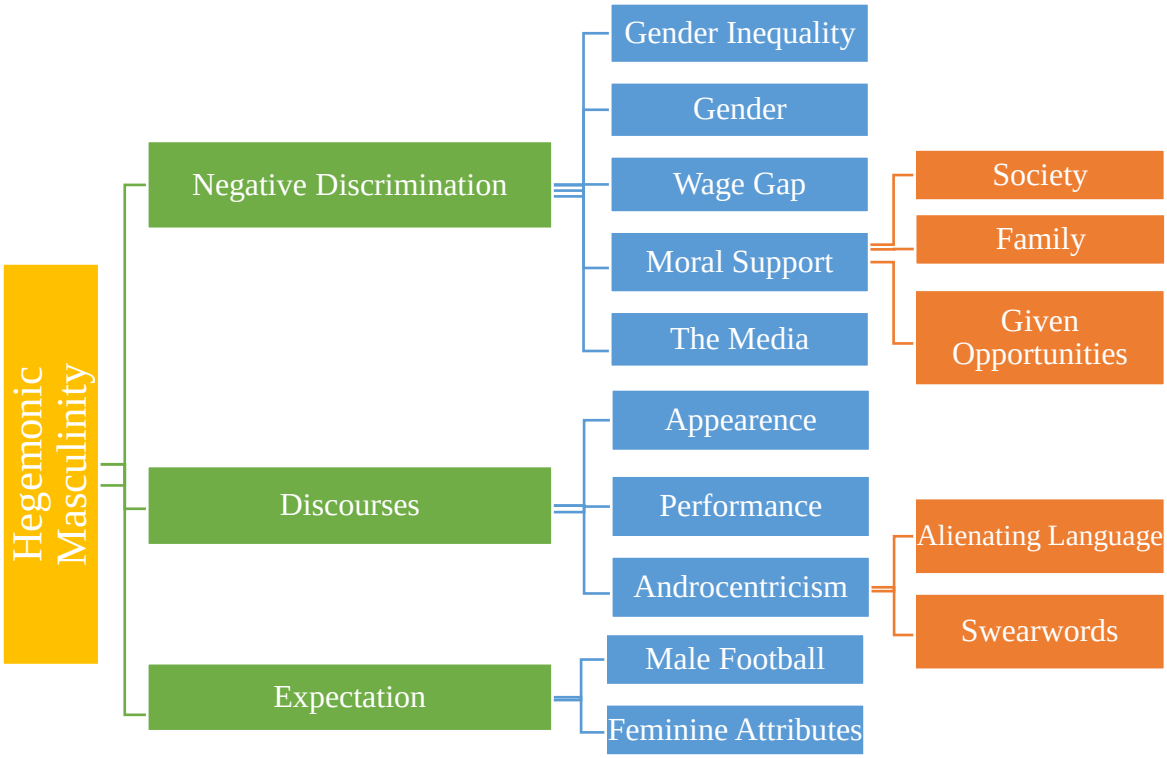
Results

Female football players and gender themes and codes were included in this section, including the findings obtained from the analysis of the information gathered from the interviews. The opinions of the participants were also stated as "quotations" in the findings section, and all the findings were obtained as a result of the personal views of the participants. While sharing the opinions of the participants, the identity of the participant was not used, only the number given to the participant was used.

Themes, Sub-Themes, and Codes

As a result of the interviews, the concept of "hegemonic masculinity" formed our main theme. There are three sub-themes under the main theme of hegemonic masculinity, which are "negative discrimination, discourses, and expectation". These main and sub-themes that are determined contain various codes. Sub-themes and codes in regard are given in Figure 1:

Figure 1. Main Theme, Sub-Themes, Code, and Sub-Codes



The details regarding the codes under the sub-theme of "*negative discrimination*" titled *"gender inequality, gender, wage inequality, moral support"* and *"media"* are as follows;

Gender Inequality

Noting that they are always seen as inferior to the opposite sex Female football players stated that this is not true and they express their opinions on this situation as follows;

Participant-1: *"I don't think we are equal in society. Men seem superior in every aspect, but I don't think we are different, I think we are equal."*

Participant-3: *"Of course we have physical and anatomical differences, but our opponents are same-sex players. Therefore I don't think anything is setting them or us superior to each other. Yet I think we see the*

value put on male football is a lot bigger than that of female football in our country."

Participant-5: *"When every woman is inherently different than every other woman, and every man is inherently different than every other man, I sincerely think it doesn't make sense to compare women to men. But these differences do not justify sexism either."*

English (1978) supports female football players by stating that football, being a masculine sports branch, contains a strong sense of masculinity and this situation causes the alienation of any gender and behavior other than the masculine. Women, as they become the alienated gender, see themselves as insignificant in football. This insignificance then shows the inequality between the two genders.

A study conducted by Davis et al's (2019) on female football players in the U.K. shows results supporting our research concerning this gender inequality. In the research conducted, the idea that female football players are physically disadvantaged against male football players, and the opinion that it would harm the women if they compete together was discussed. While the necessity of gender integration in football is addressed, it is stated that the repressive mindset of the British Football Federation is far from equality and justice (Davis et al., 2019).

Besides, the research conducted by Simon et al. (2015) reveals that women struggle for equality mostly in popular fields of sports where the physiological superiority of men is evident, and this supports our study regarding football being one of the most popular sports.

Gender

Female football players stated that playing ball was never seen as a profession fit for them, that they struggled to exist in this field and tried to destroy the perception of football as being a masculine job. The opinions of the participants regarding this situation are as follows;

Participant-2: *"Football is perceived more as a job for men in Turkey. I mean, male football players get more support than women."*

Participant-5: *"I think there's negative discrimination towards women. Because since the beginning, the idea of a women's job is to stay at home and do chores... It is not surprising in an environment where this is the general mindset."*

Participant-6: *"We live in a society where the general mindset is that football is not for women."*

Bryson (1987) and Connell and Messerschmidt (2005) define gender by stating that there are different roles in societies and that these roles are

assigned to the sexes differently. One of these mentioned assignments is, of course, created with the perception that football is a masculine game.

In his study, Williams (2013) stated that despite the rise of football, women have a minimal presence in this field, especially emphasizing that female coaches do not get hired, and obtained results similar to our study with the emphasis on gender.

Wage Gap

Female football players in our study receive an average of less than 1000 TRY per month in from their licensed football profession, and this is well below the earnings of their male colleagues with the same status. The opinions of the participants regarding this situation are as follows;

Participant-1: *"Women are supported less economically similar to other aspects."*

Participant-6: *"I don't think it is equal. We are not equal to men either economically or morally."*

Participant-8: *"There is a colossal difference between the men's national team and women's national team when we look at it in terms of both the significance they acquire and the salary they get. Or the youth setup of Galatasaray and the youth setup of the women's team don't get the same appreciation."*

Women struggle with wage inequality in sports as in many jobs. Women often play football voluntarily or continue their profession in sports with meagre wages. As a result of research, Sporting Intelligence (2018) stated that even in countries where women's football is relatively developed, among the elite players' women earn one per cent of the total of their male colleagues. Besides, the average first-team salary in the Premier League rose to £ 2.64 million in 2017, while the equivalent, the average salary in the Women's Super League, was £ 26,752. This situation itself is an explanation of women's wages in our country.

Nevertheless, there is also protest from American and Danish female football players against wage inequality. They demand equal pay with their male counterparts at the same professional status and are supported by their male counterparts. Danish and Norwegian male football players have expressed their opinion that women players deserve equal payment and offered to pay back from their earnings for equal pay (Wrack, 2017; Stump, 2016).

Moral Support

In addition to financial support for women's football, participants expect to be supported by society and their families. They also state that they

are exhausted since their clubs do not provide equal conditions compared to men. Participants' opinions on this issue are as follows;

Participant-3: *"We don't make the same money as men. We don't have the same opportunities. We don't get nearly as much attention as the male players in media or social life. Not just a player, anybody would choose to sleep on the streets than our facility. They have 5-course meals served in the men's facility of the same club."*

Participant:4: *"Football is clearly under male dominance in our society."*

Participant-7: *"Our facilities are inadequate. The fields we play on are like potato fields and our practice hours are arranged according to the men's practice hours. They serve different meals for teams of other sports branches than ours at the facility. Our rooms are for 3-4 people while the others are for 1-2 people."*

The study carried out by Wangari et al. (2017) in Kenya includes findings that support our study, revealing that women are not provided with equal opportunities with men, their access is minimal, and men are always prioritized.

In the literature review, many studies are revealing that many studies have been conducted to support women's football and that the society and official institutions support women's football, female football players, female referees, and coaches (Clarkson and Cox, 2019; Pfister and Pope, 2018; Lewis et al., 2018; Blair and Hess, 2017; Pope, 2016; Dunn, 2016). However, women in our study expressed that they could not feel this support either from society or their families. Therefore, there are differences in opinion compared to the literature.

Media

Participants discussed that representation of women on the media is not enough, and state their opinions about the relation between women's football and media;

Participant-6: *"We have sports news in media every day whether it is the newspaper or T.V. news, but none of these includes women's football."*

The research conducted by Cooky et al. (2015) reveals that only 3.2% of the sports news in the American media is dedicated to women's sports, and thus support the findings of our research.

In their study, Dunn and Pivot (2016) have stated that women are referred to and be newsworthy by their feminine qualities not only in football, but in almost all sports branches, and emphasized that rough branches such as football cannot be used as a media material. Therefore, this makes it harder

for them to appear on the media. The reason behind the media code, which is also among our findings is in parallel with this study.

Besides, in the research conducted by Dunn in 2018 concerning the media coverage of team sports and especially team sports like football associated with men, it is emphasized that female athletes cannot achieve equal representation if they contain non-threatening behaviors.

Details on the codes titled *"appearance, performance, male dominance"* under the *"Discourses"* sub-theme are as follows;

Appearance

Participants stated that they received comments about their physical appearances such as they looked like men and deemed suitable for specific sexual orientations. They say that these discourses are based on the masculinity of football. Participants' opinions on this situation are as follows;

Participant-1: *"I have short hair. I go to games. Say I went to an away game. Because I have short hair, I hear from the tribune things like 'there's a man on the field'. I think the reason is that football is seen as a men's sport."*

Participant-6: *"Especially in our country there's a saying associated with referees, excuse my language,' bastard referee'. We face this type of insult in our field because of our physical structure, as 'tomboy' and 'lesbian'. We hear a lot of implications of homosexuality,"*

In their study, Gubby and Wellard (2016) highlighted that the women playing korfball described themselves as "Tomboys" and were referred by such definitions in the society due to their physical properties. Therefore, they revealed data supporting our study.

Performance

Participants stated that women are compared to men, and this is something wrong, and they expressed their sensitivities on the subject that women should be compared to other women and commented on this basis;

Participant-2: *"In football, women are expected to compete as rough as men. Meanwhile, people are watching females playing football; they expect women to show rough competition as men. They are not aware that a sport, I mean any sport not only football, can be played intersexually."*

Participant-7: *"For example, in some games, our referees act as if they are our trainers, showing how to take a throw-in sort of behavior, and this makes no sense and isn't fair at all. There's a strict notion that women can't play football."*

The research conducted by Elbert et al. (2010) clarifies the basis of the attachment by stating that the violence embodied in male football creates an

appetizing motivation in people. As revealed by our study, this motivation can be the reason why women's football is viewed as naïve and compared to performances of male football players.

Male Dominance

Participants complained about male-dominant language and sexist discourses, and they expressed the discomfort they have about the language which constantly marginalized women as well as the swear words they hear;

Participant-2: *"Stating like 'this is not a football-playing', 'is this how you play ball', 'don't escape from competition', 'break her leg' are things mostly said in male football and are very annoying."*

Participant-5: *"I think the female referee conducting the game saying 'don't cry like a woman' to the players summarizes everything. The fact that men are glorified so much, and the women have devalued shows that we are a patriarchal society."*

Participant-7:*" There shouldn't be any petty swearing behind one's back. The context of the swears is generally sexist, but generally, in our country, the swearwords are sexist anyway."*

Participant-8: *"Phrases like 'man to man competition', 'don't play like a girl', 'technical man (used for coach)' are all sexist phrases, and because being a man is associated with masculinity and the male, the notion that football is for men is established. These phrases exist in branches other than football. We don't want these sexist discourses."*

In their research, Connell and Messerschmidt (2005) have found that male dominance in Latin America's football world in terms of both practice and discourse will continue for long years unless the society changes. Arguing that this male dominance will shape not only gender identities and roles, but also the future practices, and revealing the male dominance within football, they emphasize on common grounds with our study.

Details on the codes titled "male football and feminine qualities" under the "expectations" sub-theme are as follows;

Men's Football

Female football players have stated that they are constantly compared to men and expected to display man-like behaviors and performances. They mentioned that the performance-related differences between women and men as accepted in other branches must also be accepted in football. Opinions on this subject are as follows;

Participant-1: *"Men and women are different physically and anatomically, but in the field of football, there is something else. For example, when we are on the field practicing, or at a game competing for one on one*

and we face a negative outcome, our coaches ask us to use more force, or when I whip across. The ball falls short they tell me to hit the ball harder, what I mean to say is they expect us to play like they see men play. But we are different, and we can't pull the same game."

Participant-2: *"The audience expects the moves of men when they are watching women play the game."*

Participant-8: *"I think there is a sexist approach behaviour-wise. We are asked to play like men or talk like men, or even swear as they do. For example, sometimes people ask me if I swear on the field. They expect us to react like men, but they are missing the point that we are women and we play like women."*

Feminine Features

Female football players complain about a structure that expects performance like a man but does not want feminine features to be lost, and expressed the comments they received in terms of the changes in their appearance;

Participant-2: *"I even heard some implications from my father after starting to play football like 'you started walking like a boy', 'you are acting like a boy'. Yes, football is a little rough as a game, but it is not a field people should choose according to their gender."*

Participant-6: *"We encounter a lot of implications of homosexuality because of our changing physical stature. I don't think this is offensive, but people are implying them as insults. Football became such a men's sports and playing football as a w; we, we automatically face sexist insults."*

Gubby and Wellard (2016) state that women are forced to be attractive all the time and to abstain from losing their femininity. Gubby and Wellard associate the fact that women are forced to wear skirts and be well-groomed in Korfball with expectations of the audience, suggest that this does not pertain to only one branch and the expectations are similar in almost every sports branch, and thus support the concern about losing the feminine qualities as we have found in our study.

Conclusion

In the light of the data obtained, it could be noted that female football players have not yet earned their rights adequately compared to male football players in 2020, and they have not, however, overcome the barriers of the male-dominated football world in the field and their social lives. It should be stated that the stakeholders do not experience gender equality even in an egalitarian environment such as sports, and the social studies conducted in this

area are not able to adequately fulfill the demands of women in the football world.

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