European Journal of Educational Sciences, EJES

June 2022

European Scientific Institute, ESI

The content is peer-reviewed

About The Journal

The European Journal of Educational Sciences (EJES) is a peer-reviewed international journal which accepts high quality research articles. It is a quarterly journal published at the end of March, June, September and December, and it is available to all researchers who are interested in publishing their scientific achievements. We welcome submissions focusing on theories, methods, and applications in educational sciences.

In the past few years, academicians from over 50 countries from Europe and around the globe have published their papers in the European Journal of Educational Sciences.

Authors can publish their articles after a review by our editorial board. Our mission is to provide greater and faster flow of the newest scientific thought. EJES's role is to serve as a kind of bridge between researchers around the world. EJES is open to all researchers, regardless of their geographical origin, race, nationality, religion or gender, as long as they have an adequate scientific paper in the field of educational sciences.

EJES fully supports the open access and open science concept. The full content of the papers is available on EJES website and is free for usage.

Dejan Marolov
Managing Editor

International Editorial Board

Cuauhtemoc A. Carboni
Imperial Valley College, USA

Qingxia Li
Fisk University, USA

Yoonsin Oh
University of Wisconsin – Eau Claire, USA

Emanuel Oliveira Medeiros
University of Azores, Portugal

Sandra Chistolini
University of Rome Three, Italy

Rachel Dunbar
University of West Alabama, USA

Emilia N Mbonogo
University of Namibia, Namibia

Hazim Abdul Rahman Alhiti
University of Fallujah, Iraq

Aurela Saliaj
University of Vlora "Islmail Qemali", Albania

Rasim Tosten
Siirt University, Turkey

Raymond Arthur Chipfakacha
Higherlife Foundation, Zimbabwe

Table of Contents:

The Impact of Internet Usage on Students' Success in Selected Senior High Schools in Cape Coast metropolis, Ghana

Kwaku Darko Amponsah (PhD)
University of Ghana, Legon, Accra, Ghana
Godwin Kwame Aboagye (PhD)
University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast, Ghana
Millicent Narh-Kert (MPhil)
University of Ghana, Legon, Accra, Ghana
Priscilla Commey-Mintah (PhD)
University of Ghana, Legon, Accra, Ghana
Fred Kofi Boateng (PhD)
University of Ghana, Legon, Accra, Ghana

Abstract:
This Study explored the usage of the internet and its impact on the academic performance of Senior High School (SHS) students in the Cape Coast Metropolis. A questionnaire was used to gather data from 105 second-and third-year students through random sampling and was then analyzed using descriptive statistics and an independent samples t-test. The result revealed that Internet outlets for SHS students include school ICT labs, mobile phones, internet facilities for families, and public internet cafes. Furthermore, internet access influences academic standards among students, as those with internet access have shown a higher improvement in academic performance than those without. Different internet use, on the other hand, has no impact on academic performance, as revealed by the results. Similarly, the presence of several sources of internet connectivity does not guarantee immediate access to all of them. Therefore, it was recommended that the Heads of Institutions should liaise with other stakeholders to provide internet facilities with management support. It was also recommended that to support student research, the School ICT Laboratories should be well equipped with internet facilities and students should be taught how to use search engines to search online for academic materials. This is vital because the provision of school internet facilities plays a very important role in enhancing academic performance.

Key Words: Information and communication technology, internet usage, senior high school students, student success

Introduction:

In several fields worldwide, information and communication technology (ICT) has been a vehicle for creativity and quality academic enhancement. From both outside and within the classroom in the education sector, ICT has been an integral part of the teaching and learning process for high school students. The internet is a worldwide network system that connects a diverse set of commercial, public, business, academic, and government networks to enable global communication and access to data resources. The terms "Internet" and "World Wide Web" are frequently used interchangeably, although they are not synonymous; whilst the internet refers to the worldwide communication system, which includes hardware and infrastructure, the web is just one of the services provided through the internet (Techopedia, 2020). Internet usage explains the use of the world wide web to enhance academic work. The internet is the most important information and communication technology that has caused a global shift in information quality (Siraj, Salam, Hasan, Jin, Roslan, & Othman, 2015; Yebowaah, 2018). Siraj et al. (2015) identified the Internet as the primary information and communication technology that has led to a quality shift in the global information situation.

Similarly, because of its capacity to act as a support medium for several functions, the internet is a knowledge pool that offers an atmosphere in which millions of people communicate and participate in creating and sharing information (Rose & Fernlund, 1997). In the mid-1990s, educational institutions were introduced to the Internet as a medium to promote students' educational journeys (Ngoumandjoka, 2012). As a result, internet connectivity has vastly improved in recent decades and is now available in households, offices, travel, and classrooms (Ellore, Niranjan, & Brown, 2014). Research evidence (Adedotun, 2015; Akande & Bamise, 2017) shows that students' academic success is influenced by access to information. Mbongo, Hako, and Munangatire (2021) found out that the benefits of using online teaching and learning include flexibility, teaching large classes, increased interaction and engagement between lecturers and students, and the internet helps to make that possible.

Reliable internet sources for academic research are more relevant, particularly in high-school courses that demand a scholarly overview of publications (Sahin, Balta, & Ercan, 2010). According to Kim (2011), the fulcrum of teenage educational achievement is using the internet for academic reasons. Internet networking is now almost ubiquitous; for example, many learners have internet access on their cell phones (Ellore et al., 2014). As a result, learners can broaden their academic knowledge, research, and tasks by gaining access to global information and maintaining efficient communication in the world of academia (Siraj et al., 2015). According to Yesilyurt, Basturk, and Kara (2014), having a home computer and internet connectivity is just as critical for learners' success in academia as having self-learning skills. Olatokun (2008) suggests that many learners in Nigeria's high schools believe that the internet is better and more convenient than their school libraries when it comes to internet access and use. The students viewed the internet as a database of general information, which helped improve their reading behaviours and school success. As a result, the Internet is often used as an online learning resource, which has helped students improve their academic outcomes (Siraj et al., 2015). High school (Craver, 1987) and university students in Ghana (Ameyaw & Asante, 2016; Yebowaah, 2018) regard the library as a conducive atmosphere for learning and a source of appropriate and practical place to search for information. However, they would instead use the internet rather than go to the library since it often provides readily available materials.

Availability of internet services is critical for Ghana (Ameyaw & Asante, 2016) as Ghana is very ready for implementation of Education 4.0 (Narh-Kert, Osei & Oteng, 2022) and this is

because, research has shown that, easy internet searching, novel, and current knowledge have contributed to students' scholastic achievements (Kumah, 2015). Moreover, students' understanding of the importance of the world grows due to their use of the internet (Ogedebe, 2012). Thus, recent studies have linked regular internet use to higher student academic achievement (Mami & Hatami-Zad, 2014; Torres-Diaz et al., 2016; Carter, 2016; Sampath Kumar & Manjunath, 2013). In the metropolis of Cape Coast, however, research on the impact of internet usage on student success is minimal. Consequently, the emphasis of this study is on the effect of internet usage on student success in selected senior high schools in the Cape Coast metropolis of Ghana.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Internet Use

The use of the internet draws users' eyes to the world's vastness around them. The internet gathers various types of data that college students and senior high school students use (Akin-Adaeamola, 2014; Yebowaah, 2018). Internet use will continue to grow if users are no longer denied accessibility (Olatokun, 2008). People's ability to access data sites such as social networking sites, online sports, and cybersex, according to recent data, is made possible by the internet (Yebowaah, 2018). Most students have internet access on their mobile phones because of the internet accessibility, according to research conducted by Ellore et al. (2014) on the effect of internet use on academic success and face-to-face conversation. Students will expand their intellectual horizons due to this (Akin-Adaeamola, 2014; Yebowaah, 2018). Laptop use and online resource accessibility are crucial for learners (Akande & Bamise, 2017).

According to Yesilyurt et al. (2014), possessing a computer at home with internet connectivity is just as critical for learners' academic performance as having self-learning skills. Olatokun (2008) found that most learners felt the internet was much better and more accessible than their school libraries, based on their accessibility and use of the internet by senior high school students in Nigeria. According to the Study, learners see the internet as a source of general knowledge. It aids in developing their reading habits, which leads to their better academic performance. According to Akin-Adaeamola (2014) and Siraj et al. (2015), students regard the internet as a supplementary information source, leading to higher academic performance. According to Ogedebe, most students (2012) get relevant information, such as educational materials, get relevant information from the internet. This indicates that students are using the internet to improve their academic performance. Sahin et al. (2010) used university students to investigate internet outlets and argued that reliable internet resources are critical for academic Study, especially in higher-level guides that require a literature tutorial assessment.

Based on Ngoumandjoka (2012), it can be concluded that the internet is generally utilized for leisure activities instead of for instructional ones. Singh et al. (2013) indicated that students are increasingly inclined to utilize the internet. Still, they spend most of their time using it for non-academic activities such as email, gaming, and social networking. As a result, this led to setbacks in their academic plans. This explains the contradictory research findings on the influence of internet use on student academic progress. Akin-Adaramola (2014) in a study found that students' top activities are chatting, followed by uploading and viewing multimedia videos, browsing the internet, using the internet to find knowledge for schoolwork, searching for various websites such as sports, online news, games, and shopping online.

The demographic variables of students are assumed to impact internet use and academic performance as a result. A demographic comparison found that adult males were more commonly approved for internet use than females (Akande & Bamise, 2017). A subsequent

comparative assessment showed that male college students spent more time on the internet (Ellore et al., 2014). The cell phone, recognized by Rabiu, Muhammed, Umaru, and Ahmed (2016) as one of the devices used to access the internet, appears to affect academic success. They found that smartphones significantly influence academic performance among senior school students, both male and female. Again, Kim (2011) investigated the impact of internet usage on intellectual satisfaction and behavioural improvement among South Korean teenage girls, finding that girls are more likely than boys to use the internet to watch online educational coaching and blogs. Kim found that boys typically use the internet to play sports.

Similarly, a study of the socio-economic context, internet access, and performance of students found no strong association between the socio-economic background of students and internet access (Adegoke, 2013). According to the reports, students from low-income families use their friends' phones to access the internet, their friends pay for them at cyber cafés, and in certain situations, and they could afford to pay for themselves at the cybercafé. However, according to some other studies, students would pay for internet access (Osunade, 2003). Adegokea (2013) discovered that socio-economic records have a substantial impact on a student's satisfaction, while internet usage does not affect a student's academic achievement. Instead, the two combined socio-economic backgrounds and internet usage contributed significantly to educational outcomes.

Time Spent on the Internet

Studies now show that adolescents use the internet for different purposes stem from an adolescent interest in leisure activities (Bragdon & Dowler, 2016; Ogedebe, 2012; Singh et al., 2013). There is abundant evidence demonstrating that internet use has significant repercussions for everything from school grades to personal relationships (Rickert, 2001). The students who spend most of their time using technology for academic and work-related purposes are the upper class. The ones who spend slightly more time using cell phones, online chatting, and social networking are the lower class. Research conducted by Bragdon and Dowler (2016) showed that the use of technology and academic achievement varies according to class status. According to Olatokun (2008), about four-fifths of secondary school students in Nigeria have been regularly using the internet in their daily lives for the previous four to five years. Tertiary students in Nigeria (according to Ogedebe, 2012) check the internet after hours, preferring it to be done at night rather than during the day. It is a widely accepted fact that most students spend about 42.8 hours a week on their electronics (Bragdon & Dowler, 2016).

An analysis of Facebook and academic success was carried out by Krischne and Karpinski (2009). Facebook users, however, have reported lower GPAs and often spend fewer hours per week learning than non-users. According to Singh et al. (2013), students tend to waste time on the internet due to a non-focused approach (mailing, gaming, and social networking). Despite significant problems with internet addiction, Siraj et al. concluded that high internet use has more significant academic consequences because senior high school students can enter the world of information.

Impact of the Internet

Ngoumandjoka (2012) divided internet users into heavy and moderate users. Academic work, he believes, is the primary reason students use the internet on campus. The more scholarly work is shared online, the more it will positively affect academic grades. People who engage in

safe social activities with friends and teachers or use internet tools for route work tend to achieve more excellent academic performance (Torres-Diaz et al., 2016). Aitokhuehi et al. (2014) discovered that internet savvy students perform better than those who are not. Samual (2010) found similar results when studying the influence of internet use among Nigerian secondary students.
In comparison to their counterparts in other parts world, his research discovered that internet use among public colleges in Lagos is low. The Internet has now become a familiar object in most people's lives. However, because of its addictiveness, someone who uses it frequently is at risk of negative repercussions. The main risk of utilizing the internet for social networking and emailing, according to Singh et al. (2013), is psychological difficulties.

Türel and Muhammet Toraman (2015) reported that as students' academic performance improves, their internet addiction decreases. This suggests that students' use of the internet has an impact on their academic success. Austin and Totaro (2011) grouped internet users into light, common, and extreme categories. They discovered that university students who use the internet at school and home (moderate use) earn higher grades than those who do not (Aitokhuehi et al., 2014; Kakkar, 2015). Despite the many issues surrounding extreme internet usage, Siraj et al. (2015) concluded that internet use leads to increased academic performance because students can enter the world of information to boost their knowledge. Students' social skills and academic success are protected by their use of the internet (Mami and Hatami-Zad, 2014). The general internet dependency degree of male, vocational school, and verbal discipline college students were more significant than more academically clever students. This lends credence to the notion that how students use the internet might substantially impact their academic achievement (Aitokhuehi et al., 2014; Türel & Muhammet Toraman, 2015). Thus, students should be taught how to use computer tools to double-check their understanding of their academic work.

Challenges in Accessing the Internet

Inadequate, accessibility potential threats, and issues such as pornography, fraud, and other issues, according to Olatokun (2008), are the most significant barriers to total internet usage. Although research has shown that students prefer internet services over other forms of media, they have been challenged (Siraj et al., 2015). Teachers or lecturers may refer students to internet sites for more specific information if they always have access to the internet (Osunnade, 2003). Students at SHS have been found to have insufficient access to the internet. Aside from entry, it's disappointing to see that some students can't even use a computer no matter how many years they've spent in school (Samual, 2010). In the interim, outdated books can be replaced with the internet as a source of information (Osunade, 2003). Accordingly, Yesilyurt et al. (2014) opined that students' academic achievement, on the other hand, is linked to their ability to use computers and connect to the Internet. As there is a significant gap between students who have access to the internet and those who do not, senior high school students should be given the opportunity to explore the internet for information to become digitally literate since the positive outcomes outweigh the negative ones.

Statement of the Problem

Though it is challenging for students to perform their academic duties in the 21st century without using the internet (Ameyaw & Asante, 2016; Shitta, 2002), Ghanaian scholars have scarcely discussed the importance and effect of internet use on student academic success in literature (Yebowaah, 2018). Though, Singh et al. (2013) noted that some learners use the internet for non-academic activities like gaming and social networking, which leads to a lack of study

routines and, learners use the internet for amusement rather than academic goals (Olatokun, 2008; Ngoumandjoka, 2012), which might cause school achievement to suffer, several researchers have indicated that learners at SHS use the internet for several activities, including mapping, downloading materials, viewing online lectures, playing online games and making purchases online for academic work (Akin- Adramola, 2014; Hako, Tobias, & Erastus, 2021; Narh-Kert, Osei & Oteng, 2022). According to recent studies, students' academic success is for educational purposes (e.g., Ameyaw & Asante, 2016; Mami & Hatami-Zad, 2014; Carter, 2016) and learners in senior high school who have complete control over their internet usage have generally mirrored this in their academic achievement (Yebowaah, 2018). However, research on internet usage among SHS students in the Cape Coast Metropolis is lacking. As a result, the focus of this Study is on internet usage and its influence on secondary school students in Cape Coast Metropolitan Area in Ghana.

Research Questions
1. What are the sources of students' access to internet usage in the selected senior high schools?
2. What is the frequency of internet use by students in the selected senior high school?
3. What is the consequence of internet usage on students' academic success in the selected senior high school?

Hypotheses
1. Ho_1: there is no statistically significant mean difference between mean scores of students who have internet access and those who do not.
2. Ho_2: there is no statistically significant mean difference between mean scores of students who use internet services and those who do not use them.

Significance of the Study
Students and society at large would benefit from the skills associated with the use of the internet. This is because, even after their course of the research, the skills will be a part of them and help them cope with real-life issues and look for online tools. It also helps them plan after school for life. This Study would make way for more research in relevant fields to be undertaken, contributing to information, enhancing practice, informing policy, and helping teachers consider new ways of teaching and learning. In addition, the results would be relevant in many ways to different stakeholders. For example, the Study would help to uncover the value of internet usage and its effect on students' academic success is a good learning environment to help educators and learners develop the abilities to expand their thinking about the teaching and learning skills required to provide quality education.

METHODOLOGY:
Research Design
To achieve the study goal and precise goals, a descriptive cross-sectional survey research design was used to assess students' internet use and academic performance in Senior High Schools. Therefore, the purpose of the survey was to investigate access to the internet and how the use of the internet affects students' academic performance.

The population of the Study

The target population for this research consists of schools in the Cape Coast metropolis. The accessible population was second-and third-year students pursuing different programmes in the Senior High School 2019/2020 academic year. In the Cape Coast metropolis, the estimated population of years 2 and 3 students from the three selected schools was about 1,300.

Sample and Sampling Procedure
The sample consisted of students from years 2 and 3 because they have been in school for a year or two and somehow have more experiences than the first years. A stratified random sampling technique was used to select the students who participated in the research. Yamane's mathematical sample determination formula (1973). In all, 150 students responded to the questionnaire.

Instruments
Close and open-ended questions were designed and provided to students with self-administered questionnaires to assess the usage of the internet and the effect on academic results. The questionnaire consists of three parts. The first part details students' background information, gender, age, study program, form, residential status, sex-based type of school, and current average score for demographic details, as indicated in section A. Section B consisted of 9 statements about access to the internet by students. A dichotomy question, Yes or No, closed, and open-ended questions were given to students. Section C, given a 4 scale of daily, weekly, monthly, and not at all to choose, consisted of 13 statements on the frequency of internet usage and academic performance.

Data Collection Procedure
Data was obtained from senior high school students in June 2020 using questionnaires on google forms platform. Respondents were identified through their various WhatsApp group platforms through their teachers, and copies of the questionnaires were sent to them. The questionnaires were self-administered since they were all literate respondents (students).

Data Analysis Procedure
Data on background information from spreadsheets was transferred to the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and analyzed using frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviation. The means contributed to the analyses of the t-test to show differences.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Background Information of Respondents
The research shows the context of the respondents' significant attributes. The critical variables under consideration include gender, study program, residential status, and gender-based school type (single or mixed). Table 1 shows how the variables are distributed.

Table 1: Demographic Information for Students

Variable	N=150	N (%)
Gender	Males	76 (51.0)
	Females	74 (49.0)
Programme of Study	Agriculture	5 (3.3)

	Business	20 (13.3)
	General Arts	61 (40.7)
	General Science	37 (24.7)
	Home Economics	19 (12.7)
	Technical	4 (2.7)
	Visual Arts	4 (2.7)
Form	2	50 (33.0)
	3	100 (67.0)
Residential Status	Boarding	117 (78.0)
	Day	33 (22.0)
Type of school based on sex	Single-Sex schools	48 (32.0)
	co educational schools	102 (68.0)
Population of Students	School A	500 (38.0)
	School B	350 (27.0)
	School C	450 (35.0)

Source: Online Respondents, (2020)

From Table 1, out of 150 respondents investigated, 51.0% were males, and 49.0% were females. This shows that males tend to use the internet more than females. The students studied various academic programs, including Agriculture, Business, General Arts, General Science, Home Economics, Technical and Visual Arts." The majority of students (40.7%) study General Arts, whereas the least, 2.7% each Study Technical and Visual Arts. It was also observed that form 2 students were 50, which represents 33.0% and form 3 students were 100, representing (67.0%). Similarly, 78.0% of the respondents represent boarding students, and 22.0% are day students who stay at home while attending school. Students from Single-Sex schools were 48 (32%), and co-educational schools were 102 (68%). The total number of students in each of the three schools, A, B, and C, were 500 (38%), 350 (27%), and 450 (35%).

Students Access and Frequency of Internet Use
An assessment of students' internet accessibility is one of the research's outcomes. First and foremost, the availability of various forms of internet access to them has been investigated and the frequency with which they use various internet sources.

Research Question 1: What are the sources of internet usage by students in the selected senior high schools?
The data were presented in percentages to aid in answering this research question. The results are shown in Table 2, which lists the most relevant internet sources that respondents can access. Findings in Table 2 suggest that many schools have ICT Laboratories in their schools. This is true since many of the schools listed have ICT Laboratories on which students can rely. However, the fact that 68 % of them indicated that internet facilities are available in school suggests that some laboratories are not operational.

Table 2: Students' Access to the Internet

Variable	N=150	N (%)

Availability of ICT Laboratory in school	143	95.3
Availability of internet facility in the school	102	68.0
Enough facilities to access the internet	81	54.0
Access to the public internet	57	38.0
Having a mobile phone	138	92.0
Mobile phone access to the internet	137	91.3

Source: Online Respondents, (2020)

Furthermore, many students do not have access to the internet, which means they would be unable to use it efficiently for their academic work. This supports Olatokum (2008) findings, who found that inadequate internet connectivity is a problem among students in Nigeria. Personal mobile phones and public internet cafes are the most common ways to access the internet, accounting for 91.3 percent and 38 percent of all users, respectively. The findings indicate that students with cell phones have internet networks installed, allowing them to access the internet. This supports Ellore et al. (2004)'s claim that cellphones have expanded students' internet access. The desire to use cell phones to access the internet is global. The survey often provided a breakdown of how much people use the internet. The respondents were asked to describe their regular use of the internet from a variety of sources.

Research Question 2: What is the frequency of internet use by students in the selected senior high schools?
The results of research question 2 are presented in Table 3. Table 3 shows how the internet available to them was used. 37.3% use their ICT Laboratories internet in school daily, 25.3% use it weekly, 7.3% use it monthly, and 30.0% not at all.

Table 3: Frequency of Internet Use

Sources of internet	Frequency of internet use				
	Daily (%)	Weekly (%)	Monthly(%)	Not at all	Total (%)
School ICT Laboratory	56 (37.3)	38 (25.3)	11(7.3)	45(30.0)	150 (100)
Mobile Phone	130 (86.7)	12(8.0)	3(2.0)	5(3.3)	150(100)
Household Internet Facility	31(20.7)	13(8.7)	4(2.7)	102(68.0)	150(100)
Public Internet Café	7(4.7)	16(10.7)	16(10.7)	111(74.0)	150(100)

Source: Online Respondents, (2020)

Using mobile phones for the internet, 86.7% indicated they use it daily, 8.0% use it weekly, 2.0% use it monthly, and 3.3% not at all. For access to household internet facilities, 20.7% use it daily, 8.7% use it weekly, 2.7% use it monthly, and 68% not all. In public internet cafés, 4.7% use it daily, 10.7% use it weekly, 10.7% use it monthly, and 74% do not at all. According to the results, regular internet use is higher with mobile phones, and those who use the internet weekly use their school ICT laboratories. These results support Bragdon and Dowler's (2016) empirical

evidence that students with smartphones spend more time on the internet.

Internet Use and Academic Performance

Research Question 3: What is the consequence of internet usage on students' academic success in the selected senior high school?

The findings are presented in Tables 4 and 5. The Study's results provide the impact of internet access on academic performance among students. Percentages, means, standard deviation, independent samples t-test were used in the analysis. From Table 4, 95.3% and 91.3 % of the respondents indicated that they have internet access in their school labs and mobile phones. For household internet and public internet accessibility, 62% indicated that they had no internet access in each case.

Table 4: Internet Access and Academic Performance

Sources of internet	N	(%)	Mean	(SD)	T	Sig. level
School ICT Lab						
Yes	143	95.3	1.042	.201		
No	7	4.7	1.142	.377	1.226	.027
Internet on mobile phone						
Yes	137	91.3	1.064	.246		
No	13	8..7	1.285	.487	2.194	.001
Household internet						
Yes	57	38.0	1.612	.488		
No	93	62.0	1.714	.487	0.538	.141
Access to public internet at home						
Yes	57	38.0	1.612	.488		
No	93	62.0	1.714	.487	0.538	.592

Source: Online Respondents, (2020)

1.   Ho1: there is no statistically significant mean difference between mean scores of students who have internet access and those who do not.

Again, the analysis in Table 4 explored if there is a difference between internet use and academic performance. Given the two-tailed t-test, the P values for the following access to internet include; P = 0.027 with ICT laboratories in school, (t (150) = 1.22, M=1.042, SD= 0.201), compared to those without ICT laboratories in school has M = 1.142, SD = 0.377), mobile phone access to internet (t (150) = 2.194, P = 0.001, M = 1.064, SD = 0.246), compared to those without access (M = 1.285, SD = 0.487), household internet facility, P = 0.141, (t (150) = 0.538, (M = 1.612, SD = 0.488) and those without access (M = 1.714, SD = 0.487) on household internet facility. Access to public internet café at home, P = 0.592, (t (150) = 0.538, (M = 1.612, SD = 0.488), compared to those without access (M = 1.714, SD = 0.487). From the analysis, it is observed that there are differences in academic performance of students with access to the internet in their school labs or on their mobile phones. However, for those students

with access to household internet and that of public places, and those without, there are no differences in their academic performance.

Table 5 also shows the outcome of internet use on the academic performance of senior high school students. Regarding the search for library resources, 66.6% indicated that they used the internet to search for library resources, whereas only 36% confirmed using social media for searching for resources.

Table 5: Internet Use and Academic Performance

Sources of internet	N	(%)	Mean	(SD)	T	Sig. level
Search for library resources						
Yes	100	66.6	1.333	.472		
No	50	33.3	1.857	.377	3.696	0.08
Social Media						
Yes	51	36.0	1.037	.190		
No	94	60.6	1.065	.249	0.748	.139

Source: Online Respondents, (2020)

Ho2: there is no statistically significant mean difference between mean scores of students who use internet services and those who do not use them.

About internet use and academic performance, it is reported as (t (150) = 3.696, P = 0.08) on access to library resources, (M = 1.33, SD = 0.472) compared with those without (M = 1.86, SD = 0.377). For social media, (t (145) = .784, P = 0.139), mean of (M = 1.037, SD = 0.190) compared with those without (M = 1.065, SD = 0.249). This shows that internet use to search library resources and for social media does not necessarily influence academic performance.

Table 5 depicts students' internet use and academic success. First and foremost, many schools have ICT laboratories that are not in use (Table 4). In the survey, 95.3 percent of students reported the availability of ICT labs, although only 68 percent suggested that their school has internet access. This demonstrates that most schools have ICT labs but no internet access. Table 3 shows that having access to the internet improves senior high school students' academic performance instead of those who do not have access to the internet. Students who have access to the internet may perform better because they have access to a wider range of information. The results back the findings of several longitudinal research on the positive effect of the internet on academic success (Aitokhuehi et al. 2014; Kakkar, 2015; Ngoumandjoka, 2012; Torres – Diaz et al., 2016). The Study's findings examine how various internet uses influence students' success. The internet is used for a variety of purposes, including social media and searching for library services. The assessment was carried out with descriptive statistics, and the analyses of the independent samples were carried out with T-tests as shown in the table above. According to the table, students who use the internet for social media have a mean score of 1.03 and a standard deviation of 0.19.

In contrast, students who do not use the internet for social media have a mean score of 1.06 and a standard deviation of 0.24. Even at 10%, the test value of 0.748 is not essential. This means that the

sample mean is less than the hypothesized mean, indicating that the null hypothesis is false. The mean and standard deviation for access to library services are 1.33 and 0.472, respectively. The test value of 3.69 indicates that various internet uses have no major impact on students' academic success. This implies that whether a student uses the internet for social media or to search for library content does not necessarily affect their academic results. According to Olatokun (2008), various internet uses provide daily grasp and, as a result, enhance reading skills; however, Siraj et al. (2015) argue that the internet sources are a supplementary learning supply from unique sources that lead to students' academic success. This justification may explain that different internet uses do not affect a general daily norm of student academic performance.

Conclusion and Recommendations:
Conclusion

Access to the internet improves academic standards among students, as those with internet access showed more significant progress in their academic performance than those who did not, though the presence of numerous connections to 'internet portals' does not imply immediate access to all of them. Students in some Senior High Schools are unable to access the internet due to a lack of resources. Furthermore, due to school preferences, especially those focused on the internet, proper internet access is restricted among some senior high school students. On the other hand, students who are focused on the internet engage in home and public internet, which have little bearing on academic performance. From the foregoing, it is clear that students who have access to the internet have used it in various ways but most especially use it to facilitate and support their academic achievement.

Recommendations

The researchers made the following recommendations based on this Study's research objectives, analysis, and findings.

1) It is recommended that Heads of Institutions liaise with other stakeholders and supporting management to provide internet facilities. This is significant because internet facilities in schools are crucial in supporting academic performance.
2) The School ICT Laboratories should be well equipped with internet facilities to assist student research and Study.
3) Students should be taught how to search for academic information or materials online.
4) There should be effective supervision of students on internet use by teachers and parents so that students do not solely concentrate on social media.

QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE IMPACT OF INTERNET USAGE ON STUDENTS' SUCCESS IN SELECTED SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN CAPE COAST METROPOLIS, GHANA

Introduction

This questionnaire is being used to gather information on "**The Impact of Internet Usage on Students' Success in Selected Senior High Schools in Cape Coast metropolis, Ghana".** Kindly complete all the items in the questionnaire as frankly as possible. The responses will be used for research purposes only. The information is being collected as part of a study on Internet use and its impact on academic achievement and it is therefore strictly for academic purposes. I will be

grateful to have you take part in the Study by responding to the items as honestly as possible. Please be assured that the information you provide will be kept confidential. Thank you.

A. Background information
1. Gender: a. Male [   ]   b. Female [   ]
2. Age ………………………………
3. Programme of study:
   a. Agriculture [ ]
   b. General Arts [   ]
   c. General Science [   ]
   d. Business [   ]
   e. Home Economics [   ]
   f. Technical [   ]
4. Level: a. Form 1 [ ] b. Form 2 [   ] c. Form 3 [   ]
5. Type of school based on residential: a. Boarding [   ] b. Day
6. Type of school based on gender: Single [   ]   b. Mixed [   ]
7. What is your current average score ………………………

B. Access to the Internet
8. Does your school have an ICT laboratory? a. Yes [   ]   b. No [   ]
9. Does your school have an internet facility? a. Yes [   ]   b. No [   ]
10. Are there enough facilities in your school's ICT laboratory to enable you to access the internet?
    a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]
11. Do you directly pay for the use of the internet in your school? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]
12. If 'YES' What is the hourly rate for internet use in your school? (GH₵)………………
13. Do you have a mobile phone? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]
14. Can your mobile phone access the internet? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]
15. How much do you spend on your mobile phone for accessing the internet per month? (GH₵)…………
16. Do you have access to public internet cafes when you are at home? …………………….

C. Internet Use and Academic Performance
17. Which of the following sources of the internet do you use? (tick as many as possible)
    a. School ICT laboratory internet [ ]
    b. Internet on mobile phone [ ]
    c. Household internet facility [   ]
    d. Public internet café at home [ ]
18. How often do your internet from the following sources?

Internet Sources	Frequency of internet use			
School ICT laboratory internet	Daily [ ]	Weekly [ ]	Monthly [ ]	Not at all [ ]
Internet on mobile phone	Daily [ ]	Weekly [ ]	Monthly [ ]	Not at all [ ]
Household internet facility	Daily [ ]	Weekly [ ]	Monthly [ ]	Not at all [ ]
Public internet café at home	Daily [ ]	Weekly [ ]	Monthly [ ]	Not at all [ ]

19. What do you use the internet for? (select all that apply)

    a. Social Media (e.g. Facebook, WhatsApp, Instagram, YouTube, Twitter, etc.) [ ]
    b. Search for study materials [ ]
    c. News [   ]
    d. Others (specify)………………………………………………….

20. Do you use the internet to access library resources? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]
21. How many hours of internet use do you spend on the following per week?
    a. Social Media …………………………………………………
    b. Search for study materials ……………......................................
    c. News …………………………………………………………
    d. Others (specify)……………………………………………
22. Does the use of the internet improve your academic performance? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]
23. How does your academic performance improve through the use of the internet? (Select as many as possible).
    a. Improved knowledge in ICT [ ]
    b. Ability to access academic information [   ]
    c. Increase in average score [ ]
    d. Improves my communication skills [   ]
24. In what way does the use of the internet affect your academic performance? (Select as many as possible).
    a. Addicted to social media [   ]
    b. Reduce the time available for studies [   ]
    c. Vulnerability to immoral sex [   ]
    d. Decreases my average score
25. Which of the following factors limit your internet use for academic activities?
    a. Do not have access to regular internet [   ]
    b. Slow transmission [ ]
    c. Do not have a personal device for internet connectivity [ ]
    d. Lack the searching skills [   ]
    e. Addicted to social media and hence less time available for academic work [ ]
    f. Others (specify)…………………………………………

All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

This article does not contain any studies with animals performed by any of the authors.

Conflicts of interest.

The authors of this paper certify that they have NO affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial or non-financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; membership, employment; affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in this manuscript.

References:

Adegoke, S. P. (2013). Socio-economic background and access to the internet as correlates of students' achievement in agricultural science. *International Journal of Evaluation and Research in Education (IJERE)*. *2*(3), 123-128. Retrieved on June 30, 2020, from http://iaesjournal.com/online/index.php/IJERE.

Aitokhuehi, Oseghale, J. & Ojogho, J. (2014). The impact of computer literacy on students' academic performance in senior secondary schools in Esan West local government area. *Journal of Education and Human Development, 3*(3), 265-270. DOI:10.15640/jehd v3n3a21.

Akin-Adaramola, O. S. (2014). *The internet usage among secondary school students: A case study on Labone Secondary School*. Retrieved April 20, 2021 from https://air.ashesi.edu.gh/handle/20.500.11988/154

Ameyaw, S. & Asante, E. (2016). Internet usage by distance students in private university libraries in GHANA. *International Journal of Computer Science and Network, 5*(3), 513-522.

Austin, W. & Totaro, M. W. (2011). High school students' academic performance and internet usage. *Journal of Economics and Economic Education Research*, *12*(1), 41-54.

Bragdon, R. A. & Dowler, K. (2016). College student technology use and academic performance. Center for promoting ideas, USA. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 6*(1), 12-22.

Carter, S. P., Greenberg, K., & Walker, M. (2016). The impact of computer usage on academic performance: Evidence from a randomized trial at the United States Military Academy. *School Effectiveness and Inequality Initiative Discussion Paper* #2016.02. *56*, 118-132. DOI: 10.1016/j.econedurev.2016.12.005

Craver, K. (1987). Use of academic libraries by high school students: Implications for research. *RQ, 27*(1), 53-66. Retrieved February 28, 2021, from http://www.jstor.org/stable/25827990

Ellore, S. B., Niranjan, S., & Brown, U. J. (2014). The influence of internet usage on academic performance and face-to-face communication. *Journal of Psychology and Behavioral Science*. *2*(2), 163-186.

Hako, A., Tobias, E., & Erastus, K. (2021). *Exploring the e-teaching and learning experiences of lecturers amidst COVID-19 at one of the University of Namibia satellite campuses.* European Journal of Educational Sciences, *8*(4), 92-110. doi: 10.19044/ejes.v8no4a92

Kakkar, N., Ahuja, J., & Dahiya, P. (2014). Influence of internet addiction on the academic performance and mental health of college students. An international peer-review and referred. *Scholarly research journal for interdisciplinary studies*. *3*(21), 1151-1156.

Kim, S. (2011). Effects of internet use on academic achievement and behavioural adjustment among South Korean adolescents: Mediating and moderating roles of parental factors. *Child and Family Studies – Dissertation 62*. Retrieved on June 28, 2020, from https://surface.syr.edu/cfs_etd/62

Kirschner, P. A. & Karpinski, A. C. (2009). Facebook and academic performance. The Open University of the Netherlands, the Ohio State University: Ohio State University Press.

Kumah, C., H. (2015). A comparative study of the use of the library and the internet as sources of information by graduate students in the University of Ghana. *Library Philosophy and Practice (e-journal)*, 1298. Retrieved on June 29, 2020, from http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/libphilprac/1298.

Mami, S. & Hatami-Zad, A. (2014). Investigating the effect of internet addiction on social skills and in high school students' achievement. *International J. Soc. Sci. & Education, 4*(3), 56-61.

Mbongo, E., Hako, A., & Munangatire, T. (2021). *Benefits and Challenges of Online Teaching*

During the COVID-19 Pandemic at Rundu Campus of the University of Namibia. European Journal of Educational Sciences, *8*(4), 53-64. doi: 10.19044/ejes.v8no4a53.

Narh-Kert, M., Osei, M., & Oteng, B. (2022). *Readiness of Education 4.0 in Ghana. Open Journal of Social Sciences*, *10*(1), 502-517

Ngoumandjoka, U. (2012). *Correlation between internet usage and academic performance among university students*. Johannesburg: University of the Witwatersrand.

Ogedebe, P. M. (2012). Internet usage and students' academic performance in Nigeria tertiary institutions: A case study of the University of Maiduguri. *Academic Research International*. *2*(3), 334-343.

Olatokun, W. M. (2008). Internet access and usage by secondary school students in a Nigerian municipality. *SA Jnl Libs & Info Sci. 74*(2), 138-148. Retrieved June 10, 2020, from https://doi.org/10.7553/74-2-1295

Osunade, O. (2013). An evaluation of the impact of internet browsing on students' academic performance at the tertiary level of education in Nigeria. Retrieved June 10, 2020, from http://www.rocare.org/smallgrant_nigeria2003.pdf

Rabiu, H., Muhammed, A. I, Umaru, Y., & Ahmed, H. T. (2016). Impact of mobile phone usage on academic performance among secondary school students in Taraba State, Nigeria. *European Scientific Journal*, *12*(1), DOI:10.19044/esj. 2016.v12n1p466.

Rickert, B. (2001). Adolescent cyber surfing for health information: A new resource that crosses barriers. *Archives of Pediatrics & Adolescent Medicine, 155*(2), 813- 817.

Rose, S. A. & Fernlund, P. M. (1997). Using technology for powerful social studies learning. *Social Education, 61*(3), 160. Retrieved on July 29, 2020, from https://www.learntechlib.org/p/82549/.

Sahin, Y. G., Balta, S., & Ercan, T. (2010). The use of internet resources by university students during their course projects elicitation: A case study. TOJET: *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology, 9*(2), 234-244.

Sampath Kumar, B. T. & Manjunath, G. (2013). Internet use and its impact on the academic performance of university teachers and researchers: A comparative study. *Emerald Journal of Higher Education, Skills and Work-Based Learning, 3*(3), 219–238.

Singh, B., Gupta, R., & Garg, R. (2013). Study of medical students and internet usage. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications, 3*(5). Retrieved June 28, 2020, from www.ijsrp.org.

Siraj, H. H., Salam, A., Hasan, N. A., Jin, T. H., Roslan, R. B., & Othman, M. N. B., (2015). Internet usage and academic performance: A study in a Malaysian Public University. *International MedicalJournal,* *22*(2), 83-86. Retrieved June 20, 2020, from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/275833912.

Techopedia. (2020, August 17). *Internet.* Retrieved September 17, 2021 from

Torres-Díaz, et al. (2016). Internet use and academic success in university students. *Media Education Research Journal,* 61-70. Retrieved on June 26, 2020, from www.comunicarjournal.com. DOI. http://dx.doi.org/10.3916/C48-2016-06.

Türel, Y. K. & Toraman, M. (2015). The relationship between internet addiction and academic success of secondary school students. *Anthropologist*, *20*(1,2), 280-288.

Yamane, T. (1973). *Statistics*: *An introductory analysis* (3rd ed.). New York: Harper and Row.

Yebowaah, F. A. (2018). *Internet use and its effect on senior high school students in Wa Municipality of Ghana*. Retrieved June 2, 2021 from https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/libphilprac.

Yesilyurt, E., Basturk, R., & Kara, I. (2014). The effect of technological devices on student's

academic   success: Evidence from Denizli. *Journal of Internet and Application Management,* *5*(1), 39-47.

Socialization at Universities: A Case Study[1]

Dr. Aysegul Atalay
Elif Seylim (PhD student)
Ali Balci (Retired Professor)
Turkey

Abstract
Socialization process has a significant impact on learning, which is a basic requirement for both the organization and the role performance of the newcomer to the organization. It is considered very important for a new member to socialize organizationally and professionally. This paper focuses on revealing the process of organizational and professional socialization of academicians. In accordance with this purpose, in-depth interviews were conducted with 14 research assistants from various fields as representative of the academician group. The data obtained from the interviews were analyzed by content analysis method and some conceptual determinations were generated. According to the findings, almost all the academicians did not encounter any practice or socialization tool that would make them feel belonging to the profession and the organization or that would ensure their harmony with the institution they were in. The participants, who stated that they try to learn both the requirements of the profession and the problems they encounter in the organization mostly by their own individual efforts, stated that they achieved satisfaction far below their expectations, especially at the entry stage. As a result, it has been revealed that academicians are mostly alone in the process of learning academic life from the pre-entry stage to the settlement stage. It is necessary to establish certain programs at each university in order to socialize research assistants, who are in the first phase of the path to becoming faculty members, both in the organizational and professional context. It is further recommended that activities should be organized that will provide the following: direct assistance for time management, understanding scientific/academic processes, and learning organizational norms and values.

Introduction
Socialization is basically a lifelong learning process. Through this process, the individual becomes an actual member of society, learns culture as a way of life, assimilates and lives within it. Organizational socialization is a state in which the individual is a conscious member of the

---

[1] This study's results were presented as an oral presentation at the 12th International Congress on Educational Administration

organization he/she works in. In other words, organizational socialization is the process in which the employee gets out of being an outsider and becomes an insider (Reichers, 1987). Through organizational socialization, it is possible to persuade an employee to stay in the organization and to learn the norms and values of the organization (Champoux, 2011). According to Ashforth, Sluss, and Saks (2007), there are many studies that prove that socialization is especially significant for the newcomers' working life. This is because socialization is a serious process that affects not only the work of the employees but also the group they are in and the organization itself.

There are two basic dimensions of socialization: organizational and professional. Organizational socialization is a process whereby an employee learns basic rules and lifestyle. Professional socialization is another process when employees learn the attitudes and behaviors required by the profession. It is considered very important for a new member to socialize organizationally and professionally. On the other hand, seniors are required to follow the changes and developments in the organization and profession. As a matter of fact, socialization of an employee in both dimensions helps to increase her/his performance, increase the sense of commitment and belonging to the organization, and prevent leaving the job (Balcı, 2003). Therefore, in this study, examining both types of socialization was deemed worthy of research.

The socialization of academicians in Turkey is a process which is usually left to individual efforts of instructors. Compared to teachers, academicians do not go through various educational programs and activities (e.g., in-service training) which facilitate their socialization (Güçlü, 1996). In this regard, it is not possible to say that there is a formal program in the higher education system to support the socialization of academicians. For instance, the socialization of a research assistant both professionally and organizationally is based on what he/she learns from the relationship with the supervisors, as well as the individual efforts and experiences. When senior academicians come to a new institution, their socializations are rather based on the relationships with their colleagues and also knowledge gained from individual experiences. Time, experiences, and observations are important for an individual to acquire knowledge. There are no official regulations regarding the socialization of research assistants in the first phase of the academic life. Thus, it can be said that this issue has not been sufficiently emphasized in the literature. However, it should be noted that universities have different mentality and practices related to socialization within their own structures. Therefore, in the context of organizational socialization, the determination of the practices used in the socialization of research assistants in higher education, how they work, and the culture and values through which they are carried out has been a matter of curiosity. Thus, it is important to carry out this research.

Socialization process has a significant impact on learning, which is a basic requirement for both the institution and the role performance of the newcomer to the organization. In addition, it is clear that socialization makes a significant contribution to the adaptation of the employee during the work process (Ashforth, Saks & Lee, 1998; Bauer, Morrinson & Callister, 1998; Fisher, 1986; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). It was found that an adequate socialization experience, especially on the basis of organizational socialization, is significantly related to issues such as less role ambiguities, higher job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Therefore, it is evident that organizational socialization, performed within the framework of a structured learning or information program, minimizes the uncertainties that an individual may encounter in his first job experience and facilitates his progression in the organization (Ashforth, Saks & Lee, 1998). In addition, employees become compatible with their occupations, work environment, and colleagues through the socialization process (Champoux, 2011).

While some organizations provide adequate support for the newcomer to adapt to the environment, some prefer not to do anything. Newcomers often proactively seek information that will help their adaptation process. However, the socialization tactics developed by both the newcomer and the organization help to reduce the uncertainties experienced during the initial entry phase of the organization (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo & Tucker, 2007). In this context, Feldman (1981), Miller and Jablin (1991), and Bauer et al. (2007) draw attention to three basic factors for the employee orientation/adjustment period. These are defined as role clarity (reference information), self-efficacy (task mastery), and social acceptance.

Role clarity refers to what is expected or desired from the individual regarding his/her duties and roles in the organization. The role clarity provides the structure that outlines how the employee should relate with not only other colleagues and individuals in the organization but also his/her profession. The basic factors that will help the employee while on duty are as follows: Instructions or explanations about the job, organizational and professional procedures, organizational objectives, details of rules, informal networks, responsibilities, and organizational symbols and principles which exhibit the logic of the work (Miller & Jablin, 1991).

Self-efficacy means the confidence to learn the tasks required by the new job and to play the role acquired within the organization. In other words, self-efficacy contains information about how well the newcomer fulfills the requirements of the role (Bauer et al., 2007). This also provides information about the employee's value and capacity. Ashford and Cummings (1985) defined four main contents within this scope stated as performance feedback, progress-development potential, suitability of social behaviors, and competence of basic skills and abilities. Therefore, the self-efficacy of the newcomer facilitates the socialization within the scope of these four basic skills. More specifically, these four basic contents facilitate the adaptation of the employee in the socialization process while revealing the employee's skills and competence (Ashford & Cummings, 1985).

Social acceptance is related to the quality of the relations with the members of the organization. In other words, social acceptance is defined as the feeling of being accepted and approved by the peers and an effort to organize themselves according to the group (Bauer et al., 2007). It is clear that these three basic elements that become prominent during the employee's adaptation process contribute to the individual in the socialization process.

When the literature is analyzed, it is understood that socialization is examined as a three-stage process, namely pre-entry (anticipatory), entry (encounter), and settlement phases (Champoux, 2011; Balcı, 2003). Nelson (1987) describes the pre-entry stage as the information that the individual has gained about the organization before joining the organization and the expectations that have been created as a result of this information. The entry/encounter phase is the process in which the employees obtain the necessary information usually in the first few months, which helps them organize their roles in the organization accordingly (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). The settlement stage, which is also called change, is a process in which individuals create their own values and a new role, along with the demands of the organization and the necessities of the job (Champoux, 2011).

Some authors (Bauer, Morrison & Callister, 1998; Feldman, 1976; Louis, 1980) use the terms "anticipatory socialization, accommodation, and adaptation/role management" in response to pre-entry, encounter, and settlement phases, respectively. According to Allen (2006) who uses similar concepts, socialization is a multistage process consisting of at least these three steps. Therefore, the socialization stage that is expected or designed in the mind before entering the organization, i.e., the stage where the newcomer enters the organization which can be called

encounter or accommodation, and the stage where the employee largely conforms and now manages the role are the steps that must be managed well in the socialization process (Allen, 2006). Consequently, it is important to manage the employee's socialization phases correctly. This is because the socialization process through which the newcomer enters the organization determines how he tries to make sense of the new environment. Subsequently, the way the organization has been established and made sustainable can also result to permanent effects organizationally.

Socialization of Academicians

The role of academicians, which is the focus of this study, has two dimensions: "teaching" and "research" in general. Although it is not well known as a third dimension, academicians also have a role of "serving the public" (Bogler & Kremer-Hayon, 1999). Academicians continue to work both as instructors and students throughout their careers in higher education institutions. Particularly, doctorate education is the first stage that enables these two functions to coexist. Prospective academicians often acquire information through research, which enables them to explore the reality (Austin & McDaniels, 2006). In some cases, they enter the class and give a lecture. More so, providing a supportive environment and climate for young faculty members for both institutional and professional socialization is an investment that will enable them to become better academicians in the future (Bogler & Kremer-Hayon, 1999).

While Austin (2002) considers doctoral education as a socializing tool to prepare for academic profession, she stated that the experience gained in doctorate is the first stage for academic career. Accordingly, this stage in which critical learning is required for the preparation of faculty members should be considered both in the context of the workplace (organizational) and in the context of the responsibilities required by the profession (professional). Similarly, when the literature is reviewed, it is seen that many authors (Anderson & Swazey, 1998; Golde, 1997; Nyquist & Sprague, 1992; Sprague & Nyquist, 1991) states that the postgraduate education process including assistantship (research assistant) should be considered as the first career stage of academic profession.

How easily a new faculty member adapts to academic life can vary according to the type of relationship an individual has with his/her colleagues. In addition, the senior faculty members' willingness to bridge over the newcomer to learn both outside and inside of the academic world is an important factor. Therefore, the newcomer who tries to be a part of the organization may be faced with a challenging process if he/she does not get enough support from the environment (Cawyer, Simonds & Davis, 2002). Some research on faculties indicates that academicians experience uncertainties about their performance expectations (not knowing what is required to successfully fulfill their professional responsibilities), and they constantly feel isolated or lonely at work (Bowen, 1986 cited in Cawyer et al., 2002; Olsen, 1993). As a result, Saks and Gruman (2018) examined newcomers' work engagement in the context of uncertainty reduction theory. According to the researchers, instead of providing the necessary resources to facilitate the newcomer's engagement and socialization, the focus should be on minimizing and reducing the negative effects of the job.

It can be said that research assistants, i.e., young academicians, experience a lot of stress both for the academic profession and the institution they work for. The lack of permanent staff state (job security), the inadequacy of their incomes to cover the expenses they need to make in order to continue their academic and social lives, and the anxiety of completing their postgraduate studies in a determined period are just a few of the reasons for accumulated stress. In addition, adaptation to a new role such as transition from student to faculty member, balance between work and family

life, self-confidence in the scientific environment, and being successful are other causes of stress (Bogler & Kremer-Hayon, 1999). With a successful socialization process, research assistants can get rid of extreme stress situations and easily adapt to both the academic profession and the institutional life of the faculties they work with.

Through the study of Kondakçı and Haser (2019) on 40 faculty members, the socialization of newcomers at universities was analyzed based on contextual and process factors. The research findings suggest that contextual factors are power dynamics, role models, organizational trust, and trust in top management. On the other hand, process factors include social interaction, information seeking and knowledge sharing, and participation. When the institutions provide these contextual and processual factors, the new faculty members express positive statements about their adaptation to the new work setting. Socialization agents (leaders, coworkers, mentors, etc.) are important contacts during socialization since these agents often interact with the newcomers, support them, and may play a responsive role when needed. These attitudes leave a positive effect and facilitate newcomers to seek information (Wang, Kammeyer-Mueller, Liu & Li, 2015).

Mishra (2020) suggests some strategic factors in higher education such as social networks, social capital, and social support. Conversely, Cranmer, Goldman, and Houghton (2019) suggest that self-leadership influences organizational newcomers' adjustment and subsequent commitment by assisting them in seeking organizational resources. Hence, organizations should enhance the self-leadership abilities of newcomers. Consequently, the newcomers contribute to their own socialization by been proactive.

It is considered significant how the research assistants working in state universities socialize both organizationally and professionally at all stages. Since there is limited availability of studies on this subject, it is important to carry out this study in order to eliminate this gap, and to assist politicians and practitioners on this point. Thus, the aim of this study is to describe, as a whole, the organizational and professional socialization process of research assistants who are in the first phase of academic profession. Therefore, the following general questions have been raised:

1. What were the expectations and thoughts of the research assistants about the profession at the pre-entry stage? (b) How were their socialization experiences for the profession at the entry stage? (c) How do they socialize professionally during the settlement stage?

2. How were the institutional and organizational socialization experiences of the research assistants in the pre-entry period? b) How were the organizational socialization experiences of research assistants during the entry phase? (c) How do they socialize organizationally during the settlement phase?

Method
Research Design

The case study, which is one of the qualitative research patterns, was used in this research. The aim is to reveal the experiences of research assistants working in state universities regarding professional and organizational socialization processes. Case study is actually a way of looking at what is happening in the environment, gathering data systematically, analyzing, and revealing the results. The revealed knowledge or output enables one to understand why the event took place that way and what to focus on for further research (Davey, 2009). Case study is a detailed analysis of one person or a group of people. However, in case studies, a case or a situation is more than just an easily identified individual or activity. The case being researched may be in the form of an activity (e.g., a campus celebration, learning to use a computer) or an ongoing process (student learning/teaching) (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012).

Case study research may include several cases, i.e., multiple case studies (Gerring, 2007). This study is also designed to investigate the status of research assistants on more than one subject, including pre-entry, entry, and settlement periods. Therefore, this research is handled with holistic multiple case assessment method, which is one of the case study types. Through this design, it is possible to reveal how research assistants socialize and attribute meaning to it. According to Merriam (2013), qualitative case studies have three main characteristics, namely certainty, intuition, and description. Certainty focuses on a particular event or phenomenon while description enables intensive depiction of the final output obtained from the case study, i.e., the case under investigation. Intuition, on the other hand, enables the reader to better understand the case in the study which increases the experience or confirms the knowledge gained through the case study (Merriam, 2013). Nonetheless, much attention has been given to the study to ensure that it has these three characteristics.

Study Group/Participants

In this study, the organizational and professional socialization processes of research assistants were investigated. This group, which is accepted at the beginning stage of the academic profession also learns what the profession requires, along with the basic values and norms related to the organization and its duties. A working duration of at least three years has been accepted for the research assistants in order to provide the condition to determine their experiences regarding all stages, including the settlement stage which is the last stage of organizational and professional socialization. During the study, interviews were made with the research assistants working in different departments of the education faculties in three state universities in Ankara.

The study group was formed by the "maximum diversity" method. This method, which is used within the scope of purposive sampling, gives researchers an idea about how maximum differences can be obtained in a small sample. In other words, this method can identify a common pattern or phenomenon from different characteristic structures (Patton, 2014). For this purpose, interviews were conducted with 14 research assistants. Two assistants represented the following departments: the education administration, program development, assessment and evaluation, pre-school teaching, primary school teaching, computer and instructional technology education (CITE) and special education. The distribution of the research assistants participating in the study in terms of various variables was given in Table 1.

Table 1. *Distribution of Research Assistants*

Department	Number of participants	Seniority at the university (year)
Assessment and Evaluation	2	4-3
Special Education	2	4-6
Education Administration	2	6-5
Preschool Teaching	2	4-3
Program Development	2	5-6
Primary School Teaching	2	3-5
CITE	2	6-6
Total	14	

In qualitative studies, study group should be preferred instead of sample since such studies are conducted with few individuals or units. The individuals or units forming the study group should be introduced with all relevant characteristics. Information regarding the context of the study group should also be explained here.

Data Analysis

The interview results obtained during the research were analyzed through content analysis. The opinions obtained from each question in the interview form were deciphered. This was later coded independently by two researchers. Thus, the data were analyzed and coded in a "blind" format for the reliability of the study (Cresswell, 2014). According to Lincoln and Guba (1985 cited in Merriam, 2013), auditing technique is a method recommended for ensuring internal validity and consistency. With this technique, an independent reader can verify the research findings by following the methods and ways used by the researcher. Accordingly, an independent researcher who is an expert at qualitative research checked the codes, themes, and quotations in this study.

In order to increase the validity and reliability of the research, rich and dense definitions were included. Rich and dense description is a technique in which the researcher describes his experiences during data collection in a detailed way (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 cited in Arastaman, Öztürk-Fidan & Fidan, 2018). In this study, the views of the participants were included with direct quotations, and the categories created with these views were clarified. Subsequently, the validity of the study was tested also. In addition, participant confirmation was used in this study. The participant confirmation process involves testing the comments made by the researcher based on the data obtained from the participants. This is achieved by sharing them again with the participants in the research. This process gives the researcher the opportunity to determine whether the comments made by the participants based on their views really reflect the experiences expressed by the participant (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 cited in Arastaman et al., 2018).

Interviews were recorded on a volunteer basis for the validity of data collection and analysis. In this way, data loss was prevented and the data obtained from the interviews was controlled. As suggested by Freankel et al. (2012), the context of the questions in the interview form was explained when needful. Also, based on request, questions were repeated in order to make the data understandable and consistent. To assess the validity of the data analysis, the codes and the categories' rationality has been continuously examined. In addition, the developed codes and categories have been reported in detail. Furthermore, the opinions of the participants were quoted partly. The findings obtained from the study have been associated with the relevant research findings as the occasion arises. Participants were also coded as A1, A2… A13, A14 in the text.

Findings

In the research, the content analysis results of the information acquired for each question in the interview form are given below.

Reasons of Being Research Assistant

The reasons that led the participants to become research assistants are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. *Reasons of Being Research Assistant*

Theme	Basic Quotes	Total View (f)

Career desire	• Desire to reach more people. • Being a dream job. • To advance in the career.	14
Desire to contribute to science and discover	• To live life meaningfully and to answer the question of what is real. • Feeling free. • Intense curiosity to science, learning, and research. • The desire to be in touch with academics, to produce and to participate in scientific activities.	8
Desire to take more opportunities	• More opportunities than school teaching. • Providing convenience for self-improvement. • Participating in scientific activities more than school teaching. • Being more active than other professions.	6
Attractiveness of the profession and external factors	• Appearing more attractive and reputable than school teaching or other professions. • The impact of the environment and point of view to the profession. • Feeling free compared to school teaching and having a desk job. • Higher salary than public school teachers.	5

As seen in Table 2, the desire to have an academic career is the most stated motivation among the reasons why the participants become academicians (f: 14). Accordingly, the most important factor for the participants to choose this profession is because it is their dream occupation. In addition, the desire to reach more people and the presence of steps in the fields of this profession are among the other factors that make the profession attractive.

It has been understood that the research assistants' ways of obtaining pre-entry information about their profession are mostly through individual efforts (internet, consulting teachers, reading relevant regulations, observing teachers in the university, etc.). Their interest in the profession is seen as the most important reason for their research on this issue. In addition, the academic profession looks more attractive and more reputable than some profession groups, the effect of the environment and the point of view to the profession, as well as the thought of having a desk job are among the reasons for choosing this profession. However, it seems possible to say that there are still some research assistants who do not put in any effort to learn something related to the profession in pre-entry stage. There are also research assistants who learn by letting things flow during master and doctorate education process.

Problems Encountered in the Professional and Organizational Context
The themes in Figure 1 were collated when the expectations of the researchers regarding the socialization practices in the organizational and professional context were examined.
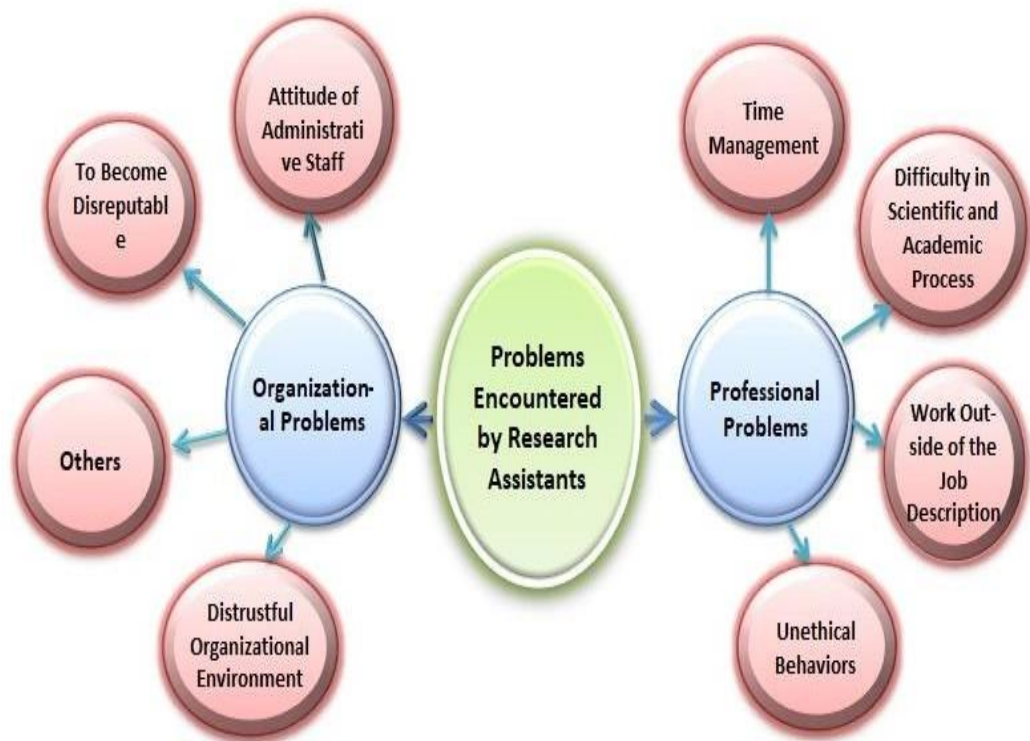
Figure 1. *Problems Encountered by Research Assistant*

As seen in Figure 1, the themes related to the problems faced by the research assistants in the entry stage are dealt with in two different contexts: the organizational and professional context. When the problems related to the profession are analyzed, four basic categories, namely time management, difficulty in scientific and academic processes, work outside of the job description and unethical behaviors, have been created. Similarly, four basic categories have been created within the context of organizational problems such as the attitude of administrative staff, disreputability, distrustful organization environment, and others.

The formatted quotations regarding the contents of general themes related to the problems faced by research assistants are given in Table 3.

Table 3. *The Problems Encountered both Professionally and Organizationally*

Theme	Basic Quotes	Total View (f)
Time Management Problem	• Retard the works, doing things when going home. • Inability to have time for himself/herself and for other works. • Need to study out of working hours. • Too little time left for family and private life.	14

Having Difficulty in Academic or Scientific Processes	• Become distanced from the basic information of the field, having difficulty. • Inability to attend to surroundings to do research. • Inability to participate in discussions about practices in lessons. • Being unfamiliar with the scientific research processes. • Having difficulty in scientific processes such as academic writing and data analysis. • Not knowing exactly what to do during the research processes. • The laboriousness of catching up the studies and making contributions to the field.	12
Working not including Job content	• More paperwork than expected. • Too many administrative duties. • Too many works on the basis of departments rather than courses. Working like a civil servant. • Having too many undefined workloads.	18
Drifting into Unethical Situations	• Witnessing unethical behaviors of academicians (facilitating the processes of those they see close to themselves, giving high scores in graduate courses, and helping them to be tenured). • Feeling being used in research activities. • Being subjected to doing work behaviors such as substitute for lecturing and reading paperwork. • Being forced to give a lesson for undergraduate students without feeling ready.	11
Attitude of Administrative Staff	• Being ignored by administrative staff. • Gossiping about themselves with other academicians. • Communication problems and conflicts with administrative staff.	6
Distrustful Organization Environment	• Establishing benefit-based relationships. • Occurring groups, being labeled. • Having a remote organizational climate. • Lack of trustworthy people in the academic community. • Failure to keep a given secret, spreading rumors, gossiping a lot. • Knowing everyone by sight only but not getting to know in real. • Inability to express oneself freely. • Excessive respect and obedience expectations of superiors. • Relationships changing from person to person, based on nepotism.	24

Becoming Disreputable	• Feeling to be made inferior. • Not being able to get the respect deserved, to get short shrift. • The lack in understanding of superiors. • Getting physical appearance to intervene like clothing, mustache, and beard. • Interpreting the requirements of the research assistant position according to their own.	10
Others	• To question the nature of the work done. • Feeling the superiors fall short of the mark. • Not receiving the necessary academic support from superiors. • Official communication channels are not respected or given importance. • The job is not being done professionally. • Feeling as if one is flogging a dead horse. • Believing that the studies done at the university do not reach the basic problems.	10

It is observed from Table 3 that the theme which reveals the major problem encountered by research assistants in regard to the profession is the aspect of working beyond the job description (f: 18). Participants state that they are burdened with too much undefined work and they are given too many administrative duties that hinder their academic life. In addition, they express that research assistants have difficulties in their academic life and do not know exactly what to do in scientific processes, especially at the entrance stage. The views of one of the academicians who stated that he could spare little time for his private life and that his work was constantly disrupted or taken home was gathered under the theme of time management.

In the context of organizational problems, it is important to note that research assistants express their opinions the most on the theme of distrustful organizational environment (f: 24). Participants who stated that there are groupings in the organizational environment, whereby nobody actually knows each other and relations are developed based on self-interests, mostly complain that they could not express themselves freely. On the other hand, research assistants who think that the organization they are in makes their profession and their position worthless also state that they are not respected sufficiently within the organization. The expressions containing these thoughts are gathered under the theme of becoming disreputable. Other themes in the context of organizational problems are the attitude of administrative staff and other categories that include various expressions.

Problem Solving Tactics during Organizational and Professional Socialization

Two types of responses were developed when the problems faced by research assistants based on organizational and professional processes were examined. These reaction types are presented in Figure 2.
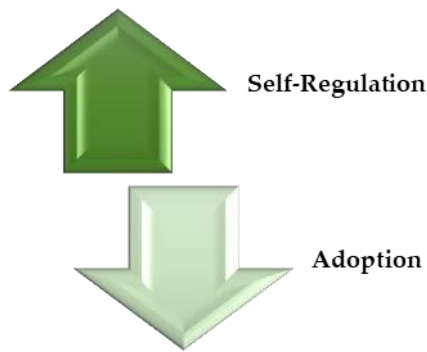
Figure 2. *Problem Solving Tactics*

It has been determined that research assistants cope with the problems they encounter during organizational and professional processes by adopting them or by self-regulation in their own lives. Considering the information obtained from the participants regarding these two strategies, it is seen that research assistants mostly tend to regulate themselves (f: 20) to solve problems. Participants organize their private lives according to the problem they encounter by changing their priorities and developing behaviors such as coming early, leaving late, and sleeping less. Also, they try to cope with the problems they encounter through certain ways such as counseling, getting help from experienced people, observing, and cooperating. However, it is observed that behaviors such as not questioning, accepting, withdrawing, and not reacting to the problem they encounter are also developed. These statements are gathered under the theme of adoption (f: 10). The process of how research assistants learn academic life was examined and the following statements were obtained in Table 4.

Table 4. *The Ways of Learning Academic Life*

Theme	Basic Quotes	Total View (f)
Experiences-Initiatives	• Learning through experiences. • By making mistakes. • By trying to get information from every relevant unit and person in the organization. • By individual efforts. • Observing. • Talking to other colleagues, getting opinions, and asking questions. • With experience gained over time. • Endeavoring to enter academic environments.	23
External Directions	• Via guidance of supervisor. • Through reprimands and warnings for mistakes made. • Urged by obligation in line with the assigned duties.	7

It is observed from Table 4 that the learning styles of research assistants about academic life takes place in two ways, namely experiences or initiatives and external orientation. The lack of a clear job description for research assistants in general can be regarded as an important problem. Based on the opinions examined, it is clear that research assistants learn what their profession expects from them and how they will enter into a learning process through experiences.

Organizational Activities and Individual Initiatives in Socialization of Research Assistants

According to the opinions received, it is understood that the universities do not organize any programs or launch initiatives for research assistants in terms of learning about university life. Almost all the research assistants stated that no activity or event was organized for them by their organization in the context of socialization. For example, one of the participants (R2) stated his views as follows:

Mostly, it didn't happen. As soon as I arrived, I was given administrative duties from four branches and I get membership in four commissions. I learned how things work in these commissions while I was doing those works. I did not participate in any orientation work. Therefore, my learning and initiatives completely happened due to reasons beyond my control in line with the tasks assigned to me.

Another participant (A4) expressed her opinion on this issue as follows:

No arrangements such as any event or orientation program were made for us. Learning about the culture of the organization was also something I learned through experiences. It was very scary at first to find myself involved in works that I did not know or were directed. Actually, it's still stressful and scary for me. But I admitted that I was entirely on my own to learn about works or any task given to me. If only someone had told me where the library or the cafeteria was when I first arrived at least. For example, someone could come to my room and give a welcome. At those days I felt so despised.

Occupational Integration

The data in Table 5 were collated when the reasons to feel or not feel a sense of belonging to the profession was examined.

Table 5. *Reasons to Feel or not Feel a Sense of Belonging to the Profession and Organization (Integration) States*

Theme	Basic Quotes	Total View (f)
Reasons to Feel a Sense of Belonging to the Profession	• Doing scientific research and studies with superiors and other colleagues. • When learning more about the profession academically. • When learning and self-improvement is acquired as a lifestyle. • Collaborating or carrying out a project with people from other departments.	7

	• Attending congresses, writing articles, and participating in projects and scientific events.	
Reasons to Feel a Sense of Belonging to an Organization	• Getting support of the organization and feeling like a part of the group. • More interaction with faculty members of the department. • Celebration of special days.	7
Reasons to not Feel a Sense of Belonging to the Profession	• Demands beyond professional qualifications. • Showing the practices as if done ideally, but not actually. • Worrying about the future position. • Constantly changing laws create insecurity for the profession. • Failure to reveal and determine exactly what is expected from the profession exactly. • Encountering changeable demands, not having fixed task content.	19
Reasons to not Feel a Sense of Belonging to an Organization	• Feeling out of the organizational culture. • Too many rumors and gossips. • Making research assistants undertake the tasks which officials need to do. • Inconsistency between what is done and what is said. • Staying in a room far from the department professors' rooms, experiencing disconnection. • Lack of trust to organization members and distrustful environment.	14

According to Table 5, research assistants mostly express their opinions on the reasons to not feel a sense of belonging to the profession (f: 19). Reasons such as the lack of an explicit job description regarding the profession, changeable demands, worrying about the future of the job, and having no constant law to protect the job are listed under this theme. More so, the fact that the research assistants do not feel the sense of belonging to the profession is mostly affected by their future anxiety.

Furthermore, research assistants are faced with some difficulties that make them not feel a sense of belonging to the organization. For instance, some research assistants feel left out of the organization culture and think there are too many gossips and rumors in the organizations. According to the assistants, there is also lack of trust between organization members and living in a distrustful environment. Therefore, undertaking faculty officials' tasks, the inconsistency between what is done and what is said, and having a study room far from other senior members of the department are listed under the theme of the reasons to not feel a sense of belonging to the organization.

Although some participants encounter adverse conditions, they think they feel integrated with the profession or they belong to the job. However, it has been stated that being in a distrustful and insecure environment makes them feel like an outsider in the organization. In particular, when

no effort is made to solve this situation, it makes their organizational commitment decrease. Thus, through examined opinions, it is evident that research assistants feel integrated with the profession because of the willingness to work. However, they do not feel a sense of belonging to the organization even though they encounter certain difficulties. One of the participants (A9) presented his opinion on this point as follows:

> I may say that I have a great integration with academic profession. I love searching. I love attending congresses, writing articles, writing projects, and participating in scientific projects. I may say I have a job that I feel good with. Of course, even if we have some troubles, fatigue and intensity, I feel mostly integrated with the work. But I cannot say that I feel a sense of belonging to the organizational environment. Because the culture I need to be in is far from the culture I was used to or imagine until now. There are a lot of rumors and gossip in faculty. In other words, I am not in an organization that I can lean on and trust. Unfortunately, I cannot trust most of the people here. Therefore, I may say that I do not feel myself belonging to the organizational environment to a great extent.

The question of "If you had the opportunity, would you like to quit academy or change your profession?" is posed to the participants and most of the research assistants (7 of them) replied that they would not want to quit at all. They prefer to cope with the stress, intensity of the work, and to make an effort to overcome even if they have difficulties at times. In line with the opinions received, it is understood that these research assistants preferred the profession long beforehand, willingly and fondly, and did not want to give up their ideals easily due to the difficulties they encountered. Instead of thinking about leaving the profession, research assistants choose to develop strategies or make some sacrifices to deal with the difficulties they face. The views of the two participants (A2 and A5, respectively) in this regard are as follows:

> No, I wouldn't want to. I already wanted this job very much, so I want to do good things in the future. I do not regret picking this job. From time to time, I complain a lot. I cannot spare time for myself. I cannot spare time for my loved ones. Still, I would like to be a part of this profession.

> I thought about this a lot. In fact, even though I want this profession so much, the things that made me think like that are our status deprivation, the mobbing we experienced, and satisfaction of very few of my expectations. And all these led me to think about whether I should go back to teaching. But I did not want to give up my ideals by saying that I can live the same things there. I am trying to motivate myself in this way because we have to deal with these difficulties. Therefore, the main thing that kept me in this profession was to show that people can be raised without mobbing, while living with their own truths.

Among the participants, there are also research assistants who stated that they might consider leaving the profession when they get a chance or another opportunity. For example, one of the participants (A4) expressed his views as follows:

> Yes, I would. The main problem is that it is a very tiring and very stressful environment. I'm becoming a very panicky person day by day. From this point of view, I am thinking it's actually not the right profession for me. If I had the opportunity, I would consider teaching at schools.

The opinions of another participant (A6), who was indecisive about her profession and was hesitate due to the difficulties she experienced, are as follows:

I alternate between these thoughts. It is back breaking to continue working constantly. Concerns about exams and completing unending works keep going. The work taken home never ends and is constantly repeated. When you get exhausted and there is no energy, you feel both occupational and personal burnout. In addition, you are in a constant race since it operates a performance-oriented system. Preparing for exams, writing articles, as well as faculty works and courses you give to undergraduate students… I guess it's only after the associate professorship is finished that you get satisfaction. There is a good while for it... Sparing time for my family and me is very limited, and in this respect, question marks really fly in my mind.

In regard to socialization, academicians have expressed various expectations about what should be done both organizationally and individually. The main quotations for the stated statements are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. *Professional Expectations-Recommendations*

Themes	Basic quotes	Total view
Organizational Context	- Conducting orientation meetings for newcomers. - Preparation of the first step booklet or guide to becoming an academic. - Informative meetings on administrative tasks. - Arrangement days for improvement of informal relationships such as doing dinner. - Establishing a standard at a level of university for orientation and updating or increasing it with changing needs. - Encouraging interdisciplinary studies. - Organizing seminars that teach academic study and scientific research. - Holding annual review meetings. - Holding experience sharing meetings. - Arranging acquaintance meetings. - Attaining mentoring and ensuring this process is formally implemented. - Have the opportunity to choose their own advisor.	29
Individual Context	- Communicate directly with teachers and other colleagues. - Study and do research a lot. - Developing extraverted behaviors, not being shy, and communicating correctly. - Improving acceptance or adoptive behaviors, ignoring problems. - Observing behaviors in the organization, following clues.	14

- Participating in congresses, scientific activities, and publishing articles.

It can be seen from Table 6 that research assistants express their expectations and suggestions about their profession under two different topics in the organizational and individual context. Orientation practices become prominent and it is stated that a standard should be formed for these practices in universities. Such programs should be updated according to chancing conditions and needs. In addition, formal mentoring practices and organizing seminars to produce academic and scientific research are among the suggestions. In the individual context, some suggestions are offered for research assistants such as reading a lot and doing research, following the clues by observing the behaviors in the organization, not being afraid to communicate, and ignoring the problems.

Discussion

In consideration of research findings, it is obvious that research assistants face many problems in both professional and organizational context. These basic problems affect both the personal and professional lives of the assistants, and they face situations such as job stress, decrease in job satisfaction, and burnout. In addition to this, other problems include adapting to a new role in the passing phase from student to a lecturer, inability to balance between work and family life, the feeling of unpreparedness in the science environment, having low self-confidence, and not being sufficiently supported and guided. In this study, some organizational and professional problems experienced by academics are similar to Murray's (2008) research results. Murray (2008) revealed that new staff in faculties mostly faces issues such as time problems, having to do a lot in less time, changing priorities, not getting enough support from faculty and members, and staffing problems. More so, the problems in this context are similar to the results of this study.

Trowler and Knight (2000) revealed in their study that newcomers in the faculty are quite confused about how to work, who is/are the relevant one for some issues, or where to apply. Researchers state that some of the participants in their study reached the functional information they needed by making a lot of mistakes. Similarly, many research assistants in this study stated that they acquired the information they needed and learned by making mistakes or by experiencing it. To put it more clearly, it is possible to state that newly arrived academicians in universities are mostly left on their own or they encounter very few referrals. Thowleer and Knight (2000) emphasize that it is not always possible to simply convey information since individuals learn by inference in a way. Nonetheless, it can be stated that this should not happen in every respect and learning. It will not be correct to expect that the academicians who have just started to work should learn the organizational and professional process by accessing information completely by themselves. However, expecting the employee to access information by making inferences on important issues concerning the profession and the organization may cause alienation in the organization and may also cause things to go wrong.

According to the research findings, both organizational rituals and the requirements of the job can be quite confusing and challenging for newcomers. Any uncertainty could make the socialization process more beneficial and uncomplicated. As a result, Saks and Gruman (2018) suggest that instead of providing the necessary resources to facilitate the newcomer's engagement and socialization, the focus should be on minimizing and reducing the negative effects of the job. They further discussed within the framework of uncertainty reduction theory. In line with this, it is

necessary to eliminate the situations and issues that create uncertainty in the socialization process of research assistants.

According to the results of the research, almost all the research assistants do not go through a defined (formal) process or program to understand and learn about the profession and the organization they are in. Furthermore, research assistants did not receive significant help from members of the university, faculty, or department in this process. They mostly tried to get through this period with their own individual efforts. Wulff and Austin (2004) emphasize that the preparation of future faculty members is a process that requires the efforts of current academic leaders or faculty members. In addition, they regard the training and preparation of this staff as one of the most important responsibilities of universities. As a matter of fact, the support given to young academics in this process is of great importance (Austin& Wulff, 2004).

It is known that feelings of alienation first emerge during the first phase for research assistant and anxiety occurs reactively in individuals (Cawyer et al., 2002). Therefore, mentoring is one of the most effective ways suggested by many authors (Murray, 2008; Cawyer et al., 2002, Balcı, 2003; Austin, 2002) to prevent this issue. In addition to this, Murray (2008) who emphasizes the importance of organizational support and the support of other faculty members further recommends the development of programs that will reduce stress and give the newcomer a sense of job satisfaction. However, when the opinions were examined, it is clear that research assistants are left alone in both organizational and professional development processes. Therefore, this loneliness or being left by oneself during the socialization phases may also affect professional productivity and organizational effectiveness in the future.

According to the findings, research assistants obtain satisfaction far below their professional expectations when they first enter the organization. This is because they think that a significant part of their work is within the scope of "officer" duties, not research and development. As a matter of fact, some studies show that new faculty members are not satisfied in their work environment due to the difference between the expectations of many academicians and what they encounter in real academic life. Inevitably, this will affect their sense of trust and commitment to the organization. Hence, they will not be able to have a positive view to their work environment. This is revealed in the research of Kondakçı and Haser (2019). Cawyer and Friedrich (1998), on the other hand, revealed in their research that the differences between expectations and the realities encountered in academic life generally result in individuals being dissatisfied with their work environments. Particularly, the introductory stage of academic life can be challenging for individuals (Cawyer et al., 2002).

According to Rosser's (2004) research, the perceived quality of working life affects the satisfaction level of instructors. In other words, the satisfaction obtained from work life or the problems experienced at work directly affect the intention of individuals to quit their job. Rosser (2004) revealed that besides the individual characteristics, the reason that affects the intention to quit the job of the instructors is the combination of organizational and professional problems and satisfaction. Therefore, the problems faced by academicians in the process of organizational and professional socialization reduces job satisfaction and introduces the risk of alienation from the job. Similarly, in this study, it is understood that most of the research assistants stated that the problems they encountered in academic life affected their motivation to work and those that achieved satisfaction are relatively few.

In a study conducted by Tierney (1997) on university employees, the participants who expressed their opinions about the effectiveness of the faculty stated that they questioned the nature of the work they did and sometimes saw it as a "time-consuming" job. Contrary to those who think

that there is a free and peaceful environment at the university, academic life can be very different. The participants claimed that they do not have a job perceived to be within the time frame of 9 a.m. to 5 p.m. and their work goes far beyond these hours (Tierney, 1997). In this study, research assistants who had problems with time management stated that they had similar problems (f:12). It is obvious that academicians who need to work constantly to get things done and who cannot spare time for themselves, their families, and their private lives have the problem of not being able to establish a healthy work-life balance.

Gainen and Boice (1993 as cited in Jackson, 2004) revealed that the increase in faculty performance is largely affected by the socialization of faculty members with different ethnic groups. Therefore, the existence of different groups and various ideas in higher education should be seen as an advantage for organizational efficiency. Also, it should be accepted as an element that will increase the effectiveness of socialization processes. However, in the study, it is understood that the members of the organization who have "trouble with others" and have problems with different thoughts or appearances make participants feel worthless. This organizational problem experienced by young academics who think that they do not get the respect they deserve will cause individuals not to feel a sense of belonging to their organization, which will lead to low performance delivery. Consequently, this issue, which affects the nature of socialization, should be seen as an important problem. Thus, it is not surprising that when the reasons for the participants to feel a sense of belonging to the profession and the organization are examined, more opinions are presented on not feeling a sense of belonging (f: 24).

According to Corcoran and Clark (1984), the most important and basic preparation for becoming a faculty member is acquired during the postgraduate education process at universities. In this process, the department enables postgraduate students to acquire university discipline, convey knowledge and skills, and shape their values and attitudes about the faculty role. The basic form and functions of postgraduate education are similar in most departments of universities. In reality, however, it varies by disciplines, departments, and even between faculties and student pairs. This is because in mentoring and teaching processes, faculty members apply different approaches and contents. Therefore, this enormous diversity in the working processes of doctoral education is not well known or understood even by policy makers, administrators, and civil servants who affect academic life, including academicians (Trow 1977, as cited in Corcoran and Clark, 1984). Undoubtedly, this different functioning of every academic environment in universities may cause employees to never be sure of what awaits them before entry. The fact that the employee's pre-entry expectations do not match up with the expectations and disappointments encountered in organization may be the result of these differences. The different functioning and structure of academic environments in universities may be due to the autonomous nature of such structures. Undoubtedly, the existence of free practices in educational environments also reflects the nature of what should be in academe. However, it is necessary to bear in mind that political or malicious manners and approaches may be carried out.

It is significantly important to see the profession of academicians and the system they are in as a key job since they prepare and train members of almost all occupational groups in the society (Clark, 1986). However, the fact that there are different practices and expectations regarding preparation, the improvement, and conducting or discipline of the academic profession causes this occupation to be greatly affected by the interests and career steps of the institution. More than half of the participants in this study are worried about whether their position will be steady in the future. Employees also state that constantly changing laws or regulations create insecurity for the profession, and this situation is increasing with the experience of favoritism within the

organization. For this reason, the uncertainty or fluctuation of the career steps on the basis of universities significantly affects the integration of research assistants with the profession and the organization.

Conclusion and Suggestions

Socialization in higher education does not go through an apprehensible or explicit process completely. Understanding the existing culture, symbols or instrumental activities and working in the organization is mostly left to the employees to make sense of it. The fact that the majority of academicians trying to understand both professional and organizational life by accessing tacit knowledge by themselves indicates that socialization processes do not work or are not carried out effectually. Accordingly, there is a need to implement formal practice and a detailed discussion on organizational socialization in universities.

In the study, it is observed that participants are mostly alone during their academic life. This information needs to be supported by quantitative research. The fact that the ways of obtaining information about the profession and their organizations before and after the entry period are usually learned by individual efforts proves this argument. Research assistants who cannot learn their roles adequately face many challenging situations individually. To overcome these problems, academicians make concessions to their private lives and spend most of their time to complete their works. This seems to be the result of academicians' failure to establish a work-life balance to a large extent.

Socialization agents such as co-workers, mentors or senior faculty members should be appointed. This practice whereby the newcomer can learn organizational and professional roles from a senior colleague may also strengthen the supervisor-assistant relationship at universities. However, as stated by the participants, factors such as workload, conflict of interest, and indifference or inadequacy of the supervisor causes the quality of this relationship to be questioned. During the entry period, it could be compelling and even threatening for the newcomers. Therefore, a mentor is needed to overcome the alienation, learn the profession completely, and facilitate engagement in the organization. Furthermore, there is a need to implement certain programs in each university regarding the socialization of research assistants. It is also recommended that the socialization process itself should be carried out within an accredited program. The autonomous structure of universities and even the fact that each department has different functioning and perspective from each other makes it difficult to adopt common or similar attitudes. However, the first phase for the research assistant, which is considered as the beginning of the academic profession and when the basic feelings about the profession are shaped, is so important that it cannot be ignored. It is understood that direct assistance, guidance or mentoring are needed especially for time management, understanding scientific/academic processes, and learning organizational norms and values.

In the study, it was stated that an in-service training or meetings are not held for them. Although some activities are carried out, it is clear that this is not enough. Programs offered at universities such as in-service training and seminars should be considered as a socialization tool for both newcomers and seniors. This is because the meetings and events present an opportunity to share values and socialize more effectively.

In the study, some research assistants stated that they loved their profession and believed that they will do it without venting out. These research assistants inspire hope for universities. This could be the result of adopting self-leadership behaviors even though they encounter some uncertainties, drawbacks or lack of a guide. Through this means, they can manage the process

easily and overcome the challenges. Therefore, it is suggested that research assistants should be encouraged to adopt self-leadership attitudes and directed accordingly. Thus, they could behave proactively, contribute their own socialization, and improve organizational commitment and adjustment.

It also seems very important to have labor-job protection for the profession and to take legal decisions in this regard. In the study, it is observed that the research assistants' anxiety about the future mostly affects their sense of belonging to the organization and profession. There is a need to understand the nature of higher education today. For this reason, it is recommended that extensive studies should be carried out on not only research assistants but also on other staff members in universities.

All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

This article does not contain any studies with animals performed by any of the authors.

Conflicts of interest.

The authors of this paper certify that they have NO affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial or non-financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; membership, employment; affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in this manuscript.

References

Allen, D. G. (2006). Do organizational socialization tactics influence newcomer embeddedness and turnover? *Journal of management*, *32*(2). 237-256.

Anderson, M. S. & Swazey, J. P. (1998). Reflections on the graduate student experience: An overview. In M. S. Anderson (Ed.), *The experience of being in graduate school: An exploration. New Directions for Teaching and Learning*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Arastaman, G., Fidan, İ. Ö., & Fidan, T. (2018). Nitel araştırmada geçerlik ve güvenirlik: Kuramsal bir inceleme. *Yüzüncü Yıl Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, *15*(1), 37-75.

Ashford, S. J. & Cummings, L. L. (1985). Proactive feedback seeking: The instrumental use of the information environment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, *58*(1), 67-79.

Ashforth, B. E., Saks, A. M., & Lee, R. T. (1998). Socialization and newcomer adjustment: The role of organizational context. *Human relations*, *51*(7), 897-926.

Ashforth, B. E., Sluss, D. M., & Saks, A. M. (2007). Socialization tactics, proactive behavior, and newcomer learning: Integrating socialization models. *Journal of vocational behavior*, *70*(3). 447-462.

Austin, A. E. (2002). Preparing the next generation of faculty: Graduate school as socialization to the academic career. *The Journal of Higher Education*, *73*(1), 94-122.

Austin, A. E. & McDaniels, M. (2006a). Preparing the professoriate of the future: Graduate student socialization for faculty roles. In *Higher Education.* (pp. 397-456). Springer Netherlands.

Austin, A. E. & McDaniels, M. (2006b). Using doctoral education to prepare faculty to work within Boyer's four domains of scholarship. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, *129*, 51-65.

Austin, A. E. & Wulff, D. H. (2004). The challenge to prepare the next generation of faculty. *Paths to the professoriate: Strategies for enriching the preparation of future faculty*, 3-16. Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco

Balcı, A. (2003). *Örgütsel Sosyalleşme, Kuram Strateji ve Taktikler*. Ankara. Pegem A Yayıncılık.

Bauer, T. N., Bodner, T., Erdogan, B., Truxillo, D. M., & Tucker, J. S. (2007). Newcomer adjustment during organizational socialization: a meta-analytic review of antecedents, outcomes, and methods. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(3), 707.

Bauer, T. N., Morrison, E. W., & Callister, R. R. (1998). Organizational socialization. *Research in personnel and human resource management*, *16*. 149-214.

Bolger, R. & Kremer-Hayon, L. (1999). The socialization of faculty members to university culture and norms. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 23(1), 31–40

Bullis, C. & Bach, B. W. (1989). Socialization turning points: An examination of change in organizational identification. *Western Journal of Communication (includes Communication Reports)*, *53*(3), 273-293.

Cawyer, C. S. & Friedrich, G. W. (1998). Organizational socialization: Processes for new communication faculty. *Communication Education*, *47*(3), 234-245.

Cawyer, C. S., Simonds, C., & Davis, S. (2002). Mentoring to facilitate socialization: The case of the new faculty member. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, *15*(2), 225-242.

Champoux, J. E. (2011). *Organızatıonal Behavıor: Integratıng Indıvıduals, Groups, and Organızatıons.* Routledge. New York.

Corcoran, M. & Clark, S. M. (1984). Professional socialization and contemporary career attitudes of three faculty generations. *Research in Higher Education*, *20*(2), 131-153.

Cranmer, G. A., Goldman, Z. W., & Houghton, J. D. (2019). I'll do it myself: Self-leadership, proactivity, and socialization. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*. *40*(6). 684-698.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Araştırma deseni: Nitel, nicel ve karma yöntem yaklaşımları* (S.B.Demir, çev). Ankara: Eğiten Kitap.

Feldman, D. C. (1976). A contingency theory of socialization. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *21*(3). 433-452.

Feldman, D. C. (1981). The multiple socialization of organization members. *Academy of management review*, *6*(2), 309-318.

Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2012). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (8th Ed.) New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Humanities/Social Sciences/Languages.

Gerring, J. (2007). *Case Study Research, Principles and Practices.* Cambridgfe University Press. Cambridge, New York, Melbourne, Madrid, Cape Town, Singapore, São Paulo

Golde, C. M. (1997). *Gaps in the training of future faculty: Doctoral student perceptions*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Association for the Study of Higher Education, Albuquerque, NM.

Güçlü, N. (1996). Öğretmen Olma Süreci: Sosyalleşme. *Eğitim ve Bilim*. *20*(99), 55-63.

Jackson, J. (2004). The story is not in the numbers: Academic socialization and diversifying the faculty. *NWSA Journal*, *16*(1). 172-185.

Kondakçı, Y. & Haser, Ç. (2019). Socialization at the University: A Qualitative Investigation on the Role of Contextual Dynamics in the Socialization of Academics. *Research in Educational Administration and Leadership*, *4*(2), 272-301.

Louis, M. R. (1980). Surprise and sense making: What newcomers experience in entering unfamiliar organizational settings. *Administrative science quarterly*, *25*(2). 226-251.

Merriam, S. B. (2013). *Nitel Araştırma Desen ve Uygulama için Bir Rehber.* (Çev. Ed. S. Turan). Nobel Akademik Yayıncılık. Ankara.

Miller, V. D. & Jablin, F. M. (1991). Information seeking during organizational entry: Influences, tactics, and a model of the process. *Academy of Management Review*, *16*(1). 92-120.

Mishra, S. (2020). Social networks, social capital, social support and academic success in higher education: A systematic review with a special focus on 'underrepresented'students. *Educational Research Review*, *29*, 100307.

Murray, J. P. (2008). New faculty members' perception of the academic work life. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment, 17*(1/2). 107-128.

Nelson, D. L. (1987). Organizational socialization: A stress perspective. *Journal of Occupational Behaviour*, *8.* 311-324.

Nyquist, J. D. & Sprague, J. (1992). Developmental stages of TAs. In J. D. Nyquist & D. H. Wulff (Eds.), *Preparing teaching assistants for instructional roles: Supervising TAs in communication* (pp. 101–113). Annadale, VA: Speech Communication Association.

Olsen, D. (1993). Work satisfaction and stress in the first and third year of academic appointment. *The Journal of Higher Education*, *64*(4), 453-471.

Ostroff, C. & Kozlowski, S. W. J. (1992). Organizational Socialization As A Learnıing Process: The Role Of Information Acquisıtion. *Personnel Psychology.* 849-874.

Patton, Q. M. (2014). *Nitel Araştırma ve Değerlendirme Yöntemleri.* (Çev. Bütün, M.ve Demir, S.B) Pegem Akademi. Ankara. 3. Baskı

Reichers, A. E. (1987). An interactionist perspective on newcomer socialization rates. *Academy of Management Review, 12.* 278–287.

Rosser, V. J. (2004). Faculty members' intentions to leave: A national study on their worklife and satisfaction. *Research in higher education*, *45*(3), 285-309.

Saks, A. M. & Ashforth, B. E. (1997). Organizational socialization: Making sense of the past and

present as a prologue for the future. *Journal of vocational Behavior*, *51*(2), 234-279.

Saks, A. M. & Gruman, J. A. (2018). Socialization resources theory and newcomers' work engagement: A new pathway to newcomer socialization. *Career Development International*. *23(*1). 12-32.

Sprague, J. & Nyquist, J. D. (1991). A developmental perspective on the TA role. In J.D. Nyquist, **D.** H. Wulff, & J. Sprague (Eds.), *Preparing the professoriate of tomorrow to teach: Selected readings in TA training* (pp. 295–312). Dubuque, IA: Kendall Hunt.

Tierney, W. G. (1997). Organizational socialization in higher education. *The Journal of Higher Education*, *68*(1), 1-16.

Trowler, P. & Knight, P. T. (2000). Coming to know in higher education: Theorising faculty entry to new work contexts. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *19*(1), 27-42.

Wang, M., Kammeyer-Mueller, J., Liu, Y., & Li, Y. (2015). Context, socialization, and newcomer learning. *Organizational Psychology Review*, *5*(1), 3-25.

Exploring Innovative Teaching Approaches to Adolescents' Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights Education During the COVID-19 Pandemic in Oluno Circuit, Oshana Region of Namibia

Anna Niitembu Hako
The University of Namibia, Namibia
Petrus Dhiginina Shipalanga
Ministry of Education, Arts, and Culture, Namibia

Abstract
Access to youth-friendly services is critical to ensuring Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights (SRHR) and the psychological well-being of adolescents. This qualitative study explored the innovative teaching approaches to adolescents' sexual and reproductive health and rights education during the COVID-19 pandemic in the Oluno circuit. A sample of 10 Life Skills teachers was purposively selected and individual face to face interviews were conducted. Data was analysed using a thematic approach. The findings revealed that the radio, WhatsApp, recorded audios and handouts were used to engage learners on sexual reproductive health information when schools were closed. It is further established that WhatsApp and the radio were the mainly used methods because they were appropriate and user friendly. The findings also indicate contradictions in the Life Skills teachers' experiences on the use of social media approaches due to poor internet connectivity in remote areas. The study suggested the provision of free data to learners and teachers to enable the timely teaching and learning of the right and age-appropriate Sexual Reproductive Health and Rights information (SRHR).That underscores the urgent need for schools to adopt modern learning to be proactive in training of both teachers and learners on the use of various technological devices in case another pandemic hits the country in the future.

Introduction
Background of the study
Sexual and reproductive health and rights are critical entitlements best supported through human rights-based approaches empowering rights-holders to claim their rights and duty bearers to fulfil their obligations. McGranahan et al. (2021) believe that every person is entitled to good sexual and reproductive health. This involves being free from sexually transmitted infections, gender-based violence and maternal mortality, and being able to access essential health services. The current rapid changes happening in the world, such as urbanisation and migration, have

motivated how knowledge about sexuality is imparted to adolescents. Moreover, telecommunications of many types have expanded around the world carrying ideas about sex with unprecedented speed and quantity, which have had profoundly negative impacts on young people (Bilinga & Mabula, 2014). In 1978, several organizations such as World Health Organizations (WHO), United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund. (UNICEF) proposed various initiatives to introduce health promotion in schools. One of those initiatives was the Ottawa Charter, drawn up in 1986. That recognised the importance of health education in achieving the wellbeing of all individuals (Okoro, Takawira & Baur, 2021). Considering its significance, the promotion of health and healthy lifestyles has been promoted to prevent diseases and improve people's quality of life. As a result, schools become one of the key players leading the role in the promotion of health. That is better highlighted by UNICEF (2016) that, after the family, schools occupy a central place in the community and thus become important places of learning for children and stimulate or initiate change. In the context of SRHR, schools are entrusted to carry out activities that improve the sexual health of the entire educational community by providing knowledge and habits for comprehensive care of people's health. Various authors (Barragán-Medero & Pérez-Jorge, 2020; Pérez-Jorge et al., 2016; Pérez-Jorge et al., 2021) define health promotion strategies in the school environment as activities that focus on improving the health of the entire educational community and the need to influence the physical and social environments and policies of health promotion through the use of appropriate school programmes that promote their sexual health development.

Despite that significance, in most traditional African societies, including Namibia, sexual and reproductive health topics are seldom discussed in family settings. According to Talavera (2007), openly speaking about sexuality and sexual relationships is considered a taboo in many cultures. As a result, a lot of people grow up without having had conversations around such topics. In exception are those considered ready for marriages that are advised on how they are expected to conduct themselves in their marriages. That, in principle, relegates learning about sexual and reproductive health to being engaged in relationships with the opposite sex, through peers, public health educators, friends and to a lesser extent, relatives. That being taken out of the cultural context's risks distorting the content, form, variety and inaccuracy of sexual and reproductive health information as depicted in the different information platforms across traditional and new media. With the growing demand from adolescents for sexual and reproductive health and rights information, it is imperative that what they receive is not only comprehensive but accurate. To bridge the existing information gap, there is a need to actively avail as many trusted health-promoting channels and programmes, including those at school.

For this reason, after independence in 1990, Namibia adopted the World Health Organization's Health Promoting School Initiative (HPSI). HPSI's adoption aimed to deliver on the Vision 2030 goal of ensuring equity and access to quality education for all Namibians, especially young people (MoHSS, 2015). Namibia's School Health Programme furthermore complements the Eastern and Southern African (ESA) Commitment on Comprehensive Sexuality Education and Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights. Such initiative strives for improved access to quality sexuality education and reproductive health services for all young people. In other words, schools are to ensure that learners are educated about the benefits and risks of engaging in early sexual activities, appropriate use of contraceptives, rights to free and informed choice in respect of sexual matters, and health care information. To attain that, it was then expected for each school to have a comprehensive plan focused on comprehensive sexuality education, teenage pregnancy prevention, physical facilities, environmental health as well as screening and physical

examination of learners.

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, however, the provision of sexual and reproductive health and rights education was disrupted. That triggered many countries to initiate various strategies to halt the spread of the virus and ensure the continuity of education. In an attempt to contain the virus, Namibia closed all educational institutions temporarily and resorted to the distance learning programmes and platforms. For example, the government through the Ministry of Education, Arts and Culture (MEAC) had set up several guidelines and regulations to ensure the continuity of education for all learners (MEAC, 2020). As such, learning and teaching should be provided from a distance approach such as take-home workbooks, online learning, radio and television programmes and others online platforms. The purpose was to support learners to continue their education using different teaching platforms. Teachers, including those responsible for Life Skills subjects, were expected to implement strategies to support learners to continue learning. One of the strategies was for teachers to develop materials and create learning assessment activities for learners. However, due to the threat of COVID-19, schools in Namibia faced a challenge to continue providing comprehensive sexual and reproductive education while keeping the teachers and learners safe from a public health threat that was spreading fast and not well understood. As a result, the closure of schools did not only disrupt the delivery of education but it also deprived school-going children access to contraceptives and other essential services such as sexual reproductive health. The World Health Organization (WHO, 2021) defines Reproductive Health as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity, in all matters relating to the reproductive system and its functions and processes. According to Temmerman, Khosla and Say (2014), universal access to sexual and reproductive health is vital not only to achieve sustainable development but also to ensure that this new framework speaks to the needs and aspirations of people around the world, thereby leading to the realisation of their health and human rights. It is only then that people can have a satisfying and safe sex life and that they can reproduce and have the freedom to decide if, when and how often to do so. In other words, it is a holistic sexual reproductive approach, and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity, in all matters relating to the reproductive system and its functions and process. Against that background, and to understand the teaching of sexual and reproductive health, we carry out this study in Oluno circuit. Oluno circuit is located in Ondangwa and is one of the circuits in Oshana Directorate of Education. The circuit serves schools in Okatyali, Ondangwa urban and Ondangwa rural constituencies. The circuit comprises thirty-five schools and has a population of three hundred ninety-two teachers and eleven thousand and sixty-six learners. Since Ondangwa town forms part of the important commercial hubs that provide employment opportunities for people in Namibia, the town (like others) experiences a rapid rate of urbanisation and an influx of people from different parts of the country. With urbanisation comes the risk whereby some learners become victims of being sexually exploited by people who have the means to entice them. Those that become victims risk falling pregnant and possibly drop-out of school. Worrying statistics to that effect indicate that three thousand six hundred and eighty-three (3683) school girls in Namibia became pregnant when schools were closed temporarily from March to August 2020 (Ngatjiheue, 2020). Such girls did not return to school when the schools reopened in September 2020 because of fear and stigma. Such information whether directly or indirectly attests to the importance of providing sexual and reproductive health and rights education to school-going adolescents in order to curb early and unplanned pregnancies and giving them a complete state of physical, mental and social well-being in all matters relating to the reproductive system. There are few studies in Namibia in which social media approaches or technological devices that can be used by both Life

Skills teachers and learners during the pandemic are determined. It is, therefore, thought that this study can contribute to the body of knowledge and literature on innovative responses to use during a time of crisis specifically in the teaching of SRHR. In essence, the study was conducted to find out the innovative responses, subject content and assessment tasks related to reproductive health that learners engaged with when schools were closed during the COVID-19 pandemic in the Oluno circuit, Oshana region. It is of great importance to explore the innovative teaching approaches of SRHR education in the Oshana sample because the Namibian Newspaper journalist Ndeyanale (2021) reported that close to three thousand school girls in the Oshana region did not return to school in September 2020 when the schools reopened due to pregnancy. Therefore, the findings of this study may constitute a resource for determining the best approaches to disseminate SRHR information to learners when Namibia experience another pandemic in the future.

Literature review
Innovative teaching approaches of adolescent sexual and reproductive health and rights education during COVID-19

There is a general belief that as the world faces this unparalleled challenge, the critical role that schools play in supporting the health and wellbeing of learners, and indeed the whole school community, through school health and wellbeing programmes, has become more appreciated than ever. Worldwide, ministries of education are innovating to support learners' health and wellbeing during school closures. Those include the much needed support services including health-promoting learning resources, counselling, as well as sexual and reproductive health services. So doing recognises that health and social issues impact education and demands an urgent need for the aforementioned much needed support services.

Every individual, including adolescents, is entitled to SRHR information (United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund, 2016). A central feature underlying this concept is that everyone has the right to make his or her own choices about his or her sexual and reproductive health. It also implies that people should be able to have a satisfying and safe sex life, the capability to reproduce and the freedom to decide if, when and how often to do so (UNICEF, 2016). Ensuring everyone is protected by SRHR does not have one solution, but it includes various initiatives. Those include comprehensive sexuality education, access to a range of modern contraceptives, safe abortion services, and treatment of HIV and other Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs). In the context of this study, innovation denotes initiating new youth-friendly services to ensure sexual and reproductive health as well as the well-being of adolescents during the COVID-19 pandemic. Sexual Reproductive Health and Rights includes the different human rights related to sexuality and reproduction such as sexual health, sexual rights, reproductive health and reproductive rights. Denno, Hoopes and Chandra-Mouli (2014) view Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights as an essential building block to achieving gender equality. Thus, access to comprehensive health care that includes sexual and reproductive health can change the course of a person's life and set them up to reach their full potential. Likewise, as Temmerman et al. (2014) underline, SRHR encompasses efforts to eliminate preventable maternal and neonatal mortality and morbidity. It further extends to cover quality sexual and reproductive health services which include contraceptives services, Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs), violence against women and girls, as well as sexual and reproductive health needs of adolescents. In essence, reproductive rights are the rights of individuals to decide whether to reproduce and have productive health (Temmerman et al., 2014). This idea is organised around the fact that may include an individual right to plan a family, terminate a pregnancy, use contraceptives, learn about sex education in public schools and

gain access to reproductive health services. Furthermore, rights to reproductive and sexual health constitute the rights to life, liberty and the security of the person, the right to health care and information, the right to non-discrimination in the allocation of resources to health services, and their availability. On a broader spectrum, it also encompasses the rights to autonomy and privacy in making sexual and reproductive decisions, as well as the rights to informed consent and confidentiality about health services.

In their study aimed at evaluating the effectiveness of approaches to disseminating SRHR information, Denno, Hoopes and Chandra-Mouli (2014) share four approaches.Those dissemination of SRHR information as a facility-based, out-of-facility, intervention to reach marginalised or vulnerable populations, and intervention to generate demands and/or community acceptance. The study discovered that approaches that used a combination of health worker training, adolescent-friendly facility improvements and broad information dissemination via community schools, and mass media were more effective. Another study by Bhatia, Briggs and Parekh (2020) suggested six innovative approaches that schools can use to provide reproductive sexual health care services to learners during the lockdown. They recommend the use of social media and phone calls to connect with students virtually; set up a phone line to allow students to reach the clinic at any time and inquire about social and reproductive health services; use a shared line like Google Voice to allow students to reach clinic staff at their convenience; upload videos to social media outlets to educate students virtually on sexual and reproductive health; use a proxy server and video conferencing to improve the contraceptive counselling experience for students and providers and dispense hormonal contraceptive in alternate locations or via pharmacy delivery. Another study by the European Parliamentary Forum study on Sexual Reproductive Health and Rights during COVID-19 (2020) states that new technologies are also key for the provision of Comprehensive Sexuality Education (CSE). Further to this, many countries, including Sweden and the Netherlands, are strengthening the accessibility of CSE online: both by providing SRHR information and education directly on their website and through social media (Facebook, WhatsApp and Instagram), and by providing teachers with CSE packages that they can use for tele-schooling.

Correspondingly, Van Dijk (2013) emphasised a greater devotion to ensuring structured, well-funded, and adequately prepared human resources tutorial programmes, which operate in an atmosphere that accommodates ICT infrastructure. Maton (2015) supported that to enhance student engagement via tutorials, there should be support and development programmes that are comprehensible, directed and underpinned by contextually applicable theory and research to build teacher's knowledge and expertise effectively.

Programmes to promote the psychosocial wellbeing of adolescent parents
An educational programme, as described by Garcia, Peréz, Comas, Rodríguez and Martin (2021), is a set of activities that provides knowledge, skills, abilities and competencies to learners. Programmes that promote reproductive health also have the objective of developing health in the educational community. As highlighted by Pérez-Jorge, Conzález-Lius, Rodriguez-Jiménez, and Ariño-Mateo (2021), it is a teaching-learning process in which health is worked on and the quality of life of people is promoted, letting critical thinking, affectivity, problem-solving and social relationships to develop. In addition, preventive programmes targeting adolescents are more effective if they take an integrated approach. That includes several stakeholders at the level of the broader environment (e.g., teachers, health personnel, parents), and ideally also includes action to influence macro-level factors such as policies that facilitate the implementation of programs and

promote health (Green & Kreteur, 2005). Concerning STIs prevention, a study by Ross, Dick and Ferguson (2006) reveals that interventions targeting adolescents are more effective if they target sexually inexperienced youth. Kirby, Obasi and Laris (2006) echo that interventions in general, also inclusive of STIs prevention interventions, should be research-based and evaluated in studies with rigorous research designs and data collection instruments of high quality. By the same token, recent years have seen dramatic growth in programmes designed to provide psychological and community-based support to children and families experiencing distressing situations. The study of LePlatte, Rosenblum, Stanton, Miller and Muzik (2012) on mental health in primary care for adolescent parents opine the comprehensive array of services. Those include services such as primary and mental health care, counselling and psychotherapy. Expounding on counselling, it includes parenting counselling, couples or group intervention programmes, and referrals to complementary services and social support programmes. School based-programmes on the other hand must be implemented to support teenage parents. These types of programmes have proven the potential to enhance positive outcomes for young parents and their children. On the contrary, although school-based programmes positive benefits are observed, these programmes often have no access to healthcare clinic services. In their evaluation study on students' satisfaction with the tutoring models, Perez-Jorge et al. (2020) revealed that Face to face and WhatsApp platforms were highlighted as the predominant tutoring models. Similarly, Pather, Meda, Fataar and Dippenaar (2020) mentioned tutor models in education in their study of good practices in tutoring programmes in high institutions in South Africa. It was discovered that education lecturers adapted tutor practices that best catered for the needs of students and in return enhanced students' learning. Based on the evidence on interventions in the literature, it is still critical to identify psychosocial interventions that are specifically tailored to support the wellbeing of adolescent mothers and fathers in Namibia.

Statement of the problem

When the coronavirus hits the world, Namibia was not an exception. To curb the spread of the virus, Namibia closed all public and private schools and shifted teaching and learning to home-school. The dire situation led to a division of labour. As a result, schools were tasked to develop learning materials and assessment tasks and activities for the learners. As for the parents, they had to shoulder the responsibility of collecting assessment tasks from schools, supervising children learning and completing assessment tasks at home and submitting the completed assessment tasks back to schools for marking. As shared earlier, a lot of learners countrywide fell pregnant during the school closures. In Oshana alone, close to three thousand schoolgirls in the Oshana region became pregnant when schools were closed temporarily from March to August 2020 and thus did not return to school when the schools reopened in September 2020 (Ndeyanale, 2021).

Objectives of the study
The objectives of the study are to:
a) establish innovative teaching approaches used to disseminate adolescents' sexual and reproductive health and rights information in the Oluno circuit during the lockdown;
b) determine programmes used to promote the psychosocial well-being of adolescent parents in the Oluno circuit during the lockdown.

Methodology
Research Design

The study used a qualitative research approach with a multiple case studies design. In essence, the study sought to explore the innovative teaching approaches to disseminate adolescents' sexual and reproductive health and rights information during the COVID-19 pandemic. The qualitative approach is deemed suitable to gain an in-depth understanding of participants' experiences in responding to adolescents' sexual and reproductive health and promoting the psychosocial wellbeing of young parents during the COVID-19 pandemic. Furthermore, Life Skills teachers were engaged to obtain a first-hand account of their innovative approaches and the programmes they deemed helpful to improve the health and well-being of learners. Qualitative research is useful in studying an occurrence within the setting in which it naturally takes place and is usually supported by collective meaning from people involved (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). As du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis and Bezuidenhout (2014) stated, the qualitative research approach provides an opportunity for researchers to engage with participants as they express their views, opinions and ideas on the problem under investigation. A case study design enabled the researchers to fully explore within participants' natural context. So doing further gave them "a voice" to express their lived experiences concerning innovative methods they employed in responding to adolescents' sexual and reproductive health and rights during the COVID-19 pandemic. In addition, this approach provides strong insights experiences in a real-life setting and protect the anticipated meaning. Researchers van Maneen (1998) and Mahajan (2018) believe that a case study design creates knowledge of fundamental social practices and significance in a business or management environment especially which would prove problematic to produce given a qualitative research standpoint.

Sample and sampling procedure

A sample is defined as a smaller set of data that a researcher chooses or selects from a larger population by using a pre-defined selection method (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). As such, purposeful sampling technique was used to include Life Skills teachers of the secondary phase. The chosen sample was, therefore, a total of 10 Life Skills teachers from secondary schools in the Oluno circuit. Such teachers were selected on the basis that they had been teaching Life Skills subject for two consecutive years. Furthermore, those experienced about the phenomenon of interest, available and willing to participate were afforded a chance.

Instruments and techniques

The study used interviews to collect data. The use of interviews allowed the researchers to explore the responses from the sample group while providing quality outcomes (van Esch &van Esch, 2013). One-on-one semi-structured interviews were used to elicit in-depth information from the participants. Thus, using probing and open-ended questions allowed participants to be frank and share independent thoughts and experiences, which may not be possible in a focus group setting (Harrel & Bradley, 2009).

The interview process was guided by an interview guide. The interview guide was developed to ensure that none of the important issues to be discussed is left out of the conversation. The interview guide to which Life Skills teachers responded covered the following questions: What types of innovative approaches/responses did you use to ensure continuity of Health Reproductive education of learners at your school when the schools were closed? What was your experience like in using those approaches/methods? Which approach (Mobile apps) were effective in

using/applying? Which mobile apps were mostly used by learners and why? What school-based SRHR education programme was available for learners during the lockdown? What content was covered in these programmes during a lockdown? How successful were these programmes? and any referral made to the health clinic during the lockdown?

Data Collection Procedure

Prior to conducting the interview, permission to conduct the study was obtained from the Regional Director of Education, Arts and Culture in the Oshana Region. The purpose of the study was explained to the participants before the interview took place. Further, the participants gave their prior consents to participate in the study and were informed that should they feel uncomfortable and they wanted to withdraw at any point, they were free to do so. To ensure confidentiality and anonymity, the authors did not use the real names of participants. Thus. Ls 1; Ls 2, and Ls 3 were used instead. The interviews were conducted over four weeks, from 13 September to 8 October 2021. Participants were interviewed in the office of the Life Skills teachers. Interviews were carried out after school hours and lasted for approximately an hour each. That was done to avoid disruptions to the normal school activities. The researchers opted for interviews as Bertram and Christiansen (2014) accentuate that interview is the best method of collecting data when you inquire about the ideas, beliefs, views, and opinions of the participants. The participants' answers were recorded by note-taking as no interviewee preferred to be audio-recorded.

Data analysis

The raw notes were analysed using thematic analysis. The thematic approach, which refers to identifying, analysing and reporting patterns or themes across the data deemed suitable for this study (Creswell, 2012). This involves several steps, namely: becoming familiar with the data by repeated reading of the transcripts, developing initial codes through line-by-line analysis of all statements that referred to participants' innovative approaches/responses used to ensure continuity of Sexual Health Reproductive education when the schools were closed during the COVID-19 pandemic, searching for "patterned responses" among the initial codes and grouping them into themes that speak to the phenomenon of innovative responses to SRH education, (e.g. identifying repetitions in content both within and across the interviews), and developing superordinate themes by looking for interconnections and overlaps among the themes (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014).

Findings

The analysis of data followed a thematic approach with emerging codes being clustered into themes. The themes emerging from the one-on-one semi-structured interview are the innovative teaching approaches used to ensure continuity of Sexual Health Reproductive education, experiences in using the approaches and programmes that promote the psychosocial wellbeing of adolescents' parents. These themes, thus, form the basis of the discussion of the findings in the next section of this article. Verbatim quotations are used to support findings from the study.

Theme 1: **Innovative teaching approaches used to ensure continuity of Sexual Health Reproductive and Rights education during lockdown**

In times of crisis, one needs to improvise and capitalise on the resources at hand. Thus, many countries in light of the COVID-19 restrictions have enacted new and precise provisions to

guarantee access to SRHR services during the crisis. Equally, numerous governments have removed procedural or administrative blockades and adapted service delivery approaches, encompassing providing counselling services through phone or online consultations. When Life Skills teachers were asked to share their views on the innovative approaches they used to communicate and disseminate SRHR information to learners when the schools were closed due to COVID-19, the most common response was WhatsApp. They attribute the high usage rate to the reason that both teachers and learners found it easy to use. Its adoption can also be linked to the reasoning that prior to the COVID 19 pandemic, WhatsApp had been being used as a convenient communication platform by families through creating WhatsApp groups. Such groups serve significant roles including discussing family matters considering COVID-19 health protocols of physical distance and number of people at a gathering. In that vein, teachers indicated that some parents shared the smartphones with their children so that they have lessons with teachers. Cementing the usage of WhatsApp, Ls 5 states that *"I used WhatsApp mostly as per the learners' request. Learners were willing to participate by posting questions and I had to provide answers. This was easy as we created a "Club" called don't be alone".* Other than WhatsApp, Ls 5 mentioned usage of Zoom as well indicating that "*Sometimes I used Zoom sessions after we arranged the suitable time with the group of learners".* Unlike Ls 5, other participants stated that they used different platforms for ease of communication, which they describe as having been more convenient to assist learners. Of those platforms include the radio, social media, animated videos, recorded audios and hand-outs. For instance, participant (Ls 7) used the radio for making announcements on when parents should collect activities for the learners at school. In her voice, "I *used the radio, but some parents failed to collect their children's materials from school. It seemed that some of the parents were not listening to the radio for the dates they were expected to collect learning materials and assessment tasks for their children".*

Theme 2: **Experiences of participants in using innovative teaching approaches**

It emerged from the interview that participants experienced the use of innovative teaching approaches differently. Some of the participants felt that it was a good opportunity for them to learn new technology skills while others were disappointed and found it as a waste of time. For example, 6 of the 10 participants claimed that it was not a good experience for them when they were trying to engage learners academically when schools were closed. For them, it was a waste of paper as learners' assessment activities were not marked and some parents failed to collect learning materials from schools. The participants considered the pandemic as a time of change but highlighted poor internet connectivity, poor feedback from learners, access to working devices, technology, data insufficiency and learners' lack of interest in school work as bad experiences they had at the inception of virtual teaching and learning.

One participant (Ls 2) remarked: "*I think it was a waste of papers because learners did not learn anything as work were not marked".*

Another participant's (Ls 3) experience was that: "S*ome parents didn't listen to the radio when they were needed to come to pick learning materials from schools"*

Another one (Ls 7) claimed that: "*On one side, it was good since it was useful to some, but most learners had no access to the devices to get the information*"

On the other hand, some participants felt that it was a very good experience for both teachers and parents, as some parents were taking their children education seriously. For them, this exercise strengthened teacher-parent and parent-child relationships and communication. One key informant had this to say:

"I exchanged cell phone numbers with parents to enable frequent consultations". [Ls 3].

Another one ([Ls 9) opined: "*All parents have my contact number and each will call if experiences any difficulties"*.

The other participants (Ls 10) stated: "*Parents are taking their children education seriously because every parent made sure to collect their activities*".

Theme 3: **School-based Sexual Health Reproduction and Rights (SHRS) education programmes and content covered during the lockdown.**

Regarding the question on the programmes that were available for the learners during the school closure, the participants cited parenting counselling programmes, counselling services; social support groups, and social grant initiatives. Of the 10 participants, only 2 reported having used referral services during the school's closure.

In terms of the content, key informants remarked that they covered COVID-19 related information, personal hygiene, alcohol and drug abuse, Sexual Transmitted Diseases (STDs) and Sexual Transmitted Infections (STIs), teenage pregnancy, gender-based violence, stress management, and road safety. One participant (Ls 6) said: *"I covered topics such as early teenage pregnancy, alcohol and drug abuse, sexual reproductive health, HIV & AIDS, and form of communication".* Another one (Ls 9) added: *"I covered how to handle stress or how to deal with stress"*.

On the question of whether these programmes were successful or not, participants had different views. Some of the participants felt it was successful as learners were kept busy rather than walking around with no purpose.

> It was very effective and successful because both parents and learners were willing to have open conversations even though credit [airtime] became a challenge to them [Ls10].

Another one (Ls 1) recalled: "*It looks simple, but learners learnt a lot which may help them"*.

However, other participants felt that programmes were only successful to learners who had access to smartphones and network connectivity. That means, those who had no access were left out.

One participant reflected on the success of the programmes and noted that:
"It was 50-60% successful. Some learners did not access the network and some learners had limited access to their parents or guardians cell phones. [Ls 8].

Another participant (Ls 7) added: *"They were partly successful, those who had full internet access benefitted and those who were far in the remote areas were left out and neglected".*

Discussions of findings
Innovative teaching approaches used to ensure continuity of Sexual Health Reproductive and Rights education during lockdown

The Ministry of Education, Arts and Culture tried to implement innovative ways to support learners' health and wellbeing during school closures. That is imperative as it underscores the recognition that health and social issues impact education and connecting school families with much needed support services, from health-promoting learning resources to counselling and sexual and reproductive health services. The results revealed that Life Skills teachers used the radio, WhatsApp, recorded audios and handouts to engage learners on sexual reproductive health information when schools were closed. The study further established that WhatsApp and the radio

were the most predominantly used methods because learners found them more appropriate and user friendly. Households access to digital devices is, however, very unequal in Namibia. Thus, beyond access to mobile phones, the radio is the common device in households. That makes the findings not surprising because majorities (if not all) households in Namibia own a radio set. Equally, prominence of WhatsApp groups is dominant in various families in Namibia. That alone lends credence to Bhatia, Briggs and Parekh (2020) and Perez-Jorge et al. (2020) assertions that virtual connections with learners via social media and phone calls has the potential to allow to reach the clinic at any time and inquire about social and reproductive health services. For them, such approaches may improve the contraceptive counselling experience for learners and the distribution of hormonal contraceptives in alternate locations or via pharmacy delivery. The same view is shared by the European Parliamentary Forum study (2020) that new technologies are key for the provision of comprehensive sexuality education (CSE). That is evident in schools in Sweden and Netherlands which provide SRH information and education directly on their website and through social media (Facebook, WhatsApp and Instagram), as well as providing teachers with CSE packages that they can use for tele-schooling. Similarly, based on the opinions of Denno, Hoopes and Chandra-Mouli (2014), Van Dijk (2013), and Maton (2015), it can be concluded that approaches that used adolescent-friendly facilities in the broad dissemination of information via community schools, mass media, tutorial programmes with ICTs infrastructure and comprehensive development programme underpinned by contextuality theory were more effective.

Experiences of participants in using innovative teaching approaches

Regarding the experiences of participants in using innovative teaching approaches, the results from the study uncovered difficulties and challenges experienced by some of the participants in using innovative teaching approaches to engage learners during the lockdown. The analysis of findings revealed that while some of the Life Skills teachers experienced difficulties due to poor internet or network connectivity in remote areas, some had a positive view that they had an opportunity for regular consultations and communication with parents. The use of social media is praised for having enabled parents to have constant interactions with the teachers of their children once they encountered challenges on the materials given and/or the learning content. That was viable particularly since they did not have to meet face- to -face with teachers due to the pandemic restrictions. As a result, parent-teacher relationships improved significantly. Such sentiment resonates well with that of Bhatia et al. (2020) who note that health and social issues impact education and connect schools and families with much-needed support services, from health-promoting learning resources to counselling and sexual and reproductive health services worth recognition. Contrary, however, a lack of access to technology is indicated to having been the biggest barrier to learning during the COVID 19 pandemic. The results further revealed that learners in rural communities were the most likely disadvantaged by the use of social media approaches due to the lack of availability and affordability of connectivity. However, despite this challenge, the eLearning Africa study (2021) underscored that COVID-19 has provided a new opportunity for the education system, particularly in the integration of technology in learning. Echoing the same sentiments is an analysis by Ross, Dick and Ferguson (2006) and Kirby, Obasi and Laris (2006). In their analyses of innovative teaching responses and interventions on dissemination of SRHR information, they conclude that research-based interventions targeting adolescents are more effective if they target sexually inexperienced youth.

School-based Sexual Reproductive Health (SRHR) programme and the content covered during the lockdown.

The study revealed parenting counselling programmes, counselling services, social support groups, and social grant initiatives as the most commonly cited programmes. On social grant, it is worth highlighting that Namibia has implemented social grant programmes to help the less fortunate citizens improve their living conditions. So doing has as its aim to uplift the citizens' standards of living and creating an opportunity for them to thrive in life. Similar views were echoed by LePlatte, Rosenblum, Stanton, Miller and Muzik (2012) who opined that the comprehensive array of services such as primary and mental health care, counselling and psychotherapy, including parenting counselling, couples or group intervention programmes, and referrals to complementary services and social support programmes are crucial. In their views, school based-programmes have the potential to enhance positive outcomes for young parents and their children. In agreement, Pather, Meda, Fataar and Dippenaar (2020) study in South Africa discovered that education lecturers adapted tutor practices that best catered for the needs of students and in return enhanced students' learning. The study further found out that only a few participants used referral services during the schools' closure. It is the researchers' view that although Namibia has established inter-ministerial bodies to oversee the implementation of psychosocial programmes in the country, the referral system seemed to be dormant as line ministries still operate in isolation. Furthermore, the results revealed that Life Skills teachers covered topics on personal hygiene, alcohol and drug abuse, Sexual Transmitted Diseases (STDs) and Sexual Transmitted Infections (STIs), teenage pregnancy and gender-based violence, stress management, and road safety. In the researchers' opinions, this finding is an encouragement to Life Skills teachers that despite the notion that the majority of parents in Namibia view the information that learners are learning in the Life Skills/ Comprehensive Sexuality Education subjects negatively, some of the parents were fully involved and supportive of their children Sexual Reproductive Health (SRH) education and learning during the schools' closure.

Conclusion and recommendations

Innovation signifies initiating new youth-friendly services to ensure sexual and reproductive health as well as the psychological well-being of adolescents. Adolescence is often considered a period of relatively good health. However, adolescents (aged 10–19 years) face particular health risks, especially in relation to reproduction and sexuality. Programs that promote access to and uptake of adolescent sexual and reproductive health services are most effective when adolescent-friendly facility-based approaches are combined with community acceptance and demand-generation activities. Hence, building teacher-learner relationships to create an environment to enhance positive communication regarding sexuality among adolescents is important. Though faced with COVID-19 challenges, school programmes are providing platforms to cultivate such initiatives. With society changing rapidly and some cultural norms fading away, it is prudent that teachers and schools provide school-going children and/or adolescents with information on life skills, including sexuality. This will not only build the children's' awareness of sexuality issues and decision making which often has life-long impacts but also promote safe and healthy sexual behaviours among adolescents. As a society, the effort to involve young people in sexuality education should become social if we want to achieve vision 2030 goals. The use of technological devices has become a necessity in the new normal to ensure that learning continues despite the pandemic. The usage of the radio, WhatsApp and television provision of educational programmes, effective distribution of handouts materials and assessment tasks were not being

successful used in all areas and widens the gaps in access to information and knowledge. These gaps must be viewed from a multidimensional perspective. It is, therefore, suggested that school management consult Telekom and Mobile Telecommunication (MTC) companies to provide Network Towers in remote areas. The study further suggests that school authorities be proactive in training learners on the use of various technological devices as this initiative may create lifelong opportunities and skills to deal with future crises. COVID-19 created challenges and opportunities and the education policymakers are recommended to consider how to strategically fit both opportunities and threats to ensure that Sexual Reproductive Health and Rights education is made available to adolescents. Hence, the provision of free data to learners to access educational sites and mobile data devices to teachers to enable them to share the right and age-appropriate SRHR information with learners timely cannot be emphasised. The Ministry of Education, Arts and Culture in partnership with public-private sectors such as the DREAMS project (Determined, Resilient, Empowered, AIDS-free Mentored and Safe) can meet joint priorities to empower adolescent school girls and reduce risk through youth-friendly reproductive healthcare services. To conclude, it is advisable for Namibia to adjust the current teacher training programmes so that future generations of teachers can develop the skills needed for education in the twenty-first century.

Future research directions

The study used a qualitative approach with a small sample from one circuit in the Oshana region. Therefore, the findings of this study cannot be generalised to Life Skills teachers from other circuits. However, the information can be useful to anyone. Future researchers can use a different research approach to conduct a study on a wider scale.

Research limitation

As it is for every research, this study had the following limitations.
i) The size of the sample is relatively small-10 participants. A bigger sample would probably enhance the credibility of the research findings.
ii) Given the nature of the study, the conclusions cannot be generalized to other circuits in the Oshana region.

Acknowledgements

All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

This article does not contain any studies with animals performed by any of the authors.

Conflicts of interest.

The authors of this paper certify that they have NO affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial or non-financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; membership, employment; affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in this manuscript.

References

Barragán-Medero, F., & Pérez-Jorge, D. (2020). Combating homophobia, lesbophobia, biphobia and transphobia: A liberating and subversive educational alternative for desires. Heliyon, 6(10), e05225.

Bertram C., & Christiansen, I. (2014). *Understanding research: An Introduction to reading research*. Pretoria: Van Shaik Publishers.

Bhatia, A., Briggs, S., & Parekh, J. (2020). Strategies for providing School-Based Family Planning during COVID-19. Washington, DC: Child Trends. https://www.childtrends.org/publications/strategies-for-providing-school-based-family-planning-during-covid-19.

Bilinga, M. & Mabula, N. (2014). Teaching Sexuality Education in Primary Schools in Tanzania: Challenges and Implications. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *5*(27), 21-31.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Denno, D. M., Hoopes, A. J., & Chandra-Mouli, V. (2015). Effective strategies to provide adolescent sexual and reproductive health services and to increase demand and community support. *Journal of adolescent health*, *56*(1), S22-S41. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2014.09.012

Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1994). *Handbook of qualitative research*. Sage Publications.

Du Plooy-Cilliers, F., Davis, C. & Bezuidenhout, R.M. (2014). *Research Matters*. Claremont: Juta and Company Ltd.

EdTech Hub (2021). The effects of COVID-19 on the Education in Africa and its implications for the use of Technology, eLearning Africa. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4018774

European Parliamentary Forum (EPF) (2020). Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights during the COVID-19 Pandemic. IPPF European Network. Recovered from: https://www.google.com/search?q=European+Parliamentary+Forum+(EPF)+(2020).+Sexual+and+Reproductive+Health+and+Rights+during+the+COVID-19+Pandemic.

Garcia, Z.T.S., Peréz, Y.M., Armenteros, A.I., Comas, L.G., Rodriquez, M.B., & Martin, J.C. (2021). Programa Educativo sobres hygiene de manos en escolares primarios. *Rev. Eugenio Espejo,* 15,47-56. https://doi.org/10.37135/ee.04.11.07

Green L.W.& Kreuter. M (2005). *Health Program Planning: An Educational and Ecological Approach.* McGraw-Hill.

Harrel, M. & Bradley, M. (2009). *Data collection Methods Semi-Structured Interviews and Focus Groups*. RAND.

Kirby, D., Obasi, A., & Laris, B. A. (2006). The effectiveness of sex education and HIV education interventions in schools in developing countries. *Technical Report Series-World Health Organization*, *938*, 103.

Maton, K. (2015). Legitimation code theory: Building knowledge about knowledge-buildig.Ch. 1, In K. Maton, S. Hood & S. Shay (Eds.). *Knowledge-building: Educational studies in Legitimation code theory*. (pp.1-24). Routledge.

McGranahan, M., Bruno-McClung, E., Nakyeyune, J., Nsibirwa, D. A., Baguma, C., Ogwang, C., ... & Oyebode, O. (2021). Realising sexual and reproductive health and rights of adolescent girls and young women living in slums in Uganda: a qualitative study. *Reproductive health*, *18*(1), 1-11.

Ministry of Education, Arts and Culture (2020). *Compliance Standards for Operation of Schools during the COVID-19 Pandemic*. Windhoek

Ministry of Health and Social Services (MoHSS) (2015). Guidelines for the prevention of mother-to-child transmission of HIV. Windhoek.

Mohajan, H. (2018). Qualitative Research Methodology in Social Sciences and related Subjects. *Journal of Economic Development, Environment and People*, *7*(1), 23-48.

Ndeyanale, E. (2021, March 07). *297 Schoolgirls fell pregnant in the Oshana region*. Recovered from:https://www.namibian.com.na/209396/archive-read/297-schoolgirls-fell-pregnant-in-Oshana.

Ngatjiheue, C. (2021, October 21). *Ministry psychologist speaks on teenage pregnancy*. Recovered from:https://www.namibian.com.na/106555/read/Ministry-psychologist-speaks-on-teenage-pregnancy.

Okoro, C.S., Takawira, O & Baur, P. (2021). An assessment of tutoring performance, challenges and support during COVID-19: A qualitative study in a South African university. *Journal of University Teaching & Learning*, *18*(8), 04.

Pather, S., Meda, L., Fataar, N.N., & Dippenaar, H. (2013) Good practices across two education faculties' tutor programs. A comparative case study, *International Journal of Learning in Higher Education*, *27*(2), 42-52. https://doi.10.88448/2327-7955/CCP/v27i02/43-52.

Pérez-Jorge, D., González-Luis, M.A., Rodríquez-Jiménez, M.d C., & Ariño-Mateo, E. (2021). Educational Programs for the Promotion of Health at School: A Systematic Review. *Int. J. Environ.Res. Public Health*, 18,10818. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph182010818.

Pérez-Jorge, D., Jorge-Estévez, M. D., Gutiérrez-Barroso, J., de la Rosa-Hormiga, M., & Marrero-Morales, M. S. (2016). Health Education for High School Students in Spain. *International education studies*, *9*(10), 185-201. https://doi.org/ 10.5539/ies.v9n10p185

Ross, D.A, Dick. B. & Ferguson. J (2006). *Preventing HIV/AIDS in young people: A systematic review of the evidence from developing countries.* World Health Organization.

Talavera, P. (2007). *Past and Present Practices: Sexual development in Namibia.* Unravelling Taboos: Gender and Sexuality in Namibia. Gender Research & Advocacy Project Legal Assistance Centre: Windhoek.

Temmerman M., Khosla, R, & Say, L. (2014). Sexual and reproductive health and rights: a global development, health, and human rights priority. *The Lancet, 384*(9941), e30-e3161190-61199. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-

UNICEF. Adolescent Demographics–UNICEF Data. 2016. Recovered from: https://data.unicef.org/topic/adolescents/ demographics/.

Van Dijk, H. (2013). A theoretical understanding of student engagement in curriculum review and development. *Administratio Publica*, *21*(1), 84-101.

Van Esch, P. & van Esch, L.J. (2013). Justification of a qualitative methodology to investigate the emerging concept: The dimensions of religion as underpinning constructs for mass media social marketing campaigns. *Journal of Business Theory and Practice*, *1*(2), 2339-2644. https://doi.10.22158/jbtp.v1n2p214

Van Maanen, J. (1998). Qualitative research in the administrative science quarterly from 1956-1996. In J. van Maanen (Ed.), *Qualitative Studies of Organizations* (pp.8-33). Sage Publication.

World Health Organization. Global Accelerated Action for the Health of Adolescents (AAHA!). Guidance to Support Country Implementation. (2017). Recovered from: http://apps.who.int/iris/ bitstream/hand le/10665/255415/9789241512343-eng.pdf; jsessionid=1BC7566D91C86EA0B3 BBE835B92DD.

World Health Organization. Sexual and reproductive health interventions in the WHO UHC

compendium. 5 April 2021. Recovered from:
https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789240022867

An Investigation of Primary Students' Attitudes Toward the Science Course

Ozay Soslu, PhD
Karamanoglu Mehmetbey University, Turkey

Abstract:
This study aimed to determine attitude levels of primary school students towards science courses and to examine them in terms of different variables (gender, reading books/journals about science courses, watching broadcasts about science courses, grade in science courses, use of laboratory and use of technological applications). The sample of the study was 163 students attending the 4th grade. In this research, in which a scanning model was used, "Attitude Scale towards Science Course" was used as a data collection tool. Independent samples t-test and one-way anova were used to analyze for the data. As a result of the study, it was determined that there was no significant difference between the attitude levels of 4 th grade primary school students towards science courses according to the variables of student gender and the frequency of using technological applications. It was observed that there was a significant difference in the attitude towards science courses according to the variables of the students' science achievement grade and the frequency of using the laboratory, reading books on science and journal article. It was concluded with suggestions to the teachers in order to eliminate negative attitudes of the students and to ensure that they develop a positive attitude towards science courses.

Key Words: Attitude, Primary education, Science courses

Introduction

Since science is a field which explains the events and situations we face in life, it can be considered as the easiest way to provide individuals with the skills of scientific thinking. The new information produced and the advancing technology particularly put forward the significance of science.

The contributions of science and technology, which is produced on a scientific basis, to the development and progress of societies are far too numerous (Böyük & Erol, 2008). Science education is of great importance nowadays, when science and technology are advancing at an unprecedented pace. Accordingly, science courses can be said to be quite important in the education-teaching process of people.

One of the course-related affective factors which influence learning is attitude (Aydın, 2016; Güden & Timur, 2016; Gürbüzoğlu Yalmancı, 2016; Karasakaloğlu & Saracaloğlu, 2009; Kenar & Balcı, 2012; Kurbanoğlu & Takunyacı, 2012; Özbaş, 2016; Tekbıyık & Akdeniz 2010; Tosun,

2011). Attitude can be described as the tendency of individuals to show positive or negative learned reaction against events, objects, items, situations, subjects, or people (Tezbaşaran, 1996; Turgut, 1997; Demirel, 2001; Senemoğlu, 2001; Yenice et al., 2008; Akyol & Dikici, 2009; Özbaş, 2016; Turgut & Baykul, 2011). Since attitudes play a significant role in the determination of behaviors, the positive or negative attitude of students toward a course affects their approach to studying for that course, and thus, their success. The more a student is enjoying the course, the easier it will be for the student to learn and accept the information in that course and to use it in daily life (Kozcu-Çakır et al., 2007). In the 2004, 2013, and 2017 science curricula, it was emphasized that the development of students only in terms of knowledge, understanding, and skills was not sufficient to raise them as scientifically literate individuals, but their affective skills also needed to be improved. Therefore, it will be useful to consider these affective characteristics during the science education process and to plan, organize, and implement the learning-teaching activities by paying attention to affective characteristics as well as cognitive characteristics to achieve the objectives stated in the curriculum.

Science courses are specifically considered difficult for students. As a natural result of this situation, the desired level of success cannot be reached in science (Yaman & Öner, 2006). Therefore, it is important to know the learning styles of students and their attitudes toward their science course in the planning of science education. It has been found that the achievement of students is also affected positively when they have positive attitudes toward science courses (Altınok, 2004; Şişman et al., 2011). It is known that positive attitudes lead to an increase in academic achievement (Tuncer et al., 2015). The effect of the attitude continues not only on tle learning at that time, but also on the subsequent learning (Kozcu-Çakır et al., 2007). Studies on attitudes reveal that attitudes are developed at early ages, and they do not change easily as long as no significant experiences are gained on that issue (Kocabaş, 1997). Therefore, students who have positive attitudes toward science courses in primary school years will have an advantage to continue these positive attitudes in later years. In this sense, it is extremely important to help students like science courses as of the primary school years and for students to have positive attitudes toward this courses. The determination of the factors that affect students' attitudes toward science courses is of great importance for turning their course-related attitudes from negative to positive, increasing their positive attitudes, helping students like science courses, and improving the academic achievement of students (Fidan-Dişikitli, 2011).

Considering attitude as a variable associated with learning and achievement, it is thought that studies on determining students' levels of attitude toward science courses and examining the variables affecting the attitude levels are important and should be focused on for achieving the goals stated in the curriculum of science courses. It is also thought that these studies will contribute to the literature. In this study, it was aimed to investigate and determine the attitudes of 4th-grade primary education students toward science courses in terms of various variables. When the relevant literature was reviewed, it was observed that studies which investigated students' attitudes toward science courses concentrated more on secondary school and high school levels. The number of studies investigating the attitudes of primary school students toward science courses was found to be low because it is difficult to assess. Based on these facts, it is thought that a contribution to the literature will be made by investigating the effect of some variables on students' levels of attitude toward the science courses and proposing suggestions to enhance the attitudes toward the course and the achievement in the course in this study.

Method
Research Model

In this study, which aimed to determine the attitudes of 4th-grade primary education students toward science courses, the general survey model, one of the descriptive survey methods, was used. The general survey model includes the survey arrangements on the whole population or a group, example, or sample from the population to reach a general conclusion about the population, consisting of numerous elements (Karasar, 1994).

Participants

The study group consists of 9-11 years old children in the center of Karaman 2019-2020 academic year, who were attending in state and private primary schools, and 4th -grade students. The sample of the study was determined by the convenience sampling method.

Data Collection Tool

In the study, a questionnaire was applied to determine students' attitudes toward science courses. "The Attitude Scale Toward Science Course (ASSC)," developed by Uyanık (2014), was used to determine the demographic information of students in the first section and their attitudes toward the science courses in the second section. The scale, developed in a 3-point Likert type, consists of 18 items. Since the scale would be applied to fourth-grade primary education students, it was of a 3-point Likert type, and students' agreement with the items was evaluated from negative to positive as "never" (1), "sometimes" (2), and "always" (3).

Data Analysis

The data were evaluated in a computer environment using SPSS 23.0 statistical software. While percentage (%), mean ($\bar{x}$), and standard deviation (SD) were used to define the numeric variables, number (n) was used to define the categorical variables. In the comparison of the variables, the independent t-test analysis was used in the interpretation of the difference between two variables, and one-way anova and the "Lsd" technique, one of the post-hoc tests, were used for the comparison of more than two groups. The significance level was accepted as ($p<0.05$).

Ethical considerations of the study

In this study, all the rules specified within the scope of the "Higher Education Institutions Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Directives" were followed. None of the actions specified under "The Actions Against Scientific Research and Publication Ethics," which constitutes the second section of the directives, were fulfilled. The study was conducted after receiving the permission of Karamanoğlu Mehmetbey University Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Board Commission numbered (95728670-020-22700).

Findings

As a result of the analysis of the data obtained in the study, the information about students and the data collected were tested within the context of the research questions, and the results are presented in tables respectively.

1.1. Percentage Values For The Students' Demographic Information

Variables	Section	n	%
School type	State Primary School	78	

	Private Primary School	84	48.1
			51.9
Gender	Female	84	51.9
	Male	78	48.1
Do you read books/journals about the science courses?	Yes	89	54.9
	No	73	45.1
Do you watch broadcasts about the science courses?	Yes	93	57.4
	No	69	42.6
What is your grade in the science courses?	Needs Improvement	8	4.9
	Good	32	19.8
	Very Good	122	75.3
What is the frequency of your laboratory use?	I don't use it	100	61.7
	Once a week	53	32.7
	Twice a week	4	2.5
	Three times a week and more often	5	3.1
Do you use of technological applications?	Yes	146	90.1
	No	16	9.9

Table 1: *Percentage values for the students' demographic information*

In table 1, the sample group consists of students studying in state (48.1%) and private (51.9%) primary schools. Of the students in the study, 51.9% were female, and 48.1% were male candidates. It was revealed that 54.9% of the students read books about science courses, 45.1% did not read books, 61.7% did not use the laboratory, 32.7% used the laboratory once a week, 2.5% twice a week, and 3.1% three times a week and more often. Of the students, 90.1% made use of technological applications, whereas 9.9% did not. Of the students, 4.9% had the grade "Needs Improvement," 19.8% "Good," and 75.3% "Very Good" in science courses.

1.2. The Independent Test Results Of The Students' Scores Obtained From The Attitude Scale Toward Science Courses According To The Gender Variable

Group	n	Mean ±Std.Deviation	sd	t	P
Female	84	2.31 ±.23	160	-.185	0.853
Male	78	2.32 ±.23			

Table 2: *The independent test results of the students' scores obtained from the attitude scale toward science courses according to the gender variable*

In Table 2, the female students' mean score of the Attitude Scale Toward Science Courses

is (2.31 ±.23), and the male students' mean score of the Attitude Scale Toward Science Courses is (2.32 ±.23). Although the male students' mean score of the Attitude Scale Toward Science Courses is higher than the mean attitude score of the female students, the difference between them is not statistically significant. There is no significant difference between the genders of students and their attitude scores (P>0.05, t=-.185).

1.3. The Independent T-Test Results Of The Students' Scores Obtained From The Attitude Scale Toward Science Courses According To The Variable Of Reading Books About Science

Group	n	Mean±Std.Deviation	sd	t	P
Yes, I do	89	2.38 ±.21	160	4.370	
No, I do not	73	2.23±.22			0.000*

*p<0.05

Table 3: *The independent t-test results of the students' scores obtained from the attitude scale toward science courses according to the variable of reading books about science*

In Table 3, the attitude scale mean score of the students who read books about science courses is observed to be (2.38±.21), and the attitude scale mean score of the students who did not read books about science courses is (2.23±.22). A statistically significant difference was observed between the students who read books about Science and those who did not (P<0.05, t=4.370).

1.4. The Independent T-Test Results Of The Students' Scores Obtained From The Attitude Scale Toward Science Courses According To The Variable Of Watching Broadcasts About The Science Course

Group	n	Mean±Std.Deviation	sd	t	p
Yes, I do	93	2.38 ±.19	160	4.72	
No, I do not	69	2.22±.24			0.000*

*p<0.05

Table 4: *The independent t-test results of the students' scores obtained from the attitude scale toward science courses according to the variable of watching broadcasts about the science course*

In Table 4, the attitude scale mean score of the students who watched broadcasts about science courses is (2.38±.19), and the attitude scale mean score of the students who did not watch broadcasts about science courses is (2.22±.24). A statistically significant difference was observed between the students who watched broadcasts about science courses and those who did not (P<0.05, t=4.72).

1.5. The Anova Analysis Of The Attitudes Toward The Science Course According To The Grades in Science Courses

Group	Mean±Std.Deviation	f	p
Needs Improvement	2.11±.35*		
Very Good	2.36±.20	5.516	0.05
Good	2.26±.24		

*p<0.05

Table 5: *The anova analysis of the attitudes toward science courses according to the grades in science courses*

When Table 5 was examined, a significant difference was found between the "Needs Improvement" grade parameter and other parameters in the attitudes in terms of the variable of grades in science courses (p<0.05, f=5.516).

1.6. The Anova Test Results Of The Students' Scores Obtained From The Attitude Scale Toward Science Courses According To The Variable Of The Frequency Of Laboratory Use

Group	n	Mean±Std.Deviation	f	p
I don't use it	100	2.32±.24		
I use it once a week	53	2.28±.21		
I use it twice a week	4	2.33±.29	0.918	0.48
I use it three times a week and more often	5	2.45±.06		

Table 6: *The anova test results of the students' scores obtained from the attitude scale toward science courses according to the variable of the frequency of laboratory use*

It is observed from Table 6 that the attitude scale mean score of the students who stated they did not use the laboratory in science courses was (2.32±.24), the attitude scale mean score of the students who said they used the laboratory once a week was (2.28±.21), the attitude scale mean score of the students who stated they used the laboratory twice a week was (2.33±.29), and the attitude scale mean score of the students who stated they used the laboratory three times a week and more often was (2.45±.06). Although the mean attitude score of the students (2.45±.06) who used the laboratory three times a week and more often in science courses is higher than those of the other students, this difference is not statistically significant. There is no significant difference between the laboratory use of the students in science courses and their attitude scores (P>0.05).

1.7. The Independent T-Test Results Of The Students' Scores Obtained From The Attitude Scale Toward Science Courses According To The Variable Of Making Use Of Technological Applications.

	n	Mean±Std.Deviation	sd	t	p

Group						
Yes, I do		46	2.32±.22	160	0.309	0.758
No, I do not		16	2.30±.28			

Table 7: *The independent t-test results of the students' scores obtained   from the attitude scale toward science courses according to the variable of making use of technological applications.*

In Table 7, the Attitude Scale Toward Science Courses mean score of the students who made use of technological applications is observed to be (2.32±.22), and the Attitude Scale Toward Science Course mean score of the students who did not make use of technological applications is (2.30±.28). There is no significant difference between making use of technological applications and the attitude scores of students (P>0.05, t=0.309).

Discussion and Conclusion

To reach the desired level in science education, the attitudes of the students toward science can be developed positively starting from the first grade of primary education (Kenar & Balcı; 2012), their interest can be enhanced, and they can be guided toward working in the field of science in the future (Mattern & Schau, 2001; George, 2006). Therefore, it is necessary to determine students' attitudes toward science courses, which is of great significance in their education life, and to investigate factors affecting these attitudes. This study was carried out to determine attitudes of 4th-grade students in primary schools in city center of Karaman toward science courses in terms of various variables.

When the results obtained in terms of the gender variable were reviewed, the mean attitude scores of the 4th-grade primary education male students for science courses were observed to be higher than those of female students; however, the difference between them was not statistically significant. Similar results were also encountered in the literature. In the study performed by Akbudak (2005), the attitudes of males toward science courses were found to be more positive, but there was no significant relationship between the genders. In their studies, Yılmaz (2012) and Najafi et al. (2012) concluded that the attitudes of male students were more positive compared to female students. There are also studies in which the mean attitude scores of female students for science courses are higher. In their study, Ocak and Erbasan (2017) concluded that the attitudes of female students toward science courses were more positive than those of male students. Although Alkan (2006) Can and Dikmentepe (2015) concluded in their studies on the attitudes of primary education students toward science courses that attitudes did not differ significantly by gender, the attitudes of female students are higher than those of male students according to the results of both studies. In the relevant literature, the gender variable was asserted to be the most influential factor in students' attitudes toward science courses in many studies conducted until 1991, and a result in favor of males was revealed. However, the studies conducted after 1991 showed that gender did not have a significant effect on attitude (Osborne, 2003). According to these results, it can be said that gender is not a determinant factor in determining students' attitudes toward the science courses. As a result of the integrative approach of Science teachers, teaching course without discriminating female and male students can be thought to affect the attitudes of students toward the course.

When the attitudes of the students who read books about science courses toward the course were examined, the attitudes were found to be at a significantly higher level than the students who

did not read books about science courses (t=4.370; p<0.05). In the literature, there are studies supporting the result that the variable of reading books about science causes differentiation in students' attitudes toward the course. The study carried out by Yıldırım and Karataş (2018) on primary education students and the study conducted by Ocak and Erbasan (2017) on primary education students can be given as examples. Based on these findings, reading books about science courses is considered a significant variable that will create a difference in students' attitudes toward the course.

When the attitudes of the students who watched broadcasts about science toward the course were evaluated, the attitudes were found to be at a significantly higher level than the students who did not watch broadcasts about science (t=4.72; p<0.05). In the literature, there are studies supporting the result that the variable of watching broadcasts about science causes differentiation in students' attitudes toward the course. The study carried out by Yıldırım and Karataş (2018) on primary education students can be given as an example. Yılmazer (2016) concluded that the variables of reading historical books and watching films created a significant difference in the attitudes of secondary school 8th-grade students. However, in the study performed by Ocak and Erbasan (2017), no significant difference was observed between the variable of following a scientific website and students' attitudes toward science courses. Based on these findings, watching broadcasts about science is considered a variable that will create a significant difference in the attitudes of students toward science courses.

When the findings were examined in terms of grades in science courses, a significant difference was found between the "Needs Improvement" grade parameter and other parameters in the attitudes of the students toward science courses (f=5.516; p<0.05). The mean score of the attitudes of the students, who had the grade "very good" in the grade parameter, toward the course was (2.36±.20), the mean score of the students with the grade "good" was (2.26±.24), and the mean score of the students with the grade "needs improvement" was (2.11±.35). On the other hand, in the study conducted by Mdletshe et al. (1995), it was concluded that attitudes affected achievement, and achievement affected attitudes, which supports these findings. In the study carried out by Alkan (2006), the attitudes of students who had high grades in science courses were found to be at a significantly higher level than students with low grades in science courses. It was put forward that the attitudes of students toward science courses were positive, and attitude and achievement were positively correlated (Dieck, 1997; Martinez, 2002). In their study, Gürkan and Gökçe (2000) reported that the achievement of students who had high-level attitudes toward science courses in science was higher regarding the correlation between the attitude toward science courses and achievement. It can be said that the achievement level in science courses is a variable that can create a significant difference in the level of the attitude toward science courses, and when the attitude decreases or increases, the achievement of students is influenced directly or indirectly (Kozcu et al., 2007). In the literature, unlike our study, studies (Gömleksiz & Yüksel, 2003) that have concluded that primary education students have negative attitudes toward science courses are encountered, although rarely, and the studies mostly have results similar to this study. The maintenance of students' positive attitudes toward science courses from primary school is important in terms of influencing their achievement in the course positively (Demirbaş & Yağbasan, 2004; Balım et al., 2009; Şişman et al., 2011). At this point, the continuous monitoring of attitudes is thought to be effective in identifying the factors which influence students' attitudes toward science courses.

When the findings are examined with regard to the variable of the frequency of the science laboratory use, the mean attitude scores of the students who stated that they did not use the

laboratory (2.32±.24), used the laboratory once a week (2.28±.21), twice a week (2.33±.29) and three times a week and more often (2.45±.06) were close to each other, and this finding indicates that the variable of the frequency of the laboratory use did not create a significant difference in the attitude scores. However, as a result of the increase in the frequency of the students' use of laboratory, the mean attitude scores of the students for science courses were found to be higher. Considering this situation, it is assumed necessary to include more laboratory and experimental activities in the course. In the literature, no studies supporting the result that the variable of the frequency of the science laboratory use did not lead to a differentiation in students' attitudes toward science courses were encountered. In the studies conducted by Kaya and Boyuk (2011) and Kozcu-Çakır et al., (2007), it was concluded that the laboratory use affected the attitude toward science courses positively. Furthermore, in the studies performed by Bilgin et al., (2002), Bilgin and Geban (2004), and Mordi (1991), teaching methods and techniques were emphasized among the most important factors affecting students' achievement in a course and attitudes toward the course, and the achievement of students who take the course in a laboratory environment is thought to increase as a result of having more fun through experiments and experiences.

When the data on the variable of primary school 4th-grade students' use of technological applications were reviewed, no significant difference was observed between the attitude scores of the students who followed technological applications and the students who did not. In contrast, in their study on primary education students, Yıldırım and Karataş (2018) found a significant difference between the attitude scores of students who stated that they always and often used technological applications and the attitude scores of students who stated that they sometimes, rarely or never used technological applications. Based on this finding, the use of technological applications as the ages of students advance during their education is considered a variable that can create a significant difference in the attitude scores of students.

Recommendations

The frequency of the laboratory use in science courses, achievement in science courses, reading books/journals about science courses, and watching broadcasts about science play a significant role in the attitudes of students toward science courses. In line with these conclusions, the following recommendations can be made:

1. Enriching the practices related to the science education in the preservice educational processes of primary education classroom teachers, and planning and organizing them in consideration of the activities aimed at improving cognitive characteristics, such as academic achievement, as well as activities that will contribute to the improvement of affective characteristics will be useful to achieve the objectives in the curriculum.

2. To eliminate the negative attitudes of students toward science courses, classroom teachers should keep various current scientific resources (books, journals, brochures, etc.) in school and classroom bookshelves and encourage students to examine them. Additionally, activities such as watching broadcasts, documentaries, and films about science should be organized on certain days of the week.

All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

This article does not contain any studies with animals performed by any of the authors.

Conflicts of interest.

The authors of this paper certify that they have NO affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial or non-financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; membership, employment; affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in this manuscript.

References:

Akbudak, Y. (2005). İlköğretim 7. sınıf öğrencilerinin fen bilgisi dersine ve öğretimine ilişkin tutumları ve önerileri. (Yayımlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi). Selçuk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Konya.

Akyol, C., & Dikici, A. (2009). Şiirle öğretim tekniğinin öğrencilerin başarı ve tutumlarına etkisi. Elemantary Education Online, 8(1), 48-56.

Alkan, A. (2006). İlköğretim öğrencilerinin fen bilgisine karşı tutumları. (Yayımlanmamış yüksek lisans tezi). Afyon Kocatepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Afyon.

Altınok, H. (2004). Teacher candidates' evaluation of their teaching competencies. Hacettepe University Journal of Education Faculty, (26), 1-8.

Aydın, M. (2016). Investigation of the attitudes of science teacher candidates toward learning according to some variables. The Journal of International Lingual, Social and Educational Sciences, 2(2), 75-84.

Balım, A., Sucuoğlu, H., & Aydın, G. (2009). Fen ve teknolojiye yönelik tutum ölçeğinin geliştirilmesi. Pamukkale Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi. 25(1), 33-41.

Bilgin, İ., Uzuntiryaki, E., & Geban, Ö. (2002). Kimya öğretmenlerinin öğretim yaklaşımlarının lise 1 ve 2. sınıf öğrencilerinin kimya dersi başarı ve tutumlarına etkisinin incelenmesi. 08.05.2005 tarihinde elde edilmiştir: http://www.fedu.metu.edu.tr/ufbmek-5/ozetler/d155.pdf

Bilgin, İ., & Geban, Ö. (2004). İşbirlikli öğrenme yöntemi ve cinsiyetin sınıf öğretmenliği öğretmen adaylarının fen bilgisi dersine karşı tutumlarına, fen bilgisi öğretimi dersindeki başarılarına etkisinin belirlenmesi. Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, (26), 9-1.

Böyük, U. ve Erol, M. (2008). Science education laboratories in Turkey: Difficulties and proposals. *International Journal on Hands-on Science,* 1646-8937 online 1646- 8945, Received July 20, 2008; Accepted October 11, 2008.

Can, Ş., & Dikmentepe, E. (2015). Investigation of secondary school students' attitudes towards science and technology course and science experiments (Case of Muğla). MSKU Faculty of Education Journal, 2(1), 44-58.

Demirel, Ö. (2001). Eğitim sözlüğü. Ankara: Pegem Yayınevi.

Demirbaş, M., & Yağbasan, R. (2004). Fen bilgisi öğretiminde, duyuşsal özelliklerin değerlendirilmesinin işlevi ve öğretim süreci içinde, öğretmen uygulamalarının analizi üzerine bir araştırma. Gazi Üniversitesi Kırşehir Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 5(2), 177-193.

Dieck, A. P. (1997). "An effect of a newsletter on children's interest in an attitude toward science". Unpublished master's thesis, Arizona State University.

George, R. (2006). A Cross-domain analysis of change in students' attitudes toward science and attitudes about the utility of science. International Journal of Science Education, Vol. 28, No. 6, 571–589.

Fidan -Dişikitli, A. (2011). İlköğretim 7. ve 8. sınıf öğrencilerinin fen ve teknoloji dersine yönelik tutumları ile fen ve teknoloji dersi başarıları arasındaki ilişki. (Yüksek Lisans Tezi). Selçuk Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Konya.

Gömleksiz, M. N., & Yüksel, Y. (2003). İlköğretim 4. ve 5. sınıf öğrencilerinin fen bilgisi dersine ilişkin kaygıları. Doğu Anadolu Bölgesi Araştırmaları, 1(3), 71-81.

Güden, C., & Timur, B. (2016). Examining secondary school students' attitudes towards science based on various variables (Çanakkale sample). International journal of active learning, 1(1), 49-72.

Gürbüzoğlu Yalmancı, S. (2016). Biyoloji tutum ölçeğinin geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması. PAU Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 40, 248-262.

Gürkan, K., & Gökçe, E. (2000, Eylül). İlköğretim öğrencilerinin fen bilgisi dersine yönelik tutumları. IV. Fen Bilimleri Eğitimi Kongresi, Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi, Ankara.

Karasar, N. (1994). Araştırmalarda rapor hazırlama. Ankara: 3A Araştırma Eğitim Danışmanlık Ltd.

Karasakaloğlu, N., & Saracaloğlu., A.S. (2009). Sınıf öğretmeni adaylarının türkçe derslerine yönelik tutumları, akademik benlik tasarımları ili başarıları arasındaki ilişki. Yüzüncü Yıl Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 4(1), 343-362.

Kaya, H., & Boyuk, U. (2011). Attitude towards physics lessons and physical experiments of the high school students. European journal of physics education, 2(1), 23-31.

Kenar, I., & Balcı, M. (2012). The development of attitudes toward science and technology lesson scale: The case of 4th and 5th grade primary school students. Dumlupınar University Journal of Social Sciences, 34, 201-210.

Kocabaş, A. (1997). Validity and reliability study of the attitude towards music scale for primary education second grade students. Hacettepe University Faculty of Education Journal, 13, 141-145.

Kozcu-Çakır, N., Şenler, B., & Göçmen-Taşkın, B. (2007). İlköğretim II. kademe öğrencilerinin fen bilgisi dersine yönelik tutumlarının belirlenmesi. Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi, 5(4), 637-655.

Kurbanoğlu, N. İ., & Takunyacı, M. (2012). An investigation of the attitudes, anxieties and self-efficacy beliefs towards mathematics lessons high school students' in terms of gender, types of school, and students' grades. International Journal of Human Sciences, 9(1), 110-130.

Martinez, A. (2002). Student achievement in science: A longitudinal look at individual and school differences. İnernetten20 Haziran 2012'de http://wwwlib.umi.com/dissertations/ fullcit/3055869 adresinden alınmıştır.

Mdletshe, K.D., Manale, J., Vorster, L., & Lynch, P. (1995). "Student perceptions of and attitudes toward science". Paper presented at the Conference on Improving Science and Mathematics Teaching: Effectivencess of Interventions in Southern Africa. Nambia, December 11-15, 1995.

Mattern, N., & Schau, C. (2001). Gender difference in attitude-achievement relationships over time among white middle school students, Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 39, 324-340.

Mordi, C. (1991). Factors associated with pupil's attitudes towards science in Negerian primary schools. Research in Science and Techologial Education, 1(9), 39-41.

Najafi, M., Ebrahimitabass, E., Dehghani, A., & Rezaei, M. (2012). Students' attitude towards science and technology. Interdısçıplınary Journal of Contemporary Research in Busıness, 3(10), 129-134. 14 Ağustos2016 tarihinde http://journal-archieves15.webs.com/129-134.pdf sayfasından erişilmiştir.

Ocak, İ., & Erbasan, Ö. (2017). 4th Grade students' epistemological beliefs and attitudes to science course. Afyon Kocatepe University Journal of Social Sciences, 19(2), 187-207.

Osborne, J. (2003). Attitudes towards science: A review of the literature and its implications. International Journal of Science Education, 25(9), 1049-1079.

Özbaş, S. (2016). High school students' attitudes toward biology course. Electronic Turkish Studies, 11(9). 659-668.

Senemoğlu, N. (2001). Gelişim öğrenme ve öğretim. Ankara: Gazi Publishing House.

Şişman, M., Acat, M.B., Aybay, A., & Karadağ, E. (2011). TIMSS 2007 National of 8. grades mathematics and science report. Ministry of National Education, Ankara.

Tekbıyık., A., & Akdeniz. A.R. (2010). Current physics attitude scale for secondary school students: Its development, validity and reliability. Turkish Journal of Science Education, 7 (4).

Tezbaşaran, A. (1996). Likert tipi ölçek geliştirme kılavuzu. Ankara: Türk Psikologlar Derneği

Yayınları.

Tosun, Z.D. (2011). Biyoloji dersine yönelik tutum ölçeği geliştirilmesi. (Yayınlanmamış doktora tezi). Gazi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Ankara.

Tuncer, M., Berkant, H., & Doğan, Y. (2015). The validity and reliability of the scale of attitude toward english lesson. Journal of Education and Instructional Research, 4(2), 260-266.

Turgut, M.F. (1997). Eğitimde ölçme ve değerlendirme metotları. Ankara: Nuve Printing.

Turgut, M. F., & Baykul, Y. (2011). Eğitimde ölçme ve değerlendirme (3rd Printing). Ankara: Pegem Publishing.

Uyanık, G. (2014). The effect of conceptual change texts on elimination of misconceptions in primary school 4th grade science course. Gazi University Institute of Educational Sciences, Ankara.

Yaman, S., Öner, F. (2006). A research aimed at determining primary school students' perspectives on science lesson. Education of Journal, 14 (1), 339-346.

Yenice, N., Balım, A. G. & Aydın, G. (2008). The attitudes of biology teachers toward laboratory lesson and their tendencies to follow technological innovations. Kastamonu Education of Journal, 16(2), 469- 484.

Yıldırım, H.İ., & Karataş, F. (2018). An investigation into the secondary school students' motivation toward science learning. The Journal of Academic Social Science, 65, 164-187.

Yılmaz, A. (2012). Eight class students attitude toward science and tecnology and the effect on their achievement in relating it with everday life. Gazi University Institute of Educational Sciences, Ankara.

Yılmazer, A. (2016). The investigation of the relationship between eighth graders' academic achievement and their attitudes towards republic of turkey revolution history and kemalism course in terms of some variables. Cumhuriyet University Institute of Educational Sciences, Sivas.

The Effect of Responsibility-Based Activities in Social Studies Course on Gaining the Value of responsibility to students[2]

Ali Yalçın, **Dr.**
Selma Güleç, **Dr.**
Bursa Uludag University, Faculty of Education, Bursa,Turkey

Abstract:
    This research aims to reveal the effect of responsibility-based activities applied in the 5th grade Social Studies course on students' value of responsibility. For this reason, a mixed-method consisting of quantitative and qualitative data was used in the study. Explanatory sequential design, one of the mixed-method research types, was used. In this context, the quantitative data tools used in the research are the individual and social responsibility scale and the achievement test. Also, the qualitative data tool is a semi-structured interview form. The sample group of this research is 5th-grade students in two secondary schools located in the center of Yalova, under the Ministry of National Education in the 2019-2020 academic year. The application part of the research was carried out according to the experimental design with pre-test and post-test control groups. The SPSS program was used to analyze the quantitative data. In addition, t-tests for independent and dependent groups, Anova, Split-Plot Anova for one-way and repeated measurements, and Wilxocan Signed Ranks test for non-parametric tests were used to analyze quantitative data. Content analysis and descriptive analysis were performed for qualitative data. According to the research results, there was a significant difference between post-test achievement scores of the experimental and control groups. This difference shows that the responsibility value applied in the experimental group positively affects the activity-based teaching process. There was also a significant difference between the post-test attitude scores of the experimental and control groups. According to the results obtained from the qualitative data, teaching the value of responsibility through activities increased the students' success. It supported them to exhibit positive attitudes and behaviors. Moreover, in the Social Studies course, the responsibility value activities created according to various teaching methods and techniques contributed to creating an interesting, entertaining, enjoyable, and positive learning environment.

Introduction
    To raise effective and productive citizens, which is one of the most important goals of the

---
[2] This research emerged from the first author's doctoral thesis

Social Studies course, it is aimed to train qualified individuals with different characteristics such as being active in the lessons, participating in activities, asking questions, producing solutions to problems, fulfilling their responsibilities, cooperating, and participating in group work. There is an increasing need for individuals who fulfill their responsibilities to find solutions for the weakening of family ties, the adverse effects of technology, drug use, environmental and natural disasters, air pollution, water problem, hunger, migration, digital theft, tax evasion, the introduction of unhealthy products, excessive consumption, and infectious diseases (Covid-19). Recent developments affect the curricula and the contents of the textbooks. For these reasons, it has revealed how critical the knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes taught in school are.

The problems that have occurred in social structures recently have turned into a situation that harms the continuity and integrity of the social structure. When some solutions are produced on these problems, societies can continue their existence under the conditions of the day (Sönmez & Recepoğlu, 2019) because a generation that grows up with global education is expected to take responsibility at the local level. In this direction, it is necessary for individuals to be aware of their multifaceted and individual responsibilities and to be strengthened, based on the principles of learning to live together (Genç & Kınasakal, 2019). As can be understood from these explanations, the necessity of value education emerges.

According to Doğan (2008), activity-based teaching can teach skills and values effectively. Thus, the student can effectively learn his/her fundamental rights and responsibilities in society and act accordingly. It also enables the formation of a democratic social structure. Values are classified based on purpose, target, content, dimension, feature, quality, and similar features (Rokeach, 1974; Schwartz, 2012; Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı [Ministry of National Education], 2005a; 2018b; Ulusoy & Arslan, 2019; Tezcan, 2018). Values vary according to society, culture, and location. Thus, it is essential to teach correct universal values, mainly based on local cultural characteristics. With activity-based teaching, students can learn the value of responsibility together with both their knowledge and affective characteristics. In addition, activities are one of the critical teaching tools of the Social Studies course curriculum.

In the relevant literature, activity-based teaching is characterized by different names such as active-based, active-based teaching, constructivist teaching, design-oriented teaching, and action research (Margaryan, Collis & Cooke, 2004; Kelly, 2010; Silberman; 2016; Borich, 2017). Recently, it is thought that the value of responsibility can be taught more effectively thanks to teaching approaches different alternatives such as memory, play, education with games, education with maps, melody-song, argumentation, augmented reality, stories, culture, poetry, pictures, and photographs, out-of-class education, teaching with religious and moral values, teaching with performing arts (Sever, 2020). In the research, responsibility is related to behavior and attitude (Wright, 1973), especially at school. It will be important for the individual to have a respected, qualified, positive attitude and behavior in society/her later life. Suppose the teaching of cultural values at school is accepted as a responsibility. In that case, it can contribute to the development and strengthening of responsibility by integrating it with knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values (Francis, 1980). It is thought that better results can be obtained by employing activity-based teaching activities to develop responsibility. It has been determined that the value education given in schools effectively affects the individual's personality development and affects the individual's value perceptions (Ray, 1992). Values affect the lives, attitudes, and behaviors of individuals. Also, they contribute to the development of students' practical and creative thinking, problem-solving and critical thinking skills (Bullock, 1988). Cognitive teaching of responsibility occurs at certain stages, and the concept of responsibility has comprehensive and unifying qualities (Vincent, 2011).

Thus, individuals can learn the concept of responsibility and exhibit positive attitudes and behaviors that fulfill their responsibilities.

The program's focus is on activities since the structuring of acquisitions, skills, and values in the Social Studies curriculum according to the interests and needs of the students depends on the activities to be implemented both inside and outside the classroom. Studies on responsibility generally focus on values education, character, and moral development. However, experimental studies on responsibility as a value show that the teaching process with activities affects students' positive attitudes and behaviors. Hence, in some related research topics related, we see that studies such as families, schools and values (Lang, 2005), values and ethics in schools (Lovat, 2005), attitudes, beliefs and values in education (Aspin, 2005), values education (Taylor, 2005), values in school planning (Caple, 2005) and basic theory of values (Schwartz, 2012) are in the dimensions of value, value education, and school. As understood from these researches, providing values education for a healthy and peaceful society is essential. Because, thanks to the value of responsibility, students can have helpful, respectful, constructive, positive attitudes and behaviors in school, family, and society.

Responsible individuals are those who realize these problems and produce solutions for them. It can only be achieved through responsibility education. In this context, it is thought that students' level of success, attitudes, and behaviors will develop positively with the activity-based teaching of the value of responsibility. Considering these explanations, the focus problem of this study is whether the responsibility-based activities applied in the 5th grade Social Studies course affect gaining the value of responsibility. In line with this problem, answers to the following sub-problems were sought.

1) According to the activity-based teaching of the value of responsibility, is there a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the experimental and control group students in the Social Studies course?

2) Do the experimental and control group students' pre-test and post-test achievement scores significantly differ according to various variables (gender, family income level, family occupation level, family education level) in the Social Studies course?

3) Is there a significant difference between the experimental and control group students' pre-test and post-test achievement scores in the Social Studies course?

4) Do the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the experimental and control group students show a significant difference according to various variables (gender, family income level, family occupation level, family education level) in the Social Studies course?

5) What are the opinions of the 5th-grade students on the activity-based teaching process of the value of responsibility in the Social Studies course?

Method

This study aims to determine the effect of responsibility-based activities applied in 5th grade Social Studies course on gaining the value of responsibility. In this study, a mixed-method was used, in which quantitative and qualitative research data were used together. The main feature of this research method is to make a better sense of the research problem by using quantitative and qualitative data together (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2020). In this context, explanatory sequential design, one of the mixed-methods research types, was used. In this process, the researcher supports qualitative and quantitative data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2020; Creswell, 2021). In this study, the application process was designed and applied according to the pretest-posttest experimental design with the control group to reveal the difference between the experimental and control groups. In

such experimental studies, a comparison is made according to the experimental and control group variables, and then the effectiveness of the applied teaching process is evaluated in general (Ekiz, 2020).

Study Group

It can be said that the sample size of the research is determined by the research model, the purpose of the study, the cost, and control difficulties. (Büyüköztüurk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz & Demirel 2014; Karasar, 2018). A random sampling method was chosen following the experimental design in this study. The most important feature of this method is that the probability of selecting the units sampled in the study group is similar (Büyüköztürk et al. 2014). In this context, the sample of this study consists of 5th-grade students in two secondary schools affiliated to the Ministry of National Education located in the city center of Yalova, in the Marmara Region. 15 students in class 5-A in secondary school A were selected as a group in which the experimental procedure was performed. In the 5-B class of secondary school B, 22 students were selected as the control group. Before determining the study group, the researcher obtained general information about the student profiles, socio-economic level, success level, school grades, and physical characteristics of the school. Participation in the research was done voluntarily. The total number of students participating in the study is 37. The processing process was carried out in the experimental group according to the activity-based teaching process. The processing process of the control group was carried out according to the usual MEB curriculum.

Data Collection Tools

Data collection tools were determined under the methodology of this study. Individual and social responsibility scales and academic achievement tests were used as quantitative data tools. The individual and social responsibility scale was developed by Li et al. (2008) and later adapted into Turkish by Filiz & Demirhan (2015). This scale is a 6-point Likert-type scale consisting of 13 items. All items are unidimensional, and there are no reverse-scored items. The validity and reliability study of the individual and social responsibility scale was carried out. The internal consistency coefficient of the scale is *Cronbach alpha* correlation coefficient a=883. Explanatory Factor Analysis results were obtained according to the measurement of *Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin* (KMO). According to these measurement results, the KMO value was calculated806, and the Chi-Square value was significant according to Bartlett's Sphericity test ($p<.05$).

The researcher developed the achievement test, piloted it first, and then applied it to the experimental and control groups. Before creating the achievement test, the literature was reviewed. A responsibility-based achievement test pool was created, taking into account the achievements in the learning areas of *production, distribution, and consumption,* and *active citizenship,* which included responsibility-based issues in the Social Studies course. The procedures for the achievement test were created entirely according to the specification table. Initially, 50 questions were created. Afterward, seven field experts from different universities were consulted on this achievement test regarding language, meaning, subject integrity, acquisition, and relevance to the value of responsibility. Some questions were omitted by the expert opinions and recommendations, and the number of questions was reduced to 35 in total. *Cronbach alpha* reliability coefficient of academic achievement test is a=865.

Qualitative data tools were also used in this research to support and compare quantitative results. For this reason, the interview method, one of the qualitative data collection tools, was used in the research. A semi-structured interview form was used among the interview method. The

interview form about the value of responsibility was applied to the experimental group students. In addition, interviews were conducted with the parents of the experimental group students. Since the 5th-grade Social Studies course is 3 hours a week, the activity-based teaching process was also carried out according to this time. For this reason, the 12-week implementation process took a total of 36 hours. In this process, in the Social Studies course, topics in the learning areas of *production, distribution, consumption,* and *active citizenship* were taught with responsibility value-based activities. The control group was done according to the standard MEB curriculum.

Data Analysis

The data collected with quantitative data tools were processed according to the SPSS 22 program in this study. It was checked whether the data showed normal distribution. As a result, it was determined that the achievement test data showed a normal distribution. Since the data obtained from the individual and social responsibility scale did not have a normal distribution according to some variables, and the homogeneity of the variances could not be ensured, non-parametric tests were used for these sub-questions. This study used t-tests for parametric data, *Anova* and *Split-Plot Anova* for repeated measurements. Also, for non-parametric data, the *Wilcoxon Signed Ranks* test was used. The results of the analysis of the quantitative data were tabulated and interpreted in the findings section. The achievement test was prepared following the topic and achievements, and the content validity of the tests was ensured and presented to expert opinions. In the analysis of the data in the pilot application of the achievement test, the *TAP* (test analysis program) program was used. In the qualitative data analysis, support was received from field experts, measurement and evaluation experts. As a result of their feedback, both content and descriptive analysis were used to analyze the data on the value of responsibility. In this context, the data presented in the tables are supported and interpreted with direct quotations. *Cronbach alpha* reliability coefficient of the achievement test was determined as a=865. The internal consistency reliability coefficient of the individual and social responsibility scale was a=883. With this result, it can be interpreted that the measurement tools were valid and reliable measurement tool.

Findings

In this section, findings obtained from the qualitative data analysis are included. The sub-problems of the research are answered in order.

3.1 The problem question "According to the activity-based teaching of the value of responsibility, is there a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the experimental and control group students in the Social Studies course?" was answered.

Table 1. T-test results regarding the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the experimental and control group students

Process	x	df	sd	t	p
Pre-test	5.50	32.944	6.70	.821	.418
Post-test	20.54	32.675	5.47	3.752	.001

According to the t-test results for independent groups in Table 1, there was no significant difference between the experimental and control group pre-test scores [t]$_6$= 821 p<.418]. At first, it was determined that they received scores with similar characteristics. However, there was a

significant difference between the post-test achievement scores of the experimental and control groups [t_5= 3.752 p>.001]. This difference in the experimental group can be interpreted as the value of responsibility positively affecting students' achievement scores of the activity-based teaching process.

3.2 The problem question "Do the experimental and control group students' pre-test and post-test achievement scores significantly differ according to various variables (gender, family income level, family occupation level, family education level) in the Social Studies course?" was answered.

Table 2. T-test results regarding the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the experimental and control group students according to the gender variable

Group	gender	process	x	ss	sd	t	df	p
Experiment	Male	Pre-test Post-test	7.28	5.76	2.17	-3.344	6	.016
	Female	Pre-test Post-test	-4.87	11.60	4.10	-1.188	7	.274
Control	Male	Pre-test Post-test	25.50	27.83	8.80	2.897	9	.018
	Female	Pre-test Post-test	-4.66	23.74	6.85	-681	11	.510

In Table 2, there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the males in the experimental group according to the gender variable [t_{2nd}= -3.344 p>.016]. There was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the females in the experimental group [t_4= -1.188 p<.274]. According to the results in the control group, there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the males [t_8= 2,897 p>.018]. It was determined that there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of female students in the control group [t_6= -681 p<.510].

Table 3. Anova results regarding the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the experimental and control group students according to the family income level variable

Group	Process		KT	df	KO	f	p
Experiment	Pre-test	Intergroup	126.310	2	63.155	.304	.743
		In-group	2491.690	12	207.641		
		total	2618.000	14			
	Post-Test	Intergroup	37.452	2	18.726	.135	.875
		In-group	1658.548	12	138.212		
		total	1696.000	14			
Control		Intergroup	3260.000	2	1630.000	2.641	.097

Pre-test	In-group	11727.500	20	617.237			
	total	14987.500	22				
Post-Test	Intergroup	84.055	2	42.027	.080	.924	
	In-group	10039.400	20	528.389			
	total	10123.455	22				

According to the results of *Split-File Anova* in Table 3, there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the experimental group students according to the family income level variable [F (2. 1658) = .135; p<.875]. According to the family income level variable, there was no significant difference between the students' pre-test and post-test achievement scores in the control group.

Table 4. Anova results for the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the experimental and control group students according to the mother's occupation variable

Group			KT	df	KO	f	p
Experiment	Pre-test	Intergroup	326.900	3	239.273	1.385	.299
		In-group	2291.100	12	172,744		
		total	2618.000	15			
	Post-Test	Intergroup	87.600	3	62.485	.456	.719
		In-group	1608.400	12	137.140		
		total	1696.000	15			
Control	Pre-test	Intergroup	693.229	1	693.229	.970	.336
		In-group	14294.271	21	714.714		
		total	14987.500	22			
	Post-Test	Intergroup	1886.371	1	1886.371	4.580	.045
		In-group	8237.083	21	411.854		
		total	10123.455	22			

According to the results of *Split-File Anova* for repeated measurements in Table 4, there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the experimental group students according to the mother's occupation variable [F (3.1608)=.456; p<.719]. While there was no significant difference between the pre-test achievement scores of the students in the control group according to the mother's occupation variable, there was a significant difference between the post-test achievement scores [F (1. 1886)=4.580; p>.045].

According to the father's occupation variable, there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the experimental group students [F (2. 510)= 1.075; p<419]. *Anova* was used for repeated measurements to look at the difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the experimental and control group students according to the education level of the father and mother. As it can be understood from these findings, there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the experimental group students according to the father's education level variable. The post-test significance value was F(2. 235)=.967; p<.408]. According to the father's education level variable, there was no

significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the control group students. The post-test significance value was: [F (3. 2822)=2.319; p<.110].

3.3 The problem question "Is there a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the experimental and control group students in the Social Studies course?" was answered.

Table 5. T-test results regarding pre-test and post-test attitude scores of experimental and control group students

Process	x	sd	t	df	p
Pre-test	18.77	4.01	4.682	31.390	.000
Post-test	11.97	2.41	4.966	35	.000

When the t-test results are evaluated in Table 5, a significant difference was found between the experimental and control group post-test attitude (individual and social responsibility behaviors) scores [t_{35}= 4,966 p>.000]. This significant difference may be that the responsibility-based activities applied in the experimental group may positively affect the students' individual and social responsibility attitude scores.

3.4 The problem question "Do the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the experimental and control group students show a significant difference according to various variables (gender, family income level, family occupation level, family education level) in Social Studies course?" was answered.

Table 6. T-test results regarding the pre-test and post-test attitude scores of the experimental and control group students according to the gender variable

Group		df	KT	KO	f	p
Experiment	Intergroup In-group	1	57478.157	57478.157	2964.250	.000
	Gender	1	.157	.157	.008	.930
Control	Intergroup In-group	1	46906.206	46906.206	631.758	.000
	Gender	1	225.752	225.752	3.041	.097

According to the results of the experimental and control groups in table 6, there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test attitude (individual and social responsibility behaviors) scores of the experimental group students according to the gender variable [F(1. 157)=.008; p<.930]. There was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test attitude scores of the control group according to the gender variable [F(1. 225)=3.041; p<.097].

Table 7. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test results for the pre-test and post-test attitude scores of the experimental and control group students according to the family income level variable

Group	Family income level	N	SO	ST	z	p

Experiment	positive	High	2	2.25	4.50	-1.261[b]	.207
	positive	Medium	6	3.33	10.00	-.679[b]	.497
	positive	Low	7	1.00	1.00	.447[b]	.655
Control	positive	High	2	0.00	0.00	-1.342[b]	.180
	positive	Medium	10	8.50	17.00	-.653[b]	.514
	negative	Low	10	4.17	25.00	-.255[c]	.799

b. Based on positive ranks
c. Based on negative ranks

Considering the Wilcoxon signed-rank test results in table 7, there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test attitude scores of the experimental group students according to the family income level variable. Likewise, there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test attitude scores of the control group.

Table 8. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test results for the pre-test and post-test attitude scores of the experimental and control group students according to the mother's occupation level variable

Group			N	SO	ST	z	p
Experiment	positive	Housewife	11	4.40	22.00	-.979[b]	.328
	negative	Worker	2	1.00	1.00	-.447[c]	.655
Control	negative	Housewife	16	6.40	64.00	-.207[d]	.836
	positive	Worker	6	00.00	00.00	-2.023[b]	.043

b. Based on positive ranks
c. Based on negative ranks

Considering the data in Table 8, according to the test results of *Wilcoxon Signed Ranks*, there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test attitude scores of the experimental and control group students according to the mother's education level variable. There was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test attitude (individual and social responsibility behaviors) scores of the participants in the control group whose mothers were workers (z= -2.023; p<.05). This difference was unexpected. There was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test attitude scores of the experimental and control group students according to the father's occupation level variable.

Table 9. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test results for the pre-test and post-test attitude scores of the experimental and control group students according to the father's education level variable

Group			N	SO	ST	z	p
Experiment	positive	Primary School	4	3.33	6.00	-.365[b]	.715
		Secondary School	5	3.00	15.00	-2.023[b]	.043
		University	6	3.00	12.00	-.314[b]	.753

	positive						
Control		Primary School	3	1.50	1.50	$-.816^b$	.414
		Secondary School	13	11.25	45.00	$-.035^b$	.972
		University	5	5.00	5.00	$-.674^b$	.500
b. Based on positive ranks^b							

In table 9, there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test attitude scores of the students in the experimental group according to the father's educational level (primary school: z= -.365; p>.05), (university: z= -314; p>.05). However, there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test attitude scores of the students whose fathers graduated from secondary school in the experimental group (secondary school: z= -2.023; p<.05). In the control group, there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test attitude scores of the participants according to the father's education level. According to the mother's education level variable, there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test attitude scores of the experimental and control group students.

5. The problem question "What are the opinions of the 5th-grade students on the activity-based teaching process of the value of responsibility in the Social Studies course?" was answered.

This study also included qualitative results to support the quantitative findings. Students identified the concept of responsibility as *studying* and *going to school*. Later, they replied to it as *listening to our teacher* and *doing the tasks*. The least mentioned concepts related to responsibility were: *to be respectful, not to say bad words, to fulfill our duties*, *do business, bring school stuff, make a bed*. According to students, individual responsibilities were *to do something very nice, be an example to our family, be an example with our behavior, help, and take a bath*. Students explained social responsibilities *primarily as obeying the rules, showing the right way, being respectful, not fighting, and helping each other*. Students identified *their responsibilities for school* as *studying* and *going to school*. They explained their responsibilities for the family as *being respectful, helping our mother, tidying our room, and not saying bad words*.

Students explained *their responsibilities for the environment as not littering places, behaving appropriately in the environment, protecting nature, and warning those who are littering*. In addition, students found the activity-based teaching process in the Social Studies course *very helpful*, *beautiful, and funny*, *increasing their confidence, nice to make study sheets*.

Thirteen students stated that they found the activity-based teaching process useful in the Social Studies course. The students stated that the value of responsibility should be taught chiefly at school. Later, *they also explained that it should be taught at home, correctly, and everywhere*.

Five students stated that they participated in the activities of any public or non-governmental organization. These activities included republic run, folk dances, painting competition, and composition competition. Attending *non-governmental organizations* or *public events* can support *character development*, *moral development*, *belonging*, *trust*, a *sense of unity, and togetherness* in students.

Discussion

In this section, it is discussed according to the results of the research. According to the results of a study conducted by Durmaz (2019), it was determined that teaching with activities increased the students' achievement scores. According to the results of another research, it was

determined that the use of different methods, techniques, and strategies with the teaching with activities increased the learning motivation of the students and, as a result, increased the permanence of learning (Bonwell & Eison, 1991), which supports the results of this research.

According to the results of another research, the determination that activity-based teaching had positive effects on friendship relations, skills, and learning-based processes and provided students with positive experiences (Parfitt, Forster & McGowan, 2011) supports the results of this research.

According to a research result, it was revealed that the activities applied in the experimental group increased the value perceptions and problem-solving skills of the students (Aytaçlı, 2018, p. 189). According to the gender variable, there was no significant difference between the attitudes (individual and social responsibility behaviors) pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental and control group students. In a study conducted by Aktepe (2010), the pre-test and post-test attitude scores of the experimental and control group students did not show a significant difference according to gender. There was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the participants in the experimental and control groups according to the family income level and family occupation level variables. According to the education level variable, there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test attitude scores of the participants whose fathers were secondary school graduates in the experimental group.

In today's world, the content of character education and the richness of applied activities play an active role in developing the responsibilities of contemporary society (Hoge, 2002). According to another research result, activity-based teaching embodies the learning process and has positive effects on students and that the value of responsibility supports the learning process (Tekin, 2019, p. 14).

According to the parents, the students primarily fulfilled their responsibilities at home and with their families. Then they tried to fulfill their responsibilities in the family. According to a research result, in an interview with the parents of the experimental group, the participants defined responsibility as work and duty, and individuals stated that they should protect their rights and interests in society (Tekin, 2019). According to the results of another study, families stated that the school, administrator, teacher, and family had an active and participatory role in developing their children's characters (Brannon, 2008).

Conclusion

The following results were obtained in this study for the activity-based teaching of the value of responsibility. When the experimental and control groups were compared, a significant difference was found between the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the experimental group students. It was determined that the activity-based teaching process positively reflected the students' success.

According to the gender variable, there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of male students in the experimental group. There was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the experimental and control group female students. According to the family income level variable, there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the experimental and control group students. There was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test attitude scores of the experimental and control group students according to the occupation level variable. However, there was a significant difference between the post-test scores of the participants in the control group according to the mother's occupation level variable. This

difference was between the participants whose mothers were workers. According to the education level variable, there was no significant difference between the father's occupation pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the experimental group. In the experimental group, there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement scores of the participants whose mothers were primary school graduates and those whose mothers were secondary school graduates. According to the t-test results for independent groups, it was concluded that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control group pre-test and post-test attitude scores in the study.

Recommendations

Since this study is based on the value of responsibility in the Social Studies course, it can be suggested to compare the teaching approaches used in teaching other values with the activity-based teaching process. The richness of the teaching, methods and techniques used in activity-based value teaching can be investigated, and what effect it has on students' interests and motivations for the course.

All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

This article does not contain any studies with animals performed by any of the authors.

Conflicts of interest.

The authors of this paper certify that they have NO affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial or non-financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; membership, employment; affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in this manuscript.

References

Aktepe, V. (2010), *Prımary 4th grade ın Socıal Studıes course teachıng "phılantropy" value wıth actıvety based and effect on students 'attıtudes* (Unpublished Doctoral Thesis). University of Gazi, Educational Sciences Institute, Ankara.

Aspin, D. N. (2005). Values, beliefs and attitudes in education: The Nature of values and their place and promotion in schools, in, M. Leicester, C. Modgil and S. Modgil (Eds.), *Education, culture and values, ınstitutional issues: pupils, schools, and teacher education*. London and New York: Taylor and Francis Group. Falmer Press.

Aytaçlı, B. (2018). *The effect of value based activities on students' achievement, value perceptions, problem solving skills, attitudes toward mathematics and retention*. (Unpublished Doctoral Thesis). University of Aydın Adnan Menderes. Social Sciences Institute. Aydın.

Bonwell, C. C. & Eison J. (1991. Active learning; creating excitement in the classroom. *Higher Education 1*.Washington, D.C: The George Washington University, School of Education & Human Development. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED336049.pdf.

Borich, G. D. (2017). *Etkili öğretim yöntemleri araştırma temelli uygulama*, *(Effective teaching methods, research-based practice).* (M. B. Acat. Ed.Trans.). Nobel Akademik Yayıncılık. Ankara.

Brannon, D. (2008) Character education a joint responsibility. *Published by Kappa Delta Pi, 44*. 62-65. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ882483.

Bullock, N. B. (1988). *Examınatıon of values ınstructıon ın educatıon and the role of humanıtıes ın values educatıon*, (Unpublished master thesis). Faculty of The Department of Art Education, Kutztown University, Pennsylvania.

Büyüköztürk, Ş., Çakmak, E. K., Akgün, Ö. E., Karadeniz, Ş & Demirel, F. (2014). *Bilimsel araştırma yöntemleri*. [*scientific research methods]* Pegem Akademi Yayıncılık. Ankara.

Büyüköztürk Ş. (2014). *Sosyal bilimler için veri analizi el kitabı*. [*manual of data analysis for social sciences*]. Pegem Akademi Yayıncılık. Ankara.

Caple, K. (2005). Values in school planning: can they be explicit? in, M. Leicester, C. Modgil and S. Modgil (Eds.). *education, culture and values, ınstitutional issues: pupils, schools, and teacher education*. London and New York: Taylor and Francis Group, Falmer Press.

Creswell, J. W. (2017). *Nitel araştırmacılar için 30 temel beceri* [*30 essential skills for qualitative researchers*] (Trans. H. Özcan). Anı Yayıncılık. Ankara.

Creswell, J. W & Clark V.L.P. (2020). Karma yöntem araştırmalarının doğası. (İçinde, Dede & Demir). *Karma Yöntem Araştırmaları Tasarımı ve Yürütülmesi*. [*Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research*]. Trans. Y. Dede & S. Beşir Demir. (Editörler). Anı Yayıncılık. Ankara.

Creswell, J. W. (2021). Temel ve gelişmiş karma yöntem desenleri. (İ. H. Acar). *Karma yöntem araştırmalarına giriş, [A concise introduction to mixed methods research]*. Trans. M. Sözbilir (Ed.). Anı Yayıncılık. Ankara.

Doğan, Y. (2008). İlköğretim yedinci sınıf öğrencilerinin dinleme becerisini geliştirmede etkinlik temelli çalışmaların etkililiği, *Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi, 6*(2), 261-286. Retrieved From: https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/tebd/issue/26112/275109.

Durmaz, A. (2019). *The effects of activities prepared within the framework of constructivist approach on the academic achievement and scientific epistemological beliefs of social studies lesson.* (Unpublished Doctoral Thesis). University of Marmara. Educational Sciences Institute. İstanbul.

Ekiz, D. (2020), Bilimsel araştırma yöntemleri. [scientific research methods] Anı Yayıncılık. Ankara.

Filiz, B. & Demirhan, G. (2015). The Adaptation Study of Personal and Social Responsibility

Questionnaire into Turkish Language. *Hacettepe Journal of Sport Sciences, 26* (2), 51–64. https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/download/article-file/205967.

Francıs, M. A. (1980). *The rol of values educatıon ın multıcultural educatıon*, (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Unıversıty of Toronto, School of Graduate Studıes, Canada.

Genç, İ. & Kınasakal, İ. (2019). Sosyal Bilgiler ve küresel eğitim [Social Studies and global education] B. Ü. İbret & S. Kaymakçı (Editörler), *Sosyal Bilgiler ve toplum* [Social Studies and society] (351-385). Pegem Akademi Yayıncılık. Ankara

Hoge, J. D. (2002). Character education, citizenship education, and the social studies, *the Social Studies, 93*(3), 103-108. https://doi.org/10.1080/00377990209599891.

Lang, P. (2005). Parent, schools and values, İn, M. Leicester, C. Modgil and S. Modgil (Eds), *Education, culture and values, ınstitutional issues: pupils, schools, and teacher education*. London and New York: Taylor and Francis Group, Falmer Press.

Lovat, T. J. (2005). Ethics and values in schools: Philosophical and curricular considerations, İn, M. Leicester, C. Modgil and S. Modgil (Eds), *Education, culture and values, ınstitutional issues: pupils, schools, and teacher education*. London and New York: Taylor and Francis Group, Falmer Press.

Margaryan A., Collis, B. & Cooke, A. (2004). Activity-based blended learning, *Human Resource Development International, 7*(2), 265-274. doi:10.1080/13678860410001676574

Ministry of National Education, (2005). Social Studies Teaching Program Ministry of National Education Publishing. Ankara. Retrieved from: https://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/

Ministry of National Education, (2018). Social Studies Teaching Program (4, 5, 6 and 7). Ministry of National Education Publishing. Ankara. Retrieved. from: https://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/

Parfitt, V. Forster, C. & Mcgowan, A. (2011). Activity-based learning, *english homework for key stage*. New York: *2,* First Published By Routledge.

Ray, J. M. (1992). *Education and values: An exploratory study of the meanings and in terrelation ships among values, equal educational opportunity, and the purpose of education in public schools,* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). Northwestern University, Field of Education and Social Policy, Evanston, Illınoıs.

Rokeach, M. (1974). Change and stability in American value systems, 1968-1971. *Public Opinion Quarterly, 38*(2), pp. 222-238. https://doi.org/10.1086/268153.

Schwartz, S. H. (2012). An overview of the Schwartz theory of basic values. online readings in psychology and culture, *2*(1). https://doi.org/10.9707/2307-0919.1116.

Sever, R. (2020), Alternatif yaklaşımlarla Sosyal Bilgiler öğretimi ile ilgili temel kavramlar, R. Sever, M. Aydın & E. Koçoğlu (Editörler), *Alternatif yaklaşımlarla Sosyal Bilgiler eğitimi. [Social Studies education with alternative approaches]* Ankara: Pegem Akademi Yayıncılık.

Sılberman, M. (2016). Aktif öğretim, sınıflarda öğrenmeyi harekete geçirecek sekiz adım ve 32 strateji, (Trans. Editör. N. Kalaycı). Pegem Akademi Yayıncılık. Ankara.

Sönmez, E. & Recepoğlu, E. (2019). The Relationship Between the Classroom Management Skills and Performance of the Teachers at Primary and Secondary Schools. *Kastamonu Education Journal. 27*(1), 421-432. Retrieved from: https://doi.org./10.24106/kefdergi.3327

Taylor, M. J. (2005). Values education: ıssues and challenges in policy and school practice, in, M. Leicester, C. Modgil and S. Modgil (Eds), *Education, culture and values, ınstitutional issues: pupils, schools, and teacher education*. London and New York: Taylor and Francis Group, Falmer Press.

Tekin, S. (2019). *Acquring responsibility value through event based value education in elementary school 4th grades**. (Unpublished Master thesis). University of Erzincan Binali Yıldırım. Sosyal

Sciences İnstıtute, Erzincan.

Tezcan, M. (2018). *Değerler eğitimi sosyolojik yaklaşım* [Values education sociological approach] Anı Yayıncılık. Ankara.

Ulusoy, K. & Arslan, A. (2019). Değerli bir kavram olarak "Değerler ve değerler eğitimi" R. Turan ve K. Ulusoy (Editörler), *Farklı yönleriyle değerler eğitimi*. Pegem Akademi Yayıncılık. Ankara

Vincent, N. (2011). A Structured taxonomy of responsibility concepts, N. Vıncent, I. D. De Poel, J. V. D. Hoven (Eds). *Moral responsıbılıty,* Springer science and business media B.V.

Wright, J. E. (1973). *Responsıbılıty as an ethıcal norm ın the thought of Erık H. Erıkson,* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). Faculty of The Graduate School, Unıversıty of Southern Calıfornıa, Calıfornıa.

Determining the Training Needs Regarding the "Structuring Dimension" in the Individual Counselling Process

Hafız Bek (Assistant Professor)
Department of Guidance and Psychological Counselling, Usak University, Turkey

Hakan Gülveren (Assistant Professor)
Department of Curriculum and Instruction, Usak University, Turkey

Abstract:
The psychological counselling process is commenced with structuring. Since the clients do not know what to do or what is expected of them in psychological counselling sessions, counsellors are required to provide information about the process in this dimension. 20 students (12 female, 8 male) who took Individual Counselling Course in the spring term of 2019 - 2020 academic year constitute the study group. Phenomenology method, one of qualitative research methods, was employed in the current study. Audio recordings of counsellor candidates from eight sessions were classified according to categories based on the sub-divisions of the structuring dimension. In light of the data obtained, the training needs and qualification levels of counsellor candidates were attempted to be revealed. When the results of the sub-division of information about the counselling, the first stage of the structuring dimension, were examined, it was observed that counsellor candidates did not have a significant problem in terms of this skill. In the sub-division of explaining the processes and principles of structuring dimension, counsellor candidates were observed to have difficulty in the skill to provide accurate information about the process. On the contrary, at the end of the supervision during the second and third sessions, it was indicated that, in terms of the related skill, their qualification levels increased and there were no problems in the subsequent sessions. Concerning the data regarding the sub-division of the objective of structuring dimension, it was determined that the counsellor candidates had difficulty in the skill to clarify the boundaries of the counselling process. Therefore, certain training regarding this skill is required.

Keywords: Individual Counselling, Structuring, Qualification and Training Need

Introduction
Article Therapeutic skills have been stated as a significant element of psychological counselling process. Among these skills is the structuring skill. This skill is a skill that is to be used in the first session of the psychological counselling process. Since majority of the clients received psychological assistance and are experiencing this for the first time, the structuring process and skill should be used well (Eryılmaz & Mutlu-Süral, 2014). The clients who seek psychological

assistance for the first time may not have the necessary information about the psychological counselling and the process. Therefore, at the onset of the counselling process, the client should be given the necessary information concerning the process. As the client is more aware about the process, it becomes more likely for the process to proceed successfully and to yield a solution to the client's problem. For this reason, the psychological counsellor is required to be able to use the structuring skill well during the psychological counselling process. Nevertheless, in the period since the emergence of psychological counselling, numerous studies have been carried out through which the factors that influence the therapeutic relationship between the psychological counsellor and the client were investigated. According to the results of these studies, therapeutic conditions, counsellor's characteristics, skills, and psychological counsellor's perceptions of these characteristics have been identified as the variables affecting the therapeutic relationship (Lent, Hill & Hoffman, 2003; Auxier, Hughes & Kline, 2003; Denizli, 2009; Cormier, Nurius & Osborn, 2016; İkiz & Totan, 2014; Meydan, 2015; Sanberk, 2016). However, this process is still being discussed from different perspectives and the qualifications that psychological counsellors should keep improving themselves.

When the studies related to the process and results of psychological counselling in Turkey were examined, Deniz (2009) highlighted the limited number of the studies. Besides, it was thought that the studies to be conducted in the country may make significant contributions both to psychological counselling training and to the development of psychological counselling approaches that are specific to the country's culture.

In their study, Şahin, Togay and Atıcı (2019) stated that the counselling candidates were important in terms of ensuring an effective therapeutic assistance that facilitates the progress of the counselling process and the build of trust and the establishment of therapeutic relationship. As stated by the psychological counsellor candidates who participated in the study, it may be said that having a healthy and trust-based counselling environment and process depends on their structuring skills. It may be possible to achieve the goal of the counselling process depending on the level and qualification of the counsellor candidates. On the contrary, when the results of the same study and the therapeutic skills used by the counsellor candidates were examined, it was determined that the candidates used the structuring skill the least.

When the objectives of psychological counselling training programs were examined, it was seen that it is fundamental to improve the qualifications that counsellor candidates are required to use in the counselling process (Johnson et al., 1989; Yüksel, 2003; Korkut, 2007; Korkut & Mızıkacı, 2009; Aladağ, 2014). Meydan (2014) emphasized the uncertainty regarding "the qualification areas of psychological counselling" in Turkey and articulated that there is a controversial issue in regard to what way and which qualification areas Psychological and Guidance Counselling (PGC) undergraduate programs should be structured. However, considering that psychological counselling skills training is an integral part of psychological counsellor training, it was thought that psychological counsellor skills training program needs to be structured and carried out more effectively.

Inskipp (2004) states that the fact an individual is competent in the skills required for counselling does not necessarily mean that s/he may be a good consultant. However, Inskipp (2004) also stated that it is unlikely for an under-skilled consultant to provide assistance to his/ her clients. In this respect, the question "What skills should be gained in psychological counselling training?" becomes very significant. Prior to the skills training program to be prepared, there are certain topics to be explored, discussed, and agreed with the course team and certain important preliminary preparations and certain questions to be answered. These questions are as follows: "What skills

will be taught in the program?", "With what content and activity will the skills be taught?", "Who will teach?", "How will the skills be taught?", "How will students receive feedback?", and "How will the final evaluation be?"

Gysbergs and Henderson (2012) highlighted that identifying students' needs in the guidance curriculum development model consisting of the stages of planning, designing, implementation, and evaluation is crucial since it refers to the qualifications expected of the students. It may be considered in the same way in a curriculum that is intended to be used for the counselling candidates training. In addition, the needs specified may be used to evaluate the effectiveness of the prepared training curricula. Owens, Pernice-Duca, and Thomas (2009) investigated the post-education needs of high school counsellor and touched upon the impacts of psychological counsellor training curricula.

The current study is expected to contribute to psychological counselling skills training centres upon the competencies of structuring skill based on Developmental Comprehensive Supervision Model. It attempts to determine whether there is a training need regarding this skill by defining the level at which counselling candidates use their structuring skill during the counselling process. Considering education as a whole of planned activities, the training curriculum is a vital instrument in providing this plan. The first step of curriculum development in education is the needs analysis in the field where the curriculum is intended to be developed. Witkin and Altschuld (1995) defined needs analysis as a series of systematic processes carried out with the purposes of making decisions and establishing principles about the curriculum or corporate development and the division of institutional resources. The concept of need, however, may be regarded as the difference between the existing situation and the desired situation (Sönmez et al., 2019; Galport & Azzam, 2016). Through the right needs specified by a well-established needs analysis, accurate assessments regarding the curriculum may be made (Hewitt, 2006).

Developmental Comprehensive Supervision Model

The Developmental Comprehensive Supervision Model developed by Eryılmaz and Mutlu shows that the current study was built on three phases and six stages. The purpose of strengthening phase is to identify counsellor candidates' qualifications prior to the psychological counselling process and to improve their competencies by informing them based on their qualification levels. The other phase, development, consists of two characteristics. First, it is the observation of what is learnt in the dimensions of structuring, therapeutic skills and conditions, and the management of therapeutic process and of what is applied in therapeutic process. Second, it is the monitoring of the levels of development in the dimension of counsellor competencies by enhancing advanced psychological knowledge of the individual included in the supervision. However, the evaluation phase includes the assessment of development and supervision (Eryılmaz & Mutlu-Süral, 2014; Eryılmaz & Mutlu, 2018).

Structuring

In psychological counselling, structure is defined as a common understanding between the counsellor and the client regarding the characteristics, conditions, procedures, and parameters of psychological counselling. Structuring refers to the interactive process in which the structure is reached. Constructing is a means in which the counsellor and the client together define the guidelines governing the counselling process, possibly involving activities such as information, advice, negotiation, stipulation, contracting, and settlement (Day, Sparacio & Griffin, 1980). It is the skill used in the first session of the counselling process in order to provide information to the

client by the counsellor about the process and rules. The fact that the psychological counsellor is competent in the skills related to structuring contributes to the process to be continued and concluded successfully. The skills expected to be found in the counsellor candidates based on the Developmental Comprehensive Supervision Model include the ability to manage time, inform the client, provide information about the process, and clarify the objective (Eryılmaz & Mutlu-Süral, 2014).

In the present study, it was determined that how the time, process and objective determination skills that were required to be present in counselling candidates in the structuring process based on Developmental Comprehensive Supervision Model differed in practice, and the deficiencies identified were considered as training needs. In this regard, this study is expected to guide the training curricula to be prepared in psychological counselling training.
The current study aims to reveal how the time, process, and objective determination skills that were required to be present in counselling candidates in the structuring process that constitutes individual counselling process differed in practice and whether there is a training need regarding these skills. Within the framework of Developmental Comprehensive Supervision Model, the counsellor candidates' qualification levels and training needs were examined by focusing on their abilities to provide consistent information about the duration, to provide accurate information about the psychological counselling process, to express the principles of psychological counselling, and to clarify the boundaries of the psychological counselling.

Method

In the present study that was intended to determine the counsellor candidates' managing skills of the structuring process, phenomenology method, one of qualitative research methods, was employed. Qualitative data analysis is a process in which researcher organizes the data, divides it into units, synthesizes it, reveals patterns, explore significant variables, and decides what information to include in his/ her report (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992; Walcott, 1994). Content analysis is mainly based on the analysis of written and visual data. In content analysis, categories related to the research subject are generated and then, words and sentences are assigned to these categories in accordance with the data obtained from the candidates examined and, finally, counting are performed (Silverman, 2001). In the study, the recordings of 8 sessions carried out by counselling candidates who participated in the study were obtained and classified as categories (given in Table 1), which are created based on the sub-divisions of the structuring process. Through the data obtained, the qualifications and training needs of counsellor candidates were revealed.

Table 1. The Sub-divisions of Structuring Dimension and Its Reference Behaviours

Sub-divisions	Behaviours
Duration	S/he provided consistent information about the duration.
Process	S/he provided accurate information about psychological counselling process.
	S/he provided the entire information about psychological counselling process.
	S/he expressed the principles of psychological counselling.
Objective	S/he clarified the boundaries of psychological counselling.

In line with the data obtained from the audio recordings of the counsellor candidates during

eight sessions, words and sentences were assigned to these categories and counting was carried out. In the findings section, codes ranging from CC-1 to CC-20 were given instead of their names in order to ensure the confidentiality of the participants. Although the study was based on the audio recordings of the counsellor candidate-client sessions, from time to time, either with the group or one-to-one counsellor, candidate-supervisor negotiations were conducted to have a better understanding of candidates' behaviours.

The Study Group
20 students (12 female, 8 male) who took Individual Counselling Course in the spring term of 2019 - 2020 academic year constitute the study group.

Data Collection Instruments
Within the scope of Individual Counselling Course, candidates were requested to perform eight sessions, and audio recording were asked for each of the sessions. The candidates were, then, asked to decode the recordings. The data on student qualifications are based on these sources. Since these qualifications were required to be examined in terms of certain criteria and categories, "Counsellor Qualifications Evaluation Form" to be used in "Developmental Comprehensive Supervision Model" developed by Eryılmaz and Mutlu-Süral (2014) was employed. The form includes four main sections and sub-sections: *structuring* (duration, process, objective), *therapeutic conditions* (concreteness, transparency, empathy, here and now, respect), *therapeutic skills* (invitation to speak, reflecting feelings, minimal encouragement, reflection of content, personalization, self-addition, self-disclosure, summarization and confrontation skills), and *managing therapeutic process* (managing the client, managing self and managing the counselling process). If the candidate completely exhibited the behaviour included in the form, 'Adequate' option was marked and if s/he did not, 'Inadequate' option was marked. However, if s/he did not exhibit the behaviours, 'Not Observed' option was marked. From the data obtained from this form, the answers were determined based on which fundamental skills and at what levels the candidates showed and what skills they did not exhibit.

Findings Concerning the Sub-division of the Duration of Structuring Dimension in the Psychological Counselling Process
Table 2 show the results of the observation regarding counsellor candidates' time management skills under the structuring dimension.

Table 2. The Data on the Sub-division of Duration of Structuring Dimension in the Psychological Counselling Process

Sessions		Qualification
		The ability to provide consistent information about the duration
The First Session	Adequate	13
	Inadequate	7
Further Sessions	Adequate	20
	Inadequate	-

To provide consistent information about the duration of the psychological counselling

process is included in the first stage of structuring dimension. Giving explicit information to the client about the counselling duration may contribute to the counselling process. Moreover, it can also be considered as an ice-breaker to arrange the relations between the counsellor and the client in the first session. It is, therefore, important that counsellor candidates acquire this skill. As seen in Table 2, when the audio recording of the counsellor candidates' sessions was examined, it was found that the candidates did not have a significant problem regarding the sub-division of "duration" of structuring dimension in the counselling process. Thirteen candidates were observed to provide information about the duration of the psychological counselling process; however, it was seen that the behaviour to provide consistent information to the client about the duration increased in further sessions.

According to Table 2, only thirteen counsellor candidates were seen to provide consistent information to the client about the duration of the psychological counselling process in the first session at expected level. No unfavourable implementation concerning this skill was observed in other sessions. In the counselling process, "the ability to provide consistent information about the psychological counselling process" is an important skill. Moreover, this skill is needed in order for the counselling process to proceed and end successfully. In other words, the counselling candidates should be able to use this skill in the first sessions of the counselling process as well as in the further sessions when necessary. As shown in Table 2, it was observed that this skill was acquired in subsequent sessions. According to the findings, it may be concluded that there is no significant problem experienced by the candidates regarding this skill, and that the candidates do not have difficulty in using this skill during counselling process. Therefore, it can be said that there is no training need in terms of "The ability to provide consistent information about the duration." Examples of the candidates' ability "to provide consistent information about the duration" based on the audio recordings are as follows:

CC-1. "We think that the psychological counselling process will consist of 8 sessions and each session will last 40 minutes. The number of sessions, of course, may vary and increase."

CC-1 gives clear information to the client about the duration of the psychological counselling process; on the contrary, s/he does not provide information on how the number of sessions may vary.

CC-6. "Our counselling sessions will last 40-50 minutes, and during this process, we will focus on an issue that affects your life the most and has psychological effects on your life, and we will move forward on what you have brought ..."

CC-6 informs the client about the duration of the psychological counselling process; nonetheless, the mistake made by the candidate is that s/ he did not provide information about the number of sessions and clarify the duration of the sessions.

CC-12 "Our interviews consist of eight sessions. We will hold one session every week. Each session will last 40 minutes."

CC-12 communicates the number and duration of the sessions to the client as expected. In terms of "The ability to provide consistent information about the duration" in the sub-division of duration, although certain candidates were unable to fulfil the skill at the beginning of the

counselling process, it was determined that they were able to use this skill as expected in the subsequent sessions since the supervisor made explanations on how to administer this skill during the interviews with the candidates.

Findings Concerning the Sub-division of the Process of Structuring Dimension in the Psychological Counselling Process

Table 3 presents the results of the observation towards counsellor candidates' ability to provide information about psychological counselling process and to express the principles of the process.

Table 3. The Data on the Sub-division of the Process of Structuring Dimension in Psychological Counselling Process

Sessions		Qualifications	
		The ability to provide accurate information about the psychological counselling process	The ability to express the principles of psychological counselling
1	Adequate	8	6
	Inadequate	12	14
2	Adequate	11	12
	Inadequate	9	8
3	Adequate	15	-
	Inadequate	5	-
4	Adequate	20	3
	Inadequate	-	-
5	Adequate	20	2
	Inadequate	-	-
6	Adequate	20	1
	Inadequate	-	-
7	Adequate	20	2
	Inadequate	-	-
8	Adequate	20	-
	Inadequate	-	-

"The ability to provide accurate information about the psychological counselling process" is one of the key elements in the structuring process of counselling. According to Table 3, it was seen that counselling candidates were not sufficiently capable of providing accurate information about the psychological counselling process quantitatively in the first session. The candidates were found to make mistakes in using this skill.

In the first session, CC-2 was unable to express the content of the counselling process properly by saying "*I would like to have such an interview with you due to the practices of Individual Counselling Course. We are going to have eight sessions together and we can talk about anything you want. I will help you.*" In a counselling process, it is necessary to focus on the problem that the client considers to be the priority and the most important instead of any problem, or to uncover the problem that bothers the client. Nevertheless, since these sessions were held as a

requirement of this course and the counselling candidates found the clients on their own, they may have missed out this situation. Furthermore, it can also be said that it is a more professional approach and expression to say that "*I will try to help you to solve the problem that you are here for*" instead of saying such an ambitious expression in a psychological counselling process that "*I will help you*".

In a psychological counselling process, the counsellor is required to provide information at the onset of the counselling process; thus, it is likely to develop an understanding regarding the relationship between the counsellor and the client. In other words, the counsellor is able to commence the process by establishing the therapeutic bond. Otherwise, the client starts the counselling process with the wrong expectation. Clients who have not received any prior psychological support or have no experience about psychological counselling may often have the wrong thoughts or certain misconceptions during the psychological counselling process. This thought or bias may lead to an approach that there is going to be a sudden solution to their problems at the end of the first session of the clients. As a result, the counsellor has to give accurate information about the psychological counselling process.

CC-20. "*Listen, I needed psychological support while I was studying. It's a condition that anybody can experience, think of it as a disease; we are human beings after all. We can sit here like friends and talk about our problems. It doesn't matter how many hours or sessions*"

As seen in the example above, CC-20 provides incorrect information about the number and duration of the sessions, directs the client to a false expectation, and leads a false client-counsellor relationship by saying "like two friends".

The ability to provide accurate information about the psychological counselling process is a skill that is required to be used at the onset of the counselling process; however, it is also a skill that should be used later in the process when informing the client about the functioning of the process. This skill may be needed in case the client has different requests from the counsellor during the counselling process. As seen in Table 3, the candidates had difficulties in "the ability to provide accurate information about the psychological counselling process" in the first session. Nonetheless, in the second and third sessions, thanks to the interviews with the supervisor, their qualification levels were observed to increase and there were no problems in the subsequent sessions in terms of this skill.

"The ability to express the principles of psychological counselling" is a skill that should be used at the onset of the psychological counselling process and in the further stages of the process when necessary. Table 3 indicates that six candidates were able to fulfil this skill as expected in the first session and fourteen candidates explained the principles of counselling process but, however, made certain mistakes. The mistakes made by the counsellor candidates while explaining the principles of counselling process are as follows:

CC-14. "*I'm so glad that you are here voluntarily. Because it's an advantage for us. For volunteering. Besides, telling about yourself will help us move on faster. I mean I really appreciate you are volunteering.*

Client. "*Not at all… You know, it's good for me to talk to someone. I don't usually talk to anyone. That's why I'm here thinking that I could have a friend that I can talk. I came here thinking that it will be good. I hope I can help you, I can credit to you.*"

CC-14 was seen to emphasize the importance of volunteering in the psychological counselling process; however, it is unlikely to say that it was sufficient. The counsellor candidate uses an expression to state his/her gratitude to the client, meaning that "*If it weren't you, I wouldn't be able to have these sessions, thank you*". The process that needs to be maintained professionally was damaged at the beginning.

CC-16. "We are going to move on the basis of the privacy policy. When necessary, we may reconsider it. Our counselling process is held as a matter of mutual volunteerism. So, what was the problem that led you to the psychological counselling process?"

CC-16 did not inform the client about what the privacy was and why they would reconsider it over time and what was meant by voluntarily, and after that, s/he started the interview directly with the question "What was the problem that led you to the psychological counselling process?" Since each client does not know and does not have to know the principles at the heart of the psychological counselling process, the counsellor candidates are required to provide information about these principles in order to establish trust between themselves and their clients. To express the principles of psychological counselling process, the correct example is provided below:

CC-12. "...we are going to hold our sessions based on the principle of privacy. To put it very simply, the privacy principle is to pay attention to keep the client's secrets during guidance services. That means I won't share your secrets with any institution or person without your permission. On the contrary, if there is a situation on the benefit of the client, then we may need to reconsider this privacy policy. We may have to share your information in order to receive help form a third party to solve your problem. If necessary, we will sit and talk about it together."

As shown in the example above, CC-12 was observed to properly fulfil "The ability to express the principles of psychological counselling process." S/he expressed the principle to the client and explained in which case the privacy policy might be reviewed.

When Table 3 was examined, it was seen that the counsellor candidates reuse the counselling principles in the following sessions. Reminding the client of the counselling principles during the counselling process from time to time may contribute to the process.

CC-11. "...I respect your opinion. We are in the middle of the process, and I think we have done well in solving the problem. If you stop this process now, our efforts will be in vain. But as I said in our first session, counselling is voluntary. If you want to quit, I can't force you to continue. If you want, we can continue, which I think is good, and if you don't want to, we can end our counselling process here."

The client of CC-11 stated that s/he wanted to stop counselling process for some reason, and the counsellor candidate reminded s/he the principle of volunteering and left the decision on whether the process was ended.

Findings Concerning the Sub-division of the Objectives of Structuring Dimension in Psychological Counselling Process

In the sub-division of the objective of structuring dimension in the psychological counselling process, what is expected of the counsellor is to clarify the boundaries of the counselling process. The fact that the boundaries of the psychological counselling process are

clarified may contribute to establishing the roles of the client and counsellor. Besides, the counsellor's ability to manage the process well may prevent the client from managing the counselling process upon his/ her wishes. Therefore, the ability to clarify the boundaries of the psychological counselling process is regarded as a crucial skill. Table 4 contains the data concerning this skill.

Table 4. The Data on the Sub-division of the Objectives of Structuring Dimension in Psychological Counselling Process

Sessions		Qualification
		The ability to clarify the boundaries of the psychological counselling process
1	Adequate	5
	Inadequate	15
2	Adequate	7
	Inadequate	13
3	Adequate	10
	Inadequate	10
4	Adequate	11
	Inadequate	9
5	Adequate	11
	Inadequate	9
6	Adequate	15
	Inadequate	5
7	Adequate	16
	Inadequate	4
8	Adequate	17
	Inadequate	3

According to Table 4, it was determined that the counselling candidates had difficulty in their ability to clarify the boundaries of the psychological counselling process. The supervision process following the sessions was relatively successful in acquiring this skill; however, it was not sufficient to gain the skill entirely.

Establishing the boundaries of the counselling process between the client and counsellor allows for mutual respect and a consistent and reliable relationship (Bek & Gülveren, 2021). When the counsellor determines the boundaries of the counselling process well, it may facilitate the client to become aware of the problem and reach a solution. The counsellor should determine the role of himself/ herself and the client in the process and act within the framework of professional ethics in the interventions of the client to the counsellor and the counsellor to the client. Based on the audio recordings, an example of the correct use of this skill is presented below:

CC-9. "What we are talking here will be between us. But there may be situations that I can ask my lecturer for help to help you by your consent. And again, only your problem will be centred upon, not to say who you are."

As seen in the example above, the counsellor candidate clarifies the boundaries of counselling process and adheres to the counselling principles by stating that s/he may convey the

situation to his/ her lecturer when necessary on the condition that the personal information is kept confidential.

CC-11. "Yes, what we talk about will remain between us, but, in case of a judicial situation or in case we think you will harm yourself, the information will be conveyed to the related parties. The main purpose of this is, of course, to help you."

In the example above, the counsellor candidate explained the conditions under which the information related to the client may be shared with related parties and for what purpose the information may be conveyed to other parties, and thus, clarified the counselling process.

During the counselling process, it was also determined that the clients put the candidates in a difficult situation particularly on the duration. In such a case, two different practices were observed to emerge. In the sixth session, the client requested to continue the session although the session period ended, and the counsellor candidate continued the session by saying that "*Well, I have no other work anyway, we can continue*". In this case, it was the client, not the consultant, who set the boundaries of the counselling. Indeed, the counsellor candidate should have reminded the client who pushed the limits on the duration of the session that their session was ended and that they could continue in the next session. The counsellor candidate's lack of professional experience has led him/ her to carry out such an application.

In the fourth session, the client wanted to discuss the problems and uncertainty of his/ her professional career and the likelihood of changing his field of work and gravitating to another field. However, the counsellor candidate clarified the boundaries of the counselling and acted appropriately by not allowing the problem to dissipate by stating that "*First of all, our time is over, so we will continue in our next session. Besides, since this reveals a different situation from our main problem, we need to focus on the causes and solutions of your uncertainty that you experience about your career*".

The counsellor may ask the client to perform certain tasks (assignments) related to the problem and evaluate the results during the interview together with the client. These tasks are of importance in that the client is given the opportunity to evaluate his/ her trust, desire to change and for self-evaluation. The counsellor is required to set the boundaries well for such assignments.

CC-5. "In the previous session, I asked you to talk to your teacher and prepare for a certain topic of the lesson and explain it in front of the class. What did you do about it?"
Client. "Well.. Actually, I really wanted to, but… the teacher didn't say anything. He didn't say either yes or no. So, I mean, I didn't insist."

CC-5. "But you know why we are giving this task. We would see whether you could easily make a speech in front of your friends by using the techniques we talked about. If you don't do as we talk, we won't get the results that we expect from the counselling. I certainly want you to make this."

As shown in the example above, the counsellor candidate informs the client that s/ he was in control of the process, that the client did not manage the process, and that the process would not be shaped by the client's wishes. This indicates that the candidate is in control of the counselling process and that the process will still be under the candidate's control in further sessions.

The counsellor candidates were observed to have difficulty in determining the boundaries

of the counselling process and identifying the problem properly. In the light of these findings, it may be concluded that the candidates need training in terms of this skill.

Discussion and Result

Although Kuzgun (2000) stated that a more qualified and efficient psychological counselling should be provided in this field and that individual counselling training at undergraduate level is not suitable for this, individual counselling training is currently being given through the undergraduate program in Turkey. Meydan (2014) highlighted that an effective supervision model for psychological counselling candidates, who perform their first practices of psychological counselling training carried out at the undergraduate level, was required to focus on psychological counselling skills and to be structured and didactic. According to Özyürek (2009), in psychological counselling training, more attention was required to be given to the issue of supervision opportunities. Otherwise, the quality of psychological counselling and guidance services may not improve.

In fact, unlike Kuzgun (2000), the opinion that it is useful to continue the psychological counselling training as an undergraduate program is widely accepted; however, it was emphasized that certain programs that train psychological counsellors where students' practical experiences are inadequate needs to be restructured (Özgüven, 1990; Akkoyun, 1995; Doğan, 1996). Therefore, by taking into account the literature in psychological counselling field in Turkey, the current research whose purpose was to determine the training needs and qualification levels of counsellor candidates regarding "Structuring Dimension" in the process of psychological counselling was carried out in order to contribute to the field.

When the results regarding the sub-division of the ability to provide consistent information about the duration of structuring dimension in psychological counselling process were examined, it was observed that thirteen counsellor candidates were able to use this skill in the first session as expected. Although no negative practice concerning this skill was determined in other sessions, it was found that this skill was acquired in subsequent sessions. As a result, it may be concluded that there is no training need to gain this skill. In other words, there is no training need in terms of "the ability to provide consistent information about the duration of the psychological counselling process".

When the results concerning the sub-division of process of the structuring dimension in psychological counselling process were investigated, the counsellor candidates were observed to be unable to provide accurate information about the psychological counselling process in the first session. The counsellor candidates were found to make mistakes in using this skill. In light of the research findings, it was seen that candidates had difficulty in using "the ability to provide accurate information about the psychological counselling process" in the first session. In the second and third sessions, thanks to the interviews with the supervisor, it was seen that candidates' qualification levels increased and that there were no problems in other sessions that followed. Özgüven (1990) stated that the practical experiences of psychological counselling were inadequate and that the programs which trained psychological counsellors were required to be restructured. The findings of this study are in accordance with the current study. The fact that the psychological counsellor candidates' experiences are increased and that they are provided the necessary feedback by a supervisor is crucial in terms of professional experience and development. In a study conducted by Aladağ (2014), as a result of the research in providing supervision given to the participants, it was revealed that one of the most influential and key findings in terms of students was the feedback provided by the supervisor. Although the counsellor candidate is required to give accurate information about the duration of the

counselling process at the onset of the counselling, this skill may be repeated as a reminder when needed during the process. In addition, this skill can be explained, if necessary, when the client has different requests or attempts to manage or terminate the process.

Regarding the sub-division of the ability to explain the principles of psychological counselling process in the study, of all participants, six counsellor candidates were able to fulfil this skill as expected in the first session, whereas 14 candidates were observed to explain the principles and were found to make certain mistakes. Nevertheless, it was seen that the candidates reused the counselling principles and exhibited the necessary skill in the following sessions. Therefore, it was seen that there is no training need for the ability to explain the principles of psychological counselling process which is among structuring skills. Tanhan (2018) noted that, as one of the key points in the supervisory training process, the supervisors were required to support the counsellor candidates with positive, encouraging, and constructive feedback by paying attention to the developmental process of the candidates and that benefiting from the activities focusing on teaching by experience was a must in this feedback process.

The clients who have no experience in psychological help and psychological counselling process and the individuals who have psychological problems have false beliefs such as a 'magic wand' by the counsellor or an 'expectation of rapid recovery'. Depending on these beliefs, certain unrealistic expectations that adversely affect the reputation of psychological counsellors might be the result (Erkan et al., 2011). The ability to clarify the boundaries of the psychological counselling process is regarded as an important skill. Clarifying the boundaries of the counselling process may contribute to properly establishing the roles of the client and the counsellor. What is expected of the counsellor within the framework of the sub-division of the objective in the structuring dimension in psychological counselling process is to clarify the boundaries of the counselling process. Regarding the results of the sub-division of the objective of the structuring dimension in psychological counselling process, it was observed that the counsellor candidates had difficulty in determining the boundaries of the counselling process. Thanks to the supervision activities carried out at the end of the sessions, the candidates were found to be relatively able to acquire this skill; however, they were not able to gain this skill sufficiently. As a result, it can be concluded that the candidates had difficulty in determining the boundaries of the psychological counselling in the first session and in identifying the problem properly.

Akdoğan and Ceylan (2011) stated that one of the factors that lead to the deterioration of equality in the therapeutic process was the counsellor's need to set a limit between the counsellor and the client. For a therapeutic process to continue as expected and for the counsellor to fulfil his/her roles, the counsellor is required to structure the process by determining the boundaries. Johnston (2001) noted that setting a limit between the counsellor and the client is a complication problem and that the counsellor could determine this, provided that the problem they attempted to figure out was clarified; although it was not easy. Consequently, this may be due to the fact that there are numerous factors that affect the development of therapeutic process. The boundaries may vary in the underlying issue in each client and each counselling process; on the contrary, what is crucial is to determine the level of boundaries appropriately. In the current study, despite the supervision regarding the determination of boundaries of the counselling, it may be stated that one of the reasons the candidates had difficulty in using this skill as expected can be due to the fact that the candidates focus mainly on the completion of the process, make effort to end the session within the specified duration, and the fact that they lack professional experience.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the counsellor candidates need training in terms of the ability to clarify the boundaries of the psychological counselling process. Based on recommendation for further studies, micro teaching should be provided to help in determining the objective of psychological counselling process in the structuring dimension.

All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

This article does not contain any studies with animals performed by any of the authors.

Conflicts of interest.

The authors of this paper certify that they have NO affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial or non-financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; membership, employment; affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in this manuscript.

References

Akdoğan, R. & Ceyhan, E. (2011). Terapötik ilişkide insan faktörü, *Psikiyatride Güncel Yaklaşımlar*, 3(1):117-141.

Akkoyun, F. (1995). PDR'de Unvan ve program sorunu: Bir inceleme ve öneriler. *Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Dergisi*, 6, 1-21.

Aladağ, M. (2014). Psikolojik danışman eğitiminin farklı düzeylerinde bireyle psikolojik danışma uygulaması süpervizyonunda kritik olaylar. *Ege Eğitim Dergisi, (*15)2, s. 428-475.

Auxier, C.R., Hughes, F. R., & Kline, W. B. (2003). Identity development in counselors-in-training. *Counselor Education and Supervision,* 43(1), 25-38.

Bek, H. & Gülveren, H. (2021). Determination of psychological counsellor candidates' competency levels and educational needs in terms of therapeutic conditions in the process of individual counselling, *Education Quarterly Reviews,* Vol.4, No.3, 606-616. DOI: 10.31014/aior.1993.04.03.364,

Bogdan, R. C. & Biklen, S. K. (1992). *Qualitative Research for Education: Introduction and Methods*. Allyn and Bacon.

Cormier, S., Nurius, P., & Osborn, C. J. (2016). *Interviewing and change strategies for helpers*. Brooks/Cole, Cengage Learning.

Day, R. W., Sparacio, R. T., & Griffin, R. E. (1980). Structuring the counseling process. *Personnel & Guidance Journal*, 59, 246–249.

Denizli, S. (2009). Psikolojik danışma süreç ve sonuç araştırmaları kapsamında psikolojik danışma becerileri üzerine bir tarama. *Ege Eğitim Dergisi,* (10)1, s.92-113.

Doğan, S. (1996). Türkiye'de psikolojik danışma ve rehberlik alanında meslek kimliğinin gelişimi ve bazı sorunlar. *Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Dergisi,* 7, 32-44.

Erkan, S., Çankaya, C.Z., Terzi, Ş., & Özbay, Y., (2011). Üniversite psikolojik danışma ve rehberlik merkezlerinin incelenmesi, *Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi,* Yıl 11, Sayı 22, 174 - 198

Eryılmaz, A. & Mutlu-Süral, T. (2014). *Kuramdan uygulamaya bireyle psikolojik danışma*. Anı Yayıncılık.

Eryılmaz, A. & Mutlu, T. (2018). Gelişimsel kapsamlı süpervizyon modeline ilişkin psikolojik danışman adaylarının görüşlerinin incelenmesi. *Elektronik Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi* , 17 (65) , 123-141. https:// doi.org/ 10.17755/esosder.306932

Galport, N. & Azzam, T. (2016). Evaluator training needs and competencies: a gap analysis. *American Journal of Evaluation*, (38)1, p1-21, https:// doi.org/10.1177/1098214016643183.

Gysbers, N.C. & Henderson, P. (2012). *Developing and managing your school guidance and counseling program.* (5th ed.). American Counseling Association.

Hewitt, T. W. (2006). *Understanding and shaping curriculum: What we teach and why.* SAGE Publications.

Inskipp, F. (2004). *Skills training for counselling.* SAGE Publications.

İkiz, F. E. & Totan, T. (2014). Etkili psikolojik danışman niteliklerinin değerlendirilmesine ilişkin ölçek geliştirme çalişmasi. *Türk Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Dergisi,* 5(42), 269-279.

Johnson, E., Baker, S. B., Kopala, M., Kiselica, M. S., & Thompson, E. C. (1989). Counseling self-efficacy and counseling competence in prepracticum training. *Counselor Education and Supervision,* 28(3), 205-218. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.1989.tb01109.x

Johnston, S. H. (2001). *Therapists' modifications of psychotherapeutic boundaries.* ProQuest Dissertations Publishing.

Korkut, F. (2007). Counselor education, program accreditation and counselor credentialing in

turkey. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling,* 29, 11. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10447-006-9021-6

Korkut, F. & Fatma Mızıkacı, F. (2009). Avrupa Birliği, Bologna Süreci ve Türkiye'de Psikolojik Danışman Eğitimi. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi,* 53, s.99-122.

Kuzgun, Y. (2000). *Meslek Danışmanlığı: Uygulamalar-Kuramlar.* Nobel Yayın Dağıtım.

Lent, R. W., Hill, C. E., & Hoffman, M. A. (2003). Development and validation of the counselor activity self-efficacy scales. *Journal of Counseling Psychology,* 50(1), 97-108. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.50.1.97

Meydan, B. (2014). Psikolojik danışman adaylarına psikolojik danışma becerilerinin kazandırılması: karşılaştırmalı bir inceleme. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 29(3), s.110-123.

Meydan, B. (2015). Psikolojik danışman adaylarının içerik yansıtma ve duygu yansıtma becerilerine ilişkin yeterlik düzeylerinin incelenmesi. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 30(4), 1-15.

Owens, D., Pernice-Duca, F., & Thomas, D. (2009). Post-training needs of urban high school counselors: Implications for counselor training programs. *Journal of School Counseling*, 7(17), 1–21.

Özgüven, İ. E. (1990). Ülkemizde psikolojik danışma ve rehberlik faaliyetlerinin dünü ve bugünü. *Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Dergisi*, 1, 4-15.

Özyürek, R. (2009). Okullarda psikolojik danışma ve rehberlik uygulamaları ve öğrencilere sağlanan süpervizyon olanakları: Ulusal bir tarama çalışması. *Türk Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Dergisi*, 4 (32), 54-63

Sanberk, I. (2016). Investigation and classification of personal constructs representing ideal counselor from insider perspective. *Journal of Education and Training Studies,* 4(8), 56-64. https://doi.org/10.11114/jets.v4i8.1543

Silverman, D. (2001). *Interpreting qualitative data: methods for analyzing talk, text and interaction.* SAGE Publication.

Sönmez, V., Alacapınar, F.G., Zeybek, G. & Yıldızlı, H. (2019). *Eğitimde örnekleriyle gereksinim analizi*. Anı Yayınları.

Stoltenberg, C. (1981). Approaching supervision from a developmental perspective: The counselor complexity model. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 28(1), 59-65.

Şahin, İ., Togay, A., & Atıcı, M. (2019). Psikolojik danışman adaylarının terapötik beceri ve koşullara ilişkin algıları. *International Journal of Human Sciences,* 16(1), s.56-72. https://doi.org/10.14687/jhs.v16i1.5347

Tanhan, A. (2018). Gelişimsel modeller açısından başlangıç düzeyindeki psikolojik danışmanların süpervizyonu ve yaşadıkları güçlükler ve destekler, *ADYÜEBD Adıyaman Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi/ Adıyaman University Journal of Educational Sciences,* 2018, 8(1), 49-71.

Voltan-Acar, N. (2015). *Yeniden terapötik iletişim,* (11. Baskı). Nobel Yayıncılık.

Walcott, H. F. (1994). *Transforming qualitative data: description, analysis and interpretation.* SAGE Publications.

Yüksel, G. (2003). The development of counselor education in Turkey: Current status and future challenges. *Asian Journal of Counselling*, (10)2, 193–214.

Student Retention and Success in an RN-BSN Program: Determining Variables and Methods

Audrey Tolouian
Clinical Associate Professor, School of Nursing, University of Texas at El Paso, United States
Melissa Wholeben
Assistant Professor, School of Nursing, University of Texas at El Paso, United States
Diane Rankin
Clinical Instructor of Nursing,
School of Nursing, University of Texas at El Paso, United States

Abstract:
Background
    The Online Registered Nurse to Baccalaureate Science in Nursing (RN- BSN) Program has a retention rate of close to 97.5% (UTEP, 2020). Attrition rates in nursing programs are high. The National League for Nursing (NLN) last reported a 25 % attrition rate which may double for minority students in four-year nursing programs (NLN, 2014; Elkin, 2019). As online courses in colleges and universities are growing and are predicted to become mainstream by 2025, it is essential to identify factors contributing to our retention rates. American Association of Colleges of Nursing (AACN) has made it part of its 2021-2022 policy priorities to increase access to nursing programs (AACN, 2021).
Objective
    The purpose of this study was to ascertain the factors affecting nursing student retention. The information was used to make changes to the existing online programs in our school and better support our students. The research question was "What factors do students identify that influenced their RN to BSN program retention?"
Methodology
    The participants were chosen using a convenience sampling technique. The university was a public institution located in a border town. Three types of questions were asked: (1) general demographic information, (2) nursing career, and (3) program requirements for the RN-BSN.
Results
    A total of 33 participants completed the RN-BSN retention program study. The findings indicated that several general factors contribute to retention and student success, including student support services, mandatory orientation programs for students and faculty, credit student success courses, remedial academic ability programs (which discuss support services, particularly computer tech support), and recognizing the importance of diversity in the classroom and at work.
Conclusion

Examining the characteristics of distance education students, as well as their distinct abilities and needs, may assist schools in improving student retention. Reconsidering the characteristics and unique features of distance learning students may help schools retain students with a variety of needs, such as access to scholarships, loans, and financial incentives to continue their education.

Key Words: RN to BSN Retention, Education, On-Line

Introduction
The recent changes in course delivery worldwide have added to reasons to learn methods to increase student retention in online classes (Smith, 2016). Online courses in higher education are steadily growing and are predicted to become mainstream by 2025 (Palvia, Aeron, Gupta, Mahapatra, Parida, Rosner, & Sindhi, 2018). Essential to know, those online classes continue to have lower retention rates than face-to-face classes (Brown, 2011; Jenkins, 2011; Patterson & McFadden, 2009, Seery et al., 2021; Rizkallah & Seitz, 2017). Some strategies that have been successful in retaining students have been improving technical skills in the students and providing strong tech support during the program. Online, face-to-face orientations have also been used successfully to increase student success, requiring students to build peer connections with group projects and "coffee shops," sessions set up for building peer relationships (Brown, 2011; Heyman, 2010; Jenkins, 2011; Norwin & Wall, 2010; Seery et al. 2021; Tolouian et al., 2022). One area of interest observed in the literature is student support services. Faculty and students are typically unaware of the services provided (Grasgreen, 2012, Richardson, Sheeks, Waller, & Lemoine, 2021). This knowledge needs to be shared during student orientation.

Our program holds an online orientation for the incoming program students. This initiative lasts about two hours and introduces the students to the various aspects of the program. They have the chance to meet and chat with the faculty, learn how to communicate with the faculty, and let faculty know how best to contact them. They can meet their peers and learn the basics of what will be expected of them in the first couple of weeks. The School of Nursing policies and procedures are reviewed, as are the mentorship requirements of the program.

Background
Our RN to BSN Program has close to 97.5% retention (UTEP, 2020). This program has a 52% Hispanic population which is considered at high risk for attrition (UTEP, 2020). The article will share both positive and negative facets of the online educational program. It was decided to re-evaluate our retention rates after a mentorship program was implemented in the program's final year (Wholeben et al., 2021), and it was determined that the retention should be re-evaluated. This information will be used to make changes to the existing online programs in our division and better support our students. This will be ongoing casual support for students and further knowledge for our successful nursing program through "Coffee Shops" (an optional safe place for students to come hang out in a semi-structured environment) and other modalities that provide interaction between students and students and faculty and students.

Market research has shown that keeping a student is much less expensive than finding a new one. Dawkins and Reich (1990) reported that a five (5) percent increase in customer/student retention generated an increase in customer net present value of between 25 percent and 95 percent across a wide range of business environments. Keeping our students is more advantageous than losing them and searching for replacements (Deepeka & Narayanan, 2018).

Building relationships between online students is essential, and assistance needs to be offered to the students (Özbuğutu, E., 2021). More interaction between students will help retain the student population of these nursing students. Building techniques into the online program where the students have further access to others will help build friendships and peer support. Our study participants stated peer support as a positive aspect of their success. Peer support has been positively associated with college adjustment (Dennis et al., 2005; Eby et al., 2008; Swenson et al., 2008; Mishra, S, 2020). Online programs need to create methods outside of classroom activity for students to meet and bond. Similar campus activity areas like coffee meeting locations, study groups, and activities that can be inserted into the online framework with easy access - online sites for informal chat and relationship building among students.

Framework for our program

Vroom, (1964) developed the Expectancy Theory. He believed that people work towards a goal and are typically motivated by a positive correlation between the amount of effort that one puts in and their performance and good performance will result in the desired outcome. That final reward will fill a need the person is looking to fill. This theory served as the framework for this study, as the study was looking to identify factors that kept the students enrolled in the nursing program during difficult times.

Improving our nursing program is a constant study. The online nursing program strives to uncover the factors that influence nursing student retention by identifying both positive and negative facets of the online educational program. The information collected is used to make changes to the existing online programs in our division and provide better support to our students.

Research Question

R_1: What factors do students identify that influenced their RN to BSN program retention?

Methods and Design

This study uncovered the factors that influenced nursing student retention. The focus was to identify both positive and negative facets of the online educational program. The information was used to make changes to the existing online programs in our division and better support our students. All participants were asked to complete a demographic survey and answer open-ended questions related to their experience in the RN-BSN program. IRB approval for this study was obtained.

A survey was provided to volunteer students taking their last course in our online nursing program. Each participant in this study was provided with an electronic link to the consent form and surveys. The consent forms contained the study purpose and consented to participate. This was completed before the pre-survey document. All consent forms and surveys were hosted using QuestionPro, an online survey software. All consent forms and surveys were coded with a unique participant identification (PID) number.

Setting

The settings included the following location: a public university in a border town school of nursing. This site is the location of the Undergraduate Baccalaureate Nursing Students. **Sample**

The participants were chosen using convenience sampling. The research study participants were recruited during the final course in the RN-BSN program starting Summer of 2020 to the Spring of 2021. Potential participants were given a description of the study by the Principal Investigator (PI) regarding the research study's purpose, methods, and evaluation components.

Data Collection Analysis and Interpretation

De-identified data from the password-protected hard drive was exported into a file containing a comma-separated variable (CSV). A copy of the de-identified data was provided to the statistician consultant. Excel software was be used to aggregate data. Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS Version 26 software programs.

Results

Participant Demographics

A total of 33 participants completed the RN-BSN retention program study. The participants graduated over a period of three (3) different cohorts. Questions were asked to determine the demographics of the participants. There were three categories of questions asked: (1) basic demographics, (2) nursing career, and (3) completion of the RN-BSN program requirements.

The demographics of this population were diverse in age, race/ethnicity, and years working as a nurse. Most participants were female (70%). Ages spanned from 26 years of age to over 51 years of age, with many participants being Married/Domestic partners (57.5%). The highest percentage of participants indicated they were first-generation college students (57.5%). Half of the participants spoke English as their primary language at home (51.5%). Hispanic/Latino(a) at 51.5% was the predominant identified Ethnicity.

Most participants have been practicing nursing for under five years (36.3%) regarding their nursing career. Over half of the participants work full-time as a Registered Nurse (66.7%). Most participants have obtained their nursing licenses in the past five years (45.4%). Access to a local RN to BSN program within 50 miles is split 42.4%, with over half of the students having access to an online program at a local university (63.6%). Most participants spent 6-10 hours studying every week (36.3%), while the total length of the program's highest percentage was between 10-15 months (48.4%). (Table 1).

Table 1:
Demographic Results of Participants

Categories	Number of Subjects (n)
Gender	
Female	21
Male	6
Choose not to answer	6
Age	
26-30 years	6
31-35 years	9
36-40 years	6
41-45 years	2
46-50 years	3
>51 years	2
Choose not to answer	5
Race	
Asian	1
Black or African American	2
White	21

Multiracial	1
Prefer not to say	1
Other	2
Choose not to answer	5
Ethnicity	
Hispanic or Latino (a)	17
Not Hispanic or Latino (a)	11
Choose not to answer	5
Marital Status	
Single, never married	5
Married/Domestic partnership	19
Divorced	3
Separated	1
Choose not to answer	5
Is English your 1st Language	
Yes	17
No	10
Choose not to answer	6
What state do you live in	
Texas	25
New Mexico	2
First-Generation College Student	
Yes	19
No	8
Choose not to answer	6
Mother's Level of Education	
Less than high school	11
High School	5
Some College	5
Trade/Vocational/Technical	2
Bachelors	2
Masters	1
Doctorate	1
Choose not to answer	6
Father's Level of Education	
Less than high school	9
High School	10
Some College	3
Trade/Vocational/Technical	1
Bachelors	1
Masters	1
Doctorate	2
Choose not to answer	6
Previous Degree	
Yes	4
No	23

Nursing Career

Categories	Number of Subjects (n)
How many years practicing nursing?	
None	0
0-5 years	12
6-10 years	7
11-15 years	4
16-20 years	2
>21 years	3
Choose not to answer	5
Work as a Registered Nurse	
Full-Time	22
Part-Time	5
Choose not to answer	6
Year obtained RN license	
1991-1995	3
1996-2000	0
2001-2005	2
2006-2010	3
2011-2015	4
2016	3
2017	4
2018	3
2019	4
2020	1
Choose not to answer	6

RNBSN Program

Categories	Number of Subjects (n)
Face-to-Face RN to BSN program in your area (within 50 miles)	
Yes	14
No	13
Choose not to answer	6
Access to an online program at a local university	
Yes	21
No	6
Choose not to answer	6
Hours spent in a typical 7-day week studying	
1-5 hours	2
6-10 hours	12

11-15 hours	8
16 + hours	4
Choose not to answer	7
Length (in months) to complete RNBSN program at UTEP	
7-9 months	4
10-12 months	8
13-15 months	8
16-18 months	1
19-21 months	1
22-24 months	3
Choose not to answer	8

Open-Ended Questions
What are your reasons for seeking a BSN degree?
The main reason that the students were in the program was that it has been their goal to continue on to a master's degree. The main theme that emerged was that students had a goal and wanted to achieve it. For most it was higher education and the rest it was a personal goal.

"Because I am a minority and a woman, I do not want to be seen as a stereotype. I am much more than that. I am an educated, intelligent individual who does not submit to stereotypes. Instead, I prove them wrong."

"It's a dream that I wanted to accomplish."

What were your reasons for choosing the UTEP RNBSN program?
The main theme that arose from this question for reasons to attend the University were the reputation of the university with its close community and faculty support. The students spoke about the location of the university being part of the community in their area. The ease in which they could access the campus was very important to them.
"Close community and instructors are friendly and guide the students."

"It was an outstanding reputation, and it is also local in the event that I may have needed to come onto campus for anything."

What do you enjoy about the online educational experience?
Accessibility, flexibility, and faculty communication were the main themes that came out. The students really wanted to be able to work at their own time, so that they could maintain family relationships as well as work their odd hours. They were also very appreciative of the timely and open communication with the faculty that made this happen.
"Accessibility, Can still have a family life, connection with teachers and fast response"
"Easy to follow along and able to communicate with professors promptly."

What difficulties if any have you had with the virtual classroom experience?
Though the majority of the students stated that there were "no major difficulties",

one of the concerns with the students was the balance of schoolwork with their home lives. Finding time to figure out time management and stay motivated through the program.

> *"Load of work, but I just have to make time to accomplish what is due. Its all about time management. Also, kids in the home. I am home so they seek my attention, even though they know I am busy."*

What would be your suggestions to improving the online educational experience?

Students were in agreement that spreading out the work more across the term would be helpful. Their opinion was that much of the work was front loaded, with the last week or two feeling much less busy. Another theme that arose was having a Video conference at the start of the semester to help explain the layout of the course, to make finding items a bit easier.

> *"It would be nice to have an initial orientation with the instructor on zoom where the students are shown where to look for what on blackboard. They introduce themselves and we see them and they see us the students."*

What were some of the challenges (personal professional environmental) that you encountered that made it difficult to complete the program?

Because this study ran for the last year, COVID 19 was the major theme as to making things difficult. Setting up interviews due to people working from home was a challenge, family members becoming ill, and being mandated to work overtime were many of the challenges faced. But just about every student mentioned "COVID".

> *"Lost my job in the middle of COVID didn't know if I was able to complete if due to lack of income. Another thing was trying to get interviews set up for assignments not a lot of places let you in due to COVID"*

What types of supports did you encounter that made it possible for you to stay with the program? Both at home and from the University.

Family and faculty support were the main themes that arose here. Many students spoke about the appreciation of family members helping with their children during busy times. And almost all spoke of the support given to them by faculty with being understanding and flexible during the program.

> *"The only support that made it possible to stay in the program, at least this last semester, was your staff. I was unexpectedly thrust into a job I would never have been involved in while taking any classes. Had it not been for your staff, and their understanding of the situation, I would have quit. I even asked about the best way to go about it. Wait till I was actually missing several assignments, or jump ship while still doing well. They talked me off the ledge, and I stayed and did the best I could."*
>
> *"Teacher support/communication Family (husband, children, my mom; sometimes they would take the kids out to walking or outside) My employer allowed me to switch from Full-time to Part-time during Fall 2020 and this made it easier for me to focus on both work and school."*

What were some of the challenges that you encountered that made it difficult to complete your mentorship experience?

The main concern again in this area was the pandemic, though communication also played a role. The students had a challenge finding mentors as the pandemic had changed the roles and locations of many of the mentors. Once the mentors were identified, many of them were working from home or at other locations, making communication more difficult.

> **"Because of the pandemic it was difficult to get a hold of administration/leadership for the interviews."**
> "Just the communication and getting both of us at a time that worked well for us."

How has your mentorship experience helped your career trajectory?

The students were encouraged that they had become more well-rounded as nurses. They were exposed to new parts of care that they had not been previously. This has opened new opportunities and many of them have now considered continuing their education. Another major theme that emerged was confidence, as they were speaking to the leaders of their facilities. This has also made them more aware of the different points of view while caring for patients.

> **"I have been able to chat with a lot of leadership in my facility and meet some good people. One of the local resources that I found online for my interview, worked at a sister facility of ours. She use to come to my facility. I was able to get information and resources and hopefully, she will be able to return for her classes."**
> "I have learned to see nursing as a research experience. You will never know everything. As a nurse one must always be researching and keeping up with current events."

Discussion

Student success and degree completion are important for the long-term success of students, as well as the long-term success of institutions (Shaw et al., 2016). Our study identified that faculty and family support are two of the main factors that students identified as helping them stay in the program. In the past, academic success was solely the student's responsibility. Now, academic success is considered a shared responsibility. A large body of literature proposes that recruiting more competent and motivated students is the main condition to increase retention (Chang et al., 2016). Others suggest the overall institutional commitment and student support and support at the student's residence are key factors influencing retention.

This study identified that effective assessment procedures; offering feedback promptly, and thoroughly, encouraging cognitive engagement, and connecting curriculum to past experiences and future learning goals were common course development strategies that helped to maintain retention. Roksa and Kinsley noted that family support offers emotional and financial reassurance to the students, thus enhancing retention (2019). Our study also showed that family support was one of the major influencers of retention for the RN to BSN students. Table 1 depicts some support categories and strategies the nurse educator can utilize to promote student success as identified by Seery et al (2021) from their systematic review, that also coincided with our results see Table 2:

Table 2

Seery et al, 2021	Our Findings
Course Development Strategies	The development of a course design that may involve students with different learning modes and specific demands might motivate students to continue their studies. Our students often need back up plans due to work issues. The mentorship classes offer multiple modes for content delivery.
Student Success Support	Our study found that quick reliable answers to questions were very important and technical support was fast and advising needs were quickly met.
Faculty Involvement Strategies	Enhancing faculty training and support, developing a lecturers' online presence, encouraging the quality of faculty and student interactions, and providing opportunities for collaborative engagement support faculty involvement. We have started an online orientation program to offer more face-to-face contact via virtual meeting platforms.
Social Engagement Strategies	Providing opportunities for social interaction (blogs, chat rooms, wikis, and forums), building community, creating a sense of belonging, and establishing trust help satisfy the need for social engagement. We have tried to introduce some casual virtual sessions for the students to interact, a few students have attended, but seems better suited for scheduled classes, due to the work schedules of the RN to BSN students.
Emotional Engagement Strategies	Managing expectations, articulating assumptions, recognizing motivations, committing to learning, and student self-discipline influence emotional engagement. The faculty make themselves available during non-class hours to try and match the student schedules, encouraging students to call, and make themselves accessible both with time and resources.

Conclusion

Our program currently has an orientation for incoming students, based on the feedback from our students, the program will invite currently enrolled students to the orientations to offer guidance and help with peer support. The orientation is a virtual platform, allowing the current students to ask questions, maintain their peer network as well as be involved in some school activities. By

building a peer network for new students, a casual mentoring program will evolve. This will give the incoming students additional upperclassman peer support at the school, to build up a sense of community on a virtual platform.

Student success is based on various university components working together to deliver the greatest possible learning environment. It is important that Academia Administration and Educators gather data on their students to obtain a better knowledge of the factors that influence retention. Some factors that lead to student success are providing student services, providing student support, making mandatory orientation programs, creating student success courses, strengthening academic abilities, and acknowledging the importance of the diversity each student brings to the classroom. Rethinking the characteristics of distance learning students and their unique qualities might help schools retain students with a variety of needs, such as access to scholarships, loans, and financial incentives to continue their education.

Universities have an obligation to students to identify the factors that are keeping the students in the program and build on those. Once the university can identify the strengths, they can help to increase those, and lessen the items that are preventing the students from completing their degrees. Speaking directly to the students is the best way to identify the areas that they feel are supportive. The students can then identify the opportunities, and drawbacks of the system, and the university can pass the information down to the specific programs and faculty. The university can then help the specific programs implement the changes that are supportive for the students.

This activity gives the opportunity to develop creative innovations that the students, as well as the faculty, can enjoy. As discovered, many of the positive influences were free, and just take a little bit of time. When all work together, the needs of each party can be met, and the creation of a symbiotic relationship can foster better outcomes.

Conflict of Interest: None
Funding Sources: No external funding

This article does not contain any studies with human participants performed by any of the authors.

This article does not contain any studies with animals performed by any of the authors.

Conflicts of interest.

The authors of this paper certify that they have NO affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial or non-financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; membership, employment; affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in this manuscript.

References

American Association of Colleges of Nursing. (2021). 2021-2022 *Policy priorities*. https://www.aacnnursing.org/Policy-Advocacy/Federal-Policy-Agenda/FPA- 2021

Brown, R. (2011, July 18th). Community-college students perform worse online than face to face. *The Chronicle of Higher Education.*

Chang, J. M., Buonora, P., Stevens, L., & Kwon, C. (2016). Strategies to recruit and retain students in physical sciences and mathematics on a diverse college campus. *Journal of College Science Teaching, 45*(3), 14-22.

Dawkins, P.M., and Reichheld, F.F., (1990) "Customer retention as a competitive weapon", *Directors and Board,14*, Summer, pp. 42-7.

Deepeka, S. P., & Narayanan, M. B. (2018). Strategies adopted by serviced apartments for customer attraction and retention in emerging market. *International Journal of Pure and Applied Mathematics, 118*(20), 759-769.

Dennis, J.M., Phinney, J.S> and Chuateco,L. (2005), The role of motivation, parental support, peer support in the academic success of ethnic minority first generation students. *Journal of College Student Development, 43*, 223-236. https://doi: 10.1353/csd.2005

Eby, L.T., Allen, T.D., Evans, S., and Mg, T.D. (2008) Does mentoring matter? A multidisciplinary meta-analysis comparing mentored and non-mentored individuals. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 72*, pp. 254-267

Elkins, N. (2019). Failure to complete BSN nursing programs: Students' views. *Journal for the Advancement of Educational Research International Association for the Advancement of Educational Research International Achieving Excellence*, 13(1), 110

Grasgreen, A. (2012, Oct. 30th). Colleges don't always help with mental health issues, 27 student survey shows. *Inside Higher Education*. Online. Retrieved from: http://www.insidehighered.com/news/2012/10/30/colleges-dont-always-help- mentalhealth-issues-student-survey-shows.

Heyman, E. (2010). Overcoming student retention issues in higher education online programs. *Online Journal of Distance Education Learning Administration, 13* (4).University of West Georgia: Distance Education Center. Retrieved from: http://www.westga.edu/~distance/ojdla/winter/134/heyman134.html

Jenkins, R. (2011). Why are so many students still failing online? *The Chronicle of Higher Education.* Retrieved from: http://chronicle.com/article/Why-Are-So-Many- Students-Still/127584/

Mishra, S. (2020). Social networks, social capital, social support and academic success in higher education: A systematic review with a special focus on 'underrepresented' students, *Educational Research Review*, 29,100307. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2019.100307.

National League for Nursing (2014). *Annual Survey of Schools of Nursing, Academic Year* 2013-2014

Norwin, L. & Wall, T. (2010, Jan. 18th). Best practices in online teaching: Don't assume. Faculty Focus. Retrieved from: http://www.facultyfocus.com/articles/onlineeducation/best-practices-in-online-teaching-dont-assume/

Neuman, W. L. (2006). Social research methods qualitative and quantitative approach (6th ed.). *Upper Saddle River:* Pearson.

Özbuğutu, E. (2021). Determination of the Opinions of prospective science teachers about biology lessons taught through distance education . *European Journal of Educational Sciences, 8*(2). http://dx.doi.org/10.19044/ejes.v8no2a1

Palvia, S., Aeron,P., Gupta, P., Mahapatra, D., Parida, R., Rosner, R. & Sindhi, S. (2018). Online education: Worldwide status, challenges, trends, and implications. *Journal of Global Information Technology Management 21*(4), 233-241.   https://doi.org/10.1080/1097198X.2018.1542262

Richardson, M. D., Sheeks, G., Waller, R. E., & Lemoine, P. A. (2021). Pursuit of online services for online students. *In Research Anthology on Developing Effective Online   Learning Courses* (pp. 1850-1880). IGI Global.

Roksa, J., Kinsley, P. (2019). The role of family support in facilitating academic success of low-income students. *Res High Educ 60,* 437 (2019). https://doi.org/10.1007/s11162-018-   9525-z

Swenson, L., Nordstrom, A. and Hiester, M. (2008). The role of peer relationship in adjustment to college. *Journal of College Student Development, 49*, pp. 551-567

Seery, K., Barreda, A. A., Hein, S. G., & Hiller, J. L. (2021). Retention strategies for online students: A systematic literature review. *Journal of Global Education and Research, 5*(1), 72-84. https://doi.org/ 10.5038/2577-509X.5.1.1105

Sorić, I., Penezić, Z., & Burić, I. (2017). The Big Five personality traits, goal orientations, and academic achievement. *Learning and Individual Differences, 54*, 126–134. https://doi.10.1016/j.lindif.2017.01.024

Tolouian, A., Wholeben, M., & Rankin, D. (2022). Teaching mindfulness to mitigate burnout in a pandemic. *Journal of Trauma Nursing, 29*(1), 51-54. https://doi.org/10.1097/JTN.0000000000000631

University of Texas at El Paso (2020). Enrollment and Graduation - RN to Baccalaureate Enrollment Statistics. Retrieved from www.utep.edu

Vroom, V. (1964). Motivation and work. New York: Wiley.

Wholeben,M., McKee, G., Tolouian, A., & Rankin, D. (2021). The development of an innovative mentorship experience for an online RN-to-BSN program. *Journal of Nursing Education and Practice*. 11(3): 57-62. DOI: 10.5430/jnep.v11n3p57

Examination of the Relationship Between Teachers' Perception of Organizational Exclusion and Levels of Happiness at Work

Selçuk Demir (Asst. Prof. Dr.)
Şırnak University/ Physical Education, Sports College, Turkey
Necati Çobanoğlu (Asst. Prof. Dr.)
Inonu University, Faculty of Education, Turkey

Abstract

It is obvious that teachers may exhibit negative attitudes if they think they are alone and worthless in their own school environment. This paper focuses on determining the role of organisational exclusion attitudes of teachers and their feelings of happiness at work. For this purpose, correlational design was utilized in the research. The sample of this study consists of 171 teachers from 21 secondary schools in Şırnak province. The data of the research were gathered by utilizing organisational exclusion scale and happiness at work scales. Based on the data results, it was concluded that the variables examined in the study are significantly related by correlation. The regression analysis results revealed that organisational exclusion and nihilation dimension can negatively and significantly predict happiness at work attitude. Isolation dimension does not statistically have a significant role on the feeling of happiness at work. Through the results obtained from the research, suggestions have been provided to researchers and practitioners.

Keywords: Organisational exclusion, Happiness at work, School manager, Teacher, School

Introduction

It is clear that determining a person as an undesirable member of an organization without any group event or treating a person as if he does not exist in the organizational environment will result to negative effects on business life. Kılıç (2019) has emphasized that an organization's most valuable and inimitable resource is its human resources. The spread of negative attitudes such as exclusion in organisations can naturally be a source of unhappiness both in social and business life. Based on the fact that a greater percentage of time is spent at work, organisational climate can be affected with those situations. In other words, there are tendencies for social issues to arise. On the ther hand, a happy business life can positively affect the members of an organisation. As a result of this situation, motivation and performance should be increased in organisations (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Otherwise, an organisation may first lose its qualified employees psychologically and then physically (Demir & Saylik, 2021). This is because the lack of social support and quality interactions in business life can create feelings of loneliness and exclusion in individuals. Individuals with such attitudes do not think that they are members of the organisation and this can

lead to inefficiency. Thus, the productivity of an employee can increase when he is satisfied with the relationships in the business (Sabuncuoğlu & Tüz, 2005).

Organisational Exclusion

The organisational exclusion concept has been explained, and it is clear that some employees working in an organisation do not regard it or pay much attention to it (Tutar, Ozturk Baspinar & Guler, 2021). In addition, exclusion is the feeling of alienation from the environment and the expression of cold feelings towards a member of an organisation due to his presence in the environment (Koçel, 2018). In this way, the member has been marginalized from the group and organizational procedures on purpose. The relationships of a member with others is seen as one of the most important factor that influences business life. If the member does not internalize the rules of the organisation and does not behave in accordance with the discipline, he encounters hostility and indifference in the group. This situation causes discontent and vacillation for a member (Şimsek, Çelik & Akgemci, 2014). Also, when members are excluded from an organisation, it may gave rise to the following negative effects: lack of motivation, terrific decrease in performance, and cease of employment (Koçel, 2018; Yılmaz, 2017).

The release of a qualified employee is not a desired situation in organizations that are focused on success and also attach importance to continuity. In addition, this situation has costs for the institution in many ways regarding separation and placement (such as socialization and education) (Kreitner & Kinichi, 2009). Particularly in educational organisations, isolation and exclusion of a teacher by others may result in more critic outcomes. The attitudes of a teacher who has the feeling of exclusion in business will also be negative. It is clear that this situation will damage collaboration and team work at school. Subsequently, the school atmosphere will be unhealthy and the success of students will decrease. Tosun (1990) has underlined that individuals want a life style and business life that will enable them to achieve social and psychological satisfaction. In this context, Şimsek et al. (2014) highlighted that it is crucial to improve an organisation and enhance the quality of business life. They also explained that it is important to develop an environment of confidence, create an explicit communication pattern, increace collaboration, innovation, and harmony capacity within an organisation. Certainly, this will naturally affect all school members in a positive way.

Therefore, it is evident that social integration is very important in order for teachers in schools not to feel excluded or to keep away from social problems. As a result of this, teachers should cooperate within working groups, give support to each other, esteem the uniqueness of each other, and exchange their ideas and feelings. Thus, the quality of business life will inevitably increase also (Erginer, 2014). Furthermore, the ability of employees to agree with others in the organization and work in harmony within the scope of their social needs contributes to their satisfaction in their business life (Saruhan & Yıldız, 2014). It is also known that work satisfaction can enhance happiness in business life (Işık, Çetinkaya & Işık, 2017). More so, a person who has positive attitudes towards his job exhibits more planned, careful, and methodical behaviors in the work environment. This situation contributes to an employee's productivity (Eren, 2015).

Happiness at Work

Happiness is an emotion that plays a substantial role and makes people feel better in their institutions, which helps them to be more productive at work (Wright & Cropanzano, 2004). Seligman (2002) has touched on three factors of happiness, namely: a peaceful life with positive feelings, satisfaction, and assimilation; a good life that includes flow and active participation; and

a meaningful life in which a person is strong, serves a great purpose, and evaluates the features he thinks are strong in this direction. In literature, it is recognized that there has been a keen focus on well-being concept based on studies about happiness concept (Haybron, 2008). Well-being at schools can show alterations according to the level of healthy relationships and harmony among teachers, students, and parents of students. Well-being can also give support to teachers that struggle with the negative situations they experience in business life (Benevene, De Stasio & Fiorilli, 2020). Furthermore, having the belief of working in a job that is psychologically worth doing and also performing a valuable mission for society positively impresses happiness and well-being in an individual (Eren, 2015).

The Relationship Between Organisational Exclusion and Happiness at Work

Sabuncuoğlu and Tüz (2005) has alleged that the most valid way of gaining people is to ensure integration with organisational goals. Thus, the purpose is to shape the emotions, thoughts, and behaviours of individuals (Adler, 2021). From this point of view, it is important for teachers not to feel excluded in their school environment so as to integrate them with the goals of their organizations. This is because if teachers feel that they are excluded from the enviroment, they will not have positive feelings about their schools. The well-being and productivity of teachers will also be damaged due to this situation. Within this scope, Schein (1980) has accentuated that organisational relationships should be reviewed if employees have shaky morale and productivity in their institutions. Also, the success of students can be affected by this situation. It is clear that all emotional experiences of teachers reflect on their daily relationships and performances. It is also known that daily routines of individuals are influenced by their sentimental incidents.

Research Objective

Organisational exclusion is a situation which has a high potential to occur and causes negative effects in institutions. It is an essential subject that should be given attention in researches (Xu, 2012). In this study, focusing on organisational exclusion attitudes that may cause counterproductive behaviors, especially at educational institutions, is very important. This is because a need may arise for further studies. In addition, the explanations about happiness concept which affects the tendency of teachers developing positive attitudes is the other significant aspect of this study. Examining the relationship between these two concepts is necessary in order to better understand the causes of psycho-social behaviors in organizations and to establish a theoretical substructure for the literature.

The aim of this study is to specify the relationship between organisational exclusion, its subdimensions, and happiness at work. Adhering to the main purpose of this research, the following hypotheses have been brought forward.

H1: Organisational exclusion perception negatively predicts teachers' happiness at work.
H2: Isolation dimension negatively predicts happiness at work.
H3: Nihilation dimension predicts happiness at work in a negative way.

Method
Research Model

The intent of this research is to define the relationship between teachers' organisational exclusion perception and their happiness at work. Therefore, this study was established using correlational design. This model perused the relationships among variables, degrees, and the directions of those relationships (Büyüköztürk et al., 2012).

Population and Sample

The sample of this research comprises of teachers working in secondary schools in Şırnak province. 21 secondary schools were randomly selected and scales were given to all teachers at those schools. Hence, disproportionate cluster sampling method was applied in this study. 193 teachers from these schools accepted to participate in this study. However, Since 22 of the collected data were filled imprecisely, 171 of them were analyzed.

47.4% of participants are male teachers (n = 81), while 52.6% of the participants are female teachers (n = 90). 57.3% of supportive teachers for the research are married (n = 81), while 42.7% of them are single (n = 73).

Data Collection Tools and Procedure

The data were obtained by means of "Organisational Exclusion Scale" and "Happiness at Work Scale" in this research. The scale range was set between 1 "I never agree" to 5 "I definitely agree". This means that it is in accordance with the 5 point likert scale. Some information about the scales are used in this study below.

Organisational Exclusion Scale

Organisational Exclusion Scale was developed by Abaslı and Özdemir (2019) and was used in order to detect the exclusion level of teachers in their schools. The scale consists of isolation and nihilitation, which is measured by 5 items and 9 items, respectively. As a result of reliability analysis by data set of this research, Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient is .91 for isolation dimension, .96 for nihilation dimension, and .94 for whole organisational exclusion scale. The results of confirmatory factor analysis which was implemented to the data of this study proves that the data and the scale are compatible with each other at good levels (X2 = 36.90, df = .19, X2/ df = 1.94, GFI = .94, NFI = .97, TLI = .97, CFI = .98) and acceptable (RMSEA= .07).

Happiness at Work Scale

This scale was developed by Singh and Aggarwal (2018) and adapted by Özdemir, Sever and Acar (2020). It consists of 4 dimensions which are measured with 3 items, namely: internal motivation, souring emotions on work, and supportive organisational experiences and unsupportive organisational experiences. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient in this study has been measured as .79 for internal motivation subdimension, .81 for souring emotions on work subdimension, .84 for supportive organisational experiences subdimension, .74 for unsupportive organisational experiences subdimension, and .88 for whole happiness at work scale. The results of confirmatory factor analysis was implemented to the data of this study, which reveals that the data and the scale produce adaptive values at good levels (X2 = 28.43, df = .14, X2/ df = 2.03, GFI = .96, NFI = .95, TLI = .97, CFI = .97) and acceptable (RMSEA = .07).

Ethical approval was taken for the research from the ethics committee of Şırnak University on March 17, 2022. Before the data collection tools were carried out, the teachers were enlightened about the aim and importance of the study. Volunteer participation of teachers was provided for in this research.

Analysis

Data were collected and entered into the SPSS programme. Through this means, deficient data has been determined. 6 reversing items in Happiness at Work Scale were inverted, and the outliers of the data were cleared as well. It is worthy to note that the kurtosis and skewness coefficients of data are between ±1,5. Thus, normality assumption was provided. Also, the

Tolerance value is 1.00 which is less than 2. The VIF value is 1.00 which is less than 10, and the CI value is 5.33 which is below 30. These results prove that there is no multicollinearity problem between the variables in the study.Furthermore, confirmatory factor analysis were implemented to the scales. Thus, the concordance of obtained data with scales was examined within the context of this study. After detecting significant relationships between organisational exclusion, including its subdimensions and happiness at work, the simple and multiple regression analysis was utilized. In multiple regression analysis, isolation and nihilation dimensions of organisational exclusion were analyzed as independent variables. According to the aim of the research, happiness at work emotion was identified as a dependent variable.

Findings
Descriptive Analysis
The arithmetic mean, standard deviation, and standard error values are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive analysis results

Variables	$\overline{\text{X}}$	*Std. D.*	*Std. Er.*
1. Exclusion	1.66	.64	.04
2. Isolation	1.60	.62	.04
3. Nihilation	1.69	.68	.05
4. Happiness	3.66	.69	.05
5.Internal Motivation	4.14	.72	.05
6. SWE	3.54	1.00	.07
7. SOE	3.59	.88	.06
8. UOE	3.38	.94	.07

Notes: Exclusion: Organisational Exclusion, Happiness: Happiness at work, IMot: Internal Motivation, SWE: Souring Work Emotions, SOE: Supportive Organisational Experiences, UOE: Unsupportive Organisational Experiences.

As seen in Table 1, the descriptive analysis results reveal that teachers' perceptions on organisational exclusion, isolation, and nihilation dimensions are at level 2 "I do not agree''. Teachers' perceptions on happiness at work, internal motivation, souring work emotions and supportive organisational experiences are at level 4 "I agree". Conversely, their perceptions on unsupportive organisational experiences subdimension are at level 3 "I partially agree''. In other words, the perceptions of teachers on organisational exclusion and its subdimensions are below medium level. The views of teachers on unsupportive organisational experiences subdimension are at medium level, while their views on happiness at work and its subdimensions are at upper medium level.

Correlation
The variables examined in this study and the correlation coefficients for their sub-dimensions are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. The results on correlation

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

1. Exclusion	1						
2. Isolation	.95**	1					
3. Nihilation	.98**	.90**	1				
4. Happiness	-.54**	-.51**	-.53**	1			
5. IM	-.62**	-.60**	-.61**	.66**	1		
6. SWE	-.42**	-.41**	-.41**	.84**	.38**	1	
7. SOE	-.41**	-.39**	-.41**	.77**	.51**	.47**	1
8. UOE	-.30**	-.26**	-.30**	.81**	.31**	.69**	.46**	1

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

Notes: Exclusion: Organisational Exclusion, Happiness: Happiness at work, IMot: Internal Motivation, SWE: Souring Work Emotions, SOE: Supportive Organisational Experiences, UOE: Unsupportive Organisational Experiences.

As seen in Table 2, the correlation results among variables shows a medium, negative, and significant relationship between organisational exclusion – organisational happiness ($r = -.54$, $p < .01$), internal motivation ($r = -.62$, $p < .01$), souring work emotions ($r = -.42$, $p < .01$), supportive organisational expectations ($r = -.41$, $p < .01$), and supportive organisational expectations ($r = -.30$, $p < .01$). There is a low level, negative relationship between isolation subdimension of organisational exclusion and unsupportive organisational expectations. Subsequently, other subdimensions of happiness at work are moderately and negatively interrelated to happiness at work. There is a medium and negative relationship between nihilation subdimension of organisational exclusion and happiness at work and its subdimensions.

The Prediction of Organisational Exclusion on Happiness at Work
The results of the analysis concerning the teachers' perception of organizational exclusion to predict their sense of happiness at work is outlined in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Regression analysis results regarding the prediction of organisational exclusion sense on happiness at work

Independent Variables	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	P
Stable	4.63	.01		37.40	.00
Exclusion	-.58	.06	-.54	-8.41	.00

Dependent variable: Happiness at work
R2 change = .295 $*p < .05$, $**p < .01$

According to the analysis results in Table 3, organizational exclusion senses of teachers pointedly predict their happiness at work ($\beta = -.54**$, $p < .01$). The per 1 unit increase in the feeling of exclusion causes decrease in happiness at work to .54 units. Also, 29.5 % of happiness at work sense can be clarified by organisational exclusion sense ($\Delta R2 = .295$; $p < .01$).

The Prediction of Isolation and Nihilation Subdimension of Organisational Exclusion on Happiness at Work
The multiple regression analysis (by stepwise) was applied in order to state teachers' perceptions on isolation and nihilation subdimensions of organizational exclusion. The results

reveal that isolation subdimension does not predict happiness at work emotion (β = -.17, t = -.1.14, p = .25). Therefore, isolation dimension has been eliminated from multiple regression analysis.

Table 4. The prediction of nihilation subdimension of organisational exclusion on happiness at work

Predictive variables	B	Std. Er.	Beta	T	P
(stable)	4.59	.12		38.01	.00
Nihilation	-.55	.06	-.53	-8.30	.00

Dependent variable: Happiness at work
R2 change = .29 *p< .05, **p< .01

As seen in Table 4, the regression analysis results show that nihilation subdimension of organizational exclusion meaningfully predicts happiness at work sense (β = -.55, p < .01). Teachers' perception that they are nihilated by 1 unit causes a decrease in happiness of .53 units. 29% of happiness at work sense has also been expounded by nihilation sense (ΔR^2 = .29; p < .01).

Discussion

Teachers' isolation sense experiences in their schools reduce their happiness emotions. More so, teachers who feel alienated in their institution may be perceived as unimportant and thus exhibit sloppy behavior. Robertson and Cooper (2011) have alleged that the fact that individuals find their work invaluable prevents them from maintaining their well-being. It is further known that well-being is closely related to happiness. Accordingly, Robertson and Cooper (2011) have emphasized that well-being increases the quality of productivity, performance, and customer relationships. It is clear that the high level of well-being of teachers in their institutions will contribute to their individual and organizational positive outcomes.

When teachers feel isolated by others in their school, the atmosphere in the enviroment is negatively affected. When they also feel that other colleagues are avoiding them within the enviroment, it creates a feeling of loneliness in them. This is because there is no cooperation and solidarity among isolated teachers. Şenturan (2015) has specified that people who are integrated into their organisations tend to live in unity and togetherness. This in turn makes their organisational loyalty to rise as well. However, the organizational loyalty of teachers who feel isolated will not rise and they will not have similar aims in line with the organisational aims. Thus, previous researchers (Başaran, 1982; Tutar et al., 2021) have claimed that an unfavorable environment is one of the factors which causes decrease in the motivation and effectiveness of individuals. It is possible for teachers to feel unhappy in such a school atmosphere. This shows that individuals' happiness is positively correlated to having meaningful experiences in their lives (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011).

This study has shown that the happiness of teachers is reduced when they feel excluded in their schools. Neglecting and ignoring teachers in their atmosphere may reduce inputs to their business life. It is apparent that when they do not find their life significant, their level of happiness is affected. Hefferon and Boniwell (2011) further detected that a significant life can only be made possible by the individuals serving something stronger than themselves. It is out of question for an excluded teacher to unite with others around a higher purpose. Consequently, it is probable for them to find their business life meaningful.

Conclusion

This research focused on determining the relationship between organisational exclusion, its subdimensions, and happiness at work. Hence, this study was carried out using correlational design. 171 teachers of secondary schools in Şırnak province actively participated in this research. The research data was achieved by means of "organisational Exclusion Scale" and "Happiness at Work Scale". In this research context, CFA and reliability analysis showed that the scales used are valid and reliable. The descriptive analysis, correlation, simple and multiple regression analysis were also implemented to the study data. The study obtained the following results below:

- Teachers' feelings of organizational exclusion negatively predicts their happiness at work.
- Nihilation subdimension negatively predicts happiness at work attitude.
- Isolation subdimension does not significantly predict happiness at work variable in a statistical way.
- This denotes that hypothesis 1 and 2 in this study (H1 and H2) have been confirmed, while hypothesis 3 has not been confirmed (H3).

Recomendations

- It is important for school administrators to ensure that no teacher is excluded. In this way, every teacher will see himself as an important member of the school. Certainly, this willl make him feel valuable.
- Organising some efficient activities are needful so as to have better quality interaction among teachers. This can also increase sharing among teachers. Teachers who are up to their institution, well adjusted to teamwork, and also efficient are very essential for their institution.
- Consequently, school administrators should create and practise a positive atmosphere for teachers.

Limitations and Implications

As indicated before, the data of this study were obtained from teachers working in secondary schools in Şırnak province. However, the data results were generalized to Turkey as well. Studying a group which has a large and diverse number is very important to acquire more generalized results. Therefore, it is necessary to carry out further researches on psychosocial variables such as organizational exclusion and happiness at work in order to clearly understand the antecedents and outputs of those variables.

All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

This article does not contain any studies with animals performed by any of the authors.

Conflicts of interest.

The authors of this paper certify that they have NO affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial or non-financial interest (such as honoraria; educational grants; membership, employment; affiliations, knowledge or beliefs) in the subject matter or materials discussed in this manuscript.

References

Abaslı, K. & Özdemir, M. (2019). Örgütsel dışlanma ölçeğinin geliştirilmesi: Geçerlilik ve güvenirlilik çalışması. Trakya Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi, 1(1), 265-282. https://doi.org/10.26468/trakyasobed.481620

Adler, A. (2021). Modern psikoloji. (çev. Ş. BİROL). Eskişehir: Dorlion Yayınları.

Başaran, İ. E. (1982). Örgütsel davranış. Ankara Ünversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Yayınları.

Benevene, P., De Stasio, S., & Fiorilli, C. (2020). Editorial: Well being of school teachers in their work environment. Frontiers in Psychology, 11, 1-4. DOI:10.3389/fpsyg.2020.01239

Demir, S. & Saylik, A. (2021). Organizational image and its relation with leader-member exchange and organizational justice in schools. *European Journal of Educational Sciences, 8*(3), 111-122. http://dx.doi.org/10.19044/ejes.v8no3a111

Eren, E. (2015). Örgütsel davranış ve yönetim psikolojisi. İstanbul: Beta Yayıncılık.

Erginer, A. (2014). İş yaşamının niteliği. C. ELMA ve K. DEMİR (Ed.), içinde Yönetimde çağdaş yaklaşımlar, uygulamalar ve sorunlar (s. 215-234). Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.

Haybron, D. M. (2008). The pursuit of unhappiness: The elusive psychology of well-being. Oxford University Press.

Hefferon, K. & Boniwell, I. (2011). Positive psychology: Theory, research and applications (1th edition). New York: Mc Graw-Hill Open International Publishing Ltd.

Işık, Z., Çetinkaya, N., & Işık, M. F. (2017). Mutluluğun iş tatmini üzerindeki rolü: Erzurum ili palandöken kış turizm merkezinde yer alan konaklama işletmelerindeki kadın çalışanlar üzerine bir uygulama. Atatürk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, 21(2), 457-471.

Kılıç, T. (2019). Güncel yönetim paradigmaları. İstanbul: AZ Yayıncılık.

Koçel, T. (2018). İşletme yöneticiliği. İstanbul: Beta Yayıncılık.

Kreitner, R. & Kinichi, A. (2009). Organizational behaviour (9th ed.). New York: Mc Graw-Hill International Edition.

Özdemir, S., Sever, M., & Acar, O. K. (2020). İş'te mutluluk ölçeğinin geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması. Yönetim ve Ekonomi Araştırmaları Dergisi, 18(2), 1-10. http://dx.doi.org/10.11611/yead.577326

Robbins, S. P. & Judge, T. A. (2011). Organizational behavior. New Jersey: Pearson Education.

Robertson, I. & Cooper, C. (2011). Well-being: Productivity and happiness at work. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Saruhan, Ş. C. & Yıldız, M. L. (2014). İnsan kaynakları yönetimi: Teori ve uygulama. İstanbul: Beta Yayıncılık.

Schein, E. H. (1980). Organizational psychology. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall.

Seligman, M. E. P. (2002). Authentic happiness: Using the new positive psychology to realize your potential for lasting fulfillment. New York: Free Press.

Singh, S. & Aggarwal, Y. (2018). Happiness at work scale: Construction and psychometric validation of a measure using mixed method approach. Journal of Happiness Studies, 19(5), 1439-1463. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-017-9882-x

Şenturan, Ş. (2014). Örnek olaylarla örgütsel davranış. İstanbul: Beta Yayıncılık.

Şimşek, M. Ş., Çelik, A., & Akgemci, T. (2014). Davranış bilimleri. Konya: Eğitim Yayınevi.

Tosun, K. (1990). Yönetim ve işletme politikası. İstanbul: İstanbul Üniversitesi Yayınları.

Tutar, H., Ozturk Baspinar, N., & Guler, S. (2021). Örgütsel dışlanmanın öncülleri ve sonuçları üzerine fenomenolojik bir inceleme. *Journal of Qualitative Research in Education*, 28, 331-350. doi: 10.14689/enad.28.14

Wright, T. & Cropanzano, R. (2004). The role of psychological well-being in job performance: A

fresh look at an age-old quest. Organizational Dynamics, 33, 338-351. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2004.09.002

Sabuncuoğlu, Z. & Tüz, M. (2005). Örgütsel psikoloji. Bursa: Alfa Aktüel Yayıncılık.

Xu, H. (2012). How am I supposed to live without you: An investigation of antecedent and consequences of workplace ostracism? (Doctoral dissertation). The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Department of Management and Marketing, Hong-Kong.

Yılmaz, H. (2017). İşyerinde dışlanma. In S. Polatcı and K. Özyer, (Eds.), 21. yüzyılda örgütsel davranış (pp. 133-152). İstanbul: Beta Yayıncılık.

Appendix

1. Örgütsel Dışlanma Ölçeği (Organizational Exclusion Scale)

Bu işyerinde iş görenler:

1. Benimle selamlaşmazlar.
2. Beni dışlarlar.
3. Ben geldiğimde ortamı terk ederler.
4. Benden uzak dururlar.
5. Zorunlu haller dışında beni grup çalışmalarına dâhil etmezler.
6. Benimle konuşma konusunda isteksizdirler.
7. Sosyal faaliyetlere beni davet etmezler.
8. Benimle göz teması kurmaktan kaçınırlar.
9. İşle ilgili bilgileri benden gizlerler.
10. Beni önemsemezler.
11. Mola zamanlarında beni aralarına almazlar.
12. Mola zamanı dışarıya çıktıklarında bir şey isteyip istemediğimi sormazlar.
13. Benimle yaptıkları konuşmayı kısa tutarlar.
14. Benimle sadece zorunlu hallerde iletişim kurarlar.

2. İş'te Mutluluk Ölçeği (Happiness at Work Scale)

1. Yaptığım işten ilham alırım ve başkalarına ilham vermeye çalışırım.
2. Kurumdayken içimden iyi şeyler yapmak gelir.
3. Kurumumda yaptığım işten keyif alırım
4. Yöneticime yaklaşırken rahat değilim.
5. İşyerinde kendimi stresli hissediyorum.
6. Sık sık işimden ayrılacak gibi hissediyorum.
7. Kurumum işin zamanında tamamlanması için gerekli tüm eğitim ve bilgiyi sağlar.
8. Kurumumda karar alma süreci adil ve hakkaniyetlidir.
9. Kurumumdaki üst düzey yöneticilerin net bir vizyonu ve odağı var
10. Kurumumda ekip çalışmasını ve toplu çaba gerektiren işleri düzenleyen kurallar yoktur.
11. Kurumumda sosyalleşmeyi destekleyen uygun bir ortam yoktur.

12. Kuruma yaptığım katkılar yeterince takdir edilmez.