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From the Editor-in-Chief

Dear readers of Curriculum and Instruction,

There have been some changes in our team with the 13rd volume and 2nd issue of "IJOCIS", the leading journal in the field. First of all, we are grateful to Prof. Dr. Kerim Gündoğdu, from whom I took over the title of Editor-in-Chief and with whom we have worked altogether with harmony and success for years, who has always made great contributions to our journal and still supports us. We would like to express our sincere gratitude to Prof. Dr. Gülsen Ünver, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Dilara Demirbulak, Asst. Prof. Dr. Gülçin Gülmez, Dr. Veysel Karani Ceylan, Burcu Dönmez, Türkü Payza and Çetin Yurtsever for their meticulous work and valuable contributions to the previous issues of our journal. We would like to thank our new Assistant Editors Assoc. Prof. Dr. Derya Yüreğilli Göksu and Asst. Prof. Dr. Anıl Kandemir, our Proofreading Editors Inst. R. Kübra Deniz, Inst. Mehtap Ünal Çalışkan and Ömer Çetin, and our Technical Editors Inst. Oğuz Yılmaz and Alper Ünal, who joined us during the preparation process of our new issue, for their valuable contributions to this issue. We would also like to thank our Editors Assoc. Prof. Dr. Gülçin Tan Şişman and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Semra Tican Başaran, Statistics Editor Prof. Dr. Banu Yücel Toy, Assistant Editors Asst. Prof. Dr. Yasemin Karsantık and Asst. Prof. Dr. Nesrin Öztürk, Proofreading Editors Asst. Prof. Dr. Betül Altay and Ceren Karakoç and our Technical Editor Dr. Metin Kartal who contributed to the issue. In addition, we would like to express our gratitude to Prof. Dr. Özcan Demirel, the honorary owner of our journal and the doyen of our field, and Assoc. Prof. Dr. M. Cem Babadoğan, the owner of our journal and President of TACI/EPÖDER, and the members of the Editorial Board for their support.

We congratulate all authors who contributed to the publication of this issue and wish them continued success in the future. In addition, we would like to thank all expert reviewers for taking the necessary time and effort to review the manuscripts carefully and their devoted contributions to the journal.

In the last issue of 2023 of the "International Journal of Educational Curriculum and Instructional Studies", there are manuscipts that cover a wide range of topics, which we consider to be valuable. Studies about "teachers' professional identity typologies, teachers' designer roles, digital citizenship, Q methodology approach, attitudes of learners learning Turkish as a second language, e-learning performance assessment model proposal and systematic meta-evaluation of curriculum evaluation research studies" are included.

We continue to work with diligence, seriousness, and consistency without expecting anything in return for IJOCIS to be indexed in other reputable and global citation databases. As always, we invite all educators working in the field of Curriculum and Instruction, to submit original and high-quality studies that align with the focus of the journal.

With our best regards.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Aslıhan Selcen BİNGÖL

Baş Editörden

Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim alanının değerli okurları,

Alanın öncü dergisi olan "IJOCIS"in 13. Cilt 2. Sayısıyla birlikte ekibimizde bazı değişiklikler oldu. Öncelikle Baş Editörlük bayrağını kendisinden devraldığım, yıllardır birlikte uyum ve başarı ile çalıştığımız, dergimize her zaman çok büyük katkılar sağlamış ve desteğini hala esirgemeyen değerli Hocamız Prof. Dr. Kerim Gündoğdu'ya minnettarız. Yine, dergimizin önceki sayılarında yapmış oldukları titiz çalışmalar ve değerli katkılarından dolayı Prof. Dr. Gülsen Ünver, Doç. Dr. Dilara Demirbulak, Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Gülçin Gülmez, Dr. Veysel Karani Ceylan, Burcu Dönmez, Türkü Payza ve Çetin Yurtsever'e en içten teşekkürlerimizi sunuyoruz. Yeni sayımızın hazırlık sürecinde aramıza katılan yeni Yardımcı Editörlerimiz Doç. Dr. Derya Yüreğilli Göksu ve Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Anıl Kandemir'e; Dil Editörlerimiz Öğr. Gör. R. Kübra Deniz, Öğr. Gör. Mehtap Ünal Çalışkan ve Ömer Çetin'e ve Teknik Editörlerimiz Öğr. Gör. Oğuz Yılmaz ve Alper Ünal'a sayımıza sağladıkları değerli katkılar için teşekkür ediyoruz. Sayıya katkı veren Editörlerimiz Doç. Dr. Gülçin Tan Şişman ve Doç. Dr. Semra Tican Başaran'a, İstatistik Editörümüz Prof. Dr. Banu Yücel Toy'a, Yardımcı Editörlerimiz Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Yasemin Karsantık ve Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Nesrin Öztürk'e, Dil Editörlerimiz Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Betül Altay ve Ceren Karakoç'a ve Teknik Editörümüz Dr. Metin Kartal'a teşekkürlerimizi sunuyoruz. Ayrıca, başta dergimizin onursal sahibi ve alanımızın duayeni Prof. Dr. Özcan Demirel'e, dergimizin sahibi ve EPÖDER Başkanı Doç. Dr. M. Cem Babadoğan'a ve Dergi Yayın Kurulu üyelerine destekleri için şükranlarımızı bildiriyoruz.

Sayımıza katkıda bulunan tüm yazarlarımızı çalışmalarından dolayı tebrik ediyor ve başarılarının devamını diliyoruz. Ayrıca değerlendirme tekliflerimizi geri çevirmeyip, makaleleri titizlikle inceleyen alanlarında uzman tüm akademisyenlerimize ve editörler kuruluna dergimizin yayımlanması için yapmış oldukları özverili katkılarından dolayı çok teşekkür ederiz.

2023 yılının son sayısını yayımladığımız "Uluslararası Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim Çalışmaları Dergisi'nde oldukça geniş bir yelpazeyi kapsayan Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim alanı ile ilgili birbirinden değerli makaleler yer almaktadır. "Öğretmenlerin mesleki kimlik tipolojileri, tasarımcı öğretmen rolleri, dijital vatandaşlık, Q metodolojisi yaklaşımı, Türkçeyi ikinci dil olarak öğrenenlerin tutumları, E-öğrenme başarı değerlendirme model önerisi ve program değerlendirme araştırmalarının sistematik meta-değerlendirmesi" ile ilgili çalışmalara yer verilmiştir.

Dergimizin diğer uluslararası veri tabanlarında da dizinlenmesi için titizlik, ciddiyet ve tutarlılıkla çalışmaya devam ediyor, Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim alanında çalışan ülkemizdeki ve dünyadaki tüm eğitimcileri dergimize bilimsel niteliği yüksek ve özgün çalışmalar göndermeleri için çağrıda bulunuyoruz.

Esenlik dileklerimizle...

Doç. Dr. Aslıhan Selcen BİNGÖL

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Attitudes Toward Turkish Culture and Social Cohesion of Turkish Learners as a Second Language

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Abstract

This relational survey study aims to determine the relationship between the attitudes of students learning Turkish as a second language towards Turkish culture and their social cohesion. The participants were determined by criterion sampling. 189 international learners studying Turkish at various Turkish universities participated in the study. The data were gathered through the Attitude Towards Turkish Culture Scale and the Social Cohesion Scale for Immigrants. Parametric tests were used for data analysis. The study's findings revealed that Turkish language learners' attitudes toward Turkish culture were significantly more favorable toward Asians in terms of their regions of origin and toward the Ural-Altaic language family in terms of their mother tongues. However, there was no significant difference in attitude scores depending on their knowledge of other language(s), reasons for visiting Türkiye, and length of stay in Türkiye. In the social cohesion scores of Turkish as a second language learner, a significant difference was found in favor of those from the "Ural-Altaic language family" in some sub-dimensions concerning the language family of the participants. In addition, there was a significant difference only in the belonging dimension of the scale depending on the length of stay in Türkiye - in favor of those who stayed in Türkiye between 2-4 years. However, no significant difference was found in cohesion scores by region, their knowledge of other language(s), and the reasons for visiting Türkiye. Finally, the moderate positive correlation between the participants' attitudes towards Turkish culture and their social cohesion indicates that students with positive attitudes also have a higher level of social cohesion.

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Introduction

In recent years, many positive and negative developments in the world (technology, transportation, interest/curiosity, disasters, war, and security issues, etc.) have created a rationale for mass migration or transnational activities. This encourages engagement with the sociocultural and interactional conditions experienced in other countries. The boundaries of these conditions are determined by the individual's motivation and competencies to participate, as well as the country's equal opportunities for participation. Current research draws attention to social cohesion, which enables the elimination of boundaries for the development of individuals and society (Ager & Strang, 2008; Lam, 2006).

Social cohesion is the ability to acquire skills appropriate to the host culture and to assume roles appropriate to these skills in natural social contexts; it refers to positive social relationships. Dragolov et al. (2013) argue that social cohesion has three dimensions, namely social relations, connectedness, and focus on the common good. Social relations refer to social networks, trust between people, and acceptance of diversity; connectedness refers to identification, trust in institutions, and perception of justice; and focus on the common good refers to solidarity/charity, respect for social rules, and civic engagement. The sustainability of the diversity of nations based on the coexistence of different cultural identities requires the internalization of all dimensions of social cohesion. Social cohesion, which involves mutual trust and understanding between groups, is one of the main topics of education in multicultural societies. An understanding of education individual and social functions which are structured on the axis of 'respect for differences' has a significant potential to increase social cohesion (Nesterova, Dielini & Zamozhskyi, 2019; Roberts-Schweitzer, Greaney & Duer, 2006). Language is a major factor in utilizing this potential. Indeed, language is at the center of understanding the host society, adapting to it, and establishing social ties (Aydın & Altuntaş-Gürsoy, 2022; Derwing & Waugh, 2012; Esser, 2006; Lam, 2006). Esser (2006) states that language functions as a symbol of belonging or alienation. Ozer (2015) and Duru and Poyrazlı (2011) provide evidence that language proficiency level is a predictor of sociocultural cohesion. This is precisely why individuals/groups whose sociocultural experiences are different from those of the host community develop a strong interest in learning the language of that community, in line with the causal relationship between language and adaptation. Language functions as a communication channel to sustain cohesion.

Language teaching courses are not only the courses in which linguistic knowledge is presented. The complex intertwining of language and culture necessitates the introduction of formal or hidden curricula that reflect cultural contexts in language teaching. The hidden curriculum, which is based on content outside the explicit/formal curriculum, has a direct relationship with the knowledge and skills that foreign individuals need to survive in the target society. From this perspective, cultural backgrounds/identities are accepted as an element of the hidden curriculum (Türedi, 2008). In terms of referring to values, behaviors, and norms that always exist in the educational environment but are not spoken or written down, the hidden curriculum is effective in transferring societies' peculiar views and ways of thinking, in the continuity of traditions and customs, and in creating real changes (Altın & Gündoğdu, 2022). In this framework, it can contribute to the quality of learning the language that gains meaning in real contexts of use appropriate to the target culture rather than structural rules; teaching materials, activities and practices, attitudes and behaviors, individual/social interactions, etc. It

can develop intercultural awareness through its influence on many factors. The hidden curriculum in language teaching refers to the organization of background knowledge for the learner's adaptation to the target culture. The meaningful use of receptive and productive language skills depends on the pedagogical quality of this organization. The hidden curriculum has the potential to prepare the learner to engage with sociocultural knowledge and behaviors as well as linguistic processes. It therefore has a high possibility to facilitate active participation, increasing the desire to learn, the use of language for communicative purposes, and the socialization of learners as global citizens. This can lead to a flexible, cooperative, and quality-oriented approach towards the target community. It is essential to improve positive attitudes towards different cultures in language teaching. Mei (2015) argues that language teachers' attitudes toward the hidden curriculum can help to better understand and implement the formal curriculum. An increase in the learner's positive perceptions will bring about a desirable improvement in attitude and compliance.

One of the biggest problems of international students involved in education and training processes in another country is the problem of cohesion (Gallagher, 2013; Osmanlı, 2018; Tanaka, 2002). The level and speed of overcoming this problem differs for each student depending on past experiences in the target culture. Preferences regarding acculturation orientation (assimilation, integration, separation, or marginality) and cultural distance can be decisive here (Ozer, 2015; Smith & Khawaja, 2011). As distance increases, which focuses on the level of overlap and divergence in cultural representations (language, beliefs, lifestyle, values, and norms, etc.), it becomes more difficult to learn skills specific to the target culture (Aydın, 2020; Masgoret & Ward, 2006). In related studies, it has been reported that students who find similarities in terms of sociocultural characteristics have easier social cohesion (Li, 2015; Ozer, 2015; Ward & Kennedy, 1999; Yeh & Inose, 2003), while those with significant differences have difficulty in cohesion (Constantine at all., 2005; Swagler & Ellis, 2003). Problems such as language and communication problems, coping with differences, anxiety/stress, lack of friends, homesickness, and cohesion in academic life are the most common problems faced by international students in their cohesion to the host society (Ana, 2020; Andrade, 2006; Mesidor & Sly, 2016; Mori, 2000; Sawir, Marginson, Deumert, Nyland & Ramia, 2008). On the other hand, problems arising from the reciprocity of integration are also undeniable. Being discriminated against, treated unfairly, and unwanted by the host community, as well as being seen as a security problem and legal problems (Duman, 2019; Tekinyer, 2022) are some of them.

It is also possible to see the above-mentioned problems in international students learning Turkish as a second language. For students to fully participate in Turkish society, all components of cohesion should be put to work following the principle of reciprocity. What is essential here is to build a "third place" between the source culture and the target culture (Bhabha, 1988; Kramsch, 1993; Oldenburg, 1989). The third place is an inclusive space, where all are psychologically and physiologically comfortable, where no one is required to host anyone else, and where individuals have developed sensitivity towards each other. In this space, students are encouraged to be active interactors/sharers in the host society, not just passive recipients/learners. Creating this space can positively change attitudes towards Turkish culture and, as a natural consequence, can facilitate social cohesion. Cultural activities organized to create common spaces increase motivation, success, and progress towards integration (Çağış, 2022; Özden, 2021). Göktaş and Mercan (2022) found that cultural adaptation courses prepared for learners of Turkish as a second language facilitate cohesion to social life.

The literature shows that there has been a significant increase in the number of international students in Türkiye, especially with the recent increase in migration and educational effects. This increase has also manifested itself in academic research trends on social cohesion. It is noteworthy that the research is particularly concentrated in the fields of social work (Arifoğlu, 2022; Ayyıldız, 2023; Özçetin, 2013; Şahin, 2021; Tekinyer, 2022) and psychology (Ana, 2020; Özdemir, 2022; Saygın & Hasta, 2018; Türel, 2021). Although there are studies examining the perceptions and experiences of international students towards Turkish culture (Alptekin & Kaplan, 2018; Çelik, 2014; Ünal, 2018), studies that relate these experiences to the compatibility with the attitudes determined by these experiences are quite limited (Göktaş & Mercan, 2022).

Since people from different cultures have different processes of interpretation, comparison, association, and evaluation, it is rational for them to develop different attitudes toward the characteristics and vital dynamics of society. The quality of attitudes that guide behaviors can predict coping with new sociocultural codes, in other words, social cohesion. Positive or negative attitudes towards Turkish culture and educational environments are also thought to affect the level of cohesion. It can be argued that this issue will be strongly influenced by the hidden curriculum of the language learning environments. The purpose of this study is to determine the relationship between attitudes toward Turkish culture and the social cohesion of international students who learn Turkish as a second language.

In line with this general purpose, answers to the following questions were searched for:

1. Do the attitudes of learners of Turkish as a second language towards Turkish culture and their social cohesion levels differ concerning

- the regions they come from?
- language family?
- knowledge of other language(s)?
- the reason for visiting Türkiye?
- the duration of their stay in Türkiye?

2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between Turkish as a second language learners' attitudes towards Turkish culture and their social cohesion?

Method

Research Design

In the present quantitative study, a correlational design was employed. Correlational research is preferred to determine the relationships between variables and the degree of these relationships without any intervention (Büyüköztürk et al., 2012; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013).

Participants

Criterion sampling, which is one of the purposive sampling methods involving the selection of individuals, phenomena, objects or situations with certain characteristics, was used to determine the participants (Büyüköztürk et al., 2012; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2013). The participants of this study consisted of 189 foreign learners studying the Turkish language at the Turkish and Foreign Languages Application and Research Center (TÖMER&DİLMER) in different universities in Türkiye in the academic year 2022-2023. For the participants to be able to understand and

answer the scales correctly, it was determined as the basic criterion that they should know Turkish at the C1 level. Data were gathered from 219 participants, but since 25 participants submitted incomplete or invalid responses to the scales, the data from 194 participants were used. After the normality assumption and outlier checks, the data of 189 participants were included in the statistical analysis. The descriptive data of the foreign learners who participated in the study are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Descriptive Data of the Participants

Variables	*Variables*	*N*	*%*
Gender	Female	100	52,90
	Male	89	47,10
Nationality (Continents)	Asia	133	70,40
	Africa	38	20,10
	Other	18	9,50
Mother-Tongue Family	Indo Europe	55	29,10
	Semitic	62	32,80
	Ural Altaic	64	33,90
	Other	8	4,20
Other Language Proficiency	Single	14	7,40
	Two	85	45,00
	Three	54	28,60
	Four	25	13,20
	Five +	11	5,80
Reason for Visiting Türkiye	Education	152	80,40
	War and safety issues	22	11,60
	Other	15	7,90
Length of Stay in Türkiye	0-1 year	77	40,70
	2-4 years	58	30,70
	5-7 years	32	16,90
	8 + years	22	11,60
	Total	189	100

A total of 189 people, 100 women (52.9%) and 89 men (47.1%) participated in the study. Analysis of the participants' places of origin reveals that 133 (70.4%) of the participants are from Asia, 38 (20.1%) are from Africa, and 18 (9.5%) are from other continents. In addition, there are 14 (7.4%) monolingual people, 85 (45%) who are bilingual, 54 (28.6%) who are trilingual, 25 (13.2%) who are quadrilingual, and 11 (5.8%) who know five or more languages. In terms of the reason for visiting Türkiye, 152 (80.4%) of the participants came for education, 22 (11.6%) came because of the war, and 15 (7.9%) came for other reasons such as economy or climatic conditions. In terms of the length of their stay in Türkiye, 77 people (40.7%) have been living in Türkiye for just 0-1 years, 58 people (30.7%) for 2-4 years, 32 people (16.9%) for 5-7 years, and 22 people (11.6%) for eight or more years.

Data Collection Tools

The research data were gathered with the 'Attitudes Towards Turkish Culture Scale' (ATTCS) developed by Sallabaş and Gök (2021) and the 'Social Cohesion Scale for Immigrants' (SCS) developed by Kaya (2022). The written permission of the mentioned authors was obtained for the use of the scales. The scales were transferred to an online environment and a link address was created to be sent to the participants. In the posted link, the participants were first informed about the research, and their voluntary approval was obtained, then they were asked to fill out the scales.

The ATTCS was developed as a five-point Likert-type scale with 21 items to be applied to foreign students. The scale includes items such as "I feel Turkish culture is very close to my own culture", "I can say that Türkiye is my second country", "Turkish culture is very foreign to me", etc. The calculated KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) value (.897) and Bartlet's test value (.00) of the scale revealed that it was suitable for exploratory factor analysis. As a result of the exploratory factor analysis, two sub-dimensions were identified. The "interest" dimension consists of 16 items and the "reluctance" dimension consists of five items. In the analyses, the lowest score of 21 and the highest score of 105 can be obtained from the scale. The Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient of the scale was calculated as .89 in the interest sub-dimension and .84 in the reluctance sub-dimension. The reliability coefficient for the whole scale was found to be .89 (Sallabaş & Gök, 2021).

The SCS for Immigrants was developed as 28 items on a five-point Likert scale to be applied to immigrants living in Türkiye. The scale includes items such as "I do not feel that I belong to this country", "I do not see a better future for myself in this country", "I am struggling to get used to this country", etc. Exploratory factor analysis revealed six interrelated sub-dimensions. The sub-dimensions of the scale are "exclusion" (six items), "belonging" (five items), "psychological and social support" (five items), "individual factors" (five items), "hope" (four items), and "past experiences" (three items). Based on the analysis, the items accounted for 59.44% of the total variation. The confirmatory factor analysis revealed that the model fit indices showed an excellent fit. A minimum score of 28 and a maximum score of 140 can be obtained from the scale. Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient of the scale was calculated as .83 in the exclusion sub-dimension, .86 in the belonging sub-dimension, .78 in the psychological, and social support sub-dimension, .80 in the individual factors sub-dimension, .84 in the hope sub-dimension, and .82 in the past experiences sub-dimension. The reliability coefficient for the whole scale was .82 (Kaya, 2022).

Analysis of the Data

After the data were imported into the SPSS 24.0 program, it was checked whether the data were normally distributed. Kolmogrov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk normality tests were performed to determine whether the data were normally distributed, and the normality assumption was checked by checking the kurtosis and skewness values of the data. If these values are within ±1.5 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014) or ±1 (Field, 2013), it can be assumed that the normality assumption is accepted. The kurtosis and skewness values of the data obtained in the study are within the range of ±1. The values obtained for the control of the normality assumption are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Results of Normality Test

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov (p)	*Shapiro-Wilk (p)*	*Kurtosis*	*Skewness*
ATTCS	.003	.214	-.222	-.157
SCS	.200	.027	.180	-.393

As a result of the normality test results and skewness and kurtosis values together, it was assumed that the data obtained in this study provided the normality assumption. Therefore, it was found more convenient to use parametric tests in the analysis of the data.

Results

Results of the First Research Question

Within the scope of the first main research question of the study, "Turkish as a second language learners' attitudes towards Turkish culture and their social cohesion" were analyzed in terms of different variables. In this section, the findings obtained from the analysis of these variables are given respectively.

One-way ANOVA was carried out to find the answer to the question "Do the attitudes of learners of Turkish as a second language towards Turkish culture and their social cohesion differ concerning the continents they come from?". The descriptive statistics and ANOVA results of the participants' scores on the ATTCS concerning the participants' continents are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

One-way ANOVA Results Regarding the Attitude Levels Towards Turkish Culture Concerning Continents

Cont.	*N*	*X̄*	*Sd*			*Sum of Squares*	*Df*	*Mean of Squares*	*F*	*p*	*Diff.*
Asia	133	3,94	,571	Interest	Inter-G	2,773	2	1,387	4,421	.013	Asia> Africa
Africa	38	3,64	,578		Intra-G	58,347	186	,314			
Other	18	3,94	,421		Total	61,121	188				
Total	189	3,88	,570								
Asia	133	3,95	,805	Reluctance	Inter-G	,372	2	,186	,343	.710	
Africa	38	3,88	,471		Intra-G	100,861	186	,542			
Other	18	3,81	,645		Total	101,232	188				
Total	189	3,92	,734								
Asia	133	3,94	,506	Total	Inter-G	1,794	2	,897	3,642	.028	Asia> Africa
Africa	38	3,70	,494		Intra-G	45,817	186	,246			
Other	18	3,91	,418		Total	47,611	188				
Total	189	3,89	,503								

As Table 3 shows, participants from the Asia scored higher than participants from other continents in the overall scale and all subscales. One-way analysis of variance was conducted to determine whether this difference was statistically significant. Based on the results of the analysis, there was no statistically significant difference in the reluctance sub-dimension of the scale concerning the continent of origin. However, there was a statistically significant difference between the participants in the overall scale ($F= 3.642$, $p< .05$) and in the sub-dimension of interest ($F= 4.421$, $p< .05$). Scheffe test, one of the Post Hoc tests, was used to determine which

groups this difference was between. Accordingly, there was a statistically significant difference between the participants from Asia and Africa in favor of the participants from Asia. Participants from Asia have more positive attitudes towards Turkish culture than those from Africa. The descriptive statistics and ANOVA results of the participants' scores on the SCS concerning their continents are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

One-Way ANOVA Results on Social Cohesion Levels of the Participants Concerning Continents

Cont.	*N*	*x̄*	*Sd*			*Sum of Squares*	*Df*	*Mean of Squares*	*F*	*p*
Asia	133	3,21	,553	Exclusion	Inter-G	,487	2	,243	,815	.444
Africa	38	3,10	,531		Intra-G	55,566	186	,299		
Other	18	3,28	,533		Total	56,053	188			
Total	189	3,19	,546							
Asia	133	3,58	,571	Belonging	Inter-G	1,965	2	,983	2,878	.059
Africa	38	3,33	,621		Intra-G	63,497	186	,341		
Other	18	3,43	,603		Total	65,462	188			
Total	189	3,51	,590							
Asia	133	3,46	,510	Support	Inter-G	,170	2	,085	,333	.717
Africa	38	3,49	,511		Intra-G	47,400	186	,255		
Other	18	3,57	,451		Total	47,570	188			
Total	189	3,48	,503							
Asia	133	3,54	,659	Individual Factors	Inter-G	,053	2	,027	,067	.935
Africa	38	3,52	,551		Intra-G	73,787	186	,397		
Other	18	3,49	,554		Total	73,840	188			
Total	189	3,53	,627							
Asia	133	3,78	,630	Hope	Inter-G	,014	2	,007	,017	.983
Africa	38	3,80	,655		Intra-G	77,058	186	,414		
Other	18	3,78	,717		Total	77,071	188			
Total	189	3,79	,640							
Asia	133	3,23	,686	Past Experience	Inter-G	2,665	2	1,332	2,884	.058
Africa	38	3,07	,707		Intra-G	85,926	186	,462		
Other	18	3,54	,562		Total	88,590	188			
Total	189	3,23	,686							
Asia	133	3,46	,325	Total	Inter-G	,233	2	,117	1,079	.342
Africa	38	3,38	,335		Intra-G	20,097	186	,108		
Other	18	3,49	,340		Total	20,330	188			
Total	189	3,45	,329							

In Table 4, the mean scores obtained from the overall scale are ranked from largest to smallest as those from other continents ($\bar{X}$= 3.49, sd= .340), Asia ($\bar{x}$=3.46, sd= .325), and Africa ($\bar{X}$= 3.38, sd= .335). The results of the one-way analysis of variance conducted to determine whether the mean scores of the participants differed concerning their continents stated no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the participants in the whole scale and its sub-dimensions. Accordingly, although the mean scores of the participants from other continents are higher than those from Asia and Africa, this difference is not statistically significant. In other words, it was found that the continents they came from did not show a significant difference in their social cohesion.

One-way ANOVA was carried out to find the answer to the question "Do the attitudes of learners of Turkish as a second language towards Turkish culture and their social cohesion differ concerning the language families of their mother tongue?". The descriptive statistics and ANOVA results of the participants' scores on the ATTCS concerning the language family are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

One-Way ANOVA Results Regarding the Attitude Levels Towards Turkish Culture Concerning the Language Family of the Participants' Mother Tongue

Language Family	*N*	*x̄*	*Sd*			*Sum of Squares*	*Df*	*Mean of Squares*	*F*	*p*	*Diff*
Indo-Europe	55	3,86	,576	Interest	Inter-G	1,943	3	,648	2,025	.112	
Semitic	62	3,82	,572		Intra-G	59,178	185	,320			
Ural-Altaic	64	3,99	,568		Total	61,121	188				
Other	8	3,55	,377								
Total	189	3,88	,570								
Indo-Europe	55	3,88	,656	Reluctance	Inter-G	4,588	3	1,529	2,928	.035	Ural-Altaic> Other
Semitic	62	3,96	,558		Intra-G	96,644	185	,522			
Ural-Altaic	64	4,01	,904		Total	101,232	188				
Other	8	3,23	,645								
Total	189	3,92	,734								
Indo-Europe	55	3,87	,502	Total	Inter-G	2,247	3	,749	3,055	.030	Ural-Altaic> Other
Semitic	62	3,85	,499		Intra-G	45,364	185	,245			
Ural-Altay	64	4,00	,501		Total	47,611	188				
Other	8	3,48	,327								
Total	189	3,89	,503								

The participants scored close to the middle level on the overall scale ($\bar{X}$= 3.89, sd= .503). Concerning the language family of their mother tongue, they were ranked as Ural-Altaic ($\bar{X}$= 4.00, sd= .501), Indo-European ($\bar{X}$= 3.87, sd= .502), Hami-Sami ($\bar{X}$= 3.85, sd= .499), and other language families ($\bar{X}$= 3.48, sd= .327). ANOVA was conducted to determine whether this difference between the groups was significant. Based on the results of the analysis, there was a statistically significant difference between the groups in the whole scale (F= 3.055, p< .05) and in the reluctance dimension (F= 2.928, p< .05). Post Hoc Scheffe test was applied to determine which language families these differences were between. There was a statistically significant difference between the participants from the Ural-Altaic language family and the participants from other language families in favor of the Ural-Altaic language family in both the overall scale and the reluctance sub-dimension. Accordingly, it can be said that people belonging to the Ural-Altaic language family have more positive attitudes towards Turkish culture than those in the other group. Descriptive statistics and ANOVA results of the participants' SCS scores concerning the language family of their mother tongues are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

One-Way ANOVA Results Regarding the Social Cohesion Levels of the Participants Concerning the Language Family of the Participants' Mother Tongue

Language Family	*N*	*X̄*	*Sd*			*Sum of Squares*	*Df*	*Mean of Squares*	*F*	*p*	*Diff*
Indo-Europe	55	3,24	,538	Exclusion	Inter-G	2,784	3	,928	3,223	.024	Ural> Indo
Semitic	62	3,02	,532		Intra-G	53,269	185	,288			
Ural-Altaic	64	3,30	,552		Total	56,053	188				
Other	8	3,33	,418								
Total	189	3,19	,546								
Indo-Europe	55	3,47	,582	Belonging	Inter-G	3,653	3	1,218	3,645	.014	Ural> Other
Semitic	62	3,46	,528		Intra-G	61,809	185	,334			
Ural-Altaic	64	3,66	,619		Total	65,462	188				
Other	8	3,00	,586								
Total	189	3,51	,590								
Indo-Europe	55	3,59	,458	Support	Inter-G	1,287	3	,429	1,715	,166	
Semitic	62	3,38	,517		Intra-G	46,283	185	,250			
Ural-Altaic	64	3,49	,531		Total	47,570	188				
Other	8	3,40	,355								
Total	189	3,48	,503								
Indo-Europe	55	3,57	,571	Individual Factors	Inter-G	2,227	3	,742	1,918	,128	
Semitic	62	3,65	,546		Intra-G	71,613	185	,387			
Ural-Altaic	64	3,42	,726		Total	73,840	188				
Other	8	3,28	,604								
Total	189	3,53	,627								
Indo-Europe	55	3,77	,735	Hope	Inter-G	1,899	3	,633	1,558	,201	
Semitic	62	3,89	,563		Intra-G	75,172	185	,406			
Ural-Altaic	64	3,75	,640		Total	77,071	188				
Other	8	3,41	,352								
Total	189	3,79	,640								
Indo-Europe	55	3,28	,753	Past Experiences	Inter-G	4,411	3	1,470	3,231	,024	Ural> Indo
Semitic	62	3,02	,631		Intra-G	84,180	185	,455			
Ural-Altaic	64	3,38	,669		Total	88,590	188				
Other	8	3,25	,388								
Total	189	3,23	,686								
Indo-Europe	55	3,48	,357	Total	Inter-G	,567	3	,189	1,769	,155	
Semitic	62	3,40	,301		Intra-G	19,763	185	,107			
Ural-Altaic	64	3,49	,328		Total	20,330	188				
Other	8	3,28	,292								
Total	189	3,45	,329								

In Table 6, the mean scores obtained from the overall SCS were respectively Ural-Altaic (X̄= 3.49, sd= .328), Indo-European (X̄= 3.48, sd= .357), Hami-Sami (X̄= 3.40, ss= .301), and other language families (X̄= 3.28, sd= .329). The results of one-way analysis of variance conducted to determine whether these score differences between language families are significant show

that there is no statistically significant difference between the scores obtained from the whole scale concerning the language family of their mother tongue. However, a statistically significant difference was found in the sub-dimensions of exclusion (F= 3.223, p< .05), belonging (F= 3.645, p< .05), and past experiences (F= 3.231, p< .05). Post Hoc Scheffe test was conducted to determine which language families these differences were between. Accordingly, it was determined that participants from the Ural-Altaic language family had statistically significantly higher mean scores than those from the Hami-Sami language family in the exclusion and past experiences sub-dimensions of the social cohesion scale. However, in the past experiences sub-dimension of the scale, there was a statistically significant difference in favor of the participants from the Ural-Altaic language family compared to the participants from other language families.

One-way ANOVA was carried out to find the answer to the question "Do the attitudes of learners of Turkish as a second language towards Turkish culture and their social cohesion differ concerning their knowledge of other language(s)?". The descriptive statistics and ANOVA results of the participants' scores on the ATTCS concerning the number of other languages they speak are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

One-Way ANOVA Results Regarding Participants' Attitudes Towards Turkish Culture Concerning the Number of Other Languages Spoken

Lang.	*N*	*X̄*	*Sd*			*Sum of Squares*	*Df*	*Mean of Squares*	*F*	*p*	*Diff.*
1 Lang.	14	3,42	,576	Interest	Inter-G	4,904	4	1,226	4,013	.004	3Lang.> 1Lang.
2 Lang.	85	3,85	,572		Intra-G	56,217	184	,306			
3 Lang.	54	3,92	,567		Total	61,121	188				
4 Lang.	25	4,14	,509								
5+Lang.	11	3,92	,346								
Total	189	3,88	,570								
1 Lang.	14	3,93	,585	Reluctance	Inter-G	1,642	4	,411	,759	.553	
2 Lang.	85	3,90	,652		Intra-G	99,590	184	,541			
3 Lang.	54	3,84	,842		Total	101,232	188				
4 Lang.	25	4,12	,870								
5+Lang.	11	4,07	,608								
Total	189	3,92	,734								
1 Lang.	14	3,54	,532	Total	Inter-G	3,377	4	,844	3,511	.009	3Lang.> 1lang.
2 Lang.	85	3,86	,505		Intra-G	44,235	184	,240			
3 Lang.	54	3,90	,478		Total	47,611	188				
4 Lang.	25	4,14	,485								
5+Lang.	11	3,96	,375								
Total	189	3,89	,503								

Table 7 presents that the mean scores obtained from the overall scale were four languages (X̄= 4.14, sd= .485), five or more languages (X̄= 3. 96, sd= .375), three languages (X̄= 3.90, sd= .478), two languages (X̄= 3.86, sd= .505) and finally one language (X̄= 3.54, sd= .532). It is observed that those who speak only one language have the lowest mean score. ANOVA was conducted to determine whether the score differences between the groups were statistically significant. Based on the results of the analysis, there was a statistically significant difference between the groups in the whole scale (F= 3.511, p< .05) and in the sub-dimension of interest (F= 4.013, p< .05). Concerning the results of the Scheffe test conducted to determine the number of languages between these differences, it was found that there was a statistically

significant difference between trilingual speakers and monolingual speakers both in the whole scale and in the sub-dimension of interest. In other words, it can be said that trilingual speakers have more positive attitudes towards Turkish culture than monolingual speakers. Table 8 presents the descriptive statistics and ANOVA results regarding the social cohesion levels of the participants concerning the number of other languages they speak.

Table 8

One-Way ANOVA Results Regarding Participants' Social Cohesion Levels Concerning the Number of Other Languages Spoken

Lang.	*N*	*x̄*	*Sd*			*Sum of Squares*	*Df*	*Mean of Squares*	*F*	*p*
1 Lang.	14	2,89	,517	Exclusion	Inter-G	2,221	4	,555	1,898	.113
2 Lang.	85	3,16	,560		Intra-G	53,832	184	,293		
3 Lang.	54	3,23	,532		Total	56,053	188			
4 Lang.	25	3,36	,552							
5+Lang.	11	3,27	,410							
Total	189	3,19	,546							
1 Lang.	14	3,29	,586	Belonging	Inter-G	2,785	4	,696	2,044	.090
2 Lang.	85	3,47	,580		Intra-G	62,677	184	,341		
3 Lang.	54	3,49	,575		Total	65,462	188			
4 Lang.	25	3,75	,601							
5+Lang.	11	3,71	,616							
Total	189	3,51	,590							
1 Lang.	14	3,33	,626	Support	Inter-G	,735	4	,184	,722	.578
2 Lang.	85	3,52	,486		Intra-G	46,834	184	,255		
3 Lang.	54	3,43	,526		Total	47,570	188			
4 Lang.	25	3,50	,375							
5+Lang.	11	3,58	,623							
Total	189	3,48	,503							
1 Lang.	14	3,41	,552	Individual Factors	Inter-G	,914	4	,229	,577	.680
2 Lang.	85	3,60	,604		Intra-G	72,926	184	,396		
3 Lang.	54	3,53	,637		Total	73,840	188			
4 Lang.	25	3,44	,723							
5+Lang.	11	3,42	,654							
Total	189	3,53	,627							
1 Lang.	14	3,75	,658	Hope	Inter-G	,796	4	,199	,480	.750
2 Lang.	85	3,83	,635		Intra-G	76,275	184	,415		
3 Lang.	54	3,69	,639		Total	77,071	188			
4 Lang.	25	3,84	,710							
5+Lang.	11	3,86	,552							
Total	189	3,79	,640							
1 Lang.	14	3,21	,549	Past Experiences	Inter-G	,940	4	,235	,494	.741
2 Lang.	85	3,21	,700		Intra-G	87,650	184	,476		
3 Lang.	54	3,17	,740		Total	88,590	188			
4 Lang.	25	3,33	,714							
5+Lang.	11	3,42	,368							
Total	189	3,23	,686							
1 Lang.	14	3,29	,301	Total	Inter-G	,645	4	,161	1,506	.202
2 Lang.	85	3,46	,323		Intra-G	19,686	184	,107		
3 Lang.	54	3,43	,354		Total	20,330	188			
4 Lang.	25	3,53	,322							
5+Lang.	11	3,53	,249							
Total	189	3,45	,329							

Table 8 shows that the mean scores of the participants on the entire SCS concerning the number of other languages they know are as follows: four languages ($\bar{X}$= 3.53, sd= .322), five or more languages ($\bar{X}$= 3.53, sd= .249), two languages ($\bar{X}$= 3.46, sd= .323), three languages ($\bar{X}$= 3.43, sd= .354) and one language ($\bar{X}$= 3.29, sd= .301). Accordingly, it is understood that speaking more than one language is positive in terms of social cohesion. Based on the results of the one-way analysis of variance conducted to determine whether this difference between the groups was significant or not, it was seen that there was no statistically significant difference between the social cohesion levels of the participants concerning the number of other languages they knew. In other words, the differences between the mean scores of the groups were found to be statistically insignificant.

One-way ANOVA was carried out to find the answer to the question "Do the attitudes of learners of Turkish as a second language towards Turkish culture and their social cohesion differ concerning the reason for visiting Türkiye?" The descriptive statistics and ANOVA results of the participants' scores on the ATTCS concerning the reason for visiting Türkiye are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

One-Way ANOVA Results Regarding the Social Cohesion Levels of the Participants Concerning the Reason for Visiting Türkiye

Reason	*N*	*$\bar{X}$*	*Sd*			*Sum of Squares*	*Df*	*Mean of Squares*	*F*	*p*
Education	152	3,86	,581	Interest	Inter-G	,909	2	,454	1,404	.248
War and Safety	22	4,06	,433		Intra-G	60,212	186	,324		
Other	15	3,79	,618		Total	61,121	188			
Total	189	3,88	,570							
Education	152	3,96	,723	Reluctance	Inter-G	1,143	2	,572	1,062	.348
War and Safety	22	3,82	,790		Intra-G	100,089	186	,538		
Other	15	3,71	,759		Total	101,232	188			
Total	189	3,92	,734							
Education	152	3,89	,504	Total	Inter-G	,513	2	,257		
War and Safety	22	4,00	,426		Intra-G	47,098	186	,253	1,013	.365
Other	15	3,77	,595		Total	47,611	188			
Total	189	3,89	,503							

Table 9 points out that the group with the highest attitude score towards Turkish culture is those who came because of the war ($\bar{X}$= 4.00, sd=.426). This is followed by those who came for education ($\bar{X}$= 3.89, sd=.504) and then for other reasons ($\bar{X}$= 3.77, sd= .503). Based on the results of the one-way analysis of variance applied to determine whether these score differences are statistically significant or not, it was determined that there was no statistically significant difference in the attitudes of the participants towards Turkish culture both in the whole scale and in both sub-dimensions concerning the reasons for visiting Türkiye. In other words, the differentiation of the reasons for visiting Türkiye does not cause a significant change in the participants' attitudes towards Turkish culture. Descriptive statistics and ANOVA results of the participants' scores on the SCS based on the reason for visiting to Türkiye are presented in Table 10.

Table 10

One-Way ANOVA Results Regarding the Social Cohesion Levels of the Participants Based on the Reason for Visiting Türkiye

Reason	*N*	$\bar{X}$	*Sd*			*Sum of Squares*	*Df*	*Mean of Squares*	*F*	*p*
Education	152	3,23	,533	Exclusion	Inter-G	1,450	2	,725	2,469	.087
War and Safety	22	2,95	,578		Intra-G	54,603	186	,294		
Other	15	3,19	,580		Total	56,053	188			
Total	189	3,19	,546							
Education	152	3,54	,591	Belonging	Inter-G	,503	2	,252	,721	.488
War and Safety	22	3,45	,494		Intra-G	64,959	186	,349		
Other	15	3,36	,714		Total	65,462	188			
Total	189	3,51	,590							
Education	152	3,53	,499	Support	Inter-G	1,633	2	,817	3,306	.039
War and Safety	22	3,31	,541		Intra-G	45,937	186	,247		
Other	15	3,27	,390		Total	47,570	188			
Total	189	3,48	,503							
Education	152	3,49	,635	Individual Factors	Inter-G	2,022	2	1,011	2,619	.076
War and Safety	22	3,82	,527		Intra-G	71,818	186	,386		
Other	15	3,51	,609		Total	73,840	188			
Total	189	3,53	,627							
Education	152	3,83	,612	Hope	Inter-G	2,281	2	1,140	2,836	.061
War and Safety	22	3,68	,632		Intra-G	74,791	186	,402		
Other	15	3,45	,836		Total	77,071	188			
Total	189	3,79	,640							
Education	152	3,24	,667	Past Experiences	Inter-G	,650	3	,217	,455	.714
War and Safety	22	2,97	,776		Intra-G	87,941	185	,475		
Other	15	3,44	,686		Total	88,590	188			
Total	189	3,23	,686							
Education	152	3,47	,333	Total	Inter-G	,339	3	,113	1,045	.374
War and Safety	22	3,37	,302		Intra-G	19,992	185	,108		
Other	15	3,35	,304		Total	20,330	188			
Total	189	3,45	,329							

Table 10 presents that the group with the highest social cohesion score is those who came for educational reasons ($\bar{X}$= 3.47, sd=.333). This is followed by those who came due to war ($\bar{X}$= 3.37, sd= .302) and for other reasons ($\bar{X}$= 3.35, sd= .304). One-way analysis of variance showed that there was no statistically significant difference in the other sub-dimensions and the overall scale, except for the psychological and social support sub-dimension (F= 3.306, p<.05). Scheffe, Tukey, and LSD tests, which are Post Hoc tests, were applied to determine between which groups the difference in the psychological and social support sub-dimension existed. However, no relationship with a significance level less than '<.05' was found in any Post Hoc test applied for pairwise comparisons. As a result, it can be said that there is no statistically significant difference between the social cohesion scores of the groups in terms of their reasons for visiting Türkiye.

One-way ANOVA was carried out to find the answer to the question "Do the attitudes of learners of Turkish as a second language towards Turkish culture and their social cohesion differ concerning the duration of their stay in Türkiye?". The descriptive statistics and ANOVA

results of the participants' scores on the ATTCS concerning the duration of their stay in Türkiye are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

One-Way ANOVA Results Regarding the Attitude Levels Toward Turkish Culture Based on the Duration of the Participants' Stay in Türkiye

Duration	*N*	*X̄*	*Sd*			*Sum of Squares*	*Df*	*Mean of Squares*	*F*	*p*
0-1 year	77	3,78	,603	Interest	Inter-G	2,168	3	,723	2,268	.082
2-4 years	58	3,96	,554		Intra-G	58,953	185	,319		
5-7 years	32	3,82	,567		Total	61,121	188			
8+ years	22	4,09	,426							
Total	189	3,88	,570							
0-1 year	77	3,81	,776	Reluctance	Inter-G	1,882	3	,627	1,168	.323
2-4 years	58	3,97	,703		Intra-G	99,350	185	,537		
5-7 years	32	4,05	,664		Total	101,232	188			
8+ years	22	4,03	,747							
Total	189	3,92	,734							
0-1 year	77	3,79	,514	Total	Inter-G	1,838	3	,613	2,476	.063
2-4 years	58	3,96	,478		Intra-G	45,774	185	,247		
5-7 years	32	3,88	,522		Total	47,611	188			
8+ years	22	4,08	,447							
Total	189	3,89	,503							

Table 11 indicates that the group with the highest mean score in the overall scale is those who stayed in Türkiye for 8+ years (X̄= 4.08, sd= .447), followed by those who stayed in Türkiye for 2-4 years (X̄= 3.96, sd=.478), 5-7 years (X̄= 3.88, sd= .522) and finally 0-1 year (X̄= 3.79, sd=.514). One-way analysis of variance indicates that there is no statistically significant difference in the participants' attitudes towards Turkish culture concerning the duration of their stay in Türkiye, both in the whole scale and in both sub-dimensions. In other words, the difference in the duration of their stay in Türkiye does not create a significant change in the participants' attitudes toward Turkish culture. Descriptive statistics and ANOVA results of the participants' scores on the SCS based on their length of stay in Türkiye are presented in Table 12.

Table 12 points out that the group with the highest score is the participants who stayed in Türkiye for 2-4 years (X̄= 3.50, sd= .334). This was followed by participants who stayed in Türkiye for 8+ years (X̄= 3.48, sd = .315), 0-1 year (X̄= 3.42, sd = .330), and 5-7 years (X̄= 3.40, sd= .325), respectively. The mean scores obtained from the SCS show that there is no significant relationship between the groups in terms of length of stay in Türkiye. One-way analysis of variance was used to determine whether the differences in scores between the groups were significant or not. Based on the results of the one-way analysis of variance, no statistically significant difference was found in the other sub-dimensions and the overall scale, except for the sub-dimension of belonging (F= 3,209, p< .05). Scheffe test, which is one of the Post Hoc tests, was applied to determine between which groups the difference in the belonging sub-dimension existed. As a result, it was found that there was a statistically significant difference between those who stayed in Türkiye for 0-1 year and those who stayed for 2-4 years in favor of 2-4 years. Accordingly, it can be said that the newcomers to Türkiye have a lower level of social cohesion compared to those who have been in Türkiye for only 2-4 years.

Table 12

One-Way ANOVA Results Regarding the Social Cohesion Levels of the Participants Based on the Duration of Their Stay in Türkiye

Duration	*N*	*X̄*	*Sd*			*Sum of Squares*	*Df*	*Mean of Squares*	*F*	*p*	*Diff.*
0-1 year	77	3,21	,486	Exclusion	Inter-G	,314	3	,105	,348	.791	
2-4 years	58	3,22	,491		Intra-G	55,739	185	,301			
5-7 years	32	3,10	,686		Total	56,053	188				
8+ years	22	3,22	,671								
Total	189	3,19	,546								
0-1 year	77	3,36	,609	Belonging	Inter-G	3,238	3	1,079	3,209	.024	2-4> 0-1
2-4 years	58	3,64	,592		Intra-G	62,224	185	,336			
5-7 years	32	3,59	,508		Total	65,462	188				
8+ years	22	3,61	,536								
Total	189	3,51	,590								
0-1 year	77	3,53	,535	Support	Inter-G	1,124	3	,375	1,493	.218	
2-4 years	58	3,51	,458		Intra-G	46,445	185	,251			
5-7 years	32	3,31	,549		Total	47,570	188				
8+ years	22	3,47	,403								
Total	189	3,48	,503								
0-1 year	77	3,42	,644	Individual Factors	Inter-G	1,696	3	,565	1,449	.230	
2-4 years	58	3,63	,568		Intra-G	72,144	185	,390			
5-7 years	32	3,56	,630		Total	73,840	188				
8+ years	22	3,63	,688								
Total	189	3,53	,627								
0-1 year	77	3,80	,639	Hope	Inter-G	,599	3	,200	,483	.695	
2-4 years	58	3,84	,653		Intra-G	76,473	185	,413			
5-7 years	32	3,73	,607		Total	77,071	188				
8+ years	22	3,67	,679								
Total	189	3,79	,640								
0-1 year	77	3,26	,639	Past Experiences	Inter-G	,650	3	,217	,455	.714	
2-4 years	58	3,18	,684		Intra-G	87,941	185	,475			
5-7 years	32	3,15	,757		Total	88,590	188				
8+ years	22	3,33	,770								
Total	189	3,23	,686								
0-1 year	77	3,42	,330	Total	Inter-G	,339	3	,113	1,045	.374	
2-4 years	58	3,50	,334		Intra-G	19,992	185	,108			
5-7 years	32	3,40	,325		Total	20,330	188				
8+ years	22	3,48	,315								
Total	189	3,45	,329								

Results of the Second Research Question

Finally, the research sought an answer to the question "Is there a statistically significant relationship between the attitudes of learners of Turkish as a second language towards Turkish culture and their social cohesion?"

The results of the correlation analysis conducted to answer this question are given in Table 13.

Table 13

Correlation Coefficients of the Relationship between Participants' Attitudes Towards Turkish Culture and Social Cohesion

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	1									
2	.31**	1								
3	.21**	.27**	1							
4	-.16*	.16*	.01	1						
5	.28**	.38**	.28**	.29**	1					
6	.43**	.17*	.06	-.29**	.16*	1				
7	.63**	.70**	.53**	.35**	.71**	.39**	1			
8	.14	.46**	.18*	.14	.23**	.10	.38**	1		
9	.22**	.55**	.28**	.16*	.35**	.16*	.52**	.22**	1	
10	.20**	.59**	.26**	.18*	.32**	.15*	.51**	.94**	.54**	1

1.SCS_Exclusıon **3.**SCS_Psyc.and Social Support **5.**SCS_Hope **7.**SCS_Overall **9.**ATTCS_Reluctance

2.SCS_Belonging **4.**SCS_Indvidual Factors **6.**SCS_Past Experiences **8.**ATTCS_Interest **10.**ATTCS_Overall

Table 13 indicates that there is a positive moderate relationship between the participants' social cohesion levels and their attitudes towards Turkish culture (r= .51, p< .001). On the other hand, there is a moderate positive relationship between the belonging sub-dimension of the social cohesion scale and overall the attitude towards Turkish culture scale (r= .59, p<.001). Also, there is a moderate positive relationship between the general average of the social cohesion scale and the reluctance sub-dimension (r= .52, p< .001) and the interest sub-dimension (r= .38, p< .001) of the attitude towards Turkish culture scale.

Discussion, Conclusion and Implications

Programs that give weight to both the learning environment and cultural factors and regulate experiences outside the learning environment have an important place in second language education. The present study investigated the relationship between attitudes toward Turkish culture and social cohesion of international students learning Turkish as a second language. First, the effects of variables on attitudes toward Turkish culture and social cohesion were examined then the relationship between the two was examined. As a result of the study, the participants' attitudes towards Turkish culture based on the regions (continents) they came from showed a significant difference in favor of those from the Asia continent, while no significant difference was found in their level of social cohesion. Meloni (1986) states that a student's nationality can give clues about the problems they may experience in the host society. Since most of the participants (70.4%) came from Asian countries and these countries are composed of Turkic Republics and the Middle East geography, which prefer Türkiye, maybe the main factor in the high attitude towards Turkish culture. Indeed, similarities are considered as an advantage for a foreigner to feel secure in terms of ethnic identity. This finding is consistent with other studies showing that commonalities and similarities reduce feelings of alienation and increase social cohesion. (Apak, 2014; Bolgün, 2020; Sever, 2020; Traş & Güngör, 2011; Yıldız, 2018). On the other hand, it was found that social cohesion was not affected by

participants' regions of origin. Therefore, it may be argued that attitudes toward Turkish culture do not predict social cohesion based on participants' regions of origin. In Poyrazlı and Kavanaugh's (2006) study on international students in the United States, it was reported that Asian students had more cohesion problems; this may be due to their lower English proficiency compared to European students.

In the study, it was reported that there was a significant difference in favor of the "Ural-Altaic language family" in the attitudes toward Turkish culture concerning the language family in which the participants' mother tongue is located. In social cohesion levels, it was found that those from the "Ural-Altaic language family" showed a significant difference in some dimensions of the scale, although not in the whole scale, compared to those from other language families. The mother tongue has a framework of meaning that encompasses a unique perspective and a way of life shaped by values and norms (Alpar, 2013). Going beyond this framework requires creating a new universe of meaning. Since Turkish is a language belonging to the Ural-Altaic language family, this result seems to be rational in the attitudes and social cohesion of those from the same language family towards Turkish culture. From this point of view, it can be said that the origin of languages can positively change the approaches and attitudes that control behaviors toward cohesion.

Although the mean scores of the participants' attitudes toward Turkish culture increased as the number of languages increased, the significant difference was only between those who spoke three languages and those who spoke just one. On the other hand, although it is inferred from the mean scores that speaking another language(s) is an effective variable for social cohesion levels, these differences in scores are not significant. International migration and transnational activities increase the importance of multilingualism and multiculturalism. To know a language fully is to know its sociocultural codes that point to contexts of use. Therefore, the number of languages known creates the perception of being familiar with different cultures. Therefore, different sociocultural experiences are expected to positively affect attitudes and social cohesion. The fact that not all of the score differences in this study were significant may be due to the lack of details about the participants' proficiency levels in these languages. For example, any second language known at the beginner or intermediate level would have a low impact on attitude and social cohesion. Dewaele, Petrides & Furnham (2008) found that multilingualism is associated with stronger socialization, a wider network of interlocutors, higher proficiency, and lower anxiety. Studies on foreign language use by international students have also indicated that speaking another language(s) leads to less anxiety and higher self-efficacy perceptions (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Sevim, 2014; Tunçel, 2015). An international student needs to be able to cope with the uncertainties they may encounter in the host country and to empathize culturally. Wei and Hu (2019) found that the number of languages spoken is an important predictor of tolerance for ambiguity, while Deweale & Van Oudenhoven (2009) found that it contributes significantly to cultural empathy. The effect of the number of languages in the aforementioned studies in eliminating affective factors that reduce the desire to interact may help to make similar inferences about attitudes and cohesion. Nevertheless, it can be said that there is a need to investigate the variable of the number of languages in studies on cohesion both in the field of teaching Turkish as a second language and in other fields in Türkiye.

Although there was a difference in the attitudes of the participants towards Turkish culture in favor of those who came due to "war and security problems", this difference was not

statistically significant. War and security problems bring along forced migration. This necessity may have fostered a sense of positive approach for individuals who believe that they can no longer return to the comfort of their home country because they have no choice other than to get used to the host culture. It is thought that this may be the reason for the high attitude scores of those who came due to war and security problems. Contrary to this idea, Koçan and Kırlıoğlu (2020), in their study on Syrians, state that the temporary protection status, which reinforces the perception of transience, does not support Syrians to establish a future in Türkiye and integrate with the society. On the other hand, there is no significant difference in the social cohesion levels of the participants, although the average of those who came due to "education" is found to be higher. Receiving a university education in another country is the dream of many young people around the world. Considering that international students who come to Türkiye for education come with a high level of arousal, it is natural that their average social cohesion scores stand out. To summarize, the differentiation of the reasons for visiting Türkiye does not create a significant change in both attitudes towards Turkish culture and social cohesion.

In the study, although there was a difference in favor of those who stayed "8 and more years" in the attitudes of the participants towards Turkish culture concerning the variable of the length of stay in Türkiye, this difference was not statistically significant. In social cohesion levels, it was determined that those who stayed "2-4 years" had a higher average, which was significant only for one dimension of the scale. Regardless of age, gender, and nationality, international students are expected to increase their target language proficiency and change their attitudes, and social cohesion positively as their duration of residence and interaction with the society increases. There are studies supporting this in the literature (An & Chiang, 2015; Hechanova-Alampay et al, 2002; Wang & Mallinckrodt, 2006). An and Chiang (2015) found that the first year is very important in the cohesion process of international students in China and that there are significant differences between the first year and the rest of the three years. Osmanlı (2018) found that the cohesion problems of international students studying at the European University of Lefke decreased as the duration of their stay in Lefke increased. Allaberdiyev (2007) and Özçetin (2013), on the other hand, did not find a significant difference in the effect of international students' length of stay in Türkiye on social cohesion. Similar to Allaberdiyev's and Özçetin's studies, this study found no significant effect of the length of stay in Türkiye on attitude and cohesion. The reason for this is thought to be that a significant portion of the participants (40.7%) have been in Türkiye for 0-1 years.

Finally, the study concluded that the relationship between the participants' attitudes toward Turkish culture and their social cohesion was moderately positive. This result is in line with previous research pointing to the effect of cultural attitudes in promoting social cohesion among language learners (Kamal & Maruyama, 1990; Searle & Ward, 1990). The positive correlation coefficient indicates that students who have more positive attitudes toward Turkish culture also tend to experience a greater sense of social cohesion. In addition, the analysis revealed a moderate positive relationship between the belonging sub-dimension of the social cohesion scale and the general attitude towards the Turkish culture scale. This relationship emphasizes the effect of a sense of belonging on the development of positive attitudes towards the target culture and is consistent with Gardner's (2010) study. Students with a strong sense of belonging are more likely to have positive attitudes towards Turkish culture. In addition, the moderate positive correlation between the overall mean of the social cohesion scale and both the reluctance sub-dimension and the interest sub-dimension of the attitude

towards Turkish culture scale indicates that students who report higher levels of social cohesion are more likely to show lower levels of reluctance and more interest. This result is consistent with the findings of Dewaele & MacIntyre (2014) on positive and negative emotion patterns among foreign language learners.

The hidden curriculum refers to the implicit, unintended learning and values that students acquire through the education system and that are not explicitly taught in the formal curriculum. Second language learning focuses on the process of acquiring proficiency in a second language. The socio-cultural environment plays an important role in shaping both the hidden curriculum and second language learning experiences. In this study, the relationship between the hidden curriculum and second language learning is also highlighted with a special emphasis on the socio-cultural environment. The relationship between the hidden curriculum and second language learning underscores the great importance of the socio-cultural environment and highlights how implicit messages, values, and social interactions embedded in educational settings can influence learners' language acquisition experiences and outcomes. The results of the research can be instructive for practitioners and curriculum developers involved in teaching Turkish as a second language. Indeed, conclusions can be drawn about the extent to which there is a need to promote positive attitudes towards the target culture and to create inclusive environments that support social cohesion. Teaching Turkish as a second language should be organized around a well-defined hidden curriculum in addition to the explicit/formal curriculum that serves as a road map. The hidden curriculum can meet the mutual expectation for cognitive, affective, and psychomotor behaviors between society and the individual. In this context, results related to attitudes and level of compliance can be considered as evidence of the degree to which the program achieves its goals.

The results obtained in the study should be generalized by taking into account the number of international students in Türkiye. In addition, the majority of the students in the sample were from Asian countries, which can also be seen as another limitation. If there had been a balanced distribution from different continents, the results on cohesion and attitudes might have been different. Research on larger samples in terms of cultural diversity or inclusion of different language levels would be more suitable for statistical generalization. On the other hand, the fact that the study presents attitudes toward Turkish culture and social cohesion as a relational case study makes it difficult to understand the causality of the results. Intervention or longitudinal studies may provide more effective inferences at this point.

Author Contributions

The first author undertook the task of designing the study, determining the data collection tools, literature review, analyzing the data, discussing and interpreting the results, and presenting recommendations.

The second author undertook the task of collecting the data properly and recording them in the SPSS software and also contributed to the literature review.

Both authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

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TÜRKÇE GENİŞ ÖZET

Türkçeyi İkinci Dil Olarak Öğrenenlerin Türk Kültürüne Yönelik Tutumları ve Sosyal Uyumları

Giriş

Teknoloji, ulaşım, ilgi/merak, afetler, savaş ve güvenlik sorunları ile ilgili yaşanan gelişmeler, kitlesel göçlere ya da ulus ötesi faaliyetlere gerekçe oluşturmaktadır. Bu durum başka ülkelerde deneyimlenen sosyokültürel ve etkileşimsel koşullarla özellikle eğitim yoluyla bağ kurmayı teşvik etmektedir. Güncel araştırmalarda, bireylerin ve toplumun gelişimi için sınırların ortadan kaldırılmasına olanak sağlayan sosyal uyuma dikkat çekilmektedir. Sosyal uyum, eğitim yoluyla yapılandırılan olumlu sosyal ilişkilere dönük ve ev sahibi kültüre uygun bilgi, beceri ve yetkinliklere atıfta bulunur. Gruplar arasında karşılıklı güven ve anlayışı içeren sosyal uyum, çok kültürlü toplumlarda eğitimin ana konularından biridir. Bireysel ve toplumsal işlevleri 'farklılıklara saygı' ekseninde yapılandırılan bir eğitim anlayışı, sosyal uyumu artırmada önemli bir potansiyele sahiptir. Dil, bu potansiyeli değerlendirebilmede başat ve uyumu sürekli kılacak iletişim kanalı işlevini görür. Nitekim ev sahibi toplumu anlama, ona uyum sağlama ve sosyal bağlar kurmanın merkezinde dil vardır.

Başka bir ülkede eğitim-öğretim süreçlerine dahil olan uluslararası öğrencilerin en büyük sorunlarından biri uyum sorunudur. Dil ve iletişim problemi başta olmak üzere farklılıklarla başa çıkma, kaygı/stres, arkadaş eksikliği, vatan hasreti, akademik hayata uyum sağlama gibi problemler, uluslararası öğrencilerin ev sahibi topluma geçişlerinde en çok karşılaştıkları problemlerdir. İkinci/yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenen uluslararası öğrencilerde de bu problemleri görmek olanaklıdır. Öğrencilerin Türk toplumuna tam katılımı için uyumun tüm bileşenleri karşılıklılığa göre işe koşulmalıdır. Bu husus yalnızca resmi program değil, aynı zamanda var olan örtük programın sosyolojik boyutlarını dikkate almayı gerektirir.

Toplumun özelliklerine ve yaşamsal dinamiklerine karşı farklı kültürlerden gelen insanların yorumlama, karşılaştırma, ilişki kurma, değerlendirme süreçleri farklı olacağından, farklı tutumlar geliştirmesi olağandır. Tutumların, davranışları yönlendiren doğası, yeni sosyokültürel kodlarla baş edebilmeyi, dolayısıyla da sosyal uyumu yordayabilir. Türk kültürüne yönelik tutumların olumlu ya da olumsuz olması, uyumun düzeyini de etkileyeceği düşünülmektedir. Bu araştırmada ikinci/yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenen uluslararası öğrencilerin Türk kültürüne yönelik tutumları ile sosyal uyumları arasındaki ilişkinin tespit edilmesi amaçlanmıştır.

Yöntem

İlişkisel tarama modelinde desenlenen araştırmaya, amaçlı örnekleme yöntemlerinden ölçüt örneklemeye göre belirlenen 189 uluslararası öğrenci katılmıştır. Sallabaş ve Gök (2021) tarafından geliştirilen "Türk Kültürüne Yönelik Tutum Ölçeği" ile Kaya (2022) tarafından geliştirilen "Göçmenler İçin Sosyal Uyum Ölçeği" aracılığıyla veriler toplanmıştır. Verilerin analizinde parametrik testlere başvurulmuştur.

Bulgular

Bulgulara göre, ikinci dil olarak Türkçe öğrenenlerin Türk kültürüne yönelik tutum puanları, geldikleri bölgelere göre "Asya" kıtasından gelenler lehine; ana dillerinin yer aldığı dil ailesine göre ise "Ural-Altay dil ailesi" lehine anlamlıdır. Ancak tutum puanlarında başka dil/ler bilme durumuna, Türkiye'ye geliş nedenlerine ve Türkiye'de bulunma süresine göre anlamlı bir fark olmadığı görülmüştür. İkinci/yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenenlerin sosyal uyum puanlarında ise ana dillerinin yer aldığı dil ailesine göre -ölçeğin tamamında olmasa da bazı boyutlarında- "Ural-Altay dil ailesi"nden gelenler lehine; Türkiye'de bulunma süresine göre -ölçeğin yalnızca bir boyutunda- "2-4 yıl arası Türkiye'de kalanlar" lehine anlamlı fark bulunmuştur. Ancak uyum puanlarında geldikleri bölgelere, başka dil/ler bilme durumuna, Türkiye'ye geliş nedenlerine göre anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır. Son olarak, katılımcıların Türk kültürüne yönelik tutumları ile sosyal uyumları arasında tespit edilen pozitif yönlü orta düzey ilişki, olumlu tutumlara sahip olan öğrencilerin aynı zamanda daha büyük bir sosyal uyum düzeyine sahip olduklarına işaret etmektedir.

Tartışma, Sonuç ve Öneriler

Araştırma sonucunda; katılımcıların, geldikleri bölgelere (kıtalara) göre Türk kültürüne yönelik tutumları, 'Asya' kıtasından gelenler lehine anlamlı farklılık gösterirken sosyal uyum düzeylerinde anlamlı bir farklılık bulunamamıştır. Meloni (1986), öğrencinin uyruğunun, ev sahibi toplumda yaşayabileceği sorunlar hakkında ipuçları verebileceğini dile getirir. Katılımcıların büyük bir oranının (%70,4) Asya ülkelerinden gelmesi, bu ülkelerin özellikle Türki Cumhuriyetler ve Türkiye'yi çokça tercih eden Orta Doğu coğrafyasından oluşması, Türk kültürüne yönelik tutumun yüksek çıkmasında temel etken olabilir. Çünkü benzerlikler, bir yabancı için etnik kimliği güvende hissetme açısından avantaj olarak kabul edilir. Diğer yandan, sosyal uyum düzeylerinin katılımcıların geldikleri bölgelerden etkilenmediği ortaya çıkmıştır.

Katılımcıların ana dillerinin yer aldığı dil ailesi değişkenine göre Türk kültürüne yönelik tutumlarında 'Ural-Altay dil ailesi' lehine anlamlı bir fark tespit edilmiştir. Sosyal uyum düzeylerinde ise 'Ural-Altay dil ailesi'nden gelenlerin ölçeğin tamamında olmasa da bazı boyutlarında diğer dil ailelerinden gelenlere göre anlamlı bir farklılık gösterdiği bulunmuştur. Ana dilinin anlam evreninin dışına çıkmak yeni bir anlam evreni yaratmayı gerektirir. Türkçe'nin Ural-Altay dil ailesine mensup bir dil olduğu göz önünde bulundurulduğunda aynı dil ailesinden gelenlerin Türk kültürüne yönelik tutum ve sosyal uyumlarında bu sonucun çıkması olağan görünmektedir.

Başka dil/ler bilme durumuna göre katılımcıların Türk kültürüne yönelik tutumlarında dil sayısı arttıkça puan ortalamalarının yükseldiği söylenebilse de anlamlı fark -yalnızca- üç dil bilenlerle tek dil bilenler arasında çıkmıştır. Öte yandan sosyal uyum düzeyleri için başka dil/ler bilmenin etkili bir değişken olduğu puan ortalamalarından anlaşılsa da anlamlı bir farklılık bulunamamıştır. Bir dili tam olarak bilmek, onun kullanım bağlamlarına işaret eden

sosyokültürel kodlarını da bilmektir. Dewaele, Petrides & Furnham (2008) çok dilliliğin daha güçlü sosyalleşme, daha geniş muhatap ağı, daha yüksek yeterlilik ve daha zayıf kaygı ile bağlantılı olduğunu bulgulamıştır. Bu araştırmadaki puan farklılıklarının tamamının anlamlı çıkmaması, bilinen dil sayısına ilişkin öğrenci beyanlarının, bu dillerin hangi düzeyde bilindiğine ilişkin ayrıntı içermiyor olmasıyla alakalı olabilir.

Katılımcıların Türkiye'ye geliş nedenleri bakımından Türk kültürüne yönelik tutumlarında 'savaş ve güvenlik sorunları' nedeniyle gelenler lehine farklılık bulunmuştur. Ancak bu fark anlamlı değildir. Savaş ve güvenlik sorunları, zorunlu göçü beraberinde getirmektedir. Bu zorunluluk, kendi ülkesindeki konforuna artık geri dönemeyeceğine inanan bireyler için ev sahibi kültüre alışmaktan başka çarenin olmamasından kaynaklı pozitif yaklaşma duygusunu beslemiş olabilir. Diğer yandan, katılımcıların sosyal uyum düzeylerinde 'eğitim' nedeniyle gelenlerin ortalaması yüksek çıkmasına rağmen anlamlı bir farklılık yoktur. Başka bir ülkede üniversite eğitimi görmek, dünyadaki pek çok gencin hayalidir. Türkiye'ye eğitim almak için gelen uluslararası öğrencilerin de her şeyden önce yüksek bir uyarılmışlıkla geldiği düşünüldüğünde sosyal uyum puan ortalamalarının öne çıkması doğaldır.

Araştırmada, Türkiye'de bulunma süresi değişkenine göre, katılımcıların Türk kültürüne yönelik tutumlarında '8 ve üzeri yıl' kalanlar lehine bir fark bulunsa da bu fark anlamlı değildir. Sosyal uyum düzeylerinde ise '2-4 yıl arası' kalanların yüksek ortalamaya sahip olduğu, bunun ölçeğin yalnızca bir boyutu için anlamlı olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Araştırmalar, ikamet ve toplumla etkileşim süreleri ölçüsünde uyum ve tutumun etkileneceğine işaret etmektedir (An & Chiang, 2015; Hechanova-Alampay at all, 2002; Wang & Mallinckrodt, 2006). Bu araştırmada Türkiye'de bulunma süresinin tutuma ve uyuma belirgin bir etkisinin olmadığı ortaya çıkmıştır. Bunun sebebinin, katılımcıların önemli bir kısmının 0-1 yıl arası Türkiye'de bulunması olduğu düşünülmektedir.

Son olarak, katılımcıların Türk kültürüne yönelik tutumları ile sosyal uyumları arasındaki ilişkinin pozitif yönlü orta düzey bir ilişki olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Bu sonuç kültürel tutumların dil öğrenenler arasında sosyal uyumu teşvik etmedeki etkisine işaret eden önceki araştırmalarla uyumludur (Kamal & Maruyama, 1990; Searle & Ward, 1990). Pozitif korelasyon katsayısı, Türk kültürüne yönelik daha olumlu tutumlara sahip olan öğrencilerin aynı zamanda daha büyük bir sosyal uyum duygusu yaşama eğiliminde olduklarını göstermektedir. Araştırma sonuçları, ikinci dil olarak Türkçe öğretim süreçlerinde görev alan uygulayıcılar ile program geliştiriciler için yönlendirici olabilir. Nitekim hedef kültüre yönelik olumlu tutumları teşvik etmeye ve sosyal uyumu destekleyen kapsayıcı ortamlar yaratmaya ne düzeyde ihtiyaç duyulduğu konusunda çıkarımlar yapılabilir. İkinci dil olarak Türkçe öğretimi, yol haritası işlevi gören açık/formal programın yanında iyi tanımlanmış bir örtük program etrafında düzenlenmelidir. Örtük program, toplum ve birey arasındaki bilişsel, duyuşsal ve psikomotor davranışlara yönelik karşılıklı beklentiyi karşılayabilir. Bu bağlamda tutum ve uyum düzeyi ile ilgili sonuçlar, programın hedefe ulaşma derecesi ile ilgili kanıtlar olarak düşünülebilir.

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Examination of the Prediction Level of Classroom Teachers' Professional Identity Typologies on Their Curriculum Fidelity[1]

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Abstract

The current study aimed to determine the extent to which classroom teachers' professional identity typologies predict their curriculum fidelity. A total of 332 classroom teachers participated in the current study, employing the correlational survey model. The data for the study were collected using the "Curriculum Fidelity Scale" developed by Burul (2018) and the "Teachers' Professional Identity Typologies Scale" developed by Atik (2022). The collected data were analyzed using cluster analysis and multiple regression analysis. The study revealed that the teachers had the critical identity the most and the technician identity the least. It was also found that the professional identity typologies of the teachers significantly predicted their curriculum fidelity, explaining 22.6% of the total variance. Accordingly, it was concluded that the intellectual and technician teacher identities positively and significantly predicted curriculum fidelity, while the social and critical teacher identities did not significantly predict curriculum fidelity. The findings obtained in the study show that professional identity typologies significantly affect teachers' curriculum fidelity.

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Introduction

The most crucial factor in the success of the education system is well-trained teachers. Teachers are the most important power that makes a school successful or unsuccessful by enabling students to develop their individual abilities and to grow up with knowledge, skills, and values useful to themselves, the nation, and humanity. The teacher is an important figure who puts the education policy of the state into practice, influences the policies with the outcomes they obtain from the implementation of the education policy, draws on research, and also contributes to this research by engaging in scientific activities (Varış, 1988). Throughout the historical process, the qualifications attributed to teachers by both society and themselves in their respective eras have evolved due to economic, political, and societal reforms, shifting policies, and changing worldviews. While fulfilling their duties and responsibilities, teachers acquire their social identities and simultaneously develop a professional identity as they engage in their profession.

Professional identity is a professional essence rooted in an individual's beliefs, values, characteristics, and experiences (Slay & Smith, 2011). Professional identity is a set of values that encompasses what the job entails, how it is perceived by others, and the reflection of professional roles and values within the individual (Yılmaz, 2011). Individuals belonging to all professional groups have a professional identity within the society they belong to (Özdemir, 2010). Teaching is also a special profession related to education and training, and teachers who do the profession have professional identities. The professional identity of teachers is a dynamic, changing, and developing construct in which teachers define themselves with their professional perceptions of themselves and the perceptions of others (Akkerman & Meijer, 2011; Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Beijaard et al., 2004). According to Zembylas (2003) the professional identity of teachers is related to how the teacher communicates with his/her environment and how he/she uses the identity he/she has while designing the teaching environment and teaching in this environment. In the literature, various studies related to the professional identity of teachers have been identified. Soydaş (2020) examined the impact of teachers' perception of professional identity on professional development in his research, and he concluded that the perception of professional identity positively influences professional development. Ömür and Bavlı (2020) found that standardized exams negatively affect the teacher's professional identity and practices. Kavrayıcı (2019) determined a positive relationship between teachers' professional identities and organizational commitment in their study. Hanna et al. (2020) developed different measurement tools to assess teachers' professional identity. In the study conducted by Ó'Gallchóir et al. (2018), it was concluded that teachers' experiences, perceptions of themselves as teachers, and self-awareness regarding themselves are crucial for professional identity development. When these studies are collectively evaluated, it can be asserted that there are several variables influencing the professional identity of teachers.

Professional identity typologies emerged by classifying teachers' professional identities according to certain characteristics. Professional identity typology is an identity classification made on the basis of the similarities of the characteristics professionally possessed by individuals and the differences of these characteristics from the characteristics possessed in other professions (Sachs, 2005). Teachers' different student experiences, beliefs, and personality traits have created different typologies (Karadağ & Dulay, 2017). Professional

identity typologies of teachers are a construct that shows flexibility according to the school environment, regulations, and the political, social, and cultural characteristics of the period (Lasky, 2005). According to Sachs (2005) two types of typologies emerged as technician and activist teacher as a result of the examination of education policies in Australia, England, and New Zealand. Kumaravadivelu (2003) identified three different typologies of teachers by drawing on the literature in the fields of general education and language teaching. In the study by Beijaard et al. (2000), five different teacher identity typologies were identified based on teachers' current perceptions of their professional identity. These are: "teacher as a subject matter expert", "teacher as a pedagogical expert", "teacher as a didactical expert", "teacher who can maintain a balance between expertises" and "teacher who scores high in two areas of expertise". Canrinus et al. (2011) discussed three different typologies as follows: "unsatisfied and demotivated identity profile", "motivated and affectively committed identity profile" and "doubting competence identity profile".

Atik (2022) stated that teachers are divided into four different typologies: technician, social, intellectual, and critical based on the teaching profession typologies in the literature. Technician teacher is an identity typology that is individualistic, competitive, controlling, and regulatory, with an externally defined professional role, guided by standards, and acting in accordance with the requirements of managerial authority. Teachers with a technician teacher identity perform at levels of efficiency and effectiveness, are committed to management, and are compatible with government policies. Technician teachers meticulously implement the approved curriculum, present information as it is, and prepare students for exams, all without deviating from the prescribed curriculum. Teachers with a social teacher identity give importance to issues such as immigration, poverty, and unemployment in lessons by making decisions in accordance with the interests and needs of students. They cooperate with their colleagues to help their students gain universal values such as equality, social justice, and democracy and a more qualified education. In cooperation with parents, they organize educational activities with them. They give importance to the concepts of social justice, equality, and democracy in a democratic society. Teachers with an intellectual identity go beyond the curriculum in order to ensure the multi-dimensional development of students by sharing information that they believe to be useful. They carry out practices they believe to be correct, despite the authorities. They participate in artistic activities such as theatre, museums, exhibitions, and scientific meetings and congresses that will contribute to their professional development. Teachers with a critical identity are inquisitive, act independently of the current situation, and try to develop students' critical thinking skills. Teachers with a critical identity create a suitable environment for students to express their thoughts easily and defend the ideas they believe to be true, despite the authorities (Sachs, 2005).

When the professional identity typologies of teachers are examined, it is seen that there are identity indicators related to curriculum fidelity. Curriculums are created within the framework of specific learning, teaching, and assessment theories. It is expected that the designed curriculum will be implemented by the teacher and other stakeholders by sticking to the original (Bümen et al., 2014). The curriculum covers all the activities to be carried out within a course throughout the year. The difference between the official curriculum and the curriculum in practice should be minimized, and the curriculum should be fully reflected. To do so, teachers should be committed to the curriculum. In this context, curriculum fidelity can be defined as the implementation of the curriculum by teachers exactly as planned by the curriculum

development experts (Pence et al., 2008). Examination of the relationship between the objectives of the curriculum created with the contribution of curriculum development experts and the curriculum implemented by the teacher in the classroom is an important field of study. It is seen that the main elements, such as teachers' understanding of the curriculum, knowledge, skills, and attitudes on this subject, are effective in the successful and effective implementation of the curriculum (Kabaoğlu, 2015; Mutluer, 2013; Serin, 2014). It is important to adhere to the prepared curriculum, as developed by curriculum development experts, in order to identify errors, deficiencies, and reasons for student failures that may arise during the implementation of the curriculum and to determine the causes of these issues (Bümen et al., 2014). If the curriculum is not adhered to, it is not possible to make a judgment about the curriculum (Hill et al., 2015). Research on fidelity to the curriculum has been identified in the literature. In a study, Zöğ (2022), a relationship was found between fidelity to the curriculum and educational philosophies indicating a predictive quality of educational philosophies for curriculum fidelity. Çavuşoğlu (2022) also identified a relationship between educational philosophies and curriculum in their research. Some studies have determined high levels of fidelity to the curriculum among classroom teachers (Güleş, 2022; Polat, 2021). Arslan Çelik (2020) concluded in their research that factors such as school resources, class size, grade level, and teacher characteristics affect the level of fidelity to the curriculum. In a study by Palestina et al. (2020), variables influencing fidelity to the curriculum were identified. Allo (2020) found that teachers did not follow the curriculum due to a lack of information provided about the program. Nevenglosky (2018) identified challenges encountered by teachers in the process of fidelity to the curriculum in their research. Generally, existing literature tends to focus on factors hindering fidelity to the curriculum, emphasizing the need to eliminate these barriers for successful curriculum implementation.

Although teachers are given a single curriculum to ensure curriculum fidelity, variations are observed in its implementation (Songer & Gotwals, 2005). These differences in practice are caused by teacher characteristics, curriculum characteristics, teacher training, and institutional characteristics. It has been shown that self-confidence and enthusiasm for teaching, which are among the characteristics of teachers, decrease curriculum fidelity, while the authoritarian personality structure increases curriculum fidelity (Sobol et al., 1989). Different teacher characteristics are the determining factor in whether the curriculum will be adopted or not (Bümen et al., 2014). In addition, teaching professional identity typologies can also affect curriculum fidelity. For instance, technician teachers are those who implement the curriculum as it is, whereas teachers with an intellectual identity are open to innovation and share information believed to be beneficial, even venturing beyond the boundaries of the curriculum (Atik, 2022). Examination of the implementation of the curriculum and the implementation process allow the detection of errors or deficiencies in the curriculum. Without evaluating how successfully the curriculum has been implemented and teachers' curriculum fidelity, it becomes difficult to reach conclusions about the curriculum outcomes (Fullan & Pomfret, 1977). In the current study, the extent to which the professional identity typologies of primary teachers predict their curriculum fidelity was examined. This study is important in terms of determining the professional identity typologies of classroom teachers and revealing the relationship between teacher professional identity typology and curriculum fidelity. As a result of this research, it is revealed that curriculum can be developed by considering teachers' professional identity typologies. This may make it easier to achieve the results expected from curriculum. It

has been observed that there is no study in the literature on the predictive level of classroom teachers' professional identity typologies on their curriculum fidelity, and it is thought that this study will fill the gap in the literature. In this context, this study aimed to determine the degree to which classroom teachers' professional identity typologies predict the curriculum fidelity. In line with this purpose, the sub-objectives of the research are as follows:

1. What is the distribution of the professional identity typologies of the classroom teachers?
2. What is the extent to which the professional identity typologies of the classroom teachers predict their curriculum fidelity?

Method

Research Design

The correlational research model was used in the current study, which aimed to determine the predictive relationships between teachers' professional identity typologies and curriculum fidelity. The relational survey model is "a research model used to determine the existence and/or degree of co-variance between two or more variables" (Fraenkel et al. 2014; Karasar, 2018, p. 114). In this study, a correlational research survey model was employed to determine the relationship between teachers' typologies of professional identity and their curriculum fidelity.

Population and Sample

The population of the study consisted of 2142 classroom teachers working in Muğla, and the sample consisted of 354 classroom teachers selected from this population by using the stratified sampling method according to the service areas of the school they work in. Of the teachers, 171 were selected from the first service area, 22 from the second service area, 93 from the third service area, 47 from the fourth service area, 11 from the fifth service area, and 10 from the sixth service area. In the determination of the sample size, the 'Sample Size Table' created by Cohen et al. (2005) on the basis of the relationship between sampling error and confidence level was used.

Data Collection Instruments

The data for the study were collected with the 'Teachers' Professional Identity Typologies Scale' and 'The Curriculum Fidelity Scale'. The Teachers' Professional Identity Typologies Scale, developed by Atik (2022) consists of four factors and 25 items. There are six items in the social teacher factor, five items in the intellectual teacher factor, seven items in the critical teacher factor, and seven items in the technician teacher factor. As a result of the confirmatory factor analysis of the scale, the goodness-of-fit values were found as CFI .96, GFI .90, TLI .95 and RMSEA .03. The Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency coefficient was calculated to be .74 for the social teacher factor, .79 for the intellectual teacher factor, .82 for the critical teacher factor and .78 for the technician teacher factor. The reliability values of the data obtained within the scope of the research have been recalculated. The Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency coefficient was calculated to be .78 for the social teacher factor, .73 for the intellectual teacher factor, .78 for the critical teacher factor and .76 for the technician teacher factor.

The "Curriculum Fidelity Scale" developed by Burul (2018) consists of seven factors and 42 items. Eight items are in the sub-dimension of compliance, five in the sub-dimension of time, five in the sub-dimension of the quality of the implementation, five in the sub-dimension of the reactions of the participants, five in the sub-dimension of curriculum differences, eight in the sub-dimension of teacher education, and four in the sub-dimension of school climate. As a result of confirmatory factor analysis, the goodness-of-fit values of the scale were found to be RMSEA=.04, SRMR=.05, GFI=.83, CFI=.96, NNFI= .96, NFI=.92. The Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency coefficient was calculated to be .84 for the sub-dimension of compliance, .89 for the sub-dimension of time, .81 for the sub-dimension of the quality of the implementation, .89 for the sub-dimension of the reactions of the participants, .86 for the sub-dimension of curriculum differences, .90 for the sub-dimension of teacher education and .78 for the sub-dimension of school climate. Within the scope of this research, reliability analyzes were re-done with the data obtained from the program fidelity scale. The Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency coefficient was calculated to be .70 for the sub-dimension of compliance, .71 for the sub-dimension of time, .77 for the sub-dimension of the quality of the implementation, .77 for the sub-dimension of the reactions of the participants, .70 for the sub-dimension of curriculum differences, .75 for the sub-dimension of teacher education and .87 for the sub-dimension of school climate. The Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient for the entire scale was found to be .85. These results show that the measurement tools are valid and reliable.

Data Analysis

It was determined that there was no missing data in the collected data. The data was examined for univariate and multivariate outliers. Following the identification of univariate outliers using box plots and z-scores, as well as multivariate outliers using Mahalanobis distances ($p<.001$), data of 22 participants were excluded from the analysis. The data collected from the remaining 332 participants was deemed suitable for the analysis. Once the dataset became ready for analysis, descriptive statistics comprising percentages and frequencies were initially calculated. Whether the dataset presented a normal distribution or not was evaluated using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test by statistically examining the skewness and kurtosis values. It was observed that the skewness coefficients ranged from -0.50 to -0.36 for all the variables, while the kurtosis coefficients ranged from -0.190 to 0.081. As the skewness and kurtosis coefficients fell within the acceptable range of +1 to -1, it was assumed that the distribution was normal (Çokluk et al., 2016). Cluster Analysis was conducted to determine the distribution of teachers' professional identity typologies. In order to determine whether the teachers' professional identity typologies predict their curriculum fidelity, a multiple regression analysis was conducted. In order to achieve correct results, the differences between the observed values and the predicted values in the multiple linear regression analysis should show a normal distribution (Can, 2020). It was determined that the mean of the data obtained from 332 participants is 2.38 with a standard deviation of 0.998 and that the data have a distribution between -3 and +3 (Sönmez & Çakır, 2019). Therefore, it can be said that the assumption of a normal distribution for multiple regression is met. It is possible to assert that the normality assumption of the multiple linear regression analysis is met since the data for the variables are collected at a flat point according to the P-P Plot.

Results

In order to answer the research question "What is the distribution of teachers' professional identity typologies?", the Teachers' Professional Identity Typologies Scale was administered, and the teachers' opinions on the professional identity typologies were categorized using cluster analysis. Classroom teachers who scored high in every sub-dimension possessed the dominant identity defined in this sub-dimension. Through the utilization of K-means clustering analysis, the teachers were divided into four clusters. Table 1 displays the frequencies and percentages for the identified professional identity typologies.

Table 1

Frequencies and Percentages for the Teachers' Professional Identity Typologies

Number of Clusters	*Identity Typologies*	*f*	*%*
1	Critical	111	33.40
2	Intellectual	84	25.30
3	Social	79	23.80
4	Technician	58	17.50
Total		332	100

When Table 1 is examined, it is seen that 33.4% of the classroom teachers are critical, 25.3% are intellectual, 23.8% are social, and 17.5% are technician.

The results of the regression analysis conducted to determine the extent to which the professional identity typologies of the classroom school teachers predict their curriculum fidelity.

Table 2

Results of the Regression Analysis Conducted to Determine the Extent to Which the Teachers' Professional Identity Typologies Predict Their Curriculum Fidelity

Variable	*B*	*ß*	*T*	*p*	*Binary*	*Partial*
Constant	2.36		11.60	.00		
Social teacher	.04	.07	1.47	.14	.16	.07
Intellectual teacher	.20	.26	4.51	.00	.36	.22
Critical teacher	.00	.01	.15	.87	.26	.00
Technician teacher	.16	.28	4.83	.00	.36	.23
Gender	-.03	-.04	-.82	.40	.02	-.04
School type	.04	.03	.69	.49	.04	.03
Graduated faculty	-.07	-.05	-1.16	.24	-.03	-.05
Service area	.03	.04	.75	.44	-.01	.03
Professional experience	-.02	.02	-1.17	.24	-.0	-.05
Education level	-.05	.07	-.77	.44	-.07	-.03
R=0,475	R^2=0,226					
F(10,354) = 22,179	p<.05					

According to Table 2, it can be stated that the established regression model is significant (p=.00) since the significance level is p<.05. According to the results of the regression analysis, in the established multiple linear regression model, it is seen that two of the 10 independent variables contributed significantly to the model, while eight of them did not. Accordingly, intellectual (β= .26, $t_{(322)}$ = 4.51, p<.05) and technician teacher identities (β= .28, $t_{(322)}$ = 4.83, p<.05) positively and significantly predicted the teachers' curriculum fidelity. On the other hand, social (β= .07, $t_{(322)}$ = 1.47, p>.05) and critical teacher identities (β= .01, $t_{(322)}$ = .15, p>.05) did not predict curriculum fidelity. Similarly, the gender (β= -.04, $t_{(322)}$= -.40, p>.05) and graduated faculty (β= -.05, $t_{(322)}$ = -1.16, p>.05) and professional experience (β= .02, $t_{(322)}$ = -1.17, p>.05) did not predict curriculum fidelity. School type (β= .03, $t_{(322)}$ = .69, p>.05), professional experience (β= .04, $t_{(322)}$ = .75, p>.05) and education level (β= .07, $t_{(322)}$ = -.77, p>.05) did not predict curriculum fidelity. Of the total variance in the teachers' curriculum fidelity, 22.6% was explained by the teachers' professional identity typologies and demographic variables (R^2= 0.226, p<.05). The order of importance of the classroom teachers' professional identity typologies in terms of predicting their curriculum fidelity is as follows, technician, intellectual, social, and critical. In the conducted multiple linear regression analysis, based on the standardized regression coefficients (beta, β) of the independent variables, the order of the relative importance of the independent variables for the predicted variable is as follows; technician identity (β= .28), intellectual identity (β= .26), social identity (β= .07) and critical identity (β= .01).

Discussion, Conclusion, and Implications

In the current study, the distribution of the classroom teachers' professional identity typologies and the extent to which they predict curriculum fidelity were examined. The distribution of the classroom teachers' identity typologies indicated that the most dominant typology is critical, followed by intellectual, social, and technician. In the literature, in studies on teachers' professional identity typologies, it has been revealed that different identity typologies are dominant. Similarly, in the study conducted by Atik (2022), it was determined that the least dominant identity among the teachers is the technician teacher identity. On the other hand; in many studies in the literature, it has been reported that the technician teacher identity is dominant (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Connell, 2009; Girgin, 2012; Giroux, 2012; Ünal, 2005; Yıldız, et al., 2013). Given that curricula in Turkey are centrally prepared and implemented, it is expected that the teachers participating in the study would predominantly exhibit the technician identity. However, it was found that the teachers self-identified themselves as critical teachers, contrary to this expectation. This situation is also contradictory to the implemented administrative policies. As a result of the neoliberal policies implemented since the 1980s, transformations in the education system have affected teachers, leading to a redefinition of their professional identity. Teachers have been perceived as practitioners who are required to work based on performance evaluation and efficiency according to market criteria, while school principals have been seen as business managers (Şimşek, 2018). In this context, teachers have been expected to conform to the interests of global capital and adopt a passive role by embracing the identity of a technician teacher, complying with the demands of global capital.

The teacher regarded as a technician has been directed more towards doing than thinking. The 'new' teacher, whose experiences in the school are centered around teaching rather than

learning, has been directed towards gaining competences and skills rather than values and ethics. The intent behind all these reforms is to redefine the teacher as a 'technician' rather than an expert who can provide critical judgment and responses (Ünal, 2005). Teachers who adopt the technician identity are perceived as passive implementers (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Sachs, 2005). Teachers who are passive implementers of the curriculum are like the components of a gear in the production process. These teachers are devoid of critical thinking and use resources according to predetermined objectives (Hodkinson, 2011). They become technicians tasked with implementing the standard curriculum assigned to them. The provided standardized curriculum limits the autonomy of teachers, thereby increasing the control of the administration over teachers (Giroux, 1988). Dewey (1933) stated that teachers, when leaning towards routine actions, distance themselves from critical thinking and comply with tradition and authority. In doing so, they become trapped within habitual, mechanical teaching activities, ultimately losing their professional autonomy and decision-making abilities. Hence, teachers with a technician identity are perceived not as individuals with decision-making authority but as technicians in need of supervision. Therefore, there is no room for teachers to conduct research, utilize their creativity and critical thinking abilities, or practice their profession based on their own experiences (Tezgiden Cakcak, 2016).

Teachers with a critical professional identity question the changes made in the education system under the guise of 'innovation', make efforts to foster critical thinking skills in their students, and avoid displaying authoritarian control in the classroom. They create an environment where students are encouraged to express their dissenting thoughts, enabling them to freely express their emotions and ideas. They can act independently of situations widely accepted by the majority in professional matters, question all sorts of professional authority, and openly express their thoughts in their relationships with their colleagues. Critical teachers, during staff meetings, openly express their beliefs without hesitation by monitoring the implementation of decisions and voicing their opinions if they believe them to be correct. They make efforts to implement practices they are confident about, even in the face of the school administration's opposition (Sachs, 2005). The adoption of student-centered education under the influence of constructivist theory has become a significant turning point in the position of teachers in Turkey. The role of the teacher has transformed from being the main source of knowledge to guiding the student's learning process. The new learning environment, the new learner, and the new understanding of curricula have inevitably led to a series of changes and transformations in the teaching profession. The advancement of technology and the era of digitalization have started to weaken the traditional, instructional and technician roles of teachers. The most crucial expectation from schools is to train responsible citizens who possess democratic, creative, productive, critical, and versatile thinking skills, who can learn to learn, solve problems, respect others, and approach ideas with tolerance (Aybek, 2007). The primary duty of teachers has become to develop the skills that students need. From this point of view, the competence areas of teachers should be separated, and their professional skills should be developed to guide the students' learning beyond the pedagogical demands. Education systems in the 21st century care not only about knowledge but also skills. In this context, skills such as critical thinking, creative thinking, and reflective thinking, which are called basic skills, constitute the most important part of education systems. In the current study, the dominant teacher typology was found to be the critical teacher identity, and this shows that teachers work in compliance with the requirements of the 21st century, such as analyzing the

facts, creating ideas, defending ideas, making comparisons, making inferences, evaluating assumptions, and solving problems. Yıldız (2017) has stated that due to various practices within the education system, the technician teacher typology geared towards exam preparation, which has developed under the influence of neoliberal policies, is no longer sufficient to represent today's teacher typology. Teaching should be seen as a process that requires creative and critical thinking based on the context and conditions present, rather than merely implementing predetermined standards. In the study conducted by Kavrayıcı (2019) that yielded similar findings to the current study, it was indicated that due to rapid and unplanned changes in the education system, inadequate appreciation of teachers, insufficient employment rights, teachers' organizational struggles, and political and ideological influences on the education system, teachers' professional identities have become diversified. Teachers with a critical identity can filter their ideas through a critical thinking process and generate different solutions based on the problem situations they are facing. In addition to their professional knowledge and skills, as the intellectual leaders of society, the teachers are expected to have the power to initiate change and development, to develop themselves as questioning, critical, independent individuals and to train individuals who will form society. Teachers, in this way, take on an active role in shaping the ideal world that education aims to create. While the current administrative policies may imply a shift towards the technician teacher identity among teachers, the teachers participating in the current study mostly identify themselves as critical teachers and do not perceive themselves as technician teachers. The research findings of Day et al. (2006) support the findings of the current study. Teachers expressed their belief that they can change the educational process in the study by Day et al. (2006). Making a difference in education processes can be expected from teachers adopting a critical identity because they question tradition and authority, analyze facts, generate ideas, advocate for ideas, make comparisons and inferences, evaluate arguments, and solve problems.

The current study concluded that the teachers' professional identity typologies predicted their curriculum fidelity. It was found that the technician and intellectual teacher identities significantly predicted curriculum fidelity, while the social and critical identities did not. According to Kumaravadivelu (2003), content knowledge is divided into easily manageable discrete items and presented as packages to passive technician teachers. Teachers are expected to fulfill the role of passive implementers of the content presented to them and transmitters of the information to future generations. Theorists construct knowledge; teachers understand and apply knowledge. Creating new knowledge or theory is not the domain of teachers; their task is to do what is prescribed for them. According to Sach (2005), the primary role of technician teachers is to convey information and cover the curriculum within the specified time. It is considered sufficient for students to accomplish the objectives set in the curriculum. Therefore, teachers teach their lessons without straying from the curriculum during the teaching and learning process. They avoid mentioning social issues in their lessons.

Educators called critical pedagogues such as Henry Giroux, Peter McLaren, and Roger Simon have described transformative intellectual teachers as agents of change. They encourage teacher-student interaction and the production of knowledge and student discussion in the classroom within a specific context. They prioritize helping their students gain multiple perspectives on important issues. Due to the uncertainties that may occur in the classroom, lesson plans and teaching processes can be improvised. According to Sach (2005), teachers with an intellectual identity are those who read in different areas of interest for their intellectual

development and go out of the curriculum for the multi-faceted development of their students. Intellectual teachers share the knowledge that they believe beneficial for their well-rounded development with their students and support their going beyond the curriculum.

It was concluded in the current study that teachers with social and critical identities display a low level of curriculum fidelity. In the study by Atik (2022), teachers with a social identity stated that they don't strictly adhere to the plan, work in a child-centered manner, direct the educational flow according to the child's needs, and train sociable children who play volleyball, soccer, chess, and checkers, as well as those who can play musical instruments. What is normally expected from teachers with a social identity is that they prioritize their students' social development, organize activities like field trips and sports that contribute to their training, emphasize social issues such as migration, poverty, and unemployment, and strive for their students to internalize universal values like equality, social justice, and democracy.

Dusenbury et al. (2003) have argued that the characteristics possessed by teachers are an important factor influencing the curriculum. Among the numerous factors influencing curriculum fidelity, the teacher factor is prioritized (Bümen et al., 2014). Öztürk (2003) emphasizes that teachers' behaviors within the classroom are at the core of the implementation process of a curriculum. As a result, the characteristics possessed by the teacher play a significant role in influencing curriculum fidelity. The success of a curriculum mostly depends on the teachers who are the implementers of that curriculum (Gömleksiz, 2007). Arslan Çelik (2020) examined English teachers' curriculum fidelity and found that their curriculum fidelity is influenced by factors such as the facilities of the school they work in, class size, grade level, and the characteristics of the teacher. Teachers might appear as just one of the factors in the implementation process, yet they hold significant importance and play a more decisive role in the success of any reform compared to other factors (Han, 2013). It was concluded in the current study that professional identity typologies explained 22.6% of the variance in the primary school teachers' curriculum fidelity. Research can be conducted on which other teacher characteristics predict curriculum fidelity. It is thought that taking into account the professional identities of teachers and the factors affecting them in the process of developing undergraduate programs in education faculties where pre-service teachers are trained will be effective in the preparation of teacher training programs. It is believed that emphasizing training in the affective domain in these developed programs will enable pre-service teachers to develop a positive professional identity starting from their pre-service education. In-service training activities aimed at supporting teachers' professional development should consider teachers' professional identity typologies and provide in-service training tailored to different typologies.

Author Contributions

The first author has made substantial contributions to the conceptualization and research design, data collection, or analysis and interpretation of the data. The second author has involved in drafting the manuscript or revising it, critically for a significant intellectual content.

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Uluslararası Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim Çalışmaları Dergisi
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TÜRKÇE GENİŞ ÖZET

Sınıf Öğretmenlerinin Mesleki Kimlik Tipolojilerinin Öğretim Programlarına Bağlılıklarını Yordama Düzeyinin İncelenmesi

Giriş

Öğretmenlerin mesleki kimlikleri belirli özelliklere göre sınıflandırılarak mesleki kimlik tipolojileri ortaya çıkmıştır. Mesleki kimlik tipolojisi, bireylerin mesleki anlamda sahip oldukları özelliklerin benzerlikleri ve diğerlerinden farklılıklarına dayalı olarak yapılan kimlik sınıflamasıdır (Sachs, 2005). Beijaard vd. (2000) konu uzmanı, pedagojik uzman, didaktik uzman, uzmanlıklar arası denge kurabilen ve iki uzmanlık alanında yüksek puan alanlar olarak beş farklı öğretmen kimlik tipolojisi belirlemiştir. Atik (2022) öğretmenlerin; teknisyen, sosyal, entelektüel ve eleştirel olarak dört farklı tipolojiye ayrıldığını belirtmiştir.

Öğretmenlerin mesleki kimlik tipolojileri incelendiğinde öğretim programına bağlı kalma davranışlarına ilişkin kimlik göstergelerinin bulunduğu görülmektedir. Tasarlanan öğretim programının öğretmen ve diğer paydaşlar tarafından aslına bağlı kalınarak hayata geçirilmesi beklenmektedir (Bümen vd., 2014). Programa bağlılığı sağlamak için öğretmenlere tek bir program verilmesine karşın uygulamada farklılıklar gözlenmektedir (Songer ve Gotwals, 2005). Farklı öğretmen özellikleri, öğretim programlarının benimsenip benimsenmeyeceğinin belirleyici unsurudur (Bümen vd., 2014). Bununla birlikte öğretmenlik mesleki kimlik tipolojileri de programa bağlılığı etkileyebilmektedir. Teknisyen öğretmenler öğretim programlarını uygulayan; entelektüel kimliğe sahip öğretmenler ise yeniliğe açık ve öğretim programlarının dışına çıkarak faydalı olduğuna inanılan bilgileri paylaşanlardır (Atik, 2022). Öğretmenlerin mesleki kimlik tipolojilerinden yola çıkarak teknisyen, sosyal, eleştirel ve entelektüel öğretmen kimliğine sahip öğretmenlerin programa bağlılıklarının ne düzeyde olduğu, mesleki kimlik tipolojisinin farklılaşmasının öğretim programlarına bağlılığa olan etkisinin nasıl olduğu ortaya çıkarılarak alanyazına katkı sağlanacağı düşünülmektedir. Bu amaç kapsamında aşağıda yer alan araştırma sorularına cevap aranmaktadır:

(1) Sınıf öğretmenlerinin mesleki kimlik tipolojileri dağılımı nasıldır?

(2) Sınıf öğretmenlerinin mesleki kimlik tipolojilerinin öğretim programlarına bağlılıklarını yordama düzeyi nedir?

Yöntem

Sınıf öğretmenlerinin mesleki kimlik tipolojileri ile öğretim programlarına bağlılıkları arasındaki yordamsal ilişkinin belirlenmesinin amaçlandığı bu çalışmada ilişkisel tarama modeli kullanılmıştır. Araştırmaya başlamadan önce Muğla Sıtkı Koçman Üniversitesi Sosyal ve Beşeri

Bilimler Etik Kurulunun 2022-105 sayılı kararı ile etik kurul onayı alınmıştır. Araştırmanın evrenini Muğla ilinde görev yapan 2142 sınıf öğretmeni, örneklemini ise okulların hizmet alanlarına göre tabakalı örnekleme yöntemi ile seçilen 354 sınıf öğretmeni oluşturmuştur. Araştırmanın verileri Öğretmenlerin Mesleki Kimlik Tipolojileri Ölçeği ve Öğretim Programına Bağlılık Ölçeği ile yüz yüze toplanmıştır. Veriler, kümeleme analizi ve çoklu regresyon analizi ile çözümlenmiştir.

Bulgular

Çalışmadan elde edilen bulgulara göre sınıf öğretmenlerinin %33.4'ünün eleştirel, %25.3'ünün entelektüel, %23.8'inin sosyal, %17.5'inin teknisyen kimliğe sahip oldukları belirlenmiştir. Sınıf öğretmenlerin mesleki kimlik tipolojilerinin öğretim programlarına bağlılıklarını yordama düzeyinin incelenmesi amacıyla yapılan regresyon analizi sonuçlarına göre entelektüel ve teknisyen öğretmen kimliği öğretim programına bağlılığı pozitif ve anlamlı olarak yordamaktadır. Buna karşın sosyal ve eleştirel öğretmen kimliği, öğretim programına bağlılığı yordamamaktadır. Sınıf öğretmenlerinin öğretim programlarına bağlılıklarına ilişkin toplam varyansın %22.6'sı öğretmenlerin mesleki kimlik tipolojisi ve demografik değişkenler ile açıklanmaktadır.

Tartışma, Sonuç ve Öneriler

Araştırmada, sınıf öğretmenlerinin mesleki kimlik tipolojilerinin dağılımı ve mesleki kimlik tipolojilerinin öğretim programına bağlılıklarını yordama düzeyi belirlenmiştir. Sınıf öğretmenlerinin en baskın eleştirel daha sonra sırasıyla entelektüel, sosyal ve teknisyen mesleki kimlik tipolojisine sahip oldukları sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Atik (2022) tarafından yapılan çalışmada, öğretmenlerin en fazla entelektüel, en az teknisyen öğretmen kimliğine sahip olduğu belirlenmiştir. Bu araştırmada öğretmenlerin en az teknisyen öğretmen kimliğine sahip oldukları sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Türkiye'deki programların merkezi olması nedeniyle tüm okullarda uygulanması gereği göz önünde bulundurulduğunda öğretmenlerin genellikle teknisyen mesleki kimlik tipolojisine sahip olmaları beklenmektedir. 1980'li yıllardan beri uygulanan neoliberal politikaların sonucu olarak eğitim sisteminde yaşanan dönüşümlerden öğretmenler de etkilenmiş ve öğretmenlerin mesleki kimliği yeniden tanımlanmıştır. Öğretmen, performans değerlendirmesi ile piyasa ölçütlerinde verimlilik esasına göre çalışması gereken bir uygulayıcı, okul müdürleri de işletme yöneticisi olarak algılanmıştır. Öğrenme ise en iyi standardize testlerle ölçülen çıktı olarak kabul edilmiştir (Şimşek, 2018). Bu bağlamda öğretmenlerden küresel sermayenin çıkarları doğrultusunda hizmet etmesi istenmiş pasif bir rol üstlenen teknisyen öğretmen kimliğini benimsemeleri beklenmiştir. Teknisyen olarak biçimlendirilen öğretmen, düşünmekten çok yapmaya yönlendirilmiştir.

Ancak araştırmaya katılan öğretmenlerin kendilerini eleştirel öğretmen olarak ifade ettikleri görülmüştür. Türkiye'de yapılandırmacı kuramın etkisiyle öğrenci merkezli eğitimin benimsenmesi, öğretmenin konumu açısından önemli bir dönüm noktası haline gelmiştir. Bilginin ana kaynağı olarak öğretmenin görevi öğrencinin öğrenmesine rehberlik etmek şeklinde dönüşüm sağlamıştır. Yeni öğrenme ortamı, yeni öğrenen, yeni öğretim programı anlayışı öğretmenlik mesleğinde de bir dizi değişim ve dönüşümü kaçınılmaz kılmıştır. Teknolojinin gelişmesi ve dijitalleşme çağı ile öğretmenin geleneksel, öğretici ve teknisyen rolü zayıflamaya başlamıştır. Yıldız (2017), eğitim sisteminde gerçekleştirilen çeşitli uygulamalar nedeniyle neoliberal politikalar etkisinde gelişen sınava hazırlayıcı teknisyen öğretmen

tipolojisinin bugünün öğretmen tipolojisini yansıtmada yeterli olmadığını ifade etmiştir. Öğretmenlik, önceden belirlenen standartların uygulanmasından çok içinde bulunulan ortam ve şartlara göre yaratıcı ve eleştirel düşünmeyi gerektiren bir süreç olarak düşünülmelidir.

Araştırma sonucunda, öğretmenlerin mesleki kimlik tipolojilerinin öğretmenlerin öğretim programına bağlılıklarını yordadığı anlaşılmıştır. Teknisyen ve entelektüel öğretmen kimliğinin öğretim programına bağlılığın anlamlı bir şekilde yordadığı, sosyal ve eleştirel kimliğin anlamlı yordamadığı anlaşılmıştır. Sach'a (2005) göre teknisyen öğretmenlerin öncelikli rolü, bilgi aktarmak ve öğretim programını belirlenen süre içinde tamamlamaktır. Entelektüel kimliğe sahip öğretmenler, entelektüel birikim için öğretim programına bağlı kalmanın yanı sıra farklı etkinliklere yer veren öğretmenlerdir. Sosyal ve eleştirel kimliğe sahip öğretmenlerin ise öğretim programına bağlılıklarının düşük düzeyde olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Atik (2022) tarafından yapılan çalışmada, sosyal kimliğe sahip öğretmenler plana çok sadık kalmadıklarını, çocuk merkezli çalıştıklarını, eğitim akışını çocuğa göre yönlendirdiklerini ve voleybol, futbol, satranç, dama oynayan sosyal çocuklar yetiştirdiklerini belirtmişlerdir. Bu durum öğrencilerinin sosyal gelişimlerine önem veren, eğitim-öğretime katkı sağlayacak gezi, spor gibi etkinlikler düzenleyen; eşitlik, demokrasi gibi evrensel değerleri kazanmaları için çabalayan sosyal kimliğe sahip öğretmenler için olağan sonuçtur.

Sınıf öğretmenlerinin öğretim programlarına bağlılıklarının %22.6'lık kısmını mesleki kimlik tipolojilerinin açıkladığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Başka hangi öğretmen özelliklerinin öğretim programına bağlılığı yordadığına ilişkin araştırmalar yapılabilir. Eğitim fakültelerinde, öğretmen adaylarının yetiştirildiği lisans programlarının geliştirilmesi sürecinde öğretmenlerin mesleki kimlikleri ve onu etkileyen etmenlerin dikkate alınmasının, daha etkili öğretmen yetiştirme programlarının hazırlanmasında etkili olacağı düşünülmektedir. Geliştirilen bu programlarda duyuşsal alan eğitimine önem verilmesinin, öğretmen adaylarının hizmet öncesinden itibaren olumlu bir mesleki kimlik geliştirmelerini sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir.

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Reflections of Digital Citizenship on Social Studies Course: Teachers' Perceptions

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Abstract

The social studies course is an effective course regarding raising citizens and is expected to become effective in raising digital citizens. In this direction, teachers' views on the relationship between digital citizenship and social studies course may be important since they are the practitioners of social studies course. For this reason, this study aims to determine the views of social studies teachers on the relationship between digital citizenship and social studies course. In the research, the qualitative basic design was conducted to the study group that consist of 25 social studies teachers working under the Ministry of National Education in the 2022-2023 academic year in Erzincan, Turkey. The data obtained were analyzed using both content analysis and descriptive analysis. As a result of the study, it was found that teachers established a relationship between digital citizenship and social studies course in general philosophy, content, measurement and evaluation, awareness, and daily life. Teachers stated that all sub-dimensions of digital citizenship should be included in the social studies course. However, teachers stated that digital rights and responsibilities and digital literacy should be included in the social studies course the most, while digital health and digital commerce should be included the least. In addition, teachers stated that studies should be carried out by means of curriculum, learning-teaching process, tools and materials, awareness, technological infrastructure, teacher training and cooperation in order to make students acquire digital citizenship more effectively in the social studies course.

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Introduction

Technology, as a rapidly developing and changing field today, has become an important factor affecting human life. This impact has started to change people's lifestyles, habits, and social dynamics by covering many areas from communication to business, from education to health. With the developments in digital technologies, the way people view, and access information has changed, and the concept of time and distance has lost its importance in accessing information due to digital technologies (Georgina & Hosford, 2009). Many concepts in our daily lives have either changed or have emerged. One of the changing concepts is undoubtedly the concept of citizenship (Görmez, 2017). With the changes experienced, individuals have necessarily become indispensable citizens of the digital world (Kara & Atasoy, 2019), and citizenship has taken on a digital structure. The need for citizens to know what they should or should not do in digital environments has led to the concept of digital citizenship (Görmez, 2016). With the increasing penetration of digital technologies into everyday activities, it has become important to understand what digital citizenship is and how it is changing in order to educate citizens better (Choi, 2016). Digital citizenship is an increasingly important issue today. Therefore, learning digital citizenship skills and awareness is an important need, especially for young generations.

There are many definitions of digital citizenship. Digital citizenship is the ability to use technology in a responsible, safe, productive, critical, and social way (Farmer, 2011). It is the ability to master and use the competencies necessary for an individual to actively participate in the culture of online democracy (Richardson & Milovidov, 2017, p. 11). Digital citizenship is a concept that enables individuals to understand what they need to know in order to use technology properly. It is the authorized, responsible, and appropriate use of technology (Digital Citizenship, 2022). It is to know their rights and responsibilities in the digital world, to be able to follow technology, and to use this skill in the citizenship process (Turan & Karasu-Avcı, 2018). Digital citizenship describes the characteristics of individuals' behavior when using digital tools, especially in collaborative digital environments (Searson et al., 2015). This concept emphasizes raising digital citizens who can criticize information sources, act ethically, use technology for the benefit of society, communicate in a healthy way, and encourage correct behavior while online (Karasu-Avcı et al., 2021). Digital citizenship is the ability to use digital technologies to access information, buy and sell goods, communicate, know, and apply health, safety, ethical, and legal rules, fulfill responsibilities, and participate in society in digital environments. As can be understood from all these definitions, it is possible to say that digital citizenship consists of different components and constitutes a whole (Metin & Cin, 2021). Digital citizenship has nine sub-dimensions: digital access, digital communication, digital rights and responsibilities, digital commerce, digital literacy, digital law, digital etiquette, digital health, and digital security (Ribble, 2011).

The most important tool for digital citizenship and its sub-dimensions to become a way of life for today's individuals is education. Educational institutions convey all kinds of information needed about life to the individual through curricula (Görmez, 2017). In this respect, science and technology issues have started to be included in education programs. In Turkey, as in the whole world, technology subjects are included in various course contents at all levels of education. It is important to introduce science and technology topics to students at an early stage (Akgün & Akgün, 2021). Therefore, providing digital citizenship education to individuals

in primary and secondary schools will be an important gain for the future of society (Turan & Karasu-Avcı, 2018).

One of the curricula that undertakes digital citizenship education is the Social Studies Curriculum [SSC] (Görmez, 2017). The Social Studies course is one of the most appropriate courses that can offer change to students due to its multidisciplinary structure and is a course that includes current issues (Kara & Atasoy, 2019). One of the main objectives of this course is to transfer the citizenship skills needed by society to individuals (Görmez, 2017). A social studies course can also be considered a citizenship course because it prepares individuals for life (Karasu-Avcı et al., 2021). The social studies course, including the achievements, skills, and values of different social science disciplines given together in order to provide citizenship to students in every dimension, also has achievements for digital citizenship (Turan & Karasu-Avcı, 2018). For this reason, the social studies course is capable of providing students with the necessary awareness about digital citizenship at the primary school level and meeting their needs (Karasu-Avcı et al., 2021; Metin & Cin, 2021). Therefore, this course is important for raising digital citizens. In this direction, the SSC was updated by the Ministry of National Education in 2018 and was directly affected by the rapid changes in science and technology, the differentiating needs of the individual and society, and innovations and developments in learning and teaching theories and approaches (Dere & Yavuzay, 2019). However, in every period, it is important to make SSC more effective in terms of gaining acquisitions, competencies, skills, and values related to digital citizenship (Aydemir, 2018).

The number of studies on citizenship in digital environments has started to increase rapidly in recent years (Kuş et al., 2017), and many studies have been conducted on the relationship between SSC and digital citizenship (Altun & Bangir-Alpan, 2021; Aydemir, 2019, Görmez, 2017; Kara & Atasoy, 2019; Karaduman & Öztürk, 2014; Turan & Karasu-Avcı, 2018). However, when the studies on social studies and digital citizenship for prospective teachers are examined, Metin and Cin (2021) developed a digital citizenship competency scale for prospective social studies teachers. Ezer and Aksüt (2021) determined the perceptions of pre-service social studies teachers towards the concept of digital citizenship. Çakmak and Aslan (2018) found that pre-service social studies teachers' attitudes towards digital citizenship were more positive as the time spent online increased. Karasu Avcı et al. (2021) determined that pre-service social studies teachers' perceptions of digital citizenship were above the middle level. Zer et al. (2017) found that pre-service social studies teachers perceived digital citizenship as the realization of citizenship work and transactions in digital environments. Aslan (2016) concluded that pre-service social studies teachers' perceptions of digital citizenship were similar. Dere and Yavuzay (2019) stated that pre-service social studies teachers' frequency of e-government use affected their digital citizenship, but the universities they attended, and the average daily internet usage time did not significantly affect their digital citizenship. Yaman (2019) found that pre-service social studies teachers' digital literacy levels, one of the sub-dimensions of digital citizenship, differed in terms of various variables.

When the studies conducted with teachers on digital citizenship are examined Sari (2019) found that the training provided for digital citizenship was effective in improving the digital citizenship skill levels of social studies teachers. Aygün (2019) found that the digital citizenship status of social studies teachers differed according to digital citizenship sub-dimensions. Kilci (2019) found that social studies teachers do not have enough knowledge about digital

citizenship; most of them have not heard of digital citizenship sub-dimensions, and teachers consider the social studies course as insufficient in digital citizenship education. In his study, Görmez (2017) found that nearly half of the teachers did not know the meaning of the concept of digital citizenship. Despite all these studies, more research is needed to better understand the idea of digital citizenship in the literature (Ortega-Gabriel, 2015).

The expectation that the findings obtained in the studies enable researchers to address digital citizenship from a broad perspective and guide researchers in this regard was emphasized (Sari & Taşer, 2018). In the digitalizing world, educators assume the responsibility of developing different skills in students from pre-school to postgraduate education is at an important point with regard to raise generations in accordance with the needs of the age, thus having great responsibilities. It is thought that the description of the concept of digital citizenship has become an indispensable phenomenon of individual life and thus contributes to the literature (Arcagök, 2020). Teachers' awareness of digital citizenship contributes to raise students as conscious and responsible individuals. In regard to how teachers approach their students about digital citizenship, they consider important skills, their thoughts about teaching methods, and tools that can enable different aspects of the subject to be addressed and discussed. This may contribute to the formation of a more comprehensive and rich literature on digital citizenship education. Therefore, the opinions of teachers, as the practitioners of the course, on this issue are important. For this reason, this study aims to examine the relationship between social studies courses and digital citizenship according to the views of social studies teachers. In this direction, the following questions were sought in the study:

1. What are the views of social studies teachers on the relationship between digital citizenship and social studies courses?

2. What are the opinions of social studies teachers about which of the sub-dimensions of digital citizenship should be included in the social studies course?

3. What are the views of social studies teachers on how to help students acquire digital citizenship more effectively in the social studies course?

Method

Research Model

Qualitative basic design was applied in the study. Qualitative studies are about how people make sense of their lives and their world. The primary purpose of qualitative basic design is to reveal and interpret these meanings (Merriam, 2013). The reason for using this design in the study is to examine how social studies teachers make sense of their observations, opinions, and experiences regarding the relationship between the social studies course and digital citizenship. In the study, the experiences of social studies teachers were examined in order to reveal a more holistic perspective of the relationship between social studies courses and digital citizenship, and the opinions of teachers on this issue were revealed and interpreted.

In qualitative research, interviews are one of the most frequently used data collection tools (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2021). Through interviews, unobservable elements such as experiences, thoughts, attitudes, interpretations, intentions, reactions, and mental perceptions are tried to be understood (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2021). The main purpose of qualitative interviews is to

address the research topic from the participants' perspectives and to explain why and how the participants form these perspectives. In the study, data were collected through face-to-face interviews using a semi-structured interview form (Gürbüz & Şahin, 2018). In the semi-structured interview form, the interviewer can ask both pre-prepared questions and additional questions to get more detailed information about the subject (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2021).

Study Group

The study group consisted of 25 social studies teachers working in schools affiliated with the Ministry of National Education in Erzincan province, Turkey, in the 2022–2023 academic year. Descriptive information about the study group is presented in Table 1. Criterion sampling, one of the purposeful sampling techniques, was used to determine the study group. As a criterion for determining the participants in the study, it was accepted that the participants had knowledge about digital citizenship. For this purpose, a form was applied to 65 social studies teachers working in Erzincan province to determine their knowledge about digital citizenship. Afterwards, 25 social studies teachers who had knowledge about digital citizenship were included in the study.

Table 1

Descriptive Information About the Participant Teachers

Gender	*(%)*	*Graduation degree*	*(%)*	*Years of seniority (%)*		*Place of duty*	*(%)*
Female	48	Undergraduate	84.00	1-10	20.00	Provincial centre	60.00
				11-20	56.00	District centre	28.00
Male	52	Postgraduate degree	16.00	21 and more	24.00	Municipalities	4.00
						Village	8.00
Total	100		100		100		100

In Table 1, descriptive information is presented to introduce the study group. As seen in Table 1, 52% of the participants are male, while 48% are female. While 84% of the teachers have a bachelor's degree, 16% have a master's degree. The seniority of 56% of the participating teachers is between 11-20 years and 60% of them work in the city center.

Data Collection Tools

In the study, a semi-structured interview form was used as a data collection tool. For the semi-structured interview form, five questions about the relationship between digital citizenship and social studies courses were developed by the researcher. Before the questions were prepared, a literature review on the subject was conducted, and necessary preparations were made for the creation of the interview questions. While preparing the questions, it was given importance to ensure that they were suitable for the purpose of the interview and could be easily understood by the participants. An expert (associate professor) in the field of social studies education, an expert (associate professor) with qualitative research experience in the field of measurement and evaluation, and an expert (associate professor) in the field of educational sciences were consulted to evaluate the quality of the questions in the prepared semi-structured interview form and to ensure content validity. In addition, semantic and structural corrections were made to these three questions after the expert opinion. The

interview form was applied to five social studies teachers as a pilot study. The questions were asked for clarity, comprehensibility, serving the purpose, and teachers' suggestions, if any. Simple formal corrections were made in line with the teachers' feedback, and the form was finalized. The following questions were included in the semi-structured interview form:

1. What are your thoughts on the relationship between digital citizenship and social studies course?
2. Which sub-steps of digital citizenship should be included in the social studies curriculum and textbooks?
3. What are your suggestions for students to acquire digital citizenship more effectively in the social studies course?

Data Collection

The required permissions were obtained from the Erzincan Provincial Directorate of National Education and the Erzincan Binali Yıldırım University Educational Sciences Ethics Committee (30.12.2021, Protocol No. 12/08). Before the interview, the participants were informed about the purpose and importance of the study. The participants were informed that the data to be collected would be used only for scientific purposes and that the necessary permissions had been received for the study. An appointment was made with the participants by stating that the interview was based on volunteerism.

At the beginning of the interview, information about digital citizenship and its sub-steps was presented, and the participants were provided with information on this subject. In order to prevent data loss, the interview was recorded with a voice recorder with the permission of the interviewees. During the interview, attention was paid to create an interview environment where the participants could feel comfortable, explain their views sincerely, and establish an appropriate interaction. The questions were to the participants in turn, and no limitations were imposed on their answers. In this way, it was ensured that the participants explained their thoughts on what they deemed important about the subject. The duration of the interview varied between 20 and 30 minutes. The records taken during the interview were transcribed completely and verbatim into a Word document.

Data Analysis

For the analysis of the data collected in the study, the stages of preparing and organizing the data for analysis, reading the entire data, coding the data, creating theme descriptions, linking the themes, and interpreting the meaning of the themes were followed, respectively (Creswell, 2017). In this direction, descriptive analysis was conducted on which sub-steps of digital citizenship should be included in the social studies course. Content analysis was applied on the relationship of digital citizenship with the social studies course and how to teach digital citizenship to students more effectively in the social studies course.

Content analysis is a systematic technique, and the data are summarized through content categories by coding (Büyüköztürk et al., 2018). The aim of content analysis is to identify concepts and relationships that can best explain the data. In this analysis, data with similar characteristics is gathered and interpreted around some concepts, categories, and themes (Yıldırım & Şimşek 2016). In this direction, the relationship between the social studies course and digital citizenship and teachers' views on how digital citizenship can be taught to students

in a better way in the social studies course were analyzed by the descriptive analysis method. After creating a code list from the data collected in the study, categories were formed the codes and themes were formed the categories with an inductive perspective while conducting content analysis by considering the similarities and differences of the codes.

In descriptive analysis, the collected data are interpreted in line with predetermined themes (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2021). In the descriptive analysis, sub-dimensions of digital citizenship determined by Ribble (2011) were considered as the themes. In this direction, the opinions of social studies teachers about which sub-step of digital citizenship should be included in the social studies course were analyzed by descriptive analysis method. After the analysis, the findings were defined. Analyses were presented and interpreted through tables and figures.

Validity and Reliability Studies

In qualitative research, coding by two or more researchers ensures the reliability of the research (Creswell, 2017). For this reason, the data were presented to two social studies education experts (associate professors) at the stage of determining codes, categories, and themes, and their opinions were taken. The internal consistency between the coding created by the researcher and the coding created by the experts was examined. In order to ensure internal consistency, there should be at least 80% agreement between the coders (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Patton, 2002). The coding process performed by the researcher and two social studies education experts was done twice with a fifteen-day interval. It was determined that the consensus rate between the coding created by the researcher and the coding created by the experts was 89%, and it was seen that the coding was created in a largely similar way. In the coding process, two different field experts were consulted again for 11% of the undecided issues (issues such as which theme and category to include, naming the themes and categories, and shortening the codes in an understandable way). In line with the opinions received, necessary arrangements were made in the coding, and the analysis was finalized.

For the validity studies, the data analysis process was explained in detail, and the examples that were thought to best represent the theme for each of the themes reached in the study were presented in the findings section. Thus, direct quotations were made from the teachers' statements in order to reflect their views. In the examples presented, the names of the participants were coded (T1, T2, T3, etc.), and their names were kept confidential. In the study, the opinions of independent researchers were taken on issues such as the writing of the design and results (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2021), the accuracy of the description, the relationships between the research questions and the data, and data analysis and interpretation. In order to ensure the external validity of the study, the procedures were explained in detail (Creswell, 2017).

Findings

This section presents findings that reflect social studies teachers' opinions on the relationship between digital citizenship and social studies, which sub-steps of digital citizenship should be included in social studies, and how digital citizenship can be acquired more effectively in social studies.

Teachers' Perceptions Regarding the Relationship Between Digital Citizenship and Social Studies

The themes and categories related to the relationship between social studies course and digital citizenship are presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Themes and Categories Related to the Relationship between Social Studies Course and Digital Citizenship

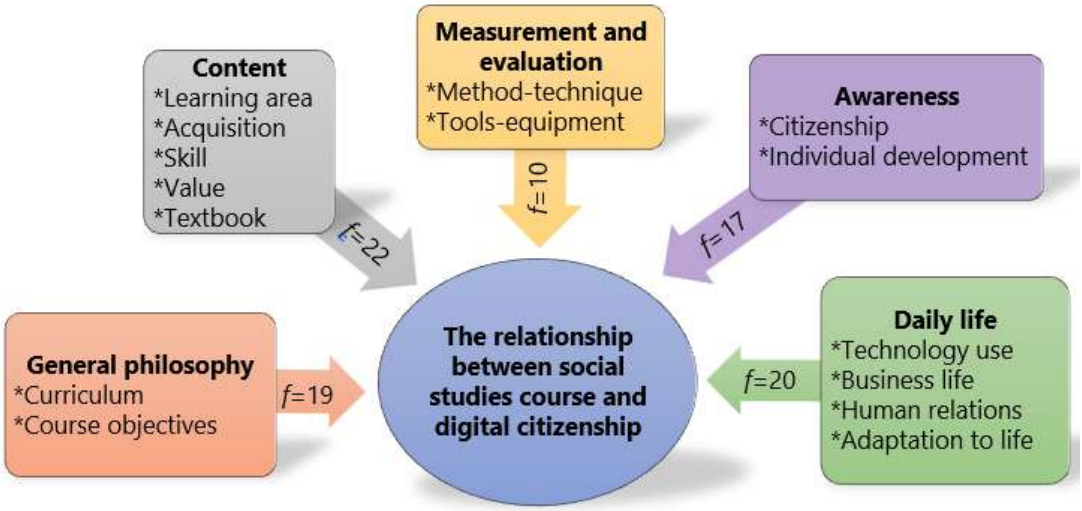


Figure 1 shows the themes and categories of the relationship between digital citizenship and social studies courses according to teachers' views. Teachers established a relationship between digital citizenship and social studies courses, mostly in content (f=22) and least in measurement and evaluation (f=10). The codes belonging to the themes and categories formed according to teachers' views are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Teachers' Views on the Relationship between Digital Citizenship and Social Studies Course

Theme	*Category*	*Code*
General philosophy	Curriculum	General approach, scope, being in life, adaptation to today's world, concern for human and society, citizenship knowledge, human rights, technology, digital contents and applications
	Course objectives	Adaptation to developments, community participation, socialization, preparation for life, strong society, effective citizenship, rights, responsibilities, and freedoms, raising digital citizens, technology, society and science, using digital platforms
Content	Learning area	Science, Technology and Society; Individual and Society; People, Places and Environments; Culture and Heritage; Production, Distribution and Consumption; Active Citizenship; Global Connections
	Acquisition	Scientific and technological developments, adaptation to the changing world, participation in society, socialization, rights and responsibilities, raising citizens, raising digital citizens, digital literacy, digital and virtual environment, digital applications and tools, public network, digital ethics and security, communication tools

Tablo 2. (Cont.)

	Skill	Individual development skills, 21st century skills, digital age adaptation skills, online communication, using technology correctly, digital literacy, media literacy, legal literacy, social participation, political literacy, research, financial literacy, entrepreneurship, innovative thinking, decision making, self-control, communication, empathy, critical thinking, problem solving, perceiving change and continuity, using Turkish correctly, beautifully, and effectively
	Value	Diligence, thrift, justice, equity, equality, responsibility, equality, freedom, independence, respect, sensitivity, honesty, scientificity
	Textbook	Everything about human, human and society, socialization, culture, citizenship, digital citizenship, law, democracy, rights and freedoms, children's rights, technology and digital issues, digital concepts, digital literacy, virtual security, cyber security, communication, access to information, invention, scientific ethics, economy, production, and consumption
Measurement and evaluation	Method-technique	Project, homework, performance task, online activities, blog posts, online interviews (EBA, ZOOM), video recording, wiki activity, poster preparation, use of digital platforms
	Tools and equipment	Online assessment tools, web 2.0 tools (Kahoot, Nearpod, Mentimeter), video
Awareness	Citizenship	Active citizenship, digital citizenship, convenience in citizenship transactions, utilization of technology in individual-state relations, conscious use of technology, rights and responsibilities, communication and communication tools, strong society, national unity and solidarity, the basis of social life
	Individual development	Life adaptation skills, well-equipped and resourceful individual profile, proper use of technology, social benefit, looking to the future with confidence
Daily life	Technology use	Digitalizing world, recognizing the digital environment, and using it in line with ethical principles, use of digital tools, responsible and safe internet use, access to information
	Business life	Digitalization, convenience, trade, shopping
	Human relations	Social life, socialization/socialization, socialization in virtual environment, respect, communication, empathy
	Adaptation to life	Effects on human life, everything in daily life, preparation for life, globalizing world, adaptation to the changing world, technological life today and in the future, citizenship in the new age, convenience in citizenship procedures, active participation

Table 2 shows teacher views on the relationship between digital citizenship and social studies courses. All social studies teachers who participated in the study stated that digital citizenship and social studies courses are related. According to teachers' views, there was a relationship between digital citizenship and social studies courses in the themes of general philosophy, content, measurement and evaluation, awareness, and daily life.

When the views of social studies teachers on the relationship between digital citizenship and social studies course are analyzed; in the general philosophy theme, the categories of curriculum and course objectives were included. In this theme, T7: "*Citizenship naturally appears as an area that is evaluated within the scope of the social studies course. Consequently, the concept of digital citizenship is directly related to the philosophy of the social studies course*".

In the content theme, the categories of learning domain, outcome, skill, value, and textbook were emphasized. Regarding this relationship, T17 stated, "*Digital citizenship is very closely related to some of the learning outcomes and topics of the social studies course*". In the measurement and evaluation theme, method-technique and tools and materials categories were formed. In this theme, T2 stated, "*The use of online assessment and evaluation tools shows that the social studies course is related to digital citizenship. In the awareness theme, citizenship and individual development categories were included*." Within the scope of this theme, T22: "*Social Studies Course is of great importance in raising effective citizens who can use the digital environment. A social studies course creates awareness in students about digital citizenship.*" In the daily life theme, the categories of technology use, business life, human relations, and adaptation to life came to the fore. This theme was emphasized by T19: "*Social studies is a course in life. Digital citizenship is related to the social studies course because digital environments are now part of our daily lives.*"

Teacher Perceptions About the Relationship between The Sub-Dimensions of Digital Citizenship and Social Studies Course

The findings of social studies teachers on the relationship between the sub-dimensions of digital citizenship and the social studies course are shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Teachers' Views on the Relationship between Digital Citizenship Sub-Dimensions and Social Studies Course

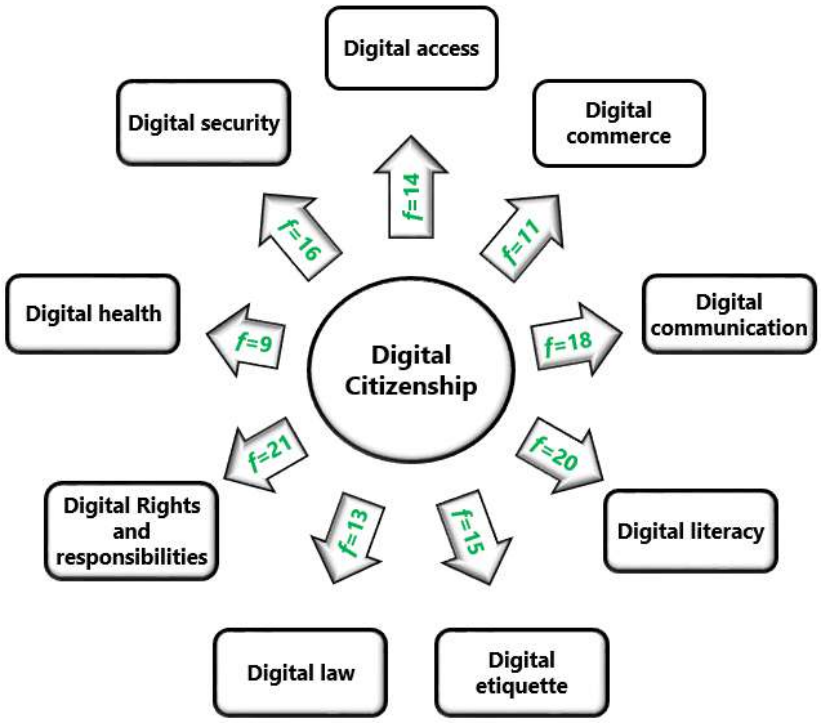


Figure 2 shows the frequency values of the opinions of social studies teachers regarding which sub-dimensions of digital citizenship should be included in the social studies course. Teachers stated that all the sub-dimensions of digital citizenship should be included in the social studies course. They stated that digital rights and responsibilities and digital literacy

should be included the most, and digital health and digital commerce should be included the least.

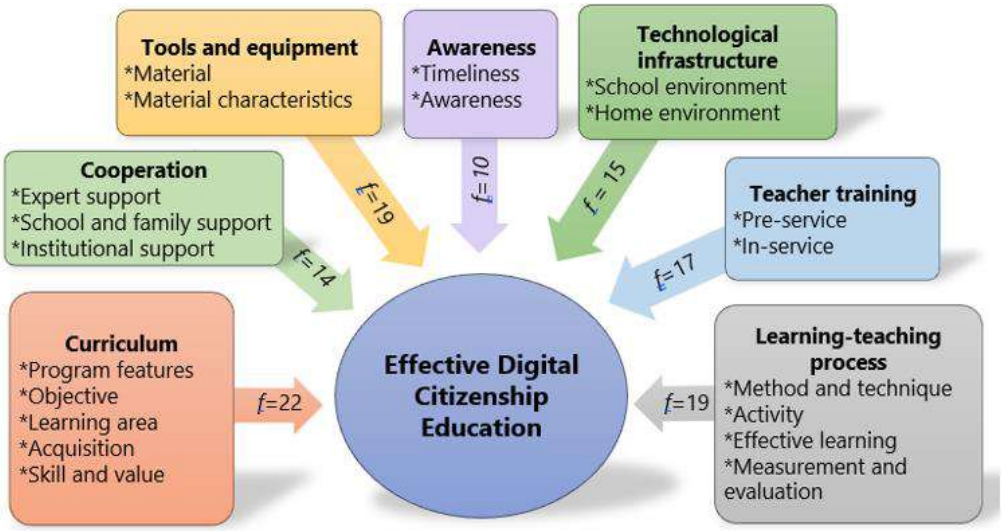
In the sub-dimension of digital rights and responsibilities, T8, "*Citizenship rights and responsibilities are already included in many elements of the social studies course. For this reason, your rights and responsibilities as a digital citizen should also be included*." In the digital literacy sub-dimension, T14, "*Digital literacy is included in the current curriculum as content and skills. In today's world where everything is digitalized, this skill should be provided to students through the social studies course. emphasized the skills training in the social studies course*." In the digital communication sub-dimension, T4 stated, "*One of the important tasks of the social studies course is to provide individuals with communication skills, which are among the 21st century skills. Therefore, this sub-dimension should be included in the course.*" In the digital security sub-dimension, T13, "*In the social studies course, which aims to raise effective citizens, citizens who are aware of how to ensure their safety in the digital environment should be raised*." In the digital etiquette sub-dimension, T24 emphasized values education by saying, "*The social studies course, which has adopted the mission of gaining many values, should also provide students with digital* etiquette *as a value*." In the digital access sub-dimension, T9, "*Students' digital access skills should be improved, especially in research, for this purpose, students should be provided with equal digital access opportunities in the social studies course*." In the digital commerce sub-dimension, T23 emphasized the issue of conscious consumers by saying, "*Digital commerce should be included in the social studies course so as to raise conscious consumers*." In the digital health sub-dimension, T21 stated his opinion as follows: "*Students should be made aware of digital health in order to prevent health problems in the digital world, where we have started to spend too much time.*"

Teacher Recommendations for More Effective Teaching of Digital Citizenship in Social Studies Course

The themes and categories for teachers' views on how they can help students gain digital citizenship more effectively in the social studies course are given in Figure 3.

Figure 3

Themes and Categories of Teachers' Views on How to Make Students Acquire Digital Citizenship More Effectively in the Social Studies Course



The themes and categories consisting of teachers' views on the more effective acquisition of digital citizenship in the social studies course are given in Figure 3. Teachers emphasized the themes of curriculum (f = 22) and awareness (f = 10), respectively, in terms of making students acquire digital citizenship more effectively in the social studies course. The codes belonging to the themes and categories formed from teachers' opinions are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Teachers' Views on How to Help Students Acquire Digital Citizenship More Effectively in the Social Studies Course

Theme	*Category*	*Code*
Curriculum	Program features	In life, up to date, integrated with technology, critical and questioning
	Objective	Conscious use of information and communication technologies
	Learning area	Addition of new learning areas, association with learning areas, balanced distribution to learning areas
	Acquisition	Addition of new acquisitions, association with acquisitions, balanced distribution of acquisitions, global acquisitions
	Skill and value	Adding new skills and values, associating with skills and values
Learning-teaching process	Method and Technique	Learning models, various methods and techniques, active learning-teaching methods, and techniques, choosing the right method and technique, project (e-twinning, Erasmus, TÜBİTAK, international, national and local projects, project assignments), case studies
	Activity	Activity-based, digital, multifaceted, diverse, applied, product and process-oriented, active participation, material-supported, collaborative, use of online facilities, creation of activity areas
	Effective learning	Impact on education-teaching life, facilitating education-teaching, permanent, effective, concrete, critical, computer-aided, active student participation, teacher guidance, differentiation-enrichment, presenting case studies, correct use of digital technologies, benefiting from digital platforms, digital citizenship sub-dimensions
	Measurement and evaluation	Alternative assessment and evaluation, web 2.0 tools, online supported, digital assessment tools
Tools and equipment	Material	Videos, modules, e-applications, visuals, animations, simulations, web 2.0 tools, digital content, digital tools, digital programs, interactive whiteboards, social media platforms, banners/posters, newsletters, podcasts, e-books, flashcards, infographics
	Material characteristics	Simple, clear, understandable, interactive, interactive, age and interest appropriate, up-to-date, versatile, digital, increase in subject content, balanced subject distribution, digital citizenship content
Awareness	Timeliness	Preparation for the changing world, adaptation to the conditions of the time, catching up with what is current, associating with daily life, the importance of the digital world in today's world, social media issues
	Awareness	Digital citizenship, sub-dimensions, importance, usage areas, benefits and harms, generalizability
Technological infrastructure	School environment	Technology-supported classrooms and workshops, internet access, interactive digital environments, appropriate physical facilities, simulation areas, practice areas, equal opportunities, increasing technological opportunities
	Home environment	Internet access, interactive digital environments, appropriate physical facilities, environments for practice, equal opportunities, increasing technological opportunities
Teacher training	Pre-service	Equipped, competent, digital savvy, academically trained, qualified education, taking relevant courses
	In-service	Receiving training on self-updating, digital citizenship education and training, digital tools, and methods-techniques

Table 3 (Cont.)

Cooperation	Expert support	Expert companies, expert people, expert training
	School and family support	Parent-school administration cooperation, parent-teacher cooperation, teacher-administration cooperation, cooperation between teachers

Table 3 presents teachers' views on how to help students acquire digital citizenship more effectively in the social studies course. According to teachers' opinions, the categories of curriculum, learning-teaching process, tools and materials, awareness, technological infrastructure, teacher training, and cooperation were formed. Under these themes, various categories and codes have been formed.

In the curriculum theme, curriculum features, purpose, learning domain, outcome, skill, and value categories were included. In this context, T1: "*The outcomes of the course should be associated with digital citizenship, and outcomes directly related to each of the digital citizenship steps should be included. Digital citizenship topics should be included in the content.*" In the learning-teaching process theme, method and technique, activity, effective learning, measurement, and evaluation categories emerged. In this theme, T12: "*Activity-based digital applications should be included in the learning and teaching process of the course. Sample applications such as voting in a digital environment can be done.*" In the equipment theme, material and material features categories were included. In this direction, T3 states, "*The course should be supported by digital tools such as visuals, animations, and videos and should be taught interactively.*" On the theme of awareness, the categories of topicality and consciousness were formed. In this direction, T25 stated, "*The awareness that digital citizenship is an important need in the changing world should be given to students in the social studies course.*" In the technological infrastructure theme, school environment and home environment categories were included. Regarding this theme, T9 stated, "*The technological infrastructure of schools should be supported. I think social studies workshops should be established and equipped with appropriate technology.*" In the theme of teacher training, pre-service and in-service categories came to the fore. As an example of this theme, T8 stated, "*First of all, teacher candidates should take courses about digital citizenship at universities. After they start teaching, they should constantly update themselves on this subject.*" In the cooperation theme, expert support, school and family support, and institutional support categories were included. T18: "*People who are experts in digital citizenship can be invited to the classroom, and support can be received from them. In addition, family trainings should be organized, and the subject should be handled in a multidimensional way.*"

Discussion

When the results regarding the relationship between digital citizenship and the social studies course were analyzed, teachers stated that the social studies course is related to digital citizenship in terms of general philosophy, content, assessment and evaluation, awareness raising, and daily life themes. In the 21st century, since technology is an indispensable part of our daily lives and one of the main objectives of the social studies course is to ensure that the individual is socialized and becomes an active citizen, the relationship between digital citizenship and the social studies course emerges as a need. Therefore, it can be said that digital citizenship is reflected in the general philosophy, content, and education process of the social

studies course, at least to raise awareness. Similar to the results of the study, Kilci (2019) also stated that teachers consider the social studies course has an association digital citizenship. In his study, he stated that teachers conceive the social studies course and digital citizenship as related because the subjects of the social studies course are from real life and are important in terms of citizenship education.

Teachers think that digital citizenship is connected to the general philosophy of the social studies course. In this direction, teachers emphasized the curriculum and objectives of the course. The social studies course has a mission and vision to raise good citizens. For digital citizenship, the social studies curriculum (MoNE, 2018, p. 8) aims to raise individuals as citizens of the Republic of Turkey who love their homeland and nation, know and use their rights, fulfill their responsibilities, and have national consciousness and use information and communication technologies consciously by comprehending the development process of science and technology and its effects on social life. Altun and Bangir-Alpan (2021) stated that innovations in education should be implemented in curricula in order to raise individuals who can play an effective role in the conditions of their age. Considering that we live in a digital age, it has become a necessity for the social studies course, which is about what happens in life, to include digital citizenship elements in the philosophy and objectives of the course. Karaduman and Öztürk (2014) also emphasized that shifting citizenship competencies to the online environment can contribute to raising digital citizens by including them in the social studies curriculum. In parallel with the results of the study, Kilci (2019) also stated that teachers specified that the social studies curriculum should be organized in a way to meet the needs of the information society and that the curriculum should include more topics related to digital citizenship.

The teachers participating in the study mentioned that the content of the social studies course is related to digital citizenship. It was found that learning domains, outcomes, skills, values, and textbooks are related to digital citizenship. In this direction, Çakmak and Aslan (2018) also suggested that digital citizenship should be integrated into the curriculum of the social studies course. Pala (2023) found that 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th grade social studies textbooks include all sub-dimensions of digital citizenship. In the study, it was explained that although many learning areas of the social studies course are related to digital citizenship, especially "Science, Technology, and Society" and "Active Citizenship" learning areas are directly related to digital citizenship. It was also stated that many pieces of content reflecting digital citizenship and its sub-dimensions were included in the achievements that constitute the objectives and contents of the learning areas. Similarly, it can be said that some of the skills and values that students are expected to acquire, develop, and transfer to their lives during the learning process are directly related to digital citizenship and its sub-dimensions. Teachers expressed that skills such as digital literacy (this skill is directly included in the curriculum as a sub-dimension of digital citizenship), media literacy, legal literacy, social participation, political literacy, and research, and values such as justice, equality, responsibility, equity, equality, respect, sensitivity, and science are related to digital citizenship. Aydın (2015) also stated that individuals should acquire and develop 21st century skills in line with digital citizenship education.

In the study, teachers stated that digital citizenship is related to the measurement and evaluation dimension of the social studies course. Teachers stated that the methods,

techniques, and tools used in measurement and evaluation are related to digital citizenship. Methods and techniques that can be used in digital areas in measurement and evaluation have come to the fore. Examples of this include online activities, blog posts, online interviews, video recording, wiki activity, poster creation, and the methods and techniques that are built into the digital world. Similarly, teachers have stated that online measuring tools, web 2.0 tools (such as Kahoot, Nearpod, Mentimeter, etc.), and tools and materials for measuring and assessing devices such as video are associated with digital citizenship. Learning and assessing digital citizenship skills can allow teachers to measure and evaluate how well students do in the digital world. In addition, digital content tools, methods, and techniques for measuring and evaluating it offer opportunities for students to develop digital citizenship skills.

Teachers have stated that digital citizenship is associated with the course of social studies in terms of raising awareness of citizenship and individual development. In the social studies course, one of the great lessons of citizen cultivation is how citizenship can integrate the concept into the digital world. In particular, many forms of citizenship are now available digitally, and many of the benefits of the digital world to citizens have helped teachers develop the association. The emphasis has been placed on the role of the lesson in social knowledge as an awareness-raising level of the need for individuals to use informed technology, know their rights, and fulfill their responsibilities to conduct their citizenship in a digital setting. Bird et al. (2017) expressed that the process of integrating technology into the education system encountered a number of problems with rights and responsibilities in digital environments. With the new generation's emphasis on digital media, educators are starting to move beyond current civic education. However, there are significant gaps between the traditionally taught civil rights and responsibilities and the rights and responsibilities of young people in digital media. Therefore, it is important that individuals become active digital citizens to close these gaps. The role of social knowledge is crucial in ensuring young people are able to develop individually and build awareness of these issues.

The lesson in social studies needs to be intertwined with popular culture in everyday life, as it is a course that contributes to the socialization of students and enables them to be socialized. As such, the social studies course can benefit from popular culture by both bringing in active citizens and promoting socialization (Kan, 2011). Digital citizenship can also be considered as a part of popular culture. In this study, teachers draw a relationship between digital citizenship and everyday life, including the use of technology, business, human relationships, and the course of social knowledge in life harmony. In the study, aspects of the use of technology were highlighted, including the recognition and use of digital media and tools in the digitized world; ease of shopping and trade; ease of human relations; socializing and communicating in the virtual environment; convergence and convergence to life; preparation for life today and in the future; harmony with the changing world; technological life; and new citizenship. Erdoğan and Tonga (2020) stated that individuals should demonstrate their behavior in their daily lives online as well. In this way, individuals will be engaged in the process of becoming digital citizens. So, when we use technological tools, we'll grow individuals who are conscious and responsible. In this context, Deveci and Bayır (2011) stated that the course of social studies is a subject that aims to give students life-related knowledge, skills, values, attitudes, and behaviors to actively participate in life as citizens.

When examining the results of the lower dimensions of digital citizenship that should be included in the social studies course, teachers stated that all digital citizenship sub-dimensions must be included in the course of social studies. In support of this result, Kilci (2019) also mentioned that all digital citizenship sub-dimensions are associated with the course of social studies. In this direction, Ribble (2012) suggested that the sub-dimensions of digital citizenship help educators explain digital citizenship to their students. According to teachers in the study, social information should be included in the maximum digital rights and responsibilities and the digital literacy sub-dimension. Rights and liability are incorporated into many aspects of the social studies course curriculum, such as objectives and achievements. In fact, the social studies course is outlined directly in the course of its curriculum (MoNE, 2018), where a number of issues have arisen over citizenship rights and responsibilities, including digital citizenship, e-government, virtual trade, and so on, in recent years. The fact that similar expressions are included in many elements of the curriculum suggests that the sub-dimension of digital rights and responsibilities is directly related to the topics covered in social studies. Digital literacy, a sub-dimension of digital citizenship, has been included in many elements of the curriculum, and even in the social studies course curriculum, digital literacy is a fundamental skill set that must be made available to students.

In the course of social studies, teachers said that digital citizenship should be included in at least digital health and digital commerce as sub-dimensions. While these sub-dimensions may also be related to the social studies course, they may be less relevant to the social studies class than other sub-dimensions. Suppo (2013) stated that teachers should have a better understanding of digital health and trade. Kilci (2019) determined that digital health and digital access were the least associated sub-dimensions of the teacher's social knowledge with digital citizenship. It has reached the point where teachers view communication, law, rights and responsibilities, and privacy and security sub-dimensions as more important for the social studies course. On the other hand, according to Ribble (2011), educators should discuss which sub-dimensions of digital citizenship should have priority. However, the underlying dimensions, which seem less important today, still need to be defined and understood. Because new technologies can create problems that educators can't anticipate. For this reason, educators must remain vigilant about new uses of technology as they arise and have a complete understanding of the nine sub-dimensions of digital citizenship. Some studies have also shown that children experience problems with certain sub-dimensions of digital citizenship online (Deniz, 2010; Kabakçı & Can, 2009; Kadli et al., 2010).

When studying the results of a more effective integration of digital citizenship into the social studies course, teachers felt that a number of regulations had to be made in the course in order to better integrate digital citizenship skills with students. They argue that the curriculum should have critical and inquisitive features built into it that are up-to-date and technology-integrated. In the curriculum, they stated that the interconnectedness of digital citizenship, learning areas, acquisition, skills, and values must be balanced across learning areas, acquisition, skills, and values of digital citizenship. They have told the program that new learning areas, acquisitions, skills, and values associated with digital citizenship should be added. Similarly, Aydemir (2019) stated that knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values associated with digital citizenship and its sub-dimensions must be incorporated into the SSC in order for digital citizenship education to be delivered more effectively in the social studies course. In fact, Pala and Başıbüyük (2023)

found that digital literacy, one of the sub-dimensions of digital citizenship, influenced students' academic achievements in social studies. Kilci (2019) stated that while the teacher's course on social information was fairly well suited for taking on digital citizenship, the curriculum did not include a learning area with the name of digital citizenship. Kilci thought that digital citizenship was not covered by technology-related issues. However, Pala (2023) determined that many elements of the SSC include all the sub-dimensions of digital citizenship. The social studies course curriculum is very important for civic education and can play an important role in providing knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes in digital citizenship education. The social studies course can be used functionally to raise future digital citizens (Karaduman & Öztürk, 2014). According to Ribble (2006), the curriculum for digital citizenship issues and skills must be included in the curriculum for students to increase their awareness of the digital world and learn the necessary skills and knowledge to demonstrate responsible, informed, and ethical behavior in the digital world. Digital citizenship education must be integrated into the curriculums.

In the learning-teaching process, teachers are encouraged to better integrate digital citizenship into students' lives. They believe that effective learning and understanding appropriate measuring-and-evaluating techniques and tools will be achieved through using several learning-teaching methods and techniques and, various activities. In their studies, Karaduman and Öztürk (2014) argued that the implementation of activities based on digital citizenship during teaching social studies positively affected the attitudes of students toward the digital medium. In their study, they stated that after the application of digital citizenship-based activities in the social studies class, students identified digital citizens as individuals who effectively used the Internet and technology. They have also stated that digital citizens are individuals who have rights and responsibilities, follow ethical guidelines, participate on the internet, communicate on the internet, pursue the agenda, comment, criticize, shop, and contribute to the environment. According to Demiraslan and Usluel (2005), although the majority of teachers are able to use computers, they are not sufficiently active in integrating digital technologies into the learning process. This has become a major issue due to the frequent use of digital technology by schoolchildren (Karaduman & Öztürk, 2014). For digital citizenship skills to be acquired by students, a variety of activities are expected to be held using a variety of methods and techniques in the teaching and learning process for teachers.

According to teachers, the materials used for digital citizenship education are important in social studies. Using the right materials can help students develop their digital citizenship skills, move safely and responsibly in the digital environment, and experience effective learning. For students in elementary education to acquire digital citizenship skills, students, and educators, according to Çubukçu and Bayzan (2013), must use technology and other digital platforms specifically, with an understanding of online technologies and other digital platforms within the context of their technological needs. Öztürk (2021) also stated that students should be able to distinguish between right and wrong situations using digital technologies. In his opinion, students should be given the opportunity to use different applications while knowing the risks of their digital media. Digital citizenship involves individuals using digital technologies correctly and appropriately. The use of digital materials will contribute to the development of digital citizenship. In this study, teachers also stated that many digital materials must be used to help students gain digital citizenship.

Teachers have emphasized that in social studies, mindfulness needs to be created in students in terms of currency and consciousness in order to study digital citizenship. This can help students act safely and responsibly in a digital environment and improve their digital citizenship skills. Keeping students' knowledge and skills about the digital world updated could lead to effective learning about digital citizenship. Because the digital world is rapidly evolving and changing, students are familiar with the current use of the digital world and can adapt to the present, allowing them to be prepared for the kinds of issues they face in the digital world. It is therefore important to teach digital citizenship in the social studies class while teachers keep up with current events to share these updated skills with students, bringing up-to-date skills to students about the digital world. In addition, they must be aware of the risks they could face in digital media, know the steps they can take to protect themselves and their environment, and be conscious of their digital citizenship. In this direction, according to Kilci (2019), social studies course contributes to the upbringing of digital citizens. Because the course of social studies is modeled around the concept of citizenship, it also informs students about these concepts in digital citizenship training, raising awareness of how to become a better citizen in the digital world.

Teachers feel that a technology infrastructure in the home and school environment is necessary for students to receive better digital citizenship training in social studies. For students to develop digital citizenship skills using technology accurately and effectively, it is important to have an appropriate technology environment at home and in school. In effect, Pala and Başıbüyük (2020) found that students differed from their digital literacy levels and had the lowest dimensions of digital citizenship in the case of computers, tablets, and the internet in their homes. For this reason, schools require students to have access to a source such as computers, interactive boards, and an Internet connection, and at home they must have the appropriate internet connection, computers, and tablets. Students can safely apply the skills they have learned to use the digital world healthily. To this end, projects are underway in schools that boost the use of educational technologies, provide students with access to the digital world more easily, access to lecture materials and resources, and provide access to tablets, computers, and the internet for students to move through education more effectively (Çakmak and Aslan, 2018). Through technological infrastructure, individuals will become digital citizens who effectively use technology and the Internet, know their rights and responsibilities online, and can take advantage of economic, political, and social opportunities online (Erdogan & Tonga, 2020). According to Ribble (2011), when technology becomes more accessible than ever and students use these technologies more often (both at school and outside of school), educators may continually evaluate the course for digital citizenship and prioritize their priorities.

For digital citizenship training, it is important that teachers are up-to-date and equipped with the right information so they can provide this knowledge to students. In the study, teachers stated that they should receive both pre-service and in-service training in digital citizenship. With these trainings, teachers will guide their students to access the right information and help them demonstrate an example of digital citizenship. In studying this, Kilci (2019) found that social teachers did not know enough about digital citizenship and that most did not even hear about the digital citizenship sub-dimensions. Arcagök (2020) found that teachers' perceptions of digital citizenship were moderate. According to Özer et al. (2017),

social studies has revealed that teacher candidates for are not qualified for digital citizenship. Thus, he stated, the practice of developing digital citizenship competencies should be undertaken since prospective teachers will take on the task of raising the digital citizens of the future. The results of these studies support that teachers in the current study should receive training on digital citizenship. Çakmak and Aslan (2018), on the other hand, emphasized that social studies teacher candidates are qualified to train new generations of teachers who know technology, use it, and digitize it. He also stated that the universities' social studies teacher education undergraduate programs should include a wide range of digital citizenship courses. Karaduman and Öztürk (2014) emphasized that it is now becoming a necessity for teachers to provide and model various insights into the appropriate use of technology and the internet. On the other hand, Kadli et al. (2010) stated that students learned by themselves and through their friends the vast majority of their Internet use skills. Children are unable to adapt to changing online environments as they are not models for the proper use of digital technology. A major difference in how teachers and students view technology may be one of the reasons (Karaduman & Öztürk, 2014). That said, according to Ribble (2011), students already use these technologies, while teachers must fund students to use them appropriately. On the other hand, Kabakçı and Can (2009) supported the results of the current study by stating that although most of the teachers received training on computer and internet security in undergraduate education, they did not consider themselves sufficient in this subject.

In social studies, teachers state that collaboration is important for digital citizenship education and that there should be expert, school, family, and corporate support. Digital citizenship training may require expert assistance from cooperative institutions and stakeholders. Collaborating with technologists, psychologists, and other experts to teach students about digital literacy skills, internet security, cyberbullying, etc. Schools and families can guide students through proper digital citizenship behaviors, such as setting rules and limits on the use of digital devices, teaching control of internet use, and raising awareness. Similar to the results of the study, Kilci (2019) stated that digital citizenship skills should be earned by children's parents and teachers. Aydin (2015) stated that in the case of digital citizenship education, families and educational institutions must produce policies and design educational programs. Karaduman and Öztürk (2014) stated that in school, teachers and families should support the children in terms of digital citizenship. Enterprise support, on the other hand, is also important in digital citizenship education. By developing policies and strategies in this area, schools can help students develop digital citizenship skills, and funding can be provided for teacher training in digital citizenship. All this support can help students demonstrate effective civic behavior in the digital world. Again, it supports the results of the present study, according to Özden and Yılmaz (2008), parents expect teachers to inform students of the proper usage and benefits of the internet. On the other hand, Demiraslan and Usluel (2005) recommended that teachers should receive in-service training on their technology skills, that school management should be supportive of them, and that teachers should provide the necessary resources. Demiraslan and Usluel also stated that all organizations, such as the MoNE, which is responsible for teaching teachers, and universities, need to cooperate to integrate their technology skills into the learning and teaching process.

Conclusion

In the study, social studies teachers explained that social studies is associated with general philosophy, content, measuring and assessing, awareness building, and digital citizenship in terms of everyday life. This conclusion highlights how the integration of social studies education and digital citizenship intertwines in various aspects. Moreover, this finding underscores that social studies serve as a platform for cultivating conscientious digital citizenship skills among students, further indicating an inherent connection between social studies and digital citizenship.

The teachers also stated that all digital citizenship sub-dimensions must be included in the social studies course. This suggests that the social studies course and the digital citizenship sub-dimensions are closely related to the social studies course. This result underscores that the social studies curriculum not only reflects social sciences such as history and geography but also highlights the necessity of cultivating prepared individuals, equipped to navigate the digital world conscientiously in the modern era.

Teachers noted that in order to better integrate digital citizenship into social studies, a number of changes are needed in SSC curriculum in terms of learning and teaching processes, teaching materials, awareness, technological infrastructure, teacher training, and collaboration. In general, teachers believe that digital citizenship is related to the social studies course. However, this shows that there are a number of shortcomings in the social studies course regarding the acquisition of digital citizenship by students. This result reveals that a number of studies are necessary to make digital citizenship better suited for students in social studies.

Recommendations

The study found that digital citizenship was associated with social studies. In this relationship, the emphasis was placed on the curriculum. However, despite the belief that digital citizenship is related to the SSC, the curriculum has been able to make arrangements. In this way, the SSC update efforts could further consider the issue of digital citizenship, allowing a greater and more balanced coverage of digital citizenship and its sub-dimensions.

It's now inevitable to spend time in the digital world. But what's important about this is how much time you spend in the digital world, how much quality time you spend in the digital world, or how you use the digital world correctly and how you benefit from it. The study shows that teachers are emphasizing such issues as raising awareness, collaboration, and teacher training in the field of digital citizenship. To achieve better digital citizenship status for students, school administrators, teachers, students, and parents must have various trainings in collaboration with digital citizenship. In this way, the SSC can provide more meaningful, and effective digital citizenship education.

The study highlighted the use of technological infrastructure, digital materials, and methods and techniques considered to be at the forefront of growing digital citizens more effectively in social studies. However, it is thought that situations such as including digital citizenship in various elements of SSC and providing teacher training will not be sufficient. In this context, in order to create equality of opportunity and to enable teachers to implement their suggestions, technological infrastructure should be created in social studies classrooms/workshops in

schools and environments that can create opportunities for students to learn by doing and experiencing should be created.

Limitations

The study was conducted for digital citizenship education in social studies course. In this context, the study is limited to the data obtained from the semi-structured interview form including the research questions created by the researcher.

Different studies of digital citizenship have been conducted, and different classifications of their subgroups have been made. Similar sub-dimensions have been identified in studies, but differences exist. This study is limited to the sub-dimensions of digital citizenship established by Ribble (2011).

The study group is limited to 25 social studies teachers in the Turkish province of Erzincan in the 2022–2023 school year. In the fourth grade, the social studies class is taught by class teachers, and in the 5th, 6th, and 7th grades by social studies teachers. For this reason, in order to obtain more valid results, social studies teachers were consulted in the study, while classroom teachers were not consulted because they only teach the course in the 4th grade.

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TÜRKÇE GENİŞ ÖZET

Dijital Vatandaşlığın Sosyal Bilgiler Dersine Yansımaları: Öğretmen Görüşleri

Giriş

Teknoloji, günümüzde hızla gelişen ve değişen bir alan olarak, insan hayatını etkileyen önemli bir unsur hâline gelmiştir. Bu etki, iletişimden iş dünyasına, eğitimden sağlığa kadar birçok alanı kapsayarak insanların yaşam tarzlarını, alışkanlıklarını ve toplumsal dinamiklerini değiştirmeye başlamıştır. Bu nedenle günlük hayatımızda yer alan birçok kavram ya değişmiş ya da yeni kavramlar ortaya çıkmıştır. Değişen kavramların biri de vatandaşlık kavramıdır (Görmez, 2017). Yaşanan değişimlerle birlikte bireyler zorunlu olarak dijital dünyanın vazgeçilmez bir vatandaşı hâline gelmiş (Kara ve Atasoy, 2019) ve vatandaşlık, dijital bir yapıya bürünmüştür (Aslan, 2016). Vatandaşların dijital ortamlarda neleri yapması ya da yapmaması gerektiğini bilmeleri ihtiyacı ise dijital vatandaşlık kavramını ortaya çıkarmıştır (Görmez, 2016).

Dijitalleşen dünyada okul öncesinden lisansüstü eğitime kadar geçen sürede öğrencilerin farklı yetilerini geliştirme ve çağın ihtiyaçlarına uygun nesiller yetiştirme konularında eğitimcilere büyük sorumluluklar düşmektedir. Güncelliği gittikçe artan ve bireysel yaşamın vazgeçilmez bir olgusu hâline dönüşen dijital vatandaşlık kavramı öğretmenlerin bakış açılarına göre betimlenmelidir. Öğrencilerin dijital vatandaşlık becerilerini öğrenmeleri, öğretmenlerinin dijital vatandaşlık konusundaki anlayışlarıyla yakından ilişkilidir. Öğretmenlerin, öğrencilerine dijital vatandaşlık konusunda nasıl yaklaştıkları, hangi beceriyi önemli gördükleri, öğretim yöntemleri ve araçları hakkındaki düşünceleri, konunun farklı yönlerinin ele alınmasını ve tartışılmasını sağlayabilir. Bu da dijital vatandaşlık eğitimi konusunda daha kapsamlı ve zengin bir literatürün oluşmasına katkı sağlayabilir. Dolayısıyla dersin uygulayıcısı olan öğretmenlerin bu konudaki görüşleri önemlidir. Bu nedenle çalışmada sosyal bilgiler öğretmenlerinin görüşlerine göre sosyal bilgiler dersi ile dijital vatandaşlık ilişkisinin incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır.

Yöntem

Çalışmada nitel temel desen kullanılmıştır. Nitel çalışmalar insanların yaşamlarını nasıl anlamlandırdıklarıyla ilgilidir. Nitel temel desenin amacı da bu anlamları ortaya çıkarmak ve yorumlamaktır (Merriam, 2013). Çalışmada bu desenin kullanılmasının sebebi sosyal bilgiler dersi ile dijital vatandaşlığın ilişkisine yönelik olarak sosyal bilgiler öğretmenlerinin gözlemlerini, görüşlerini, deneyimlerini nasıl anlamlandırdıklarının incelenmesidir. Çalışma grubunu, 2022-2023 eğitim-öğretim yılında Erzincan ilinde görev yapan 25 sosyal bilgiler öğretmeni oluşturmaktadır. Çalışma grubu belirlenirken amaçlı örnekleme tekniklerinden ölçüt

örnekleme kullanılmıştır. Veriler, yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme yoluyla toplanmıştır. Veriler içerik analizi ve betimsel analiz yapılarak çözümlenmiştir.

Bulgular

Çalışmada elde edilen veriler analiz edildiğinde, sosyal bilgiler öğretmenleri dijital vatandaşlık ve sosyal bilgiler dersinin ilişkili olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Genel felsefe, içerik, ölçme ve değerlendirme, farkındalık ve günlük yaşam temalarında dijital vatandaşlık ve sosyal bilgiler dersi arasında ilişki görülmüştür. Öğretmenler dijital vatandaşlık alt boyutlarının hepsine sosyal bilgiler dersinde yer verilmesi gerektiğini belirtmişlerdir. En fazla dijital haklar ve sorumluluklar ile dijital okuryazarlık, en az ise dijital sağlık ve dijital ticaret alt boyutuna yer verilmesi gerektiğini ifade etmişlerdir. Ayrıca öğretmenlere göre sosyal bilgiler dersinde dijital vatandaşlığın öğrencilere daha etkili bir şekilde kazandırılması için; öğretim programı, öğrenme-öğretme süreci, araç-gereç, farkındalık, teknolojik altyapı, öğretmen eğitimi ve iş birliği kategorilerinde çalışmalar yapılmalıdır.

Tartışma

Öğretmenler sosyal bilgiler dersinin genel felsefe, içerik, ölçme ve değerlendirme, farkındalık oluşturma ve günlük yaşam temaları açısından dijital vatandaşlık ile ilişkili olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Kilci (2019) de öğretmenlerin sosyal bilgiler dersini dijital vatandaşlık ile ilişkili gördüklerini ifade etmiştir. Sosyal bilgiler dersinin temel amaçları arasında bireyin toplumsallaşmasını ve etkin vatandaş olmasını sağlamak olduğu için dijital vatandaşlık ile sosyal bilgiler dersi arasındaki ilişki bir ihtiyaç olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır. Bu doğrultuda öğretmenler de dijital vatandaşlığın sosyal bilgiler dersinin genel felsefesine, içeriğine, eğitim öğretim sürecine yansıtıldığını ifade etmişlerdir.

Sosyal bilgiler öğretmenleri dijital vatandaşlık alt boyutlarının hepsine sosyal bilgiler dersinde yer verilmesi gerektiğini ifade etmişlerdir. Bu durum sosyal bilgiler dersi ile dijital vatandaşlığın ve alt boyutlarının yakından ilişkili olduğunu göstermektedir. Ribble (2012) ise dijital vatandaşlığın alt boyutlarının, eğitimcilerin dijital vatandaşlığı öğrencilerine açıklamalarına yardımcı olduğunu belirtmiştir. Çalışmada çıkan sonuca göre öğretmenler en fazla dijital haklar ve sorumluluklar ile dijital okuryazarlık alt boyutuna sosyal bilgiler dersinde yer verilmesi gerektiğini düşünmektedir. 2018 Sosyal Bilgiler Dersi Öğretim Programı'nda [SBDÖP] da vatandaşlık hak ve sorumluluklarıyla ilgili olarak son yıllarda dijital vatandaşlık, e-Devlet, sanal ticaret gibi durumlar ve birtakım sorunların ortaya çıktığı doğrudan belirtilmiştir (MEB, 2018). Dijital vatandaşlığın alt boyutlarından birisi olan dijital okuryazarlığa da öğretim programının pek çok ögesinde yer verilmiş, hatta SBDÖP'de dijital okuryazarlık öğrencilere kazandırılması gereken temel beceriler arasında yer almıştır. Öğretmenler sosyal bilgiler dersinde dijital vatandaşlığın alt boyutlarından en az dijital sağlık ve dijital ticarete yer verilmesi gerektiğini ifade etmişlerdir. Bu alt boyutların da sosyal bilgiler dersiyle ilişkili olabileceği söylenmekle birlikte diğer alt boyutlara göre sosyal bilgiler dersiyle daha az ilişkili olduğu ifade edilmiştir.

Öğretmenler dijital vatandaşlığın sosyal bilgiler dersinde öğrencilere daha iyi kazandırılabilmesi için; öğretim programı, öğrenme-öğretme süreci, araç gereç, farkındalık, teknolojik altyapı, öğretmen eğitimi ve iş birliği konularında birtakım değişiklikler yapılması

gerektiğini belirtmişlerdir. Aydemir (2019) de dijital vatandaşlık ve alt boyutlarıyla ilişkili bilgi, beceri, tutum ve değerlere SBDÖP'de yer verilmesi gerektiğini belirtmiştir. Çubukcu ve Bayzan'a (2013) göre ilköğretim kademesindeki öğrencilerin dijital vatandaşlık becerilerini kazanmaları için öğrencilerin ve eğiticilerin teknolojik ihtiyaçlar çerçevesinde özellikle çevrimiçi teknolojileri ve diğer dijital platformları bilinçli ve doğru kullanması gerekmektedir.

Sonuç

Çalışmada sosyal bilgiler öğretmenleri birçok açıdan sosyal bilgiler dersi ile dijital vatandaşlığın ilişkili olduğunu düşünmektedirler. Bu sonuç sosyal bilgiler dersinin, öğrencilerin dijital dünyada bilinçli vatandaşlık becerilerinin geliştirildiği bir platform olarak görüldüğünü işaret etmektedir. Dolayısıyla sosyal bilgiler dersi ile dijital vatandaşlık arasında organik bir bağ olduğu görülmektedir.

Öğretmenler dijital vatandaşlık alt boyutlarının hepsine sosyal bilgiler dersinde yer verilmesi gerektiğini ifade etmişlerdir. Bu durum dijital vatandaşlığın ve alt boyutlarının sosyal bilgiler dersiyle yakından ilişkili olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu sonuç sosyal bilgiler dersinin, tarih ve coğrafya gibi sosyal bilimleri yansıtmakla kalmayıp aynı zamanda modern dünyanın dijital dünyanın bilinçli kullanılması açısından hazırlıklı bireylerin yetiştirmesi gerektiğini ortaya koymaktadır.

Öğretmenler dijital vatandaşlığın sosyal bilgiler dersinde öğrencilere daha iyi kazandırılabilmesi için bu süreçte etkili olabilecek bazı konularda birtakım değişiklikler yapılması gerektiğini belirtmişlerdir. Genel olarak öğretmenler dijital vatandaşlığın sosyal bilgiler dersiyle ilişkili olduğu düşünse de bu durum sosyal bilgiler dersinde dijital vatandaşlığın öğrencilere kazandırılması konusunda birtakım eksikliklerin olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu sonuç dijital vatandaşlığın sosyal bilgiler dersinde öğrencilere daha iyi kazandırılması için birtakım çalışmaların yapılması gerektiğini ortaya çıkarmaktadır.

Öneriler

SBDÖP için güncelleme çalışmalarında dijital vatandaşlık ve alt boyutlarına SBDÖP'nin çeşitli bölümlerinde daha fazla ve daha dengeli bir şekilde yer verilebilir. Öğrencilerin daha iyi dijital vatandaş olarak yetişebilmeleri için okul yöneticisi, öğretmen, öğrenci ve velilere dijital vatandaşlık konusunda iş birliği içerisinde çeşitli eğitimler verilmelidir. Böylece sosyal bilgiler dersinde verilen dijital vatandaşlık eğitimi daha bilinçli, anlamlı ve etkili olabilecektir. Fırsat eşitliği oluşturmak ve öğretmenlerin önerilerini uygulayabilmelerine imkân verme amacıyla okullarda sosyal bilgiler dersliklerinde teknolojik altyapı oluşturularak öğrencilerin yaparak yaşayarak öğrenmelerine fırsat verebilecek ortamlar oluşturulmalıdır.

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A Systematic Meta-Evaluation of Curriculum Evaluation Research Studies Conducted between 2004-2022 on K12 School Curricula in Türkiye

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Abstract

This study aimed to carry out a meta-evaluation of the curriculum evaluation research studies conducted in K12 schooling levels between 2004 and 2022 in Turkey based on the Joint Committee's standards for educational evaluation to present an overview of the evaluation studies and enhance understanding of evaluation. Through a systematic review, 42 studies were included in the meta-evaluation. The data were collected through a descriptive matrix and a meta-evaluation checklist and were analyzed through document analysis. The findings revealed that most of the eligible articles were published between 2018-2022. Most studies focused on primary and secondary education, and only a few of them dwelled upon preschool education. Among the studies, Mathematics and English are the most evaluated courses. Moreover, data were often gathered from one or two data sources, such as teachers and students, through qualitative research designs and without referring to any evaluation models. Besides, curriculum evaluation research studies made recommendations regarding practice and further research and mainly focused on including stakeholders, in-service training, and curriculum development and evaluation. As for the data gathered through the meta-evaluation checklist, the results showed that most articles demonstrated more than half of the indicators stated in the items of the checklist. While utility seemed to be a successful area for the articles evaluated, feasibility and accuracy criteria were not fully met, and most articles did not refer the propriety criteria. In line with the findings, the evaluation studies need to be planned in a way to provide a more complete and deeper understanding of the evaluated curricula by considering its complexities.

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Introduction

The validity and reliability of the decisions based on curriculum evaluation studies depend on the evaluation process (Sağlam & Yüksel, 2007); therefore, evaluation should be carried out cautiously and thoroughly. Scriven (1969) and Stufflebeam (2000) emphasize the importance of the quality of evaluation as they state that producing inaccurate or biased reports may lead to erroneous results. Stufflebeam (2000) further accentuates that without being subjected to a meta-evaluation, evaluation reports might cause the audience to make ill-structured decisions. Originated by Scriven (1969), meta-evaluation refers to the task of gathering and utilizing descriptive information to guide and report on the strengths and weaknesses or combining several studies' findings, analyzing them, and deriving conclusions (Sağlam & Yüksel, 2007; Stufflebeam, 2000). It examines whether an evaluation adequately reveals an object's merit, provides valuable guidance for decision-making, and is ethical and practical in terms of resource usage (Stufflebeam, 1978). Besides, it identifies the quality of the processes and findings through a systematic review (Cook & Gruder, 1978; Greene et al., 1992; Scriven, 1991).

Stufflebeam (2000) states that meta-evaluations are of public concern due to their significance in analyzing assessment systems, new curricula, equipment, or technologies. Therefore, they should be based on professional standards. Thus, he defined meta-evaluation as gathering and utilizing information regarding an evaluation's utility, feasibility, propriety, and accuracy to lead an evaluation and inform people about the strengths and shortcomings of an evaluation study (Fitzpatrick et al., 2004; Stufflebeam, 2001; Stufflebeam, 2004).

Considering the purpose and importance of curriculum evaluation, there was a growing focus on drawing theoretical frameworks and setting standards for evaluation studies. Besides, formal curriculum evaluation started to appear as a maturing field, and its development accelerated from the 1960s to the present (Fitzpatrick et al., 2004). The same trend applies to Türkiye since there was a growing interest in conducting curriculum evaluation studies. Accordingly, since the 1950s, curriculum development and evaluation studies have begun to be conducted more systematically and scientifically as a reflection of the recognition of curriculum development as a field of study worldwide (Özdemir, 2009).

In Türkiye, the curriculum evaluation needs to be examined with the curriculum development studies to get meaningful insights since they have mostly intertwining processes. On the official basis, the first documented curriculum evaluation study conducted in Türkiye was on the 1948 primary school curriculum (Turgut, 1983), and this was followed by other curriculum development and evaluation efforts on the 1968 curriculum (Korkmaz, 2020) in the 1960s; with the cooperation between MoNE and TUBİTAK on modern science and mathematics curriculum for selected schools between 1972 and 1975 (Demirbaş & Yağbasan, 2005; Özdemir, 2009). Besides growing efforts, some issues might be seen such as focusing on specific subjects, specific school levels, and being far from following incremental policies.

The National Education Development Project was launched in 1990 to enhance the quality of the education system. One of the aims of this project was to improve the quality of the curricula and educational materials (MoNE, 1995). To assure representativeness, from 1992 to 1997, a pilot study for Curriculum Laboratory Schools (CLS) was implemented through chosen 208 schools from the seven regions of the country. These schools served as the test sites for

the new curricula and educational materials, allowing for a comprehensive evaluation of their efficacy and the identification of areas that required improvement.

On the other hand, the 2005 primary school curricula were developed based on the two-year studies of field trial and revision as an educational reform (MoNE, 2006). Even though the curriculum development process was not initiated based on systematic curriculum evaluation studies, MoNE made evaluations by comparing the existing curricula and the new curriculum in Turkish, social studies, science and technology, and mathematics (Özdemir, 2009). A thorough evaluation of the 2005 curriculum was conducted by a group of academics (ERG, 2005). This evaluation report provides a comprehensive comparison of the aforementioned curricula through external criteria, such as the former or foreign curricula, and internal criteria, such as the examination of the objectives, sample activities, explanations, and assessment procedures. Following the 2005 curriculum, MoNE initiated studies to improve and revise the curriculum in 2008 and 2009; however, these efforts remained limited to minor revisions rather than leading to fundamental changes (Koç, 2016).

More recently, in the 2012-2013 academic year, the structural changes regarding the extension of compulsory education from 8 to 12 years and its division into three stages (4+4+4) led to an updated curriculum to be applied gradually (MoNE, 2012). In the 2016-2017 academic year, MoNE initiated curriculum revision studies for 51 subjects to meet the needs of individuals and society in line with the changing educational approaches (MoNE, 2017). Even though the draft curriculum was shared to get feedback from the public, how the evaluations were held and to what extent the feedback was reflected were not explained. Following, in the 2019-2020 academic year, MoNE (2020) conducted a curriculum evaluation study on the implementation process of an updated curriculum for 31 subjects both in primary and secondary levels in 2018-2019 based on the teachers' opinions. This evaluation study was limited to teachers' opinions and produced results for subjects separately on the level of revision of acquisitions.

Despite the growing number of curriculum evaluation studies in Türkiye, several problems exist. To begin with, it was seen that evaluation studies do not focus on all components of the curriculum (Ünal et al., 2004; Yaşar, 1998), which limits the reliability of the findings. Moreover, Kürüm-Yapıcıoğlu et al. (2016) mentioned that the stakeholders included in the evaluation studies conducted in Türkiye were generally teachers and students, which hinders the multiple perspectives represented in these studies. Besides, Yaşar (1998) stated that the implementation of findings in practice was inhibited as the majority of the evaluation studies were conducted for academic purposes and had limited cooperation with the Ministry of National Education (MoNE). Similarly, Kürüm-Yapıcıoğlu et al. (2016) argued that implementing the findings into practice was an essential concern in evaluation studies. However, they were not sufficiently used in practice, and the same curricula were re-evaluated without making efforts for refinement based on the previous studies (Gökmenoğlu, 2014; Kürüm-Yapıcıoğlu et al., 2016). Another problem with curriculum evaluation studies in Türkiye was the communication of the evaluation findings. Stufflebeam (2000) stated that meta-evaluations are of public concern due to their significance in evaluating several aspects of education systems. Thus, it is crucial to share the evaluation findings with stakeholders and audiences. Although there have been several evaluation studies, it is hard to claim that curriculum evaluation is carried out fully transparently.

Considering the importance attributed to curriculum evaluation and the number of studies that have been conducted, along with the problems identified about prior studies, a systematic meta-evaluation of curriculum evaluation research studies in Türkiye in light of the program evaluation standards proposed by the Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation may provide a holistic understanding of trends, procedures, and strengths and weaknesses of these studies. Although there were some studies presenting general trends of included curriculum evaluation studies regarding their focus, it was seen that the focus in some of these studies was on certain dimensions of curriculum (e.g., Kazu & Aslan, 2012); specific courses (e.g., Ertekin & Bozkurt, 2020; Kablan, 2011) and general trends in methodological and content related features (e.g., Akşan & Baki, 2017; Koç, 2016). Moreover, it was seen that previous systematic reviews descriptively presented the general trends in curriculum evaluation, and a comprehensive systematic meta-evaluation study has not been found through the scanning of the databases included in the present study.

Thus, in this study, the standards proposed by the Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation were shortened and adapted to the Turkish context by the authors. It is believed that such a study will be significant in guiding the refinement of the previous evaluation studies and shed light on future curriculum development and evaluation initiatives. In this regard, this study aimed to carry out a meta-evaluation of the curriculum evaluation research studies conducted in all subjects in K12 schooling levels between 2004 and 2022 in Türkiye based on the four standards (i.e., utility, feasibility, propriety, and accuracy) proposed by the Joint Committee to present a general picture of the previous curriculum evaluation research studies and to enhance evaluators' understanding of quality and sound evaluation (Fitzpatrick et al., 2004; Stufflebeam, 2001; Stufflebeam, 2004).

This study is limited to the curriculum evaluation research studies conducted in K12 schooling levels between 2004 and 2021 because it is claimed that starting from 2004, the curricula developed for K12 schooling levels have begun to reflect a more constructivist, progressivist, and student-centered understanding (Bulut, 2006; Gözütok et al.), and this change also encouraged an increase in the curriculum evaluation research studies.

Concerning the purpose of the study, the main research questions guiding this study are:

1. What are the general trends in curriculum evaluation studies conducted in K12 schooling levels between 2004 and 2022 in Türkiye in terms of year of publication, course, schooling level, evaluation approach/model, research design, type, and the number of data sources, and scope of the evaluation study?

2. In what aspects do the curriculum evaluation research studies make recommendations regarding various components of school curricula?

3. To what extent do these evaluation studies conform to utility, feasibility, propriety, and accuracy standards set for curriculum evaluation of programs by the Joint Committee?

Method

Research Design

Within the scope of the current study, a systematic meta-evaluation of curriculum evaluation research studies was utilized to provide a holistic understanding of trends, procedures, and

strengths and weaknesses of these studies. Through focusing on relevant questions and employing sound criteria for inclusion and exclusion, a systematic review helps researchers synthesize existing evidence to come up with answers and statements of conclusion (Harris et al., 2014). After the systematic review was carried out, a meta-evaluation was performed by evaluating the curriculum evaluation research studies conducted in K12 based on the standards created by the Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation (Stufflebeam, 1981). According to Scriven (1969), meta-evaluation refers to the evaluation of evaluations performed to inform the evaluation and reveal the strengths and weaknesses of the evaluations under examination by investigating the standards of utility, feasibility, propriety, and accuracy (Stufflebeam, 2000).

Data Collection Instruments

Two data collection instruments were utilized throughout the study. First, the researchers prepared a descriptive matrix table to situate the general trends in the curriculum evaluation research studies and the aspects on which the recommendations made in these studies provide insights into curriculum development and curriculum evaluation. This included "year of publication, evaluation approach/model, research design, school level, course, data source, and the categories of recommendations" domains, and it was used to record the essential information about articles included in this study. Thus, it was employed to answer the first and second research questions of the study.

Second, the researchers prepared a checklist named "The Meta-Evaluation Checklist" (see Appendix-I) for the third question to evaluate how these studies comply with the four standards proposed by the Joint Committee (i.e., utility, feasibility, propriety, and accuracy). The primary concern was to prepare an instrument that is concise, understandable, applicable, relevant to the Turkish context, and fit for the purpose (i.e., evaluating the curriculum evaluation research studies). The checklist consisted of four sections, each corresponding to the standard areas proposed by The Joint Committee. Each standard included a number of items. The researchers prepared the items by considering the definitions of the standard provided by Stufflebeam (1981) and examining Stufflebeam's (1999) checklist and Yüksel's (2010) adaptation of this checklist to Turkish. After the instrument was developed, expert opinion was taken from a professor from a public university in Ankara, who specialized in curriculum studies, in relation to the general format of the instrument and the clarity and the appropriateness of the items to each standard. The aim was to ensure the face and content validity of the instrument (Fraenkel et al., 2012). Accordingly, revisions were made, and the instrument was translated into Turkish. Then, both versions were examined by the same expert to establish language uniformity.

After revising the instruments based on the recommendations (e.g., shortening some statements, revising some words considering contextual understanding, and clarifying some concepts such as stakeholders), the final versions of the instruments were formed. The original checklist by the Joint Committee focused more on the clients' needs and requirements because it was designed in the American context, where institutions or individuals employ curriculum specialists to evaluate their programs. However, in the Turkish context, all the studies evaluated were in line with academic endeavors and were not conducted with a business motive. Instead, they are evaluation studies initiated by academics to contribute to the field of curriculum. That

is why items like U1*[1] and F1*[2] were omitted from the checklist with the rationale that they did not apply to the Turkish curriculum evaluation studies' context. Also, some items were rephrased to fit in the context better. For example, in item A1*[3], there is an emphasis on the clients. The final version of the instrument consisted of 29 items in four domains which correspond to the utility, feasibility, propriety, and accuracy standards (see Appendix-I). Using this instrument, curriculum evaluation research studies were evaluated based on each standard and overall quality.

Selection of the Curriculum Evaluation Research Studies

To select the studies for the current meta-evaluation, a systematic literature search was carried out in the databases of DergiPark, WoS, Scopus, and EBSCOhost, which cover English and Turkish literature comprehensively and were last accessed in February 2022. Programme evaluation studies conducted in K12 settings in Türkiye between 2004 and 2022 were searched. The search terms in both Turkish (DergiPark) and English (Web of Science, Scopus, EBSCOhost, DergiPark) for the databases are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

The Search Terms for the Databases (DergiPark, Web of Science, Scopus, EBSCOhost)

Databases	*Searching keywords*
Web of Science, Scopus, EBSCOhost, DergiPark	(program OR curriculum) AND (evaluation OR assessment OR examination OR analysis)
DergiPark	In Turkish: (Program VEYA öğretim programı VEYA eğitim programı VEYA müfredat) VE (değerlendirme VEYA değerlendirilmesi VEYA inceleme VEYA incelenmesi VEYA analizi)

During the article selection process, Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) (Liberati et al., 2009) protocol was used. The initial search carried out by focusing on the title, keywords, and abstract of each record yielded a total of 1120 studies in the aforementioned databases. After the studies not conducted in Türkiye and those not within K12 context were eliminated, 263 articles were left to be assessed for eligibility. Upon examining the full texts of the articles based on the inclusion-exclusion criteria and removing the duplicates, 42 evaluation research studies were included for the meta-evaluation, as can be seen in Figure 1.

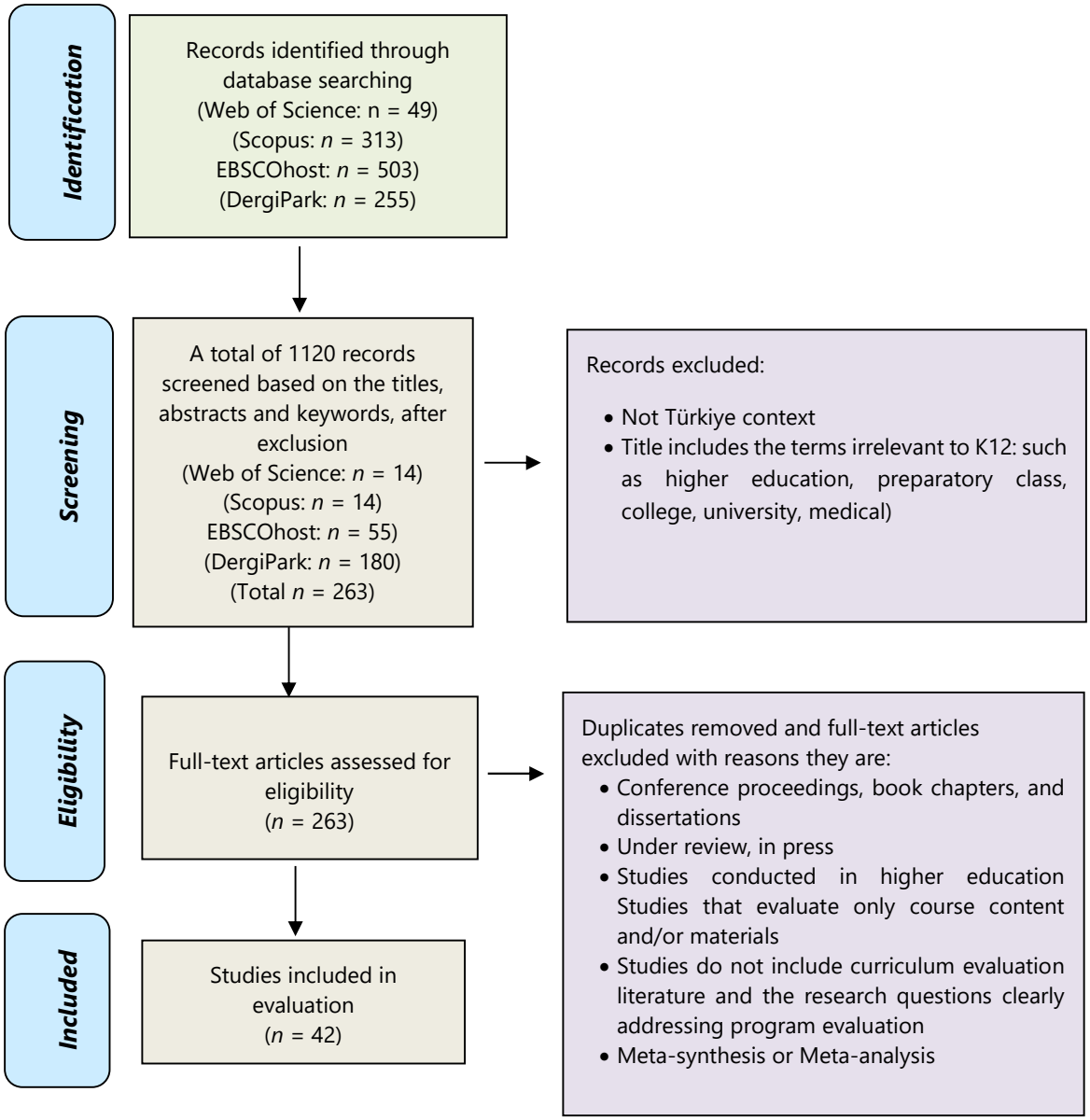
[1] U1. Clearly identify the evaluation client

[2] F1. Appoint competent staff and train them as needed

[3] A1. Collect descriptions of the intended program from various written sources and from the client and other key stakeholders

Figure 1

PRISMA Flow Diagram



Data Analysis

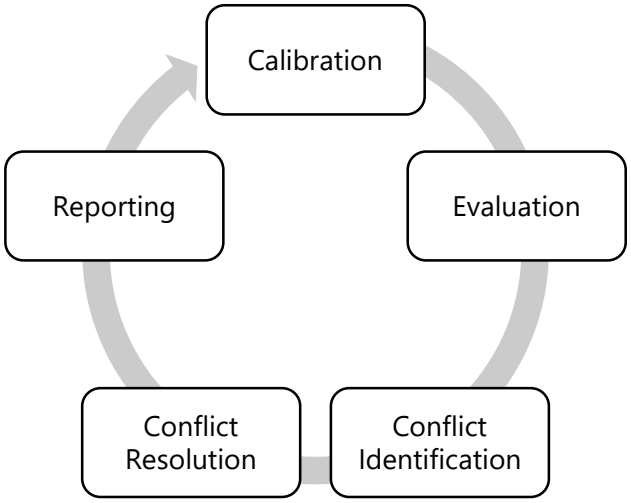
The current study employed document analysis and descriptive analysis to analyze the data. Document analysis requires a systematic process for evaluating or reviewing documents (Bowen, 2009). To answer the first and the second research questions, the researchers used document analysis. O'Leary (2014) highlighted that it requires creating a pool of texts to explore and considering how they will be accessed at the beginning. Within the data analysis process for the first research question, the selected articles were shared among the researchers after a session was held to discuss how descriptive information (i.e., year of publication, evaluation approach/model, research design, schooling level, course, data source, and the categories of recommendations) was to be recorded to the descriptive matrix table for each

article. Then they were presented in figures and tables by reporting frequencies and percentages.

In order to answer the second research question, the recommendations made in selected curriculum evaluation research studies were reviewed using content analysis. First, the researchers coded the recommendations separately based on recommendation areas. Then they cross-checked them to finalize the emerging codes. After that, for each recommendation category, the number of articles that made that particular recommendation was reported, and the ratio of each category to all recommendations made in the selected articles was provided. Finally, regarding the third research question, selected studies were evaluated based on the Meta-Evaluation Checklist. The researchers endeavored to situate the studies in line with the program evaluation standards mentioned to evaluate the quality of the curriculum evaluation.

Figure 2

The Data Analysis Cycle for the Metaevaluation



As can be seen in Figure 2, the data analysis for the third research question consisted of five consecutive stages. Firstly, before data analysis, the researchers evaluated three studies by using the Meta-Evaluation Checklist, got involved in a calibration session to eliminate inconsistencies and conflicts of any kind to agree upon the criteria to be used while judging the evaluation studies (Stuffleam, 2000). The calibration of the raters generally follows a three-step process in which researchers firstly come up with a manual or a checklist that is well-established and discussed. Secondly, the researchers randomly review some samples from the data, enabling them to practice. After reaching a common understanding, the researchers are able to start to assign small portions of the data for rating (Syed & Nelson, 2015). In the current study, after a shared understanding of the evaluation instrument was reached among the researchers and the sample studies were discussed, the actual evaluations were carried out, and the researchers evaluated a certain number of studies individually. During the process, the researchers consulted each other when potential conflicts and contradictory statements were observed and solved the agreement issues. Upon completing the evaluation process successfully, the findings were reported based on the standard areas, and an overall score was assigned to each study.

Trustworthiness

Regardless of whether being insider or external, evaluators have a lot to ensure the credibility of their findings, mainly by conducting their studies openly and consistently with professional integrity (Stufflebeam, 1974). The current study involved multiple external evaluators who do not have any conflict of interest with the authors of the selected studies to ensure analyst triangulation so that the threats to credibility could be minimized. Furthermore, the use of data collection instruments was standardized through calibration sessions. Two researchers checked the clarity and appropriateness of the language in the instruments as language experts to avoid any confusion in terms of the constructs. In addition, to ensure transparency and transferability of the study, each step was clearly defined, and data collection and analysis procedures were made explicit by providing a thick description of the meta-evaluation and stating inclusion/exclusion criteria (Korstjens & Moser, 2018).

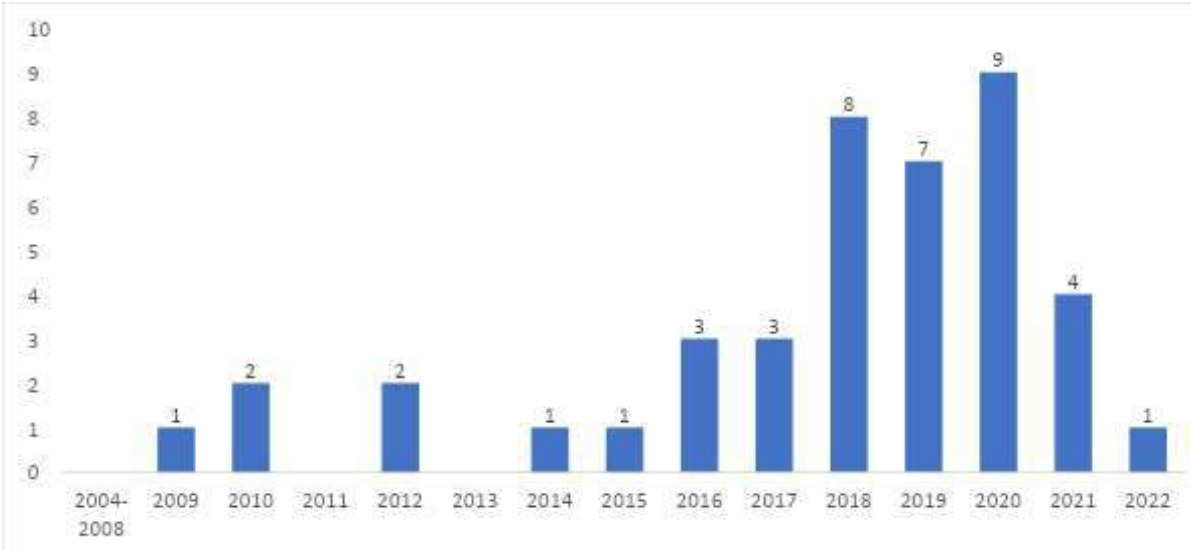
Findings

The General Trends in Curriculum Evaluation Studies

The year of publication of the studies is analyzed, and the related findings are presented in Figure 3 below. As seen in the bar graph, the earliest study was published in 2009, and the most recent study was published in 2022. Even if the search of the meta-evaluation study included research studies published since 2004, no article published earlier than 2009 was eligible regarding the selection criteria. While only 7 of the articles were published between 2004-2015, 6 of them were published in 2016 and 2017, with a marked increase of 29 of the articles published between 2018-2022*. There seems to be a sharp increase in 2018-2021 and a sharp decrease in 2021.

Figure 3

The Distribution of Studies Based on The Year of Publication



Note. *Databases were last accessed on 28.02.2022

This meta-evaluation is limited to K12 curriculum evaluation studies. However, the schooling levels in the evaluation studies provide valuable data in terms of trends. Most of the studies (n=24) focus on primary education (1st-8th grades). A considerable number of the studies (n=14) evaluate high school (9th-12th grades) curricula, but only a few studies focus (n=4) on the preschool level.

The distribution of the courses evaluated is presented in Figure 4, which shows a common trend in specific courses. Mathematics and English are the most commonly evaluated courses, whereas there is an even distribution in other courses, which are Class Guidance, Geography, Guidance, Health Education, Human Rights, Civics and Democracy, Information Technology and Software, Physics, Pre-School, Social Studies. Science courses in general and Biology, Chemistry, Physics, and Citizenship and Democracy Education courses are evaluated two or three times in the studies included in the meta-evaluation.

Table 2

The Distribution of the Courses Evaluated

Schooling Level	*Courses*	*f*
Preschool (36-72 months)	Preschool	3
Primary School (Grades 1-8)	Mathematics	1
	English	4
	Turkish	2
	Class Guidance	2
	Science	2
	Citizenship and Democracy Education	2
	Social Studies	1
	Information Technology	1
	Technology and Design	1
	Mathematics and Science	1
	Human Rights, Civics, and Democracy	1
Secondary School (Grades 9-12)	English	3
	Chemistry	2
	Biology	2
	Turkish Revolution History	
	Information Technology and Vocational Development Modular Private High School Curriculum	
	Mathematics	1
	Geography	1
	Health Education	1

The evaluation approach and the model were not reported in 19 of the evaluation research articles, while 23 were conducted based on an evaluation approach/model (See Table 2). Considering the most used models, the CIPP and Eisner's model were used in six of the studies; and the other models were used in two studies. Accordingly, the most used approaches were decision-oriented and expert-oriented, followed by objective-oriented and participant-oriented approaches. Moreover, most of the authors of the evaluated articles neither provided a clear rationale for utilizing a certain evaluation model or approach in their articles nor did they recommend alternative models to be adopted in the evaluation.

Table 3

Curriculum Evaluation Studies by Evaluation Approach/Model

*Evaluation Approach**	*Evaluation Model*	f
Objective Oriented	Tyler's Objective-Based Evaluation Model	2
	Provus's Discrepancy Model	2
Participant Oriented	Stake's Congruence-Contingency Model	2
	Stake's Responsive Evaluation Model	2
Expert Oriented	Eisner's Educational Connoisseurship and Criticism Model	6
Decision Oriented	Stufflebeam's Context, Input, Process, Product-CIPP Model	6
Multiple Models		2
Other/Not Reported		20**

Note. *The evaluation approaches were classified based on Fitzpatrick et al. (2004).
**One of the articles utilized an evaluation model developed by its researcher.

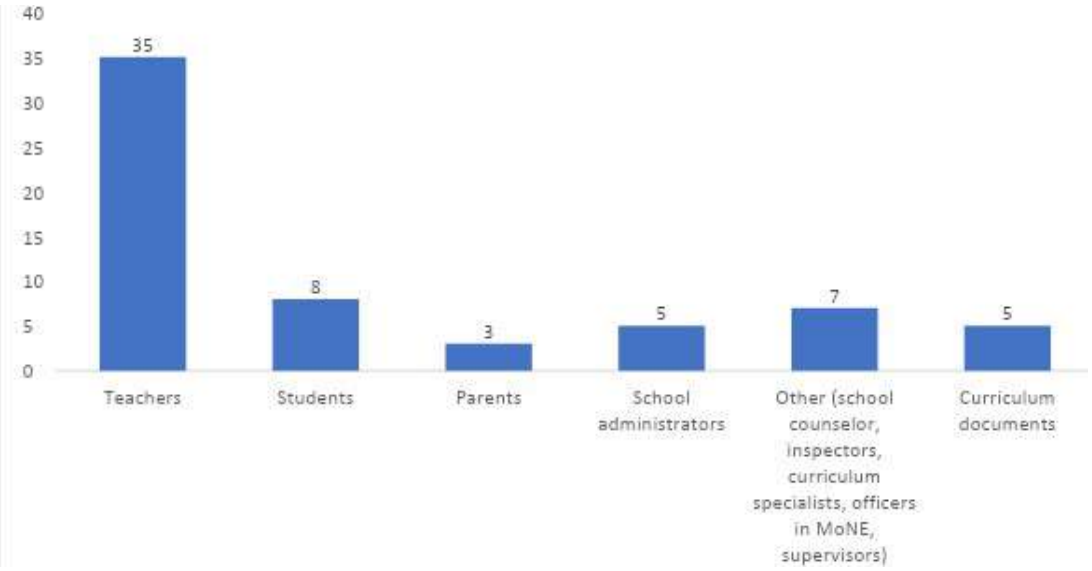
The number of curriculum evaluation research studies by research design is presented in Table 3. Among the studies, 20 of them used qualitative (e.g., case study, phenomenology, content analysis), 11 of them used quantitative (e.g., survey design, relational survey model), and lastly, 11 of the studies used mixed-method design (e.g., sequential explanatory design and convergent parallel mixed-method design).

Based on the document analysis, it is found that a variety of sources were used to collect data in relation to the evaluation of the curricula under investigation. While some curriculum evaluation research studies focused on analyzing the curriculum documents and course materials, others collected data from various individuals to evaluate the programs. The individuals used as data sources can be summarized as students, teachers, parents, school administrators, and others (school counselors, inspectors, curriculum specialists, officers in MoNE, and supervisors) (see Figure 4).

In terms of the type of data sources used, teachers in 83.33% of the studies (n = 35), students in 19.04% of the studies (n = 8), curriculum documents in 11.90% of the studies (n = 5), administrators in 11.90% of the studies (n = 5), parents in 7.14% of the studies (n = 3), and other (school counselor, inspectors, curriculum specialists, officers in MoNE, supervisors) in 16.66% of the studies (n = 7) were utilized as their data sources. It is seen that more than half of the studies included teachers (n = 22), curriculum documents (n = 4), or students and teachers (n = 3) as their only data sources, and the rest of the data sources were utilized by a limited number of studies (e.g., "students, teachers, and administrators" were used as data sources in 2 research studies). The curriculum evaluation studies are categorized into 5 groups based on the number of data sources they utilized. It is seen that 69.0% of the studies (n = 29) used one; 14.3% of the studies (n = 6) used two; 7.1% of the studies (n = 3) used three; 4.8% of the studies (n = 2) used four data sources; and 2.4% of the studies (n = 1) used five data sources.

Figure 4

Curriculum Evaluation Studies by Data Sources



The Categories of the Recommendations Deduced from K12 School Curricula Evaluation Studies

Data analysis revealed that out of 42 articles, 39 recommended practice and further research that would provide insights into curriculum development and evaluation. These recommendations were grouped under 13 categories: informing and including stakeholders, in-service training, pre-service teacher training, implementation, course hours, classroom arrangement/size, physical conditions, course materials, content and objectives, testing and evaluation, curriculum development and evaluation, policy, and methodology. Table 4 presents the categories and the number of articles falling into these categories. Besides, it shows each category's ratio (percentage) to all recommendations made in the selected articles. On the other hand, there were no recommendations in three of the articles.

Table 4

The Foci of Recommendations in the Curriculum Evaluation Research Studies

Foci of Recommendations	*f*	*%*
Informing and including stakeholders	12	28.60
Inservice training	28	66.70
Pre-service teacher training	5	10.90
Implementation	14	33.30
Course hours	4	9.50
Classroom arrangement/size	3	7.10
Physical conditions	5	11.90
Textbook/materials/resources	17	40.50
Course/curriculum content/objectives	17	40.50
Testing and evaluation	6	14.30
Curriculum development/evaluation	19	45.20
Policy	6	14.30
Methodology	20	47.60
No recommendation	3	7.10

Note. The frequencies represent the number of articles that made the related recommendations, and the percentages represent the ratio of each category to all recommendations made in the selected articles.

The content analysis revealed that in-service teacher training throughout different phases, such as curriculum development, evaluation, and implementation, was the most salient category of recommendation accentuated by the majority of the articles. To that end, Demir et al. (2017) underscore that "teachers should be guided by organizing in-service training activities on the basic philosophy and objectives of the curriculum, learning-teaching approach, measurement and evaluation approach, how to implement curriculum, and the issues to be considered in practice, in order for the curriculum to achieve its purpose by applying it effectively." (p. 177). Secondly, the articles underline the significance of the processes that cater to curriculum development and evaluation. İzci and Eroğlu (2018) suggest that reviewing the development, implementation, and evaluation processes through a scientific approach is of paramount importance by ensuring the stakeholders' active participation and paying attention to their opinions and conducting pilot studies upon which deficiencies are to be eliminated. Although there were recommendations regarding curriculum development, only two articles (Gökalp & Köksaldi, 2019; Sağlık & Aldan-Karademir, 2019) mention the necessity for conducting a needs assessment before a development or revision process. Besides, Aslan and Uygun (2019) state that the curriculum should be developed considering the needs of different regions/conditions and be practiced considering the importance of family involvement. More significantly, it is underlined that curricula should demonstrate a range of flexibility, pave the way for localization, and have the potential to complement one another.

In addition to curriculum development and evaluation practices, curriculum content, objectives, materials, and resources were other significant dimensions. Considering that textbooks and materials function as the implemented curriculum in the classroom, the studies suggest that they can be updated by considering songs, games, and different educational activities suitable for students' ages, interests, and levels. In addition, teachers can be encouraged to develop course materials suitable for the activities they will implement in the lesson (Kandemir & Tok, 2015). Finally, it is well known that implementation of a curriculum is as critical as development since, without implementation, the goals of the curriculum cannot be realized. Underlining this notion, Gömleksiz and Akyıldız (2012) suggest that teaching activities should be organized by taking the student to the center, different intelligence areas of the students should be taken into account, and methods and techniques such as cooperative learning, drama, and case studies should be included. In addition, the use of computer-aided materials that stimulate both visual and auditory senses to appeal to the different learning styles of the students is important.

The evaluated articles mostly provided recommendations on including all stakeholders, such as students, teachers, parents, administrators, and counselors, not only in the curriculum development but in evaluation processes, as well as informing them about the programs and their outcomes. Erdoğan and Gürol (2016) highlight that "...parents, teachers, administrative and school partnership needed to be supported. All these stakeholders share equally valued roles in education. Parents should be part of a school's learning community because school is not a closed or self-sufficient system." (p. 130). Regarding the recommendations that cater to research and particularly the methods utilized in the evaluation studies, Gelen and Alış (2018) suggest increasing the number and variety of data collection instruments used in curriculum evaluation studies, getting the opinions of various stakeholders, and evaluating all aspects of the program rather than only one or a few aspects.

On the other hand, there were only a few recommendations regarding pre-service teacher training, course hours, classroom arrangement and size, physical conditions, testing and evaluation, and policy. It was suggested that pre-service teacher training programs should be revised to provide more opportunities for practice and courses to enhance pre-service teachers' curriculum literacy and awareness of the changes in the curricula. Besides, some studies recommended increasing the course hours, decreasing the number of students in the class, and using student-centered approaches for classroom management and instruction. For effective implementation of the curricula, there are suggestions for improving the physical conditions of the school by establishing laboratories, providing necessary materials, revising the schools' physical infrastructure, and eliminating hardware and technological shortages. Finally, there are recommendations regarding the use of achievement tests to evaluate the effectiveness of the curriculum and the attainment of learning objectives, the use of formative assessment in addition to summative assessment, and the utilization of different assessment materials.

It is of paramount importance that curriculum evaluation studies aim to evaluate the effectiveness of educational programs and provide recommendations for improvement. However, it is not uncommon for the recommendations presented in these studies to be at odds with the findings generated from the data they generated. This can occur due to various reasons, such as limitations in the research design, insufficient analysis, or the presence of biases. To ensure that the recommendations are in accordance with the evidence, it is essential for researchers to critically examine their findings and ensure that their recommendations are grounded in the data. By doing so, the evaluation studies can provide reliable and valid insights that can improve programs.

Meta-evaluation of Evaluation Studies in terms of Program Evaluation Standards

Shortlisted articles were evaluated based on the checklist, including the utility, feasibility, propriety, and accuracy standards, respectively. Under the utility (U, 7 items) standard, there were nine items as indicators of the quality of the evaluation study with regard to answering the needs and stating the limitations of the study. Upon the evaluation of each article based on utility, all articles showed more than half of the indicators embodying the criteria. Of all 42 articles, 23 articles showed all nine indicators, 11 articles showed eight, four articles showed seven, two articles showed six, and only one article showed five out of nine indicators on utility. For items U2, U3.1, and U5.2, every article was appropriate to the standard stated. Accordingly, results showed that all studies were conducted by trustworthy evaluators (U2), the scope of the studies was compatible with the needs of the stakeholders (U3.1), and they all stated a clear purpose for the studies conducted (U5.2). Overall evaluation of the studies regarding the utility standard showed that evaluation articles comply with the boundaries highlighted by the matrix.

The second standard according to which the articles were evaluated was feasibility (F, 4 items). The standard included four items regarding the time spent on the study, resources employed, the procedures and the objectivity of the reports provided. Of all 42 articles, 23 of them showed all four, 15 of the articles showed three, and four of the articles showed two indicators ensuring feasibility. For the item F2.2, all the evaluated articles were appropriate to the standard stated, meaning that all the articles seemed to be objectively reported without any interference or misapplication by interest groups.

The following standard in the matrix was propriety (P, 7 items). Articles were evaluated to identify their appropriateness to the proper procedures in evaluation, such as reporting approvals, limitations, confidentiality precautions, strengths, and weaknesses of the evaluation. Overall examination of the results showed that most articles failed to comply with the necessary regulations of propriety. Of all 42 articles, only two of the articles showed all seven indicators, six of the articles showed six, 16 of the articles showed five, 14 of the articles showed four, three of the articles showed three, and one article showed two of the indicators of propriety. Most of the articles didn't comply with three of the items of propriety, namely P1.1, P1.2, and P3.2. Accordingly, the results showed that most articles did not report the necessary approvals (P1.1) and the limitations of the study (P3.2). Also, more than half of the articles evaluated lacked details about informing the stakeholders about the procedures and the results of the evaluation study (P1.2).

The final standard included in the checklist was accuracy (A, 9 items). The items focused on the evaluation of the correct application of procedures of an evaluation study. The results showing the articles' positions on accuracy were presented in this part. There were nine items under the accuracy standard. Only nine of the articles showed all the indicators of nine items on accuracy, while 21 of the articles showed eight. Meanwhile, eight articles showed seven; two articles showed six; another two articles showed five; and one article showed four indicators of accuracy. Item A11, which focused on reporting the findings objectively, was checked for all the articles. However, for item A4.2, evaluating the employment of various data sources of information, the results showed that most articles failed to include multiple data sources.

When it comes to overall results on the evaluation of the articles using the checklist, which included four standards and 29 items in total, only one article evaluated showed all 29 indicators from the checklist, and one article showed 14, which is the lowest. Most articles showed more than half of the indicators, but instead of a quantitative picture, a detailed analysis of the results shows that most articles fail to meet the crucial standards of an evaluation study.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study aimed to present an overview of the curriculum evaluation research studies by carrying out a meta-evaluation of the studies conducted in K12 schooling levels between 2004 and 2022 in Türkiye based on the Joint Committee's evaluation standards. The findings regarding the trends in curriculum evaluation studies revealed that most articles were published between 2018-2021. Since this study applied some inclusion-exclusion criteria regarding the quality of the method/preferred design ,including evaluation literature and has a holistic approach to the evaluated program, it was seen that a higher number of studies matched the quality criteria in recent years.

Most studies focused on primary education, followed by the studies dealing with secondary education, and only a few dwelled upon preschool education. Among the studies, Mathematics and English were the most commonly evaluated courses, whereas there was an even distribution in other courses. This may be a result of curriculum development studies held by MoNE being intensified at the primary school level (2005, 2017, and 2020 curriculum development studies). Tan-Şişman et al. (2019) suggested another reason as there are fewer

graduate programs for secondary school than primary school level for some fields such as mathematics and science. Moreover, in nearly half of the studies, the evaluation approach and the model were not reported, which also supports the related literature indicating limited usage of program evaluation approaches and models in the studies (e.g., Aslan & Sağlam, 2017; Gökmenoğlu, 2014; Kurt & Erdoğan, 2015; Tan-Şişman et al., 2019). This finding shows a need for evaluation studies to be conducted on a theoretical background regarding the curriculum evaluation approach and model.

Although a variety of sources are used to collect data in relation to the evaluation of a curriculum, it is found that data were often gathered from one or two particular data sources, such as teachers and students. Hence, only in a few of the studies, three or more data sources were utilized. This result was parallel with the previous results indicating that stakeholders other than students and teachers were less included in the evaluation studies (e.g., Aslan & Sağlam, 2017; Tan-Şişman et al., 2019). In a similar vein, the findings also echoed those of Özdemir (2009), Süer (2022), and Yapıcıoğlu et al. (2016), who underscored the limited involvement of stakeholders and noted that this weakness hinders reaching multiple perspectives since they solely deal with teachers and students. This may reduce the discussions to a narrower perspective and constrain seeing a fuller picture, which is a limitation as it was pointed out by Connelly (2013) that curriculum "is a complex system involving teachers, students, curricular content, social settings, and all manner of impinging matters ranging from the local to the international." (p. ix).

Moreover, the findings of this study revealed that most curriculum evaluation research studies made suggestions about practice and further research. Among these suggestions, some aspects were mentioned more commonly than others. On the other hand, few studies made suggestions about pre-service teacher training, course hours, classroom arrangement and size, physical conditions, testing and evaluation, and policy. All in all, the lack of suggestions in these domains may have resulted from diverse reasons such as limited scope, data limitations, lack of expertise, political constraints, and lack of communication. While these factors may have limited the ability of researchers to make suggestions about certain aspects of the program, it is important for program evaluation studies to consider a wide range of factors that have a profound impact on program effectiveness. Ultimately, program evaluation studies should aim to provide a comprehensive assessment of the program, including suggestions for areas of improvement, to ensure that the program meets its intended goals and objectives.

Secondly, content analysis revealed a need for more comprehensive and in-depth curriculum evaluation research studies suggested by the evaluated studies so that these studies' findings might be utilized in curriculum development and design processes, as stated by Yapıcıoğlu et al. (2016). At the same time, the evaluated articles proposed that more studies in this field are more than essential to increase the effectiveness of these studies at diverse levels, which is also pointed out by Kurt and Erdoğan (2015). In general, the studies did not provide recommendations for improving the curriculum evaluation process itself. The reasons for this could be multifaceted and require further investigation in future studies. Moreover, the findings yielded that whereas there should be an attempt to increase the number of evaluation studies, researchers should also diversify their methods, contexts, data collection instruments, and samples to reach a more holistic picture of curricula and contribute to the reliability and

validity of those studies (Kurt & Erdoğan, 2015; Süer, 2022). Furthermore, based on the aspects on which the evaluated studies made recommendations, our findings uncovered that needs assessment and pilot studies should function as an integral part of building unity and coherence in curriculum implementation and development (Yüksel, 2000). According to the findings, another aspect on which the recommendations were made was concerning the pre-service teacher education to increase teacher candidates' proficiency in various domains, such as teaching methodology, curriculum literacy, assessment, and addressing diverse needs of students. This finding was supported by Ünver (2021), who argued the importance of providing pre-service teachers with opportunities to design ,develop, implement, and evaluate programs through a holistic approach and to enhance their attitudes towards curriculum studies. Finally, as Akşan and Baki (2017) suggest the findings based on the recommendation made by the evaluation studies also unearthed an array of problems in the curriculum implementation due to crowded classrooms, insufficient class time, and lack of quality materials.

Results from the evaluation of each standard in the matrix suggest that there are various parameters influencing evaluation studies' overall achievement in meeting the standards. The matrix foci are overall in parallel with the original standards set by the Joint Committee (1981). When the utility standard scores are evaluated, it can be seen that most of the articles performed well, especially in items U2, U3.1, and U5.2. Item U2 focuses on the trustworthiness of the evaluators of the study. In the articles evaluated, researchers are respected academic staff employed in Turkish universities; therefore, the item was automatically checked for the evaluators. Regarding items U3.1 and U5.2, which focus on the needs and interests of the audience and the clear description of the purpose, it was not surprising to see all the articles performed well since they were all published articles with specific sections regarding their purpose and significance. Half of the articles got a full point on the feasibility standard, drawing a less successful picture compared to utility. These results seem to be parallel to the systematic reviews regarding the evaluation studies conducted in Türkiye (Akıncı & Köse, 2021; İpek, 2022). Only item F2.2 was checked for all articles because it focuses on the objectivity of the evaluator(s) and the interest groups. Now that the studies were conducted for academic and scientific purposes, and most stakeholders and audiences were not included in the study, the high achievement of the articles written by objective evaluators does not seem surprising. Propriety standard is the least successful standard for the articles evaluated, with only two articles getting a full score. Especially the items P1.1, P1.2, and P3.2, focusing on the approvals, limitations, and informing stakeholders, were not checked for most articles. Most authors did not mention the ethical approval procedures, limitations of the study, or the process of informing stakeholders. The reasons may include the lack of requirements of ethical approvals from the journals, the delay in the process of conducting research, underestimation of ethical considerations, and inadequate reporting. As also suggested by the results of the previous research studies in the field, the limitations and suggestions provided by the evaluation studies must be shared with the stakeholders (Akıncı & Köse, 2021; İpek, 2022; Stufflebeam, 2004). Most articles got almost full points from the accuracy standard, most probably because most items match the general standards of academic writing and publishing studies. However, for item A4.2, almost all articles got zero points. The item focuses on providing information from various sources, which most articles lack. The use of various data sources increases the quality of the research and helps evaluators to come up with thick descriptions (Fraenkel et al., 2012). Even though the overall success of the articles from the checklist seemed to be satisfying, the

checklist should not be seen as an achievement test where the average success is accepted as the standard. Instead, each item stands significant, referring to a crucial criterion. That is why, the results suggest that there are crucial standards to be worked on for curriculum evaluation studies in Türkiye.

In line with the findings, considering that programs for elective courses and especially pre-primary schooling level were considerably less addressed, it is crucial to approach the program as a whole and consider the need for diversifying program evaluation research studies. More importantly, this study showed that about half of the studies were not based on any program evaluation approach and/or a program evaluation model. However, having a theoretical approach and model in evaluation studies is seen as crucial to provide a systematic and evidence-based data production that addresses the main issues regarding the evaluated program, such as the needs, contexts, questions, instruments, stakeholders, and the position of the researcher (Fitzpatrick et al., 2004). There are several possible reasons why program evaluation studies in Türkiye may fail to include or suggest certain evaluation models to adopt. These reasons may include a lack of familiarity or training on certain models, limited scope of the evaluation, resource constraints, bias, and a lack of communication between researchers and stakeholders. It is important for program evaluation studies to consider a range of evaluation models and methods to ensure that the evaluation is comprehensive and effective. However, there may be constraints that prevent researchers from including or suggesting certain models, and researchers need to be transparent about their methods and explain why certain models were chosen and others were not. Overall, program evaluation studies should aim to provide a thorough and objective assessment of the program, using appropriate evaluation models and methods that align with its goals and objectives. This may be highlighted in program development and evaluation courses in university graduate programs. Moreover, the results from data sources used in studies revealed a need for diversifying the data sources and including varied stakeholders to see different perspectives. Hence, the evaluation studies need to be planned in a way to provide a more complete and deeper understanding of the evaluated program by considering its complexities.

The results from the evaluation of the articles using the standards revealed that there are certain points to be improved for the evaluation studies conducted in Türkiye. Firstly, all studies were conducted and published with academic concerns and by academic staff. It may be useful for the stakeholders and the participants to see a detailed picture of the program drawn by professionals, but this causes certain limitations, especially in terms of the use and the dissemination of the results of the evaluation studies. Because of the time and monetary constraints, academic staff have trouble including all or many of the stakeholders as information sources and also as partners/informants in the evaluation. This ends up in a one-sided look at the program and limits the use of the results by the stakeholders who were not included in the process. Thus, the researchers, funders, and decision-makers of the program should collaborate in large-scale evaluation studies (Stufflebeam, 2000). Besides, academic concerns may shadow the main purpose of curriculum evaluation, creating pseudo and shallow problems for the programs to be evaluated. If there was a collaborative environment, adequate funding, and communication among the stakeholders and the evaluators, the actual problems of the programs could be dealt with in more depth, and the results of the studies might have reflections on the authentic use of the program. Finally, the ethical approvals and limitations of an evaluation study should be transparently discussed to inform the researchers and the

practitioners who may be willing to conduct a further study or to use the results and implications from the evaluation study. This need is also emphasized in the standards of the Joint Committee (Stufflebeam, 1981). All in all, the evaluation of the articles provides significant implications in terms of collaboration, transparency, and incisiveness.

Finally, based on the findings of the current study, future curriculum evaluation studies need to scrutinize the under-explored dimensions, including pre-service teacher training, course hours, classroom arrangement and size, physical conditions, testing and evaluation, and teacher education policies to lead to more informed decisions as regards to curriculum development, implementation, and evaluation.

Limitations and related recommendations for further research

Finally, the curriculum evaluation articles were evaluated in the aspects of utility, feasibility, propriety, and accuracy through The Meta-Evaluation Checklist, which provides quantitative data. However, this checklist is limited to the subjective interpretation of evaluators. Therefore, for future studies, it is recommended to use the Checklist for curriculum evaluation to create a supportive tool for qualitative analysis instead of a grading rubric for evaluating the quality. Moreover, this study is limited to K12; further research would consider replicating this research design with a focus on higher education programs.

Author Contributions

The first author has made substantial contributions in framing the theoretical background, conducting the literature review, designing the research, developing the checklist, interpreting the data, presenting the findings related to the first question, and contributing to the discussions.

The second author has made substantial contributions in framing the theoretical background, conducting the literature review, designing the research, developing the checklist, interpreting the data, presenting the findings related to the third and fourth questions, and contributing to the discussions.

The third author has made substantial contributions in framing the theoretical background, conducting the literature review, designing the research, developing the checklist, interpreting the data, presenting the findings related to the second question, and contributing to the discussions.

The fourth author has made substantial contributions in framing the theoretical background, conducting the literature review, designing the research, developing the checklist, interpreting the data, presenting the findings related to the third and fourth questions, and contributing to the discussions.

The fifth author provided critical reviews of the manuscript drafts, checklist, and overall content and structure, bringing his expertise and offering valuable insight.

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TÜRKÇE GENİŞ ÖZET

Türkiye'de K-12 Eğitim Düzeyinde 2004-2022 Yılları Arasında Yürütülen Program Değerlendirme Araştırmalarının Sistematik Meta-Değerlendirmesi

Giriş

Program değerlendirme çalışmalarına ilişkin kararların geçerliliği ve güvenilirliği, değerlendirme sürecine bağlıdır (Sağlam & Yüksel, 2007). Sağlam ve Yüksel (2007) tarafından belirtildiği gibi, yanlış veya önyargılı değerlendirme sonuçları sunmak geri dönülmez sonuçlara yol açabileceğinden, değerlendirme kalitesi önemlidir. Stufflebeam (2000), değerlendirme raporlarının meta-değerlendirmeye tabi tutulmadığı durumlarda, karar vericilerin programın gelişimine katkı sağlamayacak kararlar almasına neden olabileceğini vurgulamaktadır. Meta-değerlendirme, Scriven (1969) tarafından ortaya atılan bir kavramdır ve değerlendirmenin değerini, karar verme sürecine rehberlik sağlama yeteneğini ve kaynak kullanımı açısından etik ve pratik olup olmadığını incelemeyi tanımlar (Stufflebeam, 1978).

Değerlendirme sürecine iliskin, teorik bir çerçeve oluşturulması ve değerlendirme standartlarının belirlenmesi konularında artan bir vurgu olduğu görülmektedir. Program değerlendirme, 1960'lardan bu yana gelişen ve olgunlaşan bir alan olarak ortaya çıkmıştır (Fitzpatrick vd., 2004). Türkiye'de de program değerlendirme çalışmalarına olan ilgi artmaktadır. Bu doğrultuda, program geliştirme ve değerlendirme çalışmaları, dünya genelinde program geliştirme alanının tanınmasıyla birlikte, 1950'lerden itibaren sistemli ve bilimsel bir şekilde yürütülmeye başlanmıştır (Özdemir, 2009).

Program değerlendirmeye verilen önem ve yapılan çalışmaların sayısı dikkate alındığında, Türkiye'deki çalışmalar hakkında yapılan sistematik bir meta-değerlendirme, bu konudaki genel eğilimler, prosedürler, güçlü ve zayıf yönler hakkında bütüncül bir anlayış sağlayabilir. Bunun, önceki değerlendirme çalışmalarının iyileştirilmesine rehberlik etme ve gelecekteki program geliştirme ve değerlendirme girişimlerine ışık tutma konusunda önemli olacağı düşünülmektedir. Bu çalışmanın amacı, Türkiye'de 2004-2022 yılları arasında K-12 eğitim düzeylerinde yapılan program değerlendirme araştırmalarını Eğitim Değerlendirme Ortak Komitesi tarafından önerilen dört standart (fayda, uygulanabilirlik, uygunluk ve doğruluk) temelinde meta-değerlendirme, önceki program değerlendirme araştırmalarının genel bir resmini sunmak ve değerlendiricilerin kaliteli ve sağlam değerlendirme konusundaki anlayışını geliştirmektir (Fitzpatrick et al., 2004; Stufflebeam, 2001; Stufflebeam, 2004).

Yöntem

Bu çalışmada, araştırmaya dâhil edilecek değerlendirme çalışmalarının belirlenmesi için sistematik analiz gerçekleştirilmiştir. Gerçekleştirilen analizde Dergipark, Web of Science, Scopus ve EBSCOhost veritabanlarında belirlenen anahtar kelimeler ile aramalar yapılmıştır. Bu aramaların ve içerik kontrol listesinin uygulanmasının ardından 42 program değerlendirme çalışması araştırmaya dâhil edilmiştir. Eğitim Değerlendirme Ortak Komitesi tarafından hazırlanan Meta-değerlendirme Kontrol Listesi araştırmacılar tarafından Türkiye bağlamına uyarlanmıştır. Bu süreçte bağlama uygun olmayan maddeler atılmış ya da değiştirilmiştir. Makalelerde yer alan önerilerin değerlendirilmesi amacıyla içerik değerlendirme yapılmıştır. Araştırmanın geçerlik ve güvenirliğini sağlamak amacıyla uzman görüşü alınmış, dört araştırmacı tarafından bağımsız değerlendirmeler ve uzman ve araştırmacıların katılmasıyla kalibrasyon toplantıları yürütülmüştür.

Bulgular

Yapılan araştırma sonucunda en erken program değerlendirme çalışmasının 2009 yılında, en güncel çalışmanın da 2022 yılında yapıldığı saptanmıştır. En çok çalışma 2018-2021 yılları arasında yürütülmüştür. Ders kapsamında en sık değerlendirilen dersler matematik ve İngilizce dersleriyken, okul seviyesi bazında en çok araştırma ilköğretim seviyesinde yürütülmüştür. Okul öncesi eğitim programlarına ilişkin araştırma sayısı azdır. Veri kaynakları değerlendirildiğinde, genellikle öğretmen ve öğrencilerden veri toplanmasıyla sınırlı kalındığı görülmüştür. Uygulanan meta-değerlendirme kontrol listesi değerlendirme çalışmalarını fayda, uygulanabilirlik, uygunluk ve doğruluk alanlarında değerlendirmiş ve sonucunda fayda ve uygulanabilirlik alanlarında çalışmalarının çoğu birçok kriteri karşılarken, uygunluk ve doğruluk alanlarında az sayıda çalışmanın bütün kriterleri karşıladığı saptanmıştır. En az karşılanan standartlar arasında etik izinler, şeffaf onay süreçleri ve kullanılan modellerin doğru ifade edilmesi yer almaktadır. Araştırmaların önerileri incelendiğinde paydaşlara ve değerlendirme çalışmalarının kapsamının genişletilmesine yönelik öneriler yapılmıştır.

Tartışma

Yürütülen araştırma sonucunda Türkiye'deki değerlendirme çalışmalarının genellikle ilköğretime odaklandığı saptanmış ve bunun olası nedenlerinden biri olarak Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı tarafından yapılan program değerlendirme çalışmalarının da aynı eğitim seviyesine odaklanması sunulmuştur. Bunun yanı sıra, veri kaynaklarının yalnızca öğrenci ve öğretmenler ile sınırlı olması, geniş bir kapsamda incelenmesi gereken çok katmanlı eğitim programları konseptinin anlaşılmasını zorlaştırmaktadır. Yürütülen değerlendirme çalışmalarının sonuçları, standartların karşılanmasında çeşitli parametreler olduğunu göstermektedir. Değerlendirme Kontrol Listesi, Ortak Komite (1981) tarafından belirlenen orijinal standartlarla genel olarak paralellik göstermektedir. Faydalılık standart puanları değerlendirildiğinde, özellikle U2, U3.1 ve U5.2 maddelerinde makalelerin çoğunun iyi performans gösterdiği görülmektedir. U2 maddesi, çalışmanın değerlendiricilerinin güvenilirliğiyle ilgilenmektedir. Değerlendirilen makalelerde, araştırmacılar Türkiye üniversitelerinde görev yapan akademik personeldir. Bu nedenle değerlendiriciler için madde otomatik olarak karşılanmıştır. Makalelerin yarısı uygunluk standardında tam puan alarak daha az başarılı bir görüntü çizmektedir. Bu sonuçlar, Türkiye'de

yapılan değerlendirme çalışmalarıyla ilgili sistematik incelemelerle paralellik göstermektedir. Değerlendirme çalışmalarının sınırlamaları ve önerileri paylaşması gerektiği daha önceki araştırma çalışmaları tarafından da önerilmiştir. Makalelerin çoğu doğruluk standardından neredeyse tam puan almıştır. Bunun nedeni, akademik yazma ve yayın standartlarıyla uyumlu olmalarıdır. Ancak, A4.2 maddesinden neredeyse tüm makaleler sıfır puan almıştır. Bu madde, makalelerin eksik olduğu çeşitli kaynaklardan bilgi sağlamaya odaklanmaktadır. Araştırma kalitesini artırmak için çeşitli veri kaynaklarının kullanılması önemlidir.

Genel olarak, Türkiye'de yapılan değerlendirme çalışmaları konusunda iyileştirilmesi gereken noktalar olduğu görülmektedir. Özellikle seçmeli dersler ve okul öncesi düzeyindeki programlar ele alınmamıştır. Bu nedenle, programı bütünsel bir şekilde ele almak önemlidir. Ayrıca, bu çalışma, çalışmaların yarısının herhangi bir program değerlendirme yaklaşımına veya modeline dayanmadığını göstermektedir. Ancak, değerlendirme çalışmalarında teorik bir yaklaşım ve modelin olması, değerlendirilen programla ilgili ana sorunları ele alan sistematik ve kanıta dayalı veri üretimi sağlamak açısından önemli görülmektedir. Türkiye'de program değerlendirme çalışmalarının belirli değerlendirme modellerini dâhil etmemesi veya önermemesine neden olabilecek birkaç olası sebep bulunmaktadır. Bunlar arasında belirli modellere ilişkin yetersiz bilgi, değerlendirmenin sınırlı kapsamı, kaynak kısıtlamaları, önyargılar ve araştırmacılar ile paydaşlar arasında iletişim eksikliği yer alabilir. Bununla birlikte, araştırmacıların belirli modelleri dâhil etmeme nedenlerini açıklıkla belirtmeleri ve yöntemlerini açıklamaları önemlidir. Program değerlendirme çalışmaları, hedefleri ve amaçlarıyla uyumlu değerlendirme modelleri ve yöntemlerini kullanarak programın kapsamlı ve tarafsız bir değerlendirmesini sağlamayı amaçlamalıdır. Bu, lisansüstü programlarında, program geliştirme ve değerlendirme derslerinde vurgulanabilir. Ayrıca, çalışmalarda kullanılan veri kaynaklarının çeşitlendirilmesi ve farklı paydaşların dahil edilmesi ihtiyacı olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu nedenle, değerlendirme çalışmaları, çok katmanlılığı göz önünde bulundurarak değerlendirilen programın daha eksiksiz ve derin bir değerlendirmesini sağlamak amacıyla planlanmalıdır. Sonuç olarak, standartlara göre yapılan makale değerlendirmesi, iş birliği, şeffaflık ve doğruluk açısından önemli sonuçlar ortaya koymaktadır. Ayrıca, tüm çalışmaların akademik kaygılarla yürütüldüğü ve akademik personel tarafından yayınlandığı belirtilmektedir. Bu nedenle, araştırmacılar, fon sağlayıcılar ve program karar vericileri büyük ölçekli değerlendirme çalışmalarında iş birliği yapmalıdır. Ayrıca, akademik kaygılar, program değerlendirmenin asıl amacını gölgeleyebilir ve programların gerçek sorunlarına yüzeysel bir bakış açısı getirebilir. Son olarak, bir değerlendirme çalışmasının etik onayları ve sınırlamaları tartışılmalıdır. Böylece bir çalışma yapmak veya değerlendirme çalışmasının sonuçlarını kullanmak isteyen araştırmacılar ve uygulayıcılar bilgilendirilmiş olur.

Appendix-I

The Metaevaluation Checklist

THE META-EVALUATION CHECKLIST FOR CURRICULUM EVALUATION RESEARCH ARTICLES

This checklist is constructed in order to assess the evaluation research articles based on the utility, feasibility, propriety, and accuracy standards set for curriculum evaluation of educational programs by the Joint Committee on the Evaluation Standards for Educational Evaluation. The checklist is composed of four sections, and each section includes items regarding the aforementioned standard areas. The evaluation research studies will be reviewed in the light of these items and will be evaluated based on each standard and overall quality.

PROGRAM DEĞERLENDİRME MAKALELERİ İÇİN META DEĞERLENDİRME KONTROL LİSTESİ

Bu kontrol listesi, Ortak Komite (Joint Committee on the Evaluation Standards for Educational Evaluation) tarafından eğitim programlarının değerlendirmesi için belirlenen yararlık, yürütülebilirlik, uygunluk ve doğruluk standartlarına dayalı program değerlendirme çalışmalarını değerlendirmek için oluşturulmuştur. Kontrol listesi, dört bölümden oluşmakta ve her bölümde yukarıda belirtilen standartlara ilişkin maddeler yer almaktadır. Program değerlendirme çalışmaları bu maddeler ışığında gözden geçirilecek ve çalışmaların niteliği, her bir standart özelinde ve bütün olarak değerlendirilecektir.

UTILITY/YARARLIK

1. U2 The evaluation study is conducted by competent and trustworthy evaluators.

(Değerlendirme, yetkin ve güvenilir değerlendiriciler tarafından yürütülmüştür.)

2. U3.1 The scope of the evaluation study is compatible with the needs and interests of the audiences (researchers, practitioners, experts, policymakers).

[Değerlendirmenin kapsamı kitlenin (araştırmacılar, uygulayıcılar, uzmanlar, karar alıcılar) ilgi ve ihtiyaçları ile uyumludur.]

3. U3.2 The information collected in the evaluation study is in line with the evaluation questions.

(Değerlendirme çalışmasında toplanan veri, değerlendirme soruları ile uyumludur.)

4. U5.1 The context of the evaluation is clearly described in the evaluation study.

(Değerlendirme çalışmasında, değerlendirmenin bağlamı detaylı bir şekilde tanımlanmaktadır.)

5. U5.2 The purposes of the evaluation are clearly described in the evaluation study.

(Değerlendirme çalışmasında değerlendirmenin amaçları detaylı bir biçimde tanımlanmaktadır.

6. U5.3 The procedures of the evaluation are clearly described in the evaluation study.

(Değerlendirme çalışmasında, değerlendirme yöntemi/işlemleri açık bir biçimde yazılmıştır.)

7. U5.4 The findings of the evaluation are clearly described in the evaluation study.

(Değerlendirme çalışmasında, değerlendirme bulgularına açık bir biçimde yer verilmektedir.)

8. U4 Relevant sources of values (perspectives/ procedures/ rationale) adopted for interpreting the findings are clearly described in the evaluation study.

(Değerlendirme çalışmasında, sonuçları yorumlamak amacıyla kullanılan perspektif, yöntem veya rasyonel gibi değerlerin ilgili kaynakları detaylı bir biçimde açıklanmaktadır.)

9. U8 The recommendations are provided in the evaluation study in ways that lead to further action by the stakeholders/researchers.

(Değerlendirme çalışması, paydaşlar ve araştırmacıları harekete geçmeye yönlendirecek öneriler ortaya koymuştur.)

FEASIBILITY/YÜRÜTÜLEBİLİRLİK

1. F1 The procedures utilized in the evaluation study are reported to be practical to minimize interruption in gathering information. (e.g., researchers, experts, financial resources, etc.)

Değerlendirme çalışmasında, yapılan işlemlerin veri toplama sürecini en az kesintiye uğratacak biçimde işe koşulduğu belirtilmiştir. Ör. Araştırmacılar, uzmanlar, ekonomik kaynaklar)

2. F3.1 The (human) resources used in the evaluation are described in detail in the evaluation study for accountability purposes.

[Değerlendirme çalışmasında, hesap verebilirliğin sağlanması amacıyla, değerlendirme sürecinde kullanılan kaynakları (insan) detaylı bir şekilde tanımlanmıştır]

3. F3.2 The time spent on the evaluation is described in detail in the evaluation study for accountability purposes.

(Değerlendirme çalışmasında, hesap verebilirliğin sağlanması amacıyla, değerlendirmeye ayrılan süre detaylı bir şekilde tanımlanmıştır.)

4. F2.2 The evaluation study is reported objectively so that any interference and misapplication by different interest groups (researchers, practitioners, experts, policymakers) are prevented.

[Değerlendirme çalışması, farklı ilgi gruplarının (araştırmacılar, uygulamacılar, uzmanlar, karar vericiler) müdahale ve yanlış uygulamasından kaçınılması amacıyla tarafsız bir biçimde rapor edilmiştir]

PROPRIETY/UYGUNLUK

1. P1.1 (If needed*) Necessary approvals and permissions for conducting the evaluation study are reported to be received.

[Değerlendirme çalışmasının yapılması için (gerektiğinde) gerekli onay ve izinler alındığı belirtilmiştir]

2. P1.2 Stakeholders involved in the study are informed about the details (e.g., purpose, method, timelines, and costs) of the evaluation study.

[Paydaşlar değerlendirme çalışmasının detayları (ör. Amaç, yöntem, zaman çizelgeleri ve bütçe) ile ilgili bilgilendirilmiştir]

3. P4 The findings of the evaluation study are reported within the limits of confidentiality and privacy of the stakeholders.

(Değerlendirme çalışmasının bulguları paydaşların gizlilik ve mahremiyet hakları çerçevesinde rapor edilmiştir.)

4. P7.1 The strengths of the program are reported in the evaluation study.

(Programının güçlü yönleri, değerlendirme çalışmasında rapor edilmiştir.)

5. P7.2 The weaknesses of the program are reported in the evaluation study.

(Programının zayıf yönleri, değerlendirme çalışmasında rapor edilmiştir.)

6. P3.1 The findings of the evaluation study are reported in an open, direct, and complete way.

(Değerlendirme çalışmasının bulguları açık, doğrudan ve bütünlük içinde aktarılmıştır.)

7. P3.2 The limitations of the evaluation study are reported in an open, direct, and complete way.

(Değerlendirme çalışmasının sınırlılıkları açık, doğrudan ve bütünlük içinde aktarılmıştır.)

ACCURACY/DOĞRULUK

1. A1 The program is adequately evaluated to clearly identify the design of the program.

(Değerlendirme, program tasarımını tanımlayacak şekilde uygulanmıştır.)

2. A2 The context in which the program is evaluated is described in detail to identify its effects on the program.

(Programın değerlendirme çalışmasının yapıldığı bağlam, programın üzerindeki etkilerinin saptanabilmesi için detaylı bir şekilde tanımlanmıştır.)

3. A4.1 The sources of information (institutions, individuals, research, documents etc.) in the evaluation study are clearly described so that adequacy of information can be assessed.

[Değerlendirme çalışmasında, elde edilen bilgilerin yeterliliğinin değerlendirilebilmesi için bilgi/veri kaynaklarına (kurumlar, kişiler, araştırmalar, dokümanlar vb.) açık bir şekilde yer verilmiştir]

4. A4.2 Various sources of information (institutions, individuals, research, etc.) in the evaluation study are utilized so that adequacy of information can be assessed.

[Değerlendirme çalışmasında, elde edilen bilgilerin yeterliliğinin değerlendirilebilmesi için çeşitli bilgi kaynakları (kurumlar, kişiler, araştırmalar, vb.) kullanılmıştır]

5. A5.1 The instruments used in the evaluation study for data collection are selected and/or developed appropriately to ensure validity.

(Değerlendirme çalışmasında kullanılan veri toplama araçları, geçerliliği sağlamak için uygun bir şekilde seçilmiş ve/veya geliştirilmiştir.)

6. A6 The instruments used in the evaluation study for data collection are implemented appropriately to ensure reliability.

(Değerlendirme çalışmasında kullanılan veri toplama araçları, güvenirliği sağlamak için uygun biçimde uygulanmıştır.)

7. A8-9 The analysis of the qualitative and/or quantitative data is conducted for supportable interpretations.

(Nitel ve/veya nicel verilerin analizi, desteklenebilir yorumlamalar yapılabilmesini sağlayacak şekilde yapılmıştır.)

8. A10 The conclusions of the evaluation study are justifiably reported for objective assessment by the audiences involved in or affected by the evaluation.

(Değerlendirme çalışmasının sonuçları, değerlendirmeye dâhil olan ya da değerlendirmeden etkilenen kitlenin nesnel değerlendirme yapabilmesi için savunulabilir bir şekilde ortaya konmaktadır.)

9. A11 The findings of the evaluation study are presented objectively without biased positions of the stakeholders and researchers.

(Değerlendirme çalışmasının bulguları, paydaşların ve araştırmacıların ön yargılı görüşleri olmadan nesnel bir şekilde sunulmuştur.)

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A Cluster Analysis for Teachers' Designer Role: Three Profiles with Differing Focuses on Design

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Abstract

Teachers have a vital role in students' learning. This role is multifaceted in terms of their design skills and must be unpacked to clearly understand how teachers' daily routines differ with respect to instructional perspectives. This study introduces a comprehensive professional development (PD) program for teachers to build capacity in designing instruction and other design-related skill sets. Employing a person-centered methodology, the study aimed to identify different profiles of teachers in terms of their skills in designing instruction, implementing lessons, updating professional knowledge, digital learning systems, and facilitation/leadership. Through the application of cluster analysis on a cohort of 130 educators, three distinct designer teacher profiles emerged: high-designers (n = 29), mid-designers (n = 64), and low-designers (n = 37). These profiles delineate both shared attributes and discrepancies. In addition, the study delved into the variances within these profiles concerning teachers' grasp of curriculum development and self-reported utilization of innovative pedagogical methods. Means analysis further shows that as the profile gets higher, the curriculum development knowledge and the use of teaching and learning techniques increase. These findings hold significant implications, urging a departure from exclusively emphasizing technical design work when assigning roles to teachers, thereby recognizing the multifaceted dimensions of their contributions.

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Introduction

For almost three decades, teachers have been described as designers of instruction with an emphasis on several aspects (Carlgren,1999; Koehler & Mishra, 2005; McKenney et al., 2015; Penuel & Gallagher, 2009; Voogt et al., 2015). This discourse on the interplay of teachers and design is expansive but needs conceptual clarity (Warr & Mishra, 2021). There are "blurred definitions" and "multiple interpretations" (Persico & Pozzi, 2015, p. 232) as researchers define teachers as designers.

Warr and Mishra's (2021) comprehensive analysis of discourse in teachers and design showed that there are 10 strands that frame teaching and learning as designs, from designing pedagogy (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015) to "teaching is design" (McKenney et al., 2015) and from curriculum reform (Voogt et al., 2015) to patterns for learning (Laurillard, 2008). In their review, Warr and Mishra (2021) interpreted the collective idea as "teaching as design," which has been commonly referred to for more than two decades. Other scholars frequently use the role (and the term) of teachers as designers in technology-enhanced learning environments to extend existing design with technology knowledge (Kali et al., 2015). What has been noticed is that the concept of "design" is used interchangeably in different situations with inconsistent manners (Holmberg, 2014).

Warr and Mishra (2021) suggested that "teaching not only includes design activities but could be considered a design profession" (p. 1). This insight questions our definitions of teachers as designers because teaching practices need to be updated by the demands and needs of a new generation of students (Bartlett, 2021; Brown, 2004; Kalantzis & Cope, 2010; Scott & Lock, 2021). Teachers need to adjust to the expectations of their job (Pillen et al., 2013). For example, being a designer now means supporting other teachers through feedback for their lesson plans or creating networks for learning and sharing experiences of design knowledge. In addition, teachers must now build capacity in various skill sets to make better instructional decisions and help their students succeed (Kelting-Gibson, 2005; Trinter & Hughes, 2021). These skill sets range from being a practitioner who gives feedback to other teachers' performance in teaching, organizing, and facilitating professional development (PD) sessions to attending conferences to disseminate their professional learning. Teachers must become practitioners, mentors, or coaches to facilitate student learning and be actively involved in other teachers' professional knowledge (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). These continuous demands from teachers to reconcile their design duties and different professional expectations characterize the development of a new teacher profile, not just a teacher focusing on design itself.

Considering this complicated nature of the term, it is essential to develop a more nuanced understanding of the design task of teachers and go beyond the time by extending it to the teaching profession. Therefore, the primary goal of this study is to explore teachers as designers from a different lens and examine the profiles of the teachers as they work on other design-related tasks. A design-focused PD program was created, which was expected to promote teachers' designer role and encourage them to use different skills for the benefit of other teachers. Our research questions were:

1. What are the teacher profiles after they complete a design-focused PD program?

2. How do teacher profiles differ regarding their knowledge of curriculum development and the frequency of using innovative teaching and learning methods?

The first research question, it was aimed to see if the characteristics/domains of teachers as designers are distributed with a pattern, such as one character having more emphasis than the other. This is because the previous studies show that certain types of teachers can be identifiable in the degree to which they follow a designer role and put effort into planning their professional practices.

For the second research question, it was examined if a teacher who embraces the designer role (1) has different professional knowledge to develop a curriculum, such as setting relevant goals (transfer and enduring understanding), creating authentic performance tasks, creating inquiry-based instruction, and (2) uses innovative and student-oriented teaching and learning methods to a certain extent (basing our argument to the better learning experience (Treagust & Tsui, 2014), the importance of authentic assessment (Care et al., 2016), transfer of learning (Stern et al., 2021), and student-oriented learning (Kangas et al., 2017)). The characteristics of teachers as designers were investigated by comparing the variations in teachers' skills in each profile regarding curriculum development and teaching and learning methods. It was explored that designers' stances are conducive to practicing what they believe and what they think they are. It is expected that a "design-heavy" position in teachers pushes them to develop better lessons and incorporate newer instructional strategies in the classroom. Such results might illuminate the validity and implications of our argument of the teachers as designers.

Theoretical Background

Teachers as Designers

The literature on teachers' role around design and instruction abounds (Carl, 2009; Kalantzis & Cope, 2010; McKenney et al., 2015; McTighe & Brown, 2020; Warr & Mishra, 2021; Wiggins & McTighe, 2005; Yurtseven et al., 2021). Most studies in the teachers as design field underlined the importance of teachers' design knowledge (Koehler et al., 2007) and how they design instruction through collaborative mechanisms (Voogt et al., 2015; Wood, 2020); some scholars added technology and other digital means to use and integrate in their design (Kali et al., 2015).

However, little is known about (1) how other skills that are different from design skills appear, (2) how they are interrelated to each other, and (3) how these skills describe teachers' changing roles. Previous studies put less emphasis on some aspects of teachers as designers, which encourages us to conceptualize a broader definition while maintaining the power of design (Warr & Mishra, 2021). In this sense, teachers' typologies or profiles might have implications that affect various aspects of teachers' daily professional roles. Such profiles might show differing focus as teachers design instruction and make design choices, inevitably impacting student achievement (Kim, 2019). Previous studies have overlooked investigating such aspects from this perspective (e.g., Barnes et al., 2018). If we desire to have students experience meaningful learning, it is necessary to emphasize the changing role of teachers in schools and PD programs because it has critical importance (McKenney et al., 2015).

Conceptual Framework: Designer Teacher

There are numerous ways to define teachers as designers using theories and previous studies on teacher development and instructional design (e.g., Scott & Lock, 2021). Our conceptualization of the designer teacher doesn't limit the scope of a teacher's professional efforts as a designers and goes beyond the sole focus of a design and its effectiveness. Based on data generated by a comprehensive literature review, teacher interviews, and surveys (more about the theoretical framework and psychometric properties of the domains in Yurtseven et al. (2021) in this study, "designer teacher" is characterized by five interrelated disciplines. We intentionally put "designer" up front to signal the importance of design, but at the same time, what other skill sets can interplay with designer skills were explored.

(1) Design/Development: This domain addresses teachers' capacity in planning instruction (Laurillard, 2008), which includes setting goals, preparing assessments, and creating learning activities (McKenney et al., 2005; McTighe & Wiggins, 2012). Designer teachers participate in curriculum development since their actual experiences in classroom settings are valuable (Lumbreras & Rupley, 2020). Designer teachers adjust and modify lesson plans and curricula to meet the needs and expectations of students (Bümen & Yazıcılar-Nalbantoğlu, 2020). S/he uses and develops authentic assessments, including projects, performance tasks, and other alternative methods and techniques (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). In his/her classroom, students enjoy the learning activities. This domain underlines the importance of "teacher's own work" in that it limits adapting others' or commercial lesson plans for his/her classroom (Bartlett, 2021; Debarger et al., 2017).

(2) Implementation/Enactment: This domain has less to do with the delivery of instruction. It is more about facilitating and coaching the student learning process (Kelting-Gibson, 2005; Penuel & Gallagher, 2009). The designer teacher supports students in any of their efforts through various resources (McTighe & Brown, 2020). S/he asks students for feedback to improve instruction and exchanges experiences and practical ideas with his/her colleagues (Hauge, 2014). Implementation refers to being aware of the learning plan and taking necessary steps to improve it (Kalantzis & Cope, 2010). On-the-go changes are always visible in designer teachers' classrooms. Enactment is for actively using the designed/developed lesson plan in the classroom, which might differ in a real-life classroom. A designer teacher makes changes in his/her teaching based on feedback (Craig, 2012).

(3) Professional efforts (to update content knowledge): This domain is about designer teachers' efforts to network with other designer teachers and follow any opportunities regarding their subject matter (Boschman et al., 2015; Laurillard, 2008). Designer teachers are willing to learn art-of-the-state developments and changes in their field through participating in learning communities. Professional efforts in this domain also include teachers' collaborative efforts with other designer teachers teaching different subjects, such as mathematics teachers reviewing science curricula and meeting with other teachers to discuss potential connections between the two issues (McTighe & Brown, 2020).

(4) Digital competency: Online and digital learning systems and their designs are the primary focus of this domain (e.g., Voogt et al., 2015). Designer teachers can design a fully online course in distance or remote learning programs (Kim, 2019; McKenney et al., 2015). S/he can work effectively in cloud-based platforms to collaborate with other teachers (Paniagua & Istance,

2018). Designer teachers can efficiently complete reviewing, sharing, and commenting back and forth via technology (Yoon et al., 2005).

(5) Facilitation and leadership: This domain refers to designer teachers' professional capacity to support other teachers (regardless of them being designer teachers) in terms of designing instruction (Goodyear & Dimitriadis, 2013; Kalantzis & Cope, 2010). Designer teachers can provide feedback to teachers so that their lesson/unit plan improves (Caena, 2011). S/he has the knowledge to explain curriculum models/frameworks to other teachers and to sustain their efforts to design instruction using these models. One additional role of a designer teacher is about classroom observation. Designer teachers can coach teachers by observing them in their classroom and giving formative feedback on their teaching.

These five domains represent a teacher's varying skill sets, as they are closely related to design but have more to do with it. Other terminologies in the literature overlap with these five domains in terms of scope in design. For example, "teacher-designer" is a term coined by Rogers (2002). Teacher-designers "often do not have any background in instructional design theory or practices and have only just mastered the skills for using the delivery medium" (p. 2). Similarly, Drake and Remillard (2019), in their thematic research analysis, found five themes of teacher-designer: (1) teachers' engagement with the use curriculum resources and their capacity to use them, (2) alignment between design intentions and patterns of curriculum use, (3) ways in which curriculum resources influence instruction, (4) ways in which curriculum features are purposefully designed to achieve a particular purpose, and (5) dissolution of boundaries between design and use in the context of digital resources. Teacher-designer, as a term, has a sole focus on the design itself by making deep connections with its components. "Design thinking" is another concept that might have some similarities with the designer teacher, which implicitly focuses on the design process (Koh et al., 2015). Another term that can be interchangeably used for the designer teacher is "teachers as designers." Figuratively, this term has many commonalities with what the designer teacher entails. As mentioned in the first sections of this manuscript, however, "teachers as designers" has been heavily used for planning and developing learning environments (Warr & Mishra, 2021) and also in the field of design thinking recently (Scott & Lock, 2021) to define practical design efforts of teachers that are related to STEM and robotics and also technology-enhanced learning (McKenney et al., 2015).

In this study, the designer teacher is a role, a state, and a set of skills that a teacher can have through improvements in professional stance (Carl, 2009; Kalantzis & Cope, 2010; Yurtseven et al., 2021). It is not just using a particular design principle but building the capacity to use several together (Henriksen & Richardson, 2017). Designer teachers can self-evaluate themselves to see if they need PD and take a step to meet their needs. They pursue quality instruction for all (Wallace & Loughran, 2012) and proactively ask for that (Brown & Edelson, 2003), not just designing a lesson with technology enhancements (Kim, 2019).

Teacher Profiles

Since teacher design as a role is multidimensional, a group- or variable-centered approach might not capture the multiple perspectives that a teacher might hold. It is known that not all teachers experience design in the same way. Their experience with design-related tasks in and outside the school might also differ. Moreover, teachers experience PD activities differently.

There are subgroups among teachers whose learning might be high or low. However, these differences in terms of design still need to be explored/explained. For this reason, a person-oriented approach to exploring teacher designers is required. A person-oriented process is particularly valuable in this study because groups of teachers with different experiences in their design-related professional activities could be distinguished.

Identifying teachers' profiles would help us understand other latent professional behaviors that are design-related but not well-discussed during teachers' daily routines. This approach has the potential to provide new insights into our current understanding of the different roles teachers play in the school. Given the known and unknown differences in teachers' design-related skills, a tailored approach to explore if other teachers' profiles in terms of design exist would be worthwhile. Considering this gap, the current study aimed to explore profiles of teachers who emerged after participating in a design-focused PD program that was expected to promote their designer role and other essential skills related to design and instruction.

Methodology

This study uses a cross-sectional survey design based on quantitative data collection from the teachers who participated in a PD program (Creswell, 2012). This design helps us describe potential teacher profiles after the PD program and examine teachers' just-after views on being designer teacher.

Context

The study is part of a more significant project in which the Designer Teacher Professional Development (DTPD) Program was offered to teachers. The primary goal of DTPD was to build capacity in teachers' design skills and transform teachers' roles from being sole designers to active professionals whose focus is beyond the design itself. The DTPD was developed using theoretical frameworks created by Doğan and Yurtseven's (2021) model of PD (based on Desimone (2009) and Darling-Hammond et al. (2017)). The program had eight features: (1) Sustained duration: The program lasted five months. (2) Adequate contact time: 60 hours of in-person, live, and asynchronous activities. (3) Content: Pedagogical and instructional strategies (Hattie, 2009), as well as skills in developing a curriculum focused on understanding and transfer (UbD framework and backward design, Wiggins & McTighe, 2005), were incorporated. (4) Active learning: The teachers had hands-on opportunities, such as designing unit plans, authentic assessment tasks, and making presentations. (5) Collaborative learning: Groups of teachers from the same subject worked together and were guided by the teacher facilitators. (6) Examples of best practices: The teachers were provided with sample UbD unit plans. (7) Support and facilitation: A group of teacher leaders who were experts in facilitating teachers' learning and knowledge about UbD and effective instruction was involved in the DTPD. (8) Feedback and reflection: Structured activities for the teachers to think and review the drafted unit plans.

Participants

150 teachers from 35 cities within the scope of 20 subjects all over Türkiye attended the study. However, some of them did not fill in the data collection instruments. After removing the missing data, we had 130 teachers from both public (f = 55) and private schools (f = 75) at different K-12 levels. The teachers were notified through the official DTPD website and social

media accounts, and they were invited to sign up. Teachers without PD experience and teachers from disadvantaged regions were privileged to participate in the DTPD program, comprising 25% of the participants. Of the participating teachers, 103 were females, and 110 were males (The other data was missing). The occupational experience (year) of the teachers was less than 0-5 (f = 17), 6-10 (f = 29), 11-15 (f = 38), 16-20 (f = 30), and 21 and above (f = 16). No data could be reached about teachers' previous experience in curriculum design and their school's structure on curriculum design. Still, only 10% of the teachers had attended a month-long PD before.

Data Collection Tools

Through the data collection process, one scale and two surveys were applied. The Designer Teacher scale was used to identify teachers' level of being designer teachers. Since the designer teacher is closely related to curriculum, design, teaching and learning methods, and assessments, the two surveys were used to associate them with the scale.

Designer Teacher Scale

A scale was used which was already developed and previously published by Yurtseven et al. (2021) to measure the frequency of which domains a teacher shows and reflects as a designer teacher (For more information about the scale, see Yurtseven et al. (2021)). The scale with 36-item incorporated five dimensions of the designer teacher as follows with sample items: Design/Development (13 items) "I plan my lesson before I even begin teaching" and "I often use various assessment methods in my lesson designs," Implementation/Enactment (10 items) "I put efforts to make sense of the curriculum I am teaching" and "I try to attract my students' attention during my teaching," Professional efforts to updating content knowledge (3 items) "I attend and participate in teacher networks in my field of the study" and "I always update my knowledge with the recent news and developments," Digital competency (5 items) "I design online and technology-based lessons" and "I collaborate with my colleagues on cloud-based systems (e.g., Google Documents) to design lessons," and Facilitation and leadership (5 items) "I give feedback to lesson plans my colleagues design" and "I guide my colleagues to help them use their time effectively during their teaching." The options of the scale were in frequency and ranged from 1: never to 5: always. Cronbach alpha coefficient is calculated to be .86 for Design/Development, .93 for Implementation/Enactment, .72 for Professional efforts to update content knowledge, .86 for Digital competency, and .84 for Facilitation and leadership.

Curriculum Development Survey

This survey, developed and published previously by Yurtseven et al. (2021) was used this survey that includes 24 five-Likert-type items that were adapted from the Understanding by Design (UbD) framework (McTighe & Wiggins, 2012; Wiggins & McTighe, 2005; 2011). The survey items mainly focused on teacher skills and knowledge based on three main components of UbD. Sample items: "I can write understanding as goals," "I can explain WHERETO and its elements," and "I can enhance my instruction by creating activities to support higher-order thinking." This survey differs from the Designer Teacher Scale in that it measures teachers' perceived knowledge/ability in a specific curriculum development model. The results of the principal factor analysis (PFA) showed that the Curriculum Development Survey has a unidimensional structure. Cronbach alpha coefficient of the scale is found to be .86.

Teaching and Learning Methods Survey

This survey was prepared by Yurtseven et al. (2021) to measure the extent to which teachers perform/use different instructional methods while teaching. "I perform collaborative learning methods and techniques" and "I provide feedback for my students" are the two sample items. The items in this survey and the Curriculum Development Survey don't overlap. The scale options are from (1) never to (5) highly frequent. Cronbach alpha coefficient of the scale is found to be .82. The PFA results indicate that there is one underlying dimension that accounts for common variance.

Data Analysis

A cluster analysis was implemented to discover the designer teacher profiles using the data from the Designer Teacher Scale. Cluster analysis is an exploratory multivariate statistical technique that arranges teachers into relatively homogenous groups based on designer teacher dimensions, including design, implementation, digital proficiency, professional development, and leadership. As recommended in the literature (Billieux et al., 2015), z scores of all five domains were used for equally contributing to establishing clusters. In the clustering process, researchers use two different approaches, namely hierarchical and non-hierarchical. Hierarchical clustering starts by considering each data set as a distinct cluster. Next, it aims to identify and merge similar data into relatively homogenous clusters iteratively.

On the other hand, the non-hierarchical technique begins with a predetermined number of clusters and groups the data into the clusters in accordance with their proximity (Kern & Culley, 2015). In the current study, both hierarchical and non-hierarchical clustering techniques were employed to recognize the proper number of clusters that appropriately represent patterns within the data set. SPSS 24 software (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, Armonk, NY) was implemented for data analysis.

After a solution to our cluster analysis was chosen, each cluster was considered as an independent variable, and one-way ANOVA and post hoc tests were applied to evaluate identified clusters of the designer teachers and investigate cross-cluster differences between two relevant variables: curriculum development and teaching and learning methods ($p < .05$ was for all analyses).

Findings

Three distinctive profiles of the designer teachers were identified, demonstrating a particular set of skills and the degrees attributed to these skills being relevant to reflect teachers' designer roles. Also, comparisons were provided to have an insight into how each profile used other skills related to the designer teacher.

Profiles of Designer Teachers

First, a hierarchical clustering analysis produced an agglomeration schedule that showed several solutions equal to the number of cases. Table 1 shows the agglomeration schedule for the final 10 clusters and the changes in coefficiency at each level. The most significant change in the coefficient was observed moving 1 to a 2-cluster solution. However, fairly large changes were observed when moving from 2 to 3 and 3 to 4. Thus, two, three, and four cluster solutions

were adopted for the subsequent analysis. Second, non-hierarchical cluster analyses with k-means cluster analyses were conducted.

Table 1

Agglomeration Schedules for the Last Ten Clusters

Number of Clusters	*Agglomeration Coefficient (Rounded)*	*Change in Coefficient to Next Level (%)*
10	86.000	4.93
9	88.245	14.90
8	101.394	22.44
7	124.151	39.75
6	173.503	3.87
5	180.222	9.86
4	198.000	1.59
3	201.156	52.35
2	306.473	146.173
1	754.454	-

Employing repeated k-means cluster analyses, the three-cluster solution was chosen for a few reasons. First, it was aimed to determine different designer teacher profiles. The two-cluster solution that dichotomized teachers' designer roles only into two profiles did not meet the aim. Second, with the four-cluster solution, the homogeneity of the profiles was not clearly observed. Third, with the four-cluster solution, the number of teachers in one of the designer teacher profiles was very small, which was very likely to restrain statistical comparisons. Table 2 presents descriptive statistics for the three-cluster solution in terms of all five domains.

Table 2

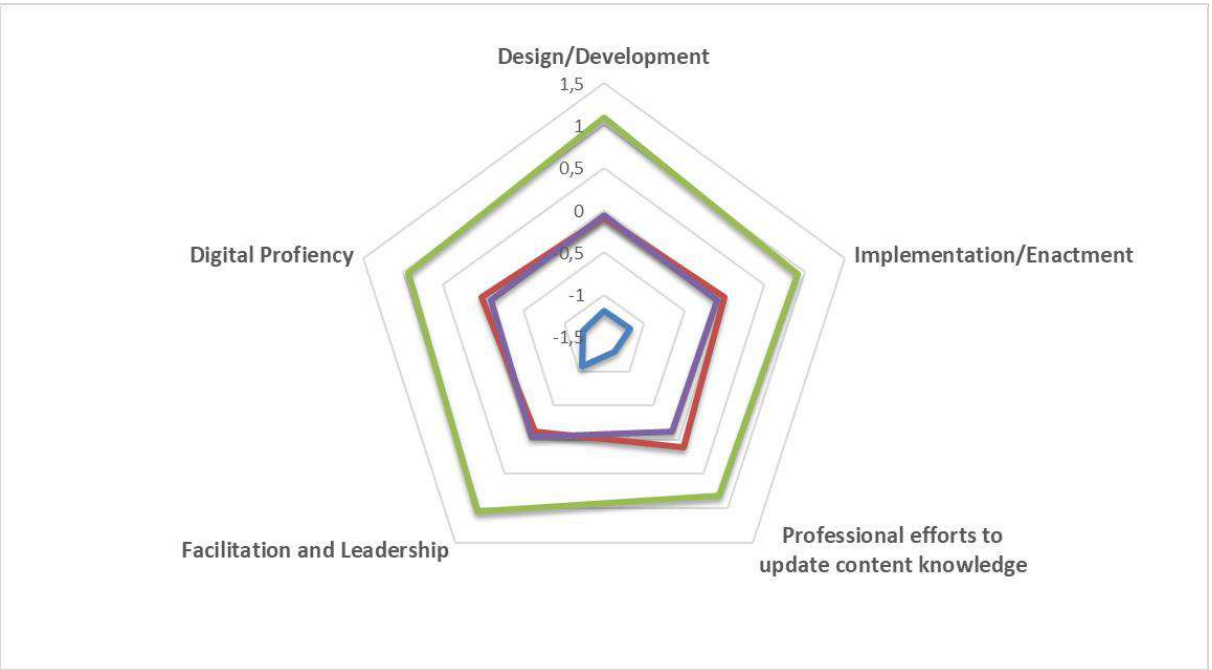
Descriptive Statistics for Three Teacher Designer Clusters (N = 130)

Designer Teacher Domains	*Cluster 1 (n = 29)*			*Cluster 2 (n = 64)*			*Cluster 3 (n = 37)*		
	M	*SD*	*z*	*M*	*SD*	*z*	*M*	*SD*	*z*
Design/Development	46.34	4.55	-1.19	53.90	4.28	-.09	54.52	3.13	1.09
Implementation/ Enactment	36.65	5.47	-1.17	42.97	3.32	.001	49.91	2.20	.91
Digital Proficiency	15.06	3.24	-1.24	20.28	2.81	.02	24.02	1.51	.93
Facilitation and leadership	14.62	2.19	-1.06	18.56	3.26	-.12	23.43	2.10	1.04
Professional efforts to update content knowledge	10.51	1.05	-1.28	13.01	1.40	.17	14.29	.84	.81

The values of each construct were standardized from 0 to 1, whereby a positive number means above the mean, and a negative number means below the mean (see Table 2). The profiles of three designer teacher clusters are illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Profiles by Domains



Note. Green line: High-designers; Red line: Mid-designers; Blue line: Low-designers. Purple line: standardized means (Z-scores) of the entire sample.

Cluster 1 (Blue line) included teachers whose level of designing instruction was low. Teachers in this cluster (profile) had less usage in all teacher designer dimensions compared to the mean score. Cluster 1 was named "low designers." One noticeable difference among the domains in this cluster was in the facilitation and leadership domain. It was relatively higher than other domains, as the image indicated (The teacher designers rated this domain the highest). Low designers perceive themselves as a supporter of other teachers.

Cluster 2 (Red line) included teachers who were almost in the mean of the entire study sample. Their level in the design/development and the facilitation and leadership domains was slightly below the mean. Their scores in the implementation/enactment and digital proficiency domains were similar to the average. The professional efforts were relatively higher than the mean. Cluster 2 was named "Mid-designers." The teachers in this profile showed relatively higher scores across all five domains than in Cluster 1. The main difference was their efforts to update their content knowledge and their willingness to collaborate with teachers teaching different subjects.

Cluster 3 (Green line) included teachers with a greater level than the mean score in all domains. The design/development domain was observed to be the highest average. The professional efforts domain was relatively lower compared to other domains. Cluster 3 was named "High designers." The designer teacher profile in this cluster, compared to other two clusters, are highly possible to lead curriculum design efforts with collaboration and through giving feedback. They are expected to ask for more feedback as they teach and have no problems making revisions to their instruction. Developing online lessons and using technology-based tools is among their skill set, relatively more frequent than the other two clusters.

Teacher Profiles: Curriculum Development and Teaching and Learning Methods

To test our hypotheses, one-way ANOVA was applied to investigate the differences between clusters, if any. Teacher designer profiles were taken as a factor (independent variable) with three levels in the comparisons. The descriptive results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Descriptive Results Comparing Study Variables by Designer Teacher Profiles

Profiles	*n*	*Curriculum Development*		*Teaching and Learning Methods*	
		Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*
C1: Low designers	29	83.53	11.07	53.27	5.80
C2: Mid-designers	64	88.15	14.36	60.64	6.67
C3: High designers	37	95.45	18.25	63.70	9.96

A one-way ANOVA test was conducted to examine whether the designer teacher profiles differed regarding teachers' perceived skills in curriculum development and teaching and learning methods, shown in Table 4. The results confirmed a statistically significant difference across designer teacher profiles (F (5.473) = .005, p < .05, Eta squared = .08 in the curriculum development variable). Tukey post hoc tests revealed a significant difference between Clusters 1 and 3 (p = .005). The high designers have more knowledge in curriculum development than the mid-designers and the low designers.

Table 4

Comparison Results of Three Designer Teacher Profiles on Study Variables

Study Variables	*df*	*Sum of Squares*	*Mean Square*	*F*	*p*
Curriculum Development					
Between groups	2450.256	2	1225.128	5.47	.005
Within groups	28431.092	127	223.867		
Total	30881.348	129			
Teaching and Learning Methods					
Between groups	1842.520	2	921.260	15.97	.000
Within groups	7326.257	127	57.687		
Total	9168.777	129			

It was investigated whether the designer teacher profiles showed any statistically significant difference in terms of teachers' frequency of utilizing various teaching and learning methods. The result from a one-way ANOVA suggested that using teaching and learning methods varied across the designer teacher profiles (F (15.970) = .000, p < .01, Eta squared = .201). Tukey's post hoc tests found statistically significant differences between Clusters 1 and 2 (p = .000) and between Clusters 1 and 3 (p = .000). The low designers have used innovative teaching and learning methods less than the high designers and the mid-designers.

Discussion

The results from this study (to respond to the first research question) identify three profiles highlighting the different combinations of the teacher designer domains relevant to various emphasized roles. Across all clusters, the design/development capacity appears prominent, which is expected after they participate in our design-focused PD. In addition, the lower designers think they are good at facilitating and leading other teachers (might be within and/or between clusters); the mid-designers believe they put effort into updating their content knowledge and like teacher collaboration. The high designers are proficient in all five domains. Comparing the three profiles indicated that as the profile gets higher, the curriculum development knowledge and the use of teaching and learning techniques increase. Below, the profiles are discussed together with their comparisons.

The results from the cluster analysis indicate that the level of teachers' design skills suggests the extent to which teachers use other skill sets (as evidenced in previous studies by Boschman et al., 2015). As teachers' design skills sharpen, their capabilities to provide feedback, lead professional learning activities, and develop technology-based lessons become more apparent. Studies showed that embracing a designer role in the school is a way of having effective teachers in the classroom (Bartlett, 2021; Kalantzis & Cope, 2010; Scott & Lock, 2021) and improving student achievement (Kim, 2019). Therefore, we need to leverage this role in the schools so that teachers begin blending the power of design and other professional domains that make them more competent.

The high designers have essential skill sets to professionally influence other teachers by contributing to their professional learning. They are strong in terms of design, development, implementation, and enactment aspects, which means they can design an understanding-based curriculum that helps students transfer their learning to real-life situations (McTighe & Wiggins, 2012; Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). A high-designer teacher prefers to design his/her own instruction (Bartlett, 2021; Debarger et al., 2017) because it is his/her belief that a tailored lesson is what students need. They interpret teaching as design and evaluate almost all possible aspects of instruction in the pursuit of their professional goals (Brown & Edelson, 2003). Thus, they are "curriculum makers" who might affect instructional decisions in their schools (Craig, 2012)

Moreover, in this profile, because all five domains are relatively higher in value, these teachers might help other teachers to be designers (as evidenced in the description of competent teachers in Kalantzis and Cope (2010)). These teachers can develop or support others to create localized versions of curriculum to meet student's diverse needs, which requires more than design and development knowledge. Digital competency is one of the terms that designer teachers can use to engage in technology-rich learning. Through cloud-based technologies, they can collaboratively build on new materials and share their know-how, know-why, and know-what (Boschman et al., 2015). Additionally, the daily life of the teachers in this profile includes frequent exposure to challenges and moving parts ranging from student interaction to management and to the school learning community (Henriksen & Richardson, 2017). A high designer can function in this complex world by solving problems and supporting other teachers. They have a strategic way of approaching all instructional problems.

The mid-designers are teachers willing to learn and improve their professional learning through different avenues. We can't say their design skills aren't worthwhile, which were around average scores in this study. Their focus on updating their content knowledge is the most visible characteristic, including being current in recent work and publications on their subject (Yurtseven et al., 2021). A mid-designer is willing to learn more about his/her field because s/he believes being a lifelong learner is a teacher's responsibility. They can search for new insights, innovative methods, or opportunities for collaboration outside their school (Macià & Garcia, 2016). Mid-designers join teacher networks, such as professional learning communities or informal teacher groups, to achieve this. These groups offer teachers learning opportunities in a common space through reflective practices and support activities (Macià & Garcia, 2016). They can spend several hours engaging in professional dialogue with their peers in informal learning environments (Eraut, 2011) and PD events through cooperation with other teachers (Moolenaar et al., 2012).

The low designers have a tendency to facilitate and support other teachers during their design efforts. Giving feedback on lesson/unit plans is one of the mechanisms they use (Caena, 2011). Teachers in this profile assist other teachers and explain curricular processes (Kalantzis & Cope, 2010). Formulating objectives and creating new and authentic assessments with other teachers are among their specialties (Yurtseven et al., 2021). Compared to the other two profiles, the low designers have relatively less knowledge in all five domains of the teacher designer. However, they have a targeted focus on collaboration with other teachers.

Articulating the profiles with their descriptions is worthwhile. However, future research is needed to provide more details about each profile. All our arguments presented here are based on the theoretical framework of the designer teacher (Yurtseven et al., 2021). More evidence will improve our understanding of what, for example, a mid-designer practices during his/her classroom time or outside the school. Qualitative case studies are useful in this respect. They can provide an in-depth understanding of what and how these profiles function in practice. Complex behaviors and instructional experiences need to be investigated by exploring different aspects of interacting with each other. Comparative case studies are also desired for understanding how teachers in the same profile from different contexts perceive and practice design and other design-related skills. Similarities, differences, and/or patterns across all three profiles must be revealed to understand a teacher's designer role.

Responding to the second research question, it was found out that the profiles differed in terms of professional knowledge and use of innovative teaching methods. Across all three profiles, the design/development and implementation/enactment domains are strong. However, a noticeable difference exists in the curriculum development knowledge. The high designers have more knowledge in setting learning goals, designing authentic assessment tasks, and planning learning activities. Although all teachers are generally guided by the same (formal) curriculum, their personal interpretation of the formal curriculum might be different (Shawer, 2017). This interpretation leads to a single curriculum that is a multiple-taught curricula by learning experiences. Considering the result of the current study, the high designers might have a more effective interpretation of the formal curriculum. Hence, high-designer teachers could aim for particularly transferable learning outcomes through more authentic content and teaching strategies, and assessment rather than low-designers. In other

words, designer teacher profiles can inspire teachers to interpret the formal curriculum in a more student-centered way.

Comparisons among the profiles regarding using innovative teaching and learning methods provide similar results. The low designers fail to use them frequently in their classrooms. This is consistent with their profile; the implementation/enactment domain was below the group's average. One way to interpret this result is that designer profiles might be practical evidence of how frequently teachers use various and innovative instructional methods and strategies. It is mostly possible that a subject matter might be taught differently by two distinct teachers. Hence, every teacher has their own teaching style (Chen et al., 2021). Teaching styles may positively or negatively affect students' meaningful learning experiences (Zhang et al., 2019). Specifically, teaching styles influence the diversity and quality of instructional methods and strategies, how teachers prioritize certain teaching strategies, and student roles in the classroom (Aelterman et al., 2019). The study indicated that designer teacher profiles could give us an idea of teachers' teaching styles included planning various instructional methods and strategies.

Limitations and Future Research

The results could be limited by the participating teachers' school type (i.e., context). They were from private (small and large) and public schools (rural and urban). Some schools allow teachers to be flexible in developing lessons and curriculum, but others do not. Some teachers were traditionally trained and never attended a month-long PD program. Even though our sample was diverse, the context in which the teachers were working provided varying views on our data. Future research can take this into account by explicitly incorporating variables to statistically control the confounding effect.

Design is a dominant area in teachers' daily practice. We tried to conceptualize "more" of the design efforts teachers put into their profession. However, the last three domains we had might not capture all relevant efforts teachers are involved in, such as informal learning experiences or school-based learning opportunities. Examining certain types of typologies might need more comprehensive scales that capture more of teachers' design-related professional efforts. Future studies can develop or use scales with more items and/or dimensions. Other domains relevant to the designer teacher role include professional networking, financial gains or burdens, and psychological and academic support.

The profiles were examined only in terms of the difference in professional knowledge and practices of teachers, data of which were collected by self-reports. There are other areas worth studying, such as learning communities, self-efficacy, and motivation (expectancy of success, task value, and cost). If more variables are measured regarding the designer teacher profiles, typologies and how they change over other variables might be comprehended more effectively.

Implications for Practice

Cluster analysis results demonstrated that there could be multiple designer roles with varying intensity on different designer dimensions. This study showed that there are types of designer teachers. Not every teacher needs to excel in all design-related skills. Providing such evidence highlights that teachers can focus on several aspects of design and use design-related

skills to benefit others. Profiling teachers regarding their designer role might help teachers to become better aware of their professional identity and make these explicit. Profiling designer teachers also makes it easier for school leaders and mentors to recognize such roles and assist teachers in promoting them. Sharing their identified role or profile can make teachers aware that they can professionally grow toward their emphasized skills.

In addition, teacher designer profiles might be helpful to means to encourage self-reflection, especially when teachers make them their labels or badges. A particular association of this kind helps them position themselves in a school environment visible to the school community. In a reflection session, they should be encouraged to discuss their designer role with their peers. If teachers are grouped based on their designer profiles, their job description, their workload, and their professional tasks can be adjusted for their and schools' needs.

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TÜRKÇE GENİŞ ÖZET

Tasarımcı Öğretmen Rolünün Küme Analiziyle İncelenmesi: Farklı Odakları Olan Üç Tasarım Profili Örneği

Giriş

Son otuz yıldır, öğretmenler öğretim tasarımcıları olarak çeşitli yönlerle vurgulanan şekilde tanımlanmışlardır (Carlgren, 1999; Koehler & Mishra, 2005; McKenney et al., 2015; Penuel & Gallagher, 2009; Voogt et al., 2015). Öğretmenlerin tasarım ile ilişkili bu tartışması geniş kapsamlı olmasına rağmen, halen belirgin değil ve kavramsal açıklığa ve netliğe ihtiyaç duymaktadır (Warr & Mishra, 2021). Genel olarak, araştırmacılar öğretmenleri tasarımcılar olarak tanımlarken, "belirsiz tanımlamalar" ve "çoklu yorumlamalar" (Persico et al., 2018, s. 232) bulunmaktadır.

Tasarımcı teriminin karmaşık doğası göz önüne alındığında, öğretmenlerin tasarım işini daha detaylı bir şekilde anlamamız gerektiğine ve terimi öğretmenlik mesleğine genişleterek ötesine geçmemiz gerektiği bir gerçektir. Bu nedenle, bu çalışmadaki temel amaç, öğretmenleri farklı bir bakış açısı olan tasarımcı öğretmen olarak incelemek ve tasarım ile ilgili görevler üzerinde çalışırken öğretmenlerin diğer profillerini detaylandırmaktır. Tasarım odaklı bir mesleki gelişim programı uygulayarak, bu programın öğretmenlerin tasarımcı rolünü desteklemesi ve diğer öğretmenlerin faydasına olacak şekilde diğer becerileri kullanmalarını teşvik etmesi amaçlanmıştır. Bu çalışmada cevap aranan araştırma soruları şunlardır:

1. Tasarım odaklı bir mesleki gelişim programını tamamlayan öğretmenlerde hangi profiller ortaya çıkmıştır?
2. Öğretmen profilleri, program geliştirme bilgileri ve yenilikçi öğretim ve öğrenme yöntemlerini kullanma sıklığı açısından nasıl farklılık göstermektedir?

Yöntem

Türkiye'nin farklı bölgelerinden ve 20 farklı branştan toplamda 35 şehirden 150 öğretmen çalışmaya katılmaya davet edilmiştir. Ancak, bazı öğretmenler veri toplama işlemini tamamlamamıştır. Bu çalışmada bir ölçek ve iki anket kullanılmıştır. Tasarımcı Öğretmen Ölçeği, yazar(lar) tarafından öğretmenin bir tasarımcı öğretmen olarak ne sıklıkla davrandığı ve bunları uygulamalarında yansıttığı alanları ölçmek için geliştirilmiştir. *Program Geliştirme Anketi*, yazar(lar), 24 beşli Likert tipi maddenin yer aldığı bu anketi, Understanding by Design (UbD) çerçevesinden (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005) uyarlayarak oluşturmuştur. *Öğretim Yöntem ve Teknikleri Anketi*, bu anket, Yazar(lar) tarafından öğretmenlerin öğretirken farklı öğretim yöntemlerini ne ölçüde kullanıp uyguladığını ölçmek için hazırlanmıştır.

*Veri analizi için, k*üme/kümeleme analizi kullanarak yapılan veri analizlerinde amaç öğretmenlerin, tasarımcı öğretmen profillerini ortaya çıkarmaktır. Profil kıyaslamaları için tek yönlü ANOVA kullanılmış ve tüm analizler SPSS 24'te tamamlanmıştır.

Bulgular

Tasarımcı Öğretmen Profilleri

Yapılan analizler sonucunda tasarımcı öğretmenlerin üç ayrı profilde tanımlandığı ve bu profillerin, öğretmenlerin tasarımcı rollerini yansıtan belirli bir beceri setini ve bu becerilere atfedilen dereceleri gösterdiği belirlenmiştir.

Küme 1 (Mavi çizgi), tasarımı öğretmede düşük seviyede olan öğretmenleri içermektedir. Bu kümedeki (profildeki) öğretmenler, tüm tasarımcı öğretmen boyutlarında ortalama puanla karşılaştırıldığında daha az kullanıma sahiptir.

Küme 2 (Kırmızı çizgi), neredeyse tüm çalışma örnekleminin ortalamasına yakın olan öğretmenleri içermektedir. Bu kümedeki öğretmenlerin, tasarım/geliştirme ve rehberlik ve liderlik alanlarındaki seviyelerinin biraz ortalamanın altında olduğu görülmektedir. Uygulama/yürütme ve dijital yeterlilik alanlarındaki puanları ortalama ile benzerlik göstermektedir.

Küme 3 (Yeşil çizgi), tüm alanlarda ortalama puanın üzerinde bir seviyeye sahip olan öğretmenleri içermektedir. Tasarım/geliştirme alanı en yüksek ortalama değere sahiptir. Mesleki çabalar alanı, diğer alanlara kıyasla nispeten daha düşüktür.

Öğretmen Profillerinin Karşılaştırılması

İkinci araştırma sorusuna cevap vermek için, kümeler arasındaki farkları araştırmak için tek yönlü ANOVA testi kullanılmıştır. Öğretmenlerin tasarımcı profilleri, karşılaştırmalarda üç seviyeli bir faktör (bağımsız değişken) olarak ele alınmıştır. Sonuçlar, program geliştirme değişkeninde tasarımcı öğretmen profilleri arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark olduğunu göstermektedir ($F(5.473) = 0.005$, $p < 0.05$, Eta kare = 0.08). Tukey testleri, Küme 1 ve Küme 3 arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır ($p = 0.005$). Yüksek tasarımcılar, program geliştirme konusunda orta düzeyde tasarımcılardan ve düşük tasarımcılardan daha fazla bilgiye sahiptir.

Tasarımcı öğretmen profillerinin farklı öğretim ve öğrenme yöntemlerini kullanma sıklığı açısından istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark gösterip göstermediği incelenmiştir. Tek yönlü ANOVA testi sonuçları, öğretmenlerin öğretim ve öğrenme yöntemlerini kullanma sıklığının tasarımcı öğretmen profilleri arasında farklılık gösterdiğini ortaya koymuştur ($F(15.970) = 0.000$, $p < 0.01$, Eta kare = 0.201).

Tartışma

Kümeleme analizinin sonuçları, öğretmenlerin tasarım becerileri düzeyinin, diğer beceri setlerini ne ölçüde kullandığına dair bir gösterge olduğuna işaret etmektedir (Boschman vd., 2015). Öğretmenlerin tasarım becerileri keskinleştikçe, geri bildirim sağlama, mesleki öğrenme etkinlikleri düzenleme ve teknoloji tabanlı dersler geliştirme gibi becerilerinin daha belirgin hale geldiği görülmektedir. Araştırmalar, okullarda tasarımcı bir rolü benimsemenin, sınıfta etkili

öğretmenlere sahip olmanın bir yolu olduğunu (Bartlett, 2021; Kalantzis & Cope, 2010; Scott & Lock, 2021) ve öğrenci başarısını artırdığını göstermiştir (Kim, 2019). Bu nedenle, öğretmenleri daha yetkin hale getiren tasarım ve diğer profesyonel alanların gücünü birleştirmeye başlamaları için bu rolü okullarda kullanmak önem arz etmektedir.

Yüksek tasarımcılar, diğer öğretmenlerin mesleki öğrenmelerine katkıda bulunarak onları etkilemek için gerekli olan temel becerilere sahiptir. Tasarım, geliştirme, uygulama ve yürütme açılarından güçlüdürler, bu da öğrencilerin öğrenmelerini gerçek hayat durumlarına aktarabilmelerine yardımcı olacak anlama (understanding-based) temelli bir program tasarlayabilecekleri anlamına gelmektedir (McTighe & Wiggins, 2012; Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). Orta tasarımcılar, farklı yöntemlerle mesleki öğrenmelerini geliştirmeye istekli olan öğretmenlerdir. Bu profilde içerik bilgisini güncellemeye odaklanmaları en belirgin özellikleri gibi görünmektedir ve bu, kendi konularıyla ilgili son çalışmaları ve yayınları takip etmede güncel olmalarını göstermektedir (Macia & Garcia, 2016). Düşük tasarımcılar, tasarım çabaları sırasında diğer öğretmenlere rehberlik etme ve destek sağlama eğilimindedir. Ders/ünite planları üzerine geri bildirim vermek, kullandıkları mekanizmalardan biridir (Caena, 2011). Bu profildeki öğretmenler, diğer öğretmenlere yardım eder ve program geliştirme süreçlerini açıklarlar (Kalantzis & Cope, 2010).

Üç profilin tümünde tasarım/geliştirme ve uygulama/yürütme alanları güçlü olarak ortaya çıkmıştır. Ancak, program geliştirme bilgisinde belirgin bir fark da göze çarpmaktadır. Yüksek tasarımcılar, öğrenme hedefleri belirleme, özgün değerlendirme görevleri tasarlama ve öğrenme etkinlikleri planlama konusunda daha fazla bilgiye sahiptir. Tüm öğretmenler genellikle aynı (resmi) öğretim programından yönlendirilirken, kendi kişisel yorumları farklı olabilir (Shawer, 2017).

Sonuç ve Öneriler

Bu çalışmanın sonuçları, tasarımcı öğretmen rolünün alanlarının farklı kombinasyonlarını vurgulayan üç profil tanımlamıştır. Tüm kümelerde (profillerde), tasarım/geliştirme kapasitesi önemli görünmektedir, bu da tasarım odaklı mesleki gelişim programına katıldıktan sonra oluşabilecek bir sonuç olabilir. Bu çalışma, farklı tasarımcı boyutlarında değişen yoğunlukta birden fazla tasarımcı rolü olabileceğini göstermektedir. Her öğretmenin tüm tasarım becerilerinde mükemmel olması gerekmez. Bu tür kanıtların sunulması, öğretmenlerin tasarımın çeşitli yönlerine odaklanabileceğini ve tasarım becerilerini diğerlerinin faydalanması için kullanabileceğini vurgulamaktadır.

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Social-Emotional Development in the Primary School Guidance Curriculum: A Q-Methodology Study

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Abstract

This research, which examined the views of teachers regarding social-emotional development outcomes in the Ministry of National Education 2020 Primary School Guidance Curriculum in the learning-teaching process, was designed using the Q methodology. In this context, the consensus among primary school teachers regarding the implementation of the outcomes in the primary school guidance curriculum in the learning-teaching process and whose outcomes come to the fore in the implementation of the Primary School Guidance Curriculum were examined. The research data were collected with the Q string prepared considering the social-emotional development area outcomes in the Primary School Guidance Curriculum. Forty-nine primary school teachers participated in the research. Data analysis was conducted using PQ Method 2.35 program. As a result of the research, it was found that there was a consensus among primary school teachers regarding the implementation of the outcomes in the primary school guidance curriculum in the learning-teaching process. Although the opinions of the teachers were mostly concentrated in the right and responsibility factor, the opinions are gathered in six factors, and the relationship between the factors was found to be low in general. As a result of this research, it was found that there is a consensus among primary school teachers regarding the implementation of the outcomes in the primary school guidance curriculum in the learning-teaching process.

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Introduction

The view that children's social-emotional development affects their whole lives has brought about changes in perspectives towards children in recent years. Social-emotional skills can be learned and developed at any age, but the advantages are greater if developmental strategies are applied at an early age (Irina-Mihaela & Olga, 2020). Social-emotional skills are a concept that includes knowledge, skills, and attitudes to identify and manage emotions, to care about others, to act ethically and responsibly to make good decisions, to develop positive relationships, and to avoid negative behavior (Elias & Moceri, 2012). Social-emotional skills affect children's daily lives (Ellingsen et al., 2014). Children with stronger social-emotional skills can easily meet someone, participate in the play of their peers, communicate positively with others, express themselves, communicate their wishes, and protect others' boundaries as their own. Therefore, it can be predicted that a child who can demonstrate such skills more likely not to have communication problems when he or she starts school, and his school success will be high. Irina-Mihaela and Olga (2020) also state that these children will be able to establish long-term friendships in their future lives, they will be effective parents, they will be able to find a job, and that they are more likely to be mentally and physically healthy.

To support children's social-emotional development at school, teachers may choose to implement a pre-designed social skills curriculum or incorporate teacher-created interventions into the classroom (Whitted, 2011). Therefore, they can help children overcome their social-emotional skill deficiencies. It is suggested that a content aiming to develop children's social-emotional competence should be in the following form: self-awareness (development of one's self-consciousness, self-awareness); self-control; management of emotions; problem-solving skills; responsibility; empathy; pro-social behavior; and interpersonal communication skills (Irina-Mihaela & Olga, 2020; Whitted, 2011). With a curriculum prepared by the Turkish Ministry of National Education (2020) skills related to social-emotional development to be acquired at primary school level were brought to the attention of teachers. In this curriculum, within the scope of social-emotional development, competencies were determined under the headings of students' self-awareness, understanding, and managing emotions, interpersonal communication skills, decision-making, and personal security. In this study, the opinions of teachers regarding the competencies in this curriculum prepared by the Turkish Ministry of National Education are discussed.

There have been a number of studies examining the effectiveness of the primary school guidance curriculum and teachers' opinions in regard to the curriculum. In a study conducted by Nazlı (2008), teachers perceived inadequacies in developmental-preventive practices in schools and they found the guidance services provided partially sufficient, adopted primary school guidance practice, wanted primary school guidance to be carried out every week rather than once every fifteen days, and evaluated primary school guidance as being beneficial for the development of students. It was concluded that the majority of them adopted the role of teachers in the guidance service and tried for this, but they had difficulties in fulfilling the duties given to teachers by the Ministry of National Education wanting in-service training to be given to them. Demirel (2010) also concluded that teachers were of the opinion that the primary school guidance curriculum, although it is a comprehensive curriculum with a broad vision aimed at the development of students in all aspects, does not include certain regulations that would solve the problems in practice. In a study in which the opinions of school counselors

regarding the curriculum are discussed, the implementation of a comprehensive counseling and guidance curriculum in schools is evaluated positively, especially in terms of providing integrity among the practices, meeting the developmental needs of the students, and bringing the psychological counselor identity to the fore. It was revealed that a number of difficulties have been experienced (Terzi et al., 2011). In a study, it was found that 53.00% of primary school teachers were willing to participate in classroom guidance activities, 85.60% thought that classroom guidance activities were important for students, and 72.70% wanted help from school counselors regarding classroom guidance activities (Siyez et al., 2012). In another study, in which the opinions of school principals, primary school guidance teachers, students, and school guidance teachers regarding guidance services in secondary education were discussed, it was concluded that the participants defined these services differently from each other (Karataş & Baltacı, 2013). In this study, unlike others, the focus is on the opinions of primary school teachers concerning the extent to which the social-emotional development area in the primary school guidance curriculum is given importance by primary school teachers, and to which they are included in the teaching-learning process.

The purposes of the social-emotional development as portrayed in the Primary School Guidance Curriculum (Turkish Ministry of National Education, 2020) are as follows: (1) students acquire the necessary knowledge, attitudes and behavior to get to know themselves, understand and manage their emotions, and develop healthy interpersonal relationships; (2) to make decisions with regard to situations they are given, in the form of creating goals, taking the necessary measures to reach the goals, and making efforts in this direction; and (3) ensuring their personal safety and developing life skills. The following competencies have been determined for these purposes: A) Self-awareness; B) Understanding and managing emotions; C) Interpersonal skills; D) Decision-making; and E) Ensuring personal safety. This study focuses on social-emotional development area in the Guidance Curriculum. Teachers' practices and experiences were examined regarding to social-emotional development in classes. Accordingly, the research questions were determined as follows:

- Is there a consensus among primary school teachers regarding the implementation of the outcomes in the guidance curriculum in the learning-teaching process?

- According to the opinions of the primary school teachers, which outcomes come to the fore in the implementation of the guidance curriculum?

Method

This research was designed using the Q methodology. The data obtained in the Q methodology approach are subjected to factor analysis, but this analysis, unlike the known factor analysis, considers the harmony between the response patterns of the participants (Polat, 2022). This methodology is an innovative application that allows participants to see their views from a broad perspective (Lee, 2017; Schink et al, 2021). In the Q methodology, it is determined whether the views of the participants are united under a common theme (Yıldırım, 2017), and whether interpersonal correlations are revealed, unlike in factor analysis (Karasu & Peker, 2019). Therefore, the consensus of the participants and their differences of opinion are determined.

Participants

In studies designed in the Q methodology, it is considered sufficient for the participant group to be between forty and sixty people, since the aim is to reveal the main opinion on a particular subject (Watts & Stenner, 2005). Within the scope of this research, sixty-three primary school teachers were contacted through easily accessible sampling. However, the research was completed with the data of a total of forty-nine primary school teachers after fourteen primary school teachers were removed from the data set because of incorrect or incomplete coding. Twenty-two females, eight males, and nineteen teachers who did not specify their gender participated in the research. The years of professional seniority of teachers varied between fourteen and thirty years. Identification of the participants, before the data analysis, was made by considering the demographic information. Then, a number was assigned to each participant.

Data Collection

The data of this research were collected with the Q string prepared by the researchers considering the social-emotional development outcomes determined in the Primary School Guidance Curriculum (2020). In this curriculum there are the dimensions of *Ensuring Personal Safety, Self-Awareness, Interpersonal Skills, Understanding and Managing Emotions,* and *Decision Making*, which are under the social-emotional development field. Under these dimensions, there are a total of seventy-one outcomes for primary school level: eighteen in the first grade; seventeen in the second and third grades; and eighteen in the fourth grade. While creating the Q string, all the outcomes were examined separately by the researchers, and then a consensus was reached on the Q strings prepared by the researchers independently. In this process, in terms of the fact that a few of the outcomes take place in more than one class level and other outcomes contain common features, a total of twenty-five outcomes were determined.

The Q string prepared by the researchers was presented for the opinion of three different academicians (one field expert from Primary School Education, one from Guidance and Psychological Counseling, and one from Measurement and Evaluation) to get expert views. In line with the suggestions from the experts, three items were rearranged in terms of expression. A pilot study was carried out by applying the learning outcomes and the Q string that were prepared for application by two primary school teachers who were similar to the target group of the research. The form was finalized in line with the suggestions from the primary school teachers. In the teaching-learning process, the participants were asked to mark the social-emotional development outcomes that they used most in the range of +4 and +1, those that they included moderately in the range of 0, those that they used the least in the range of -1 to -4, and to mark the item numbers in the Q string table. The Q string used in the research is given in Table 1.

Table 1

Q String

-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4

Ethical permission was obtained from the Ethics Committee of XXXX University for this research, and application permission was also obtained from the provincial directorate of the Turkish Ministry of National Education. Researchers reached sixty-three primary school teachers in the spring semester of the 2021-2022 academic year. The data collection tool was given to the teachers face-to-face, and the completed forms were collected the following day. Voluntary involvement was essential in the participation of teachers in the research.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted using a PQMethod 2.35 program. Before analysis of the data, each teacher was given a code name, and incorrectly completed data were removed from the data set. Data entries were made, and principal component analysis was applied. In line with the research questions, it was first examined whether there was a common view between the primary school teachers on using social-emotional development outcomes.

The formula of McKeown and Thomas (2013) (1/√number of expressions) x 2.58 was used to determine the level of significance in the study. There are twenty-five Q statements in the research. For this study, it was determined as to whether the opinions of the participants with a factor load of over .51 had a significant value (McKeown and Thomas, 2013). The rotation and the resulting factor structures are explained in detail in the findings section.

Results

Within the scope of the research, firstly, it was examined whether there is a common view between the views of primary school teachers on using social-emotional development outcomes. For this purpose, factor loadings of the Q string were determined first (Table 2).

Table 2

Unrotated Factor Loads

	1st Factor	2nd Factor	3rd Factor	4th Factor	5th Factor	6th Factor	7th Factor	8th Factor
P1	0.61	0.39	0.15	-0.05	0.31	-0.35	0.16	-0.08
P2	0.59	-0.74	0.00	0.19	-0.07	-0.09	0.11	0.02
P3	0.62	0.01	0.30	-0.03	0.25	0.45	-0.10	0.24
P4	0.10	0.50	-0.24	0.33	0.07	0.29	0.16	-0.14

Table 2 (Cont.)

P5	0.39	-0.20	0.48	-0.23	0.35	-0.08	-0.12	-0.23
P6	-0.01	0.64	0.59	0.24	-0.11	-0.11	-0.02	-0.03
P7	0.56	0.21	0.48	-0.02	0.24	-0.22	0.12	0.11
P8	0.62	-0.16	-0.23	-0.32	-0.39	-0.02	-0.23	-0.36
P9	0.14	0.42	0.40	0.45	0.39	0.11	-0.03	-0.16
P10	0.79	-0.27	-0.10	-0.13	-0.11	0.03	0.21	0.19
P11	0.53	-0.31	0.30	-0.23	0.03	0.53	0.03	0.29
P12	0.72	-0.33	0.25	-0.03	-0.17	-0.24	0.12	0.14
P13	0.32	0.71	0.17	0.02	-0.16	0.10	0.01	0.00
P14	0.47	-0.62	0.29	-0.20	0.20	-0.07	-0.15	0.07
P15	0.47	-0.62	0.29	-0.20	0.20	-0.07	-0.15	0.07
P16	-0.26	-0.16	0.32	0.21	0.04	0.31	0.51	-0.05
P17	0.36	0.03	-0.54	0.01	-0.37	0.06	0.44	0.18
P18	0.76	-0.47	-0.05	0.07	-0.22	0.10	-0.10	0.06
P19	0.76	-0.36	-0.09	-0.01	-0.09	0.05	-0.07	0.22
P20	0.67	0.12	-0.39	0.45	-0.02	-0.11	-0.28	0.00
P21	0.68	0.16	-0.42	0.49	0.05	-0.08	-0.20	-0.02
P22	0.68	0.16	-0.42	0.49	0.05	-0.08	-0.20	-0.02
P23	0.28	0.35	-0.07	-0.02	-0.38	0.43	-0.02	-0.40
P24	0.32	0.45	-0.07	-0.22	-0.08	0.33	-0.12	0.53
P25	0.47	0.52	0.15	-0.22	-0.07	-0.12	-0.12	0.15
P26	-0.13	0.63	0.03	-0.42	-0.10	-0.02	-0.06	0.34
P27	0.21	-0.02	-0.05	0.28	0.50	-0.26	0.19	0.27
P28	0.56	0.25	-0.16	0.06	0.25	0.14	0.28	0.05
P29	0.50	0.56	0.01	-0.31	-0.01	0.00	-0.17	0. 25
P30	0.81	-0.14	0.15	-0.26	-0.11	0.07	-0.12	-0.17
P31	0.08	-0.24	0.36	0.66	0.11	-0.09	-0.03	0.33
P32	0.57	-0.46	0.28	0.04	-0.35	-0.20	-0.04	-0.05
P33	-0.21	-0.08	-0.09	-0.43	0.18	-0.34	-0.28	0.04
P34	0.33	0.04	-0.09	0.06	0.15	-0.11	-0.56	-0.15
P35	0.68	0.16	-0.42	0.49	0.05	-0.08	-0.20	-0.02
P36	0.22	0.01	0.51	0.16	-0.12	-0.40	0.20	-0.15
P37	0.50	-0.15	-0.21	-0.22	0.58	0.33	0.16	-0.29
P38	0.62	-0.07	-0.13	-0.29	-0.38	-0.08	0.25	-0.21
P39	0.69	0.35	0.28	-0.24	0.04	-0.05	-0.09	-0.11
P40	0.51	0.50	0.23	-0.26	0.15	-0.25	0.23	-0.14
P41	0.50	-0.15	-0.21	-0.22	0.58	0.33	0.16	-0.29
P42	-0.06	0.28	0.78	0.03	0.08	-0.04	-0.18	-0.07
P43	0.27	0.32	-0.59	-0.23	0.18	-0.43	0.29	0.05

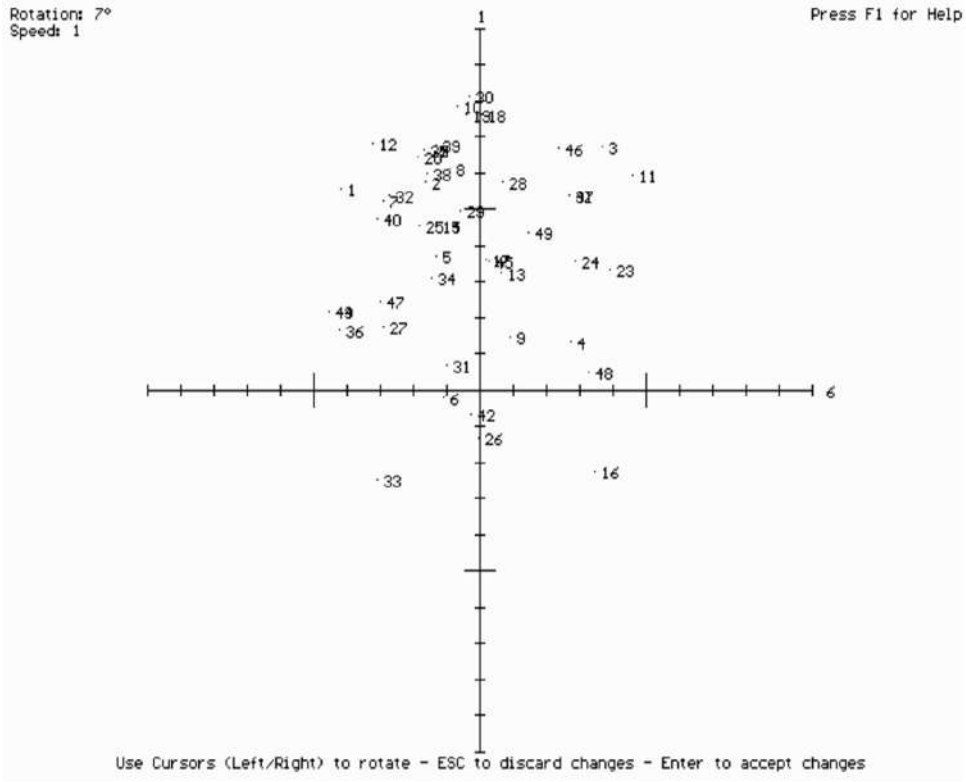
Table 2 (Cont.)

P44	0.27	0.32	-0.59	-0.23	0.18	-0.43	0.29	0.05
P45	0.35	0.26	0.54	0.14	-0.31	0.07	0.22	0.16
P46	0.63	0.09	0.29	0.26	-0.12	0.31	0.23	-0.18
P47	0.28	0.47	0.36	0.05	-0.43	-0.27	0.05	-0.19
P48	0.01	0.73	-0.08	-0.18	0.14	0.33	-0.24	0.01
P49	0.42	0.20	-0.39	0.06	-0.16	0.20	-0.08	0.05

When the unrotated factor loads in Table 2 are examined, it can be seen that the loads of the eleventh person in the first and sixth factors are extremely close. For this reason, rotation was applied between the first and sixth factors. The findings of the rotation process are presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Results of Rotation



When the rotation findings in Figure 1 are examined, it can be seen that +7 degrees left rotation was made between the first and sixth factors. As a result of the rotation, the eleventh person had a significance value of 0.53 and 0.53 in the first and sixth factors, respectively. The positive rotation result of +7 degrees took place under the first factor with a significance value of 0.59. In addition, the thirty-seventh and forty-first participants were moved to the third factor with a significance level of 0.54 as a result of rotation. The new factor loadings resulting from the rotation are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Rotated Factor Loads

	Right & Responsibility	Problem Solving	Self esteem	Emotional Awareness	Identifying Emotions	Conflict Resolution
1.	**0.56X**	0.39	0.15	-0.05	0.16	0.08
2.	0.58	**-0.74X**	0.00	0.19	0.11	0.02
3.	**0.67X**	0.01	0.30	-0.03	-0.10	0.24
4.	0.13	0.50	-0.24	0.33	0.16	-0.14
5.	0.37	-0.20	0.48	-0.23	-0.12	-0.23
6.	-0.02	**0.64X**	0.59	0.24	-0.02	-0.03
7.	**0.53X**	0.21	0.48	-0.02	0.12	0.11
8.	**0.62X**	-0.16	-0.23	-0.32	-0.23	-0.36
9.	0.15	0.42	0.40	0.45	-0.03	-0.16
10.	**0.79X**	-0.27	-0.10	-0.13	0.21	0.19
11.	**0.59X**	-0.31	0.30	-0.23	0.03	0.29
12.	**0.68X**	-0.33	0.25	-0.03	0.12	0.14
13.	0.33	**0.71X**	0.17	0.02	0.01	0.00
14.	0.45	**-0.62X**	0.29	-0.20	-0.15	0.07
15.	0.45	**-0.62X**	0.29	-0.20	-0.15	0.07
16.	-0.22	-0.16	0.32	0.21	0.51	-0.05
17.	0.36	0.03	**-0.54X**	0.01	0.44	0.18
18.	**0.76X**	-0.47	-0.05	0.07	-0.10	0.06
19.	**0.76X**	-0.36	-0.09	-0.01	-0.07	0.22
20.	**0.65X**	0.12	-0.39	0.45	-0.28	0.00
21.	**0.66X**	0.16	-0.42	0.49	-0.20	-0.02
22.	**0.66X**	0.16	-0.42	0.49	-0.20	-0.02
23.	0.33	0.35	-0.07	-0.02	-0.02	-0.40
24.	0.36	0.45	-0.07	-0.22	-0.12	**0.53X**
25.	0.46	**0.52X**	0.15	-0.22	-0.12	0.15
26.	-0.13	**0.63X**	0.03	-0.42	-0.06	0.34
27.	0.18	-0.02	-0.05	0.28	0.19	0.27
28.	**0.58X**	0.25	-0.16	0.06	0.28	0.06
29.	0.50	**0.56X**	0.01	-0.31	-0.17	0.25
30.	**0.81X**	-0.14	0.15	-0.26	-0.12	-0.17
31.	0.07	-0.24	0.36	**0.66X**	-0.03	0.33
32.	**0.54X**	-0.46	0.28	0.04	-0.04	-0.05
33.	-0.25	-0.08	-0.09	-0.43	-0.276	0.04
34.	0.31	0.04	-0.09	0.06	**-0.56X**	-0.15
35.	**0.66X**	0.16	-0.42	0.49	-0.20	-0.02
36.	0.17	0.01	**0.51X**	0.16	0.20	-0.15
37.	**0.54X**	-0.15	-0.21	-0.22	0.16	-0.29

Table 3 (Cont.)

38.	**0.60X**	-0.07	-0.13	-0.29	0.25	-0.21
39.	**0.68X**	0.35	0.28	-0.24	-0.09	-0.11
40.	0.47	0.50	0.23	-0.26	0.23	-0.14
41.	**0.54X**	-0.15	-0.21	-0.22	0.16	-0.29
42.	-0.06	0.28	**0.78X**	0.03	-0.18	-0.07
43.	0.22	0.32	**-0.59X**	-0.23	0.29	0.05
44.	0.22	0.32	**-0.59X**	-0.23	0.29	0.05
45.	0.36	0.26	**0.54X**	0.14	0.22	0.16
46.	**0.67X**	0.09	0.28	0.26	0.23	-0.18
47.	0.25	0.47	0.36	0.05	0.05	-0.19
48.	0.05	**0.73X**	-0.08	-0.18	-0.24	0.01
49.	0.44	0.20	-0.39	0.06	-0.08	0.05

When the data in Table 3 is examined, it is clear that the views of forty-nine teachers included in the study group within the scope of this research form a 6-factor structure. When the factors of the participants were examined according to their frequencies, the first factor was twenty-one; nine in the second factor; and five in the third factor. It can be seen that there is one participant each in factors four, five and six. The fact that the opinions of a significant number of the participants are gathered under the first factor can be expressed as a consensus. Correlations between the factors are given in Table 4.

Table 4

Correlation Among Factors

Factors	1 Right & Responsibility	2 Problem Solving	3 Self Esteem	4 Emotional Awareness	5 Identifying Emotions	6 Conflict Resolution
1	1					
2	-0.21	1				
3	-0.12	0.09	1			
4	0.08	-0.28	0.32	1		
5	-0.30	-0.03	0.05	-0.05	1	
6	0.27	0.49	-0.13	-0.06	-0.17	1

When the correlation between the factors in Table 5 is examined, it can be seen that the highest correlation is between Factor 2 and Factor 6 with a positive directional medium level (r = .49). In addition, there is a low negative level between Factor 3 and Factor 4 (r = .32); between Factor 1 and Factor 5, there is a low negative level (r = .30); and between Factor 2 and Factor 4 there is a low negative level (r = .28). It was found that there was a low positive correlation (r = .27) between Factor 1 and Factor 6, and a low positive correlation between Factor 1 and Factor 2 (r = .21).

In order to determine the common denominator that the participants converged, and to determine which outcomes they give more priority to in the teaching-learning process, the Z

scores of the Q string and the order of these scores were determined, with the findings being given in Table 5.

Table 5

Z-scores and Order of Importance

	Right & Responsibility		Problem Solving		Self Esteem		Emotional Awareness		Identifying Emotions		Conflict Resolution	
	Z	Rank	*Z*	Rank	*Z*	Rank	*Z*	Rank	*Z*	Rank	*Z*	Rank
1.	2.55	1	-0.53	17	-1.13	23	0.00	15	-0.49	19	0.00	15
2.	1.43	2	-0.49	16	-0.97	20	0.49	10	-0.00	15	1.47	3
3.	1.21	3	-0.99	21	-0.93	19	1.47	3	-1.47	24-	0.49	19
4.	-0.43	16	-1.20	23	-0.99	21	0.00	15	0.49	10	-1.96	25
5.	0.46	10	-1.14	22	-1.29	25	0.00	15	-0.00	15	-0.98	22
6.	-0.69	19	-1.56	25	-0.43	15	-0.98	22	0.98	6	-0.49	19
7.	0.33	11	0.92	6	2.10	1	0.00	15	-0.49	19	0.49	10
8.	0.64	6	0.59	7	1.43	4	0.49	10	-0.00	15	0.00	15
9.	-0.28	15	0.58	8	1.53	2	0.98	6	0.49	10	-0.49	19
10.	-1.01	21	0.26	11	0.60	6	-0.49	19	-0.98	22	-0.49	19
11.	1.01	4	-0.37	13	1.43	3	-0.49	19	-1.47	24	-0.98	22
12.	-0.25	14	-0.72	20	0.59	7	-0.49	19	0.98	6	-0.98	22
13.	0.47	9	-0.69	19	-0.60	17	0.00	15	-1.96	25	0.98	6
14.	0.80	5	-0.44	14	-0.19	13	0.49	10	0.98	6	1.96	1
15.	0.62	7	-0.15	12	1.32	5	0.98	6	-0.00	15	0.98	6
16.	-0.86	20	-1.33	24	0.33	10	-0.98	22	0.49	10	-1.47	24
17.	-0.61	17	-0.63	18	-0.01	12	1.47	3	-0.98	22	0.00	15
18.	-1.25	23	-0.45	15	0.29	11	0.98	6	1.96	1	-1.47	24
19.	-0.00	13	0.46	10	0.49	8	0.49	10	1.47	3	0.49	10
20.	-1.04	22	1.15	4	-0.28	14	-0.49	19	1.47	3	0.49	10
21.	-0.63	18	0.49	9	-0.50	16	-0.98	22	-0.00	15	0.00	15
22.	-1.60	25	1.01	5	0.41	9	1.96	1	-0.49	19	0.00	15
23.	0.08	12	1.72	2	-0.91	18	-1.47	24	-0.98	22	1.47	3
24.	0.55	8	1.95	1	-1.26	24	-1.96	25	0.49	10	0.49	10
25.	-1.47	24	1.56	3	-1.03	22	-1.47	24	-0.49	19	0.49	10

In Table 5, it can be seen that the outcome that twenty-one participants included in Factor 1, included in the teaching-learning process, was the acquisition, "*It is ensured that they know their own rights and responsibilities"*. The outcome that they give the least place to is, *"Making people realize how events and thoughts affect emotions"*, which appears to be an outcome. When the findings related to Factor 2 are examined, the most important outcome of the nine participants in this factor is the acquisition, *"It is ensured that they know the ways to solve problems"*. The outcome that they care least about is, *"Teaching how to protect themselves in the use of information technologies"* appears to be an outcome. The five participants below Factor 3 are mostly, *"It is made to realize that they are special"*, while giving importance to outcome, and attaching least importance to the acquisition, *"It is taught that one should struggle with peer pressure"*. Participants in Factor 4 chose, *"Recognize how events and thoughts affect emotions"*. While this gives the greatest priority to the learning outcome, it gives the least

place to acquisition, *"Knowing and applying the ways of solving problems"*. When Factor 5 is examined, it can be seen that the participant under this factor attaches the most importance to the acquisition, *"They are taught to recognize and name different emotions"*, while he attaches the least importance to the acquisition, *"He is taught to observe the rights of his friends"*. Finally, in Factor 6, the most important outcome is, *"Teaching how to solve problems with his friends"*, and the least important outcome is, *"Teaching to offer help appropriately to the individual in need of help",* which appears to be an outcome. The opinions of eleven teachers participating in the research are not included under any factor. This indicates that teachers' views are not grouped enough to form any factor.

Discussion, Conclusion and Implications

In this paper, it can be seen that a significant number of the participants are gathered under the first factor. The most common outcome in the teaching-learning process of the teachers, whose opinions are under the first factor, is the outcome, *"It is ensured that they know their own rights and responsibilities"*. Based on these findings, it can be said that the dimension that primary school teachers care most about in social-emotional development is interpersonal skills. This dimension, which is expressed as interpersonal skills in the Primary School Guidance Curriculum (Turkish Ministry of National Education, 2020), is defined as *"Students acquire the knowledge, attitudes and behavior necessary for them to develop healthy interpersonal relationships"*. CASEL (2013) defines this skill, which is included under the dimension of relationship building, as the ability to establish and maintain healthy relationships and to value various individual and group relationships, while the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (2018) defines it as empathy, honesty and cooperation in the cooperation dimension. In the dimension of interaction with others, CASEL (2018) defines it with the skills of sociability, reliability and energy. In addition to these definitions, the World Health Organization [WHO] (2020) defines the skills in the dimension of communication skills and interpersonal skills, as interpersonal communication skills, negotiation and rejection skills, empathy, cooperation and teamwork, and advocacy skills. Within the scope of twenty-first century skills (P21, 2019), communication and cooperation skills are included in the category of learning and renewal skills are clearly defined as communicating and cooperating with others. Based on these definitions, it is understood that the child's communication with other individuals is important in terms of social-emotional development. It is thought that teachers care about interpersonal skills in the teaching-learning process and give more space to the outcomes under this dimension, in order to facilitate the adaptation of the child, who is included in a large social group, with the other members of the group. This is because establishing positive relationships is an important component of supporting social-emotional skills (Whitted, 2011). To start the school is the new phase of childrens' life (Esen-Aygün, 2021). Therefore, children should establish good relations with their peers and other school stakeholders at school. It is closely related to liking school, feeling belonging and safe, and enjoying academic success. In this respect, when interpersonal skills are examined in terms of the teacher-student relationship, the quality of the relationship that the child establishes with his/her teacher determines the child's adaptation to school, success at school and peer communication (Spilt et al., 2021; Sztejnberg et al., 2004; Wubbels et al., 2016). From the teacher's point of view, it can be seen that a positive teacher-student relationship influences the teacher's classroom management, creating a qualified learning environment, and job

satisfaction (Fraser & Walberg, 2005; Goldstein & Lake, 2000; Klem & Connell, 2004; Sztejnberg et al., 2004). The teacher's approach to their student, with values such as understanding, closeness, acceptance, warmth, honesty, respect, and cooperation, plays a role in the child's relationship with his peers (Pianta, 1999). Teachers draw attention to the fact that teaching social-emotional skills at school not only improves teacher-student relationship, but also strengthens relationships between students and reduces peer bullying (Bridgeland et al., 2013). In other words, a positive teacher-student relationship also contributes to positive peer relationships.

All kinds of relationships with peers during the primary school period cause certain changes in the child's social world (Gifford-Smith & Brownell, 2003). For example, positive peer relationships between the ages of 6-12, called the primary school years or childhood, contribute positively to children's social acceptance, adaptation to school, social behavior and academic performance (Diehl et al., 1998; Ekornåås et al., 2011; Kiuru et al., 2015; Shin, 2007; Wentzel et al., 2009). When evaluated in terms of the curricula in Türkiye, it can be seen that the outcomes for knowing personal and interpersonal rights, duties, and responsibilities are also included in the Primary School Life Sciences (2018) and Primary School Social Studies (2018) curriculums. In addition, studies examining social-emotional skills within the scope of interpersonal skills in Türkiye seem to support this finding. For example, in a study by Esen-Aygün and Şahin Taşkın (2017), in which they examined the social-emotional skills of primary school students, it can be seen that the students' friendship relations and friendship perception skills are at a good level. It is thought that the ability to establish relationships in children is related to the fact that teachers make a large space for interpersonal skills in the learning environment. Based on this information, it is thought that the learning of rights and responsibilities has a wide place in the teaching-learning process as a result of both the nature of social-emotional development and interdisciplinary teaching. The outcome to which the teachers who expressed their opinions under this factor gave the least place in the teaching-learning process is, *"It is made to realize how events and thoughts affect emotions"*, which appears to be an outcome. This outcome is in the "Understanding and Managing Emotions" dimension of the Primary School Guidance Curriculum (Turkish Ministry of National Education, 2020) which is defined as understanding, recognizing, expressing and managing emotions. Self-management in the framework of CASEL (2013), Life and Career Skills in the Twenty-First Century (P21, 2019), Coping and Self-Management in the classification of the World Health Organization (2020), and Emotion Regulation in the classification of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2018). The dimension generally refers to the processes that affect individuals when they have emotions and how they experience and express these emotions (Gross, 1998). When the OECD Social and Emotional Skills Research (OECD, 2021) report is examined, it can be seen that the stress resistance, optimism and emotion control skill levels of the students participating in the research from Türkiye are lower than the other participating countries. It can be thought that this is related to the inclusion of few outcomes in understanding and managing emotions by teachers in the teaching-learning process. In addition, it is understood that the results of studies on emotion regulation at primary school level (Sarısoy & Orhan, 2016; Esen-Aygün & Şahin-Taşkın, 2017) show parallelism with this finding and the OECD data. This skill, called the emotion regulation or self-management skill, includes not only understanding and appropriately expressing emotions,

but also time management, and setting priorities and goals. In this direction, it is understood that children need self-management/emotion regulation skills in order to achieve life success.

When the findings regarding Factor 2, in which the views of the nine participants participating in the research are combined, are examined, it can be seen that these participants mostly give place to the outcome, *"Learning the ways of solving problems"* in the teaching-learning process. The other two factors that teachers, whose opinions are gathered under factor 2, mostly include in the teaching-learning process are, *"It is taught that they should make their own choices and take responsibility for their choices"* and, *"It is ensured that they know the factors that affect their decisions/preferences"*. It is understood that the outcomes are also under the "Decision-Making" dimension of the Primary School Guidance Curriculum (Turkish Ministry of National Education, 2020). When the studies on the teaching of decision-making skills of primary school teachers in Türkiye are examined, it is understood that there is a lack of knowledge on the part of primary school teachers as to how to outcome decision-making skills and, in this sense, teachers do not find the curriculums to be sufficient (Sever, 2020). However, it can be seen that the decision-making skill levels of primary school students are not well-developed (Nemli, 2018; Sever, 2020; Tekin & Ulaş, 2016). In this direction, it can be seen that the findings that are obtained within the scope of this study does not overlap with the literature. It is expected that teachers attach importance to decision-making skills in the learning-teaching process, that their knowledge level on this subject is improved, and that as a result of including these achievements, students' decision-making skills will be improved. It is thought that the difference between this finding of the study and the literature is related to the grade level. This is because age effects decision-making skills of primary school students. Studies examining the decision-making skills and the factors affecting the development of decision-making skills in primary school students are considered in the first and second grades in terms of decision-making in childhood and in the third, fourth and fifth grades as young children and older children (Davidson, 1991; Howse et al., 2003; Mettas & Norman, 2011). While younger age groups consider their emotions more in decision-making, older age groups consider positive and negative options (Howse et al., 2003). According to these studies, children's decision-making skills develop in the years following primary school. For future research, while examining the decision-making dimension of social-emotional learning, it is recommended to conduct research by considering the variables of teachers' use of decision-making skills and students' ages. The outcome that the teachers who expressed their opinions under this factor gave the least place to in the teaching-learning process is, '*How to protect themselves in the use of information technologies*'. is the outcome. This outcome is located under the dimension of "Ensuring Personal Safety" of the Primary School Guidance Curriculum (Turkish Ministry of National Education, 2020). In this context, in studies examining teachers' views on cyber security, it has been found that teachers' knowledge and awareness regarding the use of information technologies and social media use (Alrabaee & Manna, 2021; Altınöz et al., 2019; Yılmaz et al., 2016) are low. It is thought that this finding, obtained within the scope of this study, is related to the fact that teachers do not include these outcomes in the teaching-learning process as a result of their low level of knowledge and awareness. With the pandemic in particular, the fact that we spend more time in digital learning environments brings cyber security problems. In this context, it is thought that teachers should be supported to improve their awareness, knowledge and skill levels in order to ensure their personal safety in the social-emotional development of children.

When the findings regarding Factor 3, in which the five teachers who participated in the research agreed, are examined, the most common outcome in the teaching-learning process is, *"It is ensured that he/she realizes that he/she is special"*. This outcome is under the "Self-Awareness" dimension of the Primary School Guidance Curriculum (Turkish Ministry of National Education, 2020). This dimension, which is expressed as self-awareness or with its contemporary name (Aronson et al., 2012), is defined as a person's understanding of his/her own feelings, thoughts, and values, and being able to notice the effects of these on his/her behavior (CASEL, 2013). The concept of self-awareness refers to the concentration of one's own self (Feldman, 1998). Understanding oneself is a prerequisite for understanding other individuals (Tekke & Coşkun, 2019). In this direction, it is important in terms of social-emotional development that teachers include elements that will support self-awareness skills in the teaching-learning process. Considering the sample size of the research, it is understood that the self-awareness skill is supported by a small number of teachers. Self-awareness is an important component of social-emotional development. In this context, it is thought that teachers should be supported more to include self-awareness skills in the teaching-learning process. However, it is seen that the teachers under this factor at least include the outcome, *"It is taught that one should struggle with peer pressure"*. This outcome is in the dimension of "Ensuring Personal Safety" of the curriculum (Turkish Ministry of National Education, 2020). When the studies on peer pressure/bullying are examined, it is understood that primary school students in Türkiye are frequently exposed to peer pressure/bullying at school (Akpınar & Akpınar, 2022; Bekiroğlu & Güllühan, 2022; Çarkıt & Bacanlı, 2020; Kale & Demir, 2017; Kocuk, 2022; Öksüz et al., 2012). Although studies generally state that primary school students are victims (Burnukara & Uçanok, 2010; Pişkin, 2010), there are also studies revealing bullying behavior of primary school students (Kale & Demir, 2017; Sarı & Demirbağ, 2019). Based on this information, it is understood that primary school students are both exposed to peer bullying and practice peer bullying. However, while exposure to peer bullying decreases with age (Collins et al., 2004; Wolke et al., 2001), bullying increases with age (Juvonen & Graham 2014). Peer bullying has many negative physical, social and psychological consequences for students (Bradshaw, 2015). It is understood that peer bullying affects children negatively in terms of development in every aspect. For this reason, it is thought that teachers should include more measures to prevent peer bullying in classrooms.

There is one participant in each of the last three factors that emerged in the research. A participant in Factor 4 stated, *"It is noticed how events and thoughts affect emotions"*. While giving place to the learning outcome, it includes at least the outcome, *"Knowing and applying the ways of solving problems"*. While the most mentioned outcome is in the dimension of understanding and managing emotions, the least included outcome is in the dimension of interpersonal skills. In this context, it is understood that the practices of the teacher, who expressed an opinion under this factor, in the field of social-emotional development are completely different from the opinions of the teachers in Factor 1. When Factor 5 is examined, it can be seen that the participant under this factor attaches the most importance to the outcome, *"She/He is taught to recognize and name different emotions"*, while she/he attaches the least importance to the outcome, *"She/He is taught to observe the rights of her/his friends"*. The first of these outcomes is in the dimension of understanding and managing emotions, while the second is in the dimension of ensuring personal safety. Finally, in Factor 6, the most important outcome is, *"Teaching how to solve the problems with her/his friends"*, and the least

important outcome is, *"Teaching to offer help appropriately to the individual in need of help",* which appears to be an outcome. While the dimension that this teacher gives the most place to is interpersonal relations, the dimension that she/he gives the least place to is the dimension of providing personal security. When the research findings are examined in general, it is understood that the dimension that teachers give the most importance to in social-emotional development, and that they include in the teaching-learning process, is interpersonal skills. The order of importance and scoring of different factors of interpersonal skills confirms this situation. Similarly, the dimension that the teachers participating in the research give the least place to in the teaching-learning process is the outcomes aimed at ensuring personal safety. This situation can be interpreted as there being a consensus on the issues that teachers attach importance to in social-emotional development, although there are differences in the implementation process.

As a result of this research, it was found that there is a consensus among primary school teachers regarding the implementation of the outcomes in the primary school guidance curriculum in the learning-teaching process. Although the opinions of the teachers are mostly concentrated in the first factor, the opinions are gathered in six factors, and it can be seen that the relationship between the factors is generally low. In addition, according to the teachers' opinions, in the implementation of the primary school guidance curriculum, the first factor is to know personal rights and responsibilities; knowing the ways of solving problems in the second factor; making her/him realize that she/he is special in the third factor; knowing the effect of events and thoughts on emotions in the fourth factor; and it was concluded that the outcomes on recognizing different emotions in the fifth factor and solving the problems with his friends in the sixth factor came to the fore. The fact that the opinions of a significant part of the participants are gathered under the first factor may be expressed as a consensus.

Considering the importance of social-emotional development in the primary school, it is understood that primary school teachers have an important role to play in this regard (Bozgün & Baytemir, 2019; Esen-Aygün, 2021; Özdemir & Bacanlı, 2020). The primary school teacher, who is present at the beginning of education for many children, contributes to the students' strong attitudes towards the future with their approach to problems and solution suggestions (Dogan & Zeren, 2019). However, just as many children start primary school low social-emotional skills (Türnüklü, 2004), a significant number of teachers had extremely limited information about social-emotional development up until the last ten years (Esen-Aygün & Şahin, Taşkın, 2017). However, the social-emotional competence of teachers provides many positive contributions in terms of cognitive and affective aspects, such as the emotional resilience of students, their stability, and the creation of effective learning environments (Durlak et al., 2011; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Schonert-Reichl, 2017). In line with developments throughout the world on social-emotional learning, the curricula implemented in Türkiye and the academic researchers have managed to draw attention to the importance of social-emotional learning. The inclusion of social-emotional skills in the teaching-learning process, considering the social-emotional development within the scope of the primary school guidance curriculum, is a result of these developments. The dimensions of the social-emotional development in the primary school guidance curriculum are compatible with the universal skills considered in social-emotional development. Within this context, it is thought that the primary school guidance curriculum has an important role in supporting the social-emotional

development of children. However, the responsibility for the implementation of the primary school guidance curriculum in primary schools' rests with the primary school teachers. Primary school teachers are the people who know the children best during this period. In this respect, it is an important advantage that the primary school teachers are responsible for the implementation of the primary school guidance curriculum. However, as it can be understood from the findings obtained within the scope of this research, it can be seen that while teachers give more importance to certain areas of development in the development of social-emotional skills, they do not pay enough attention to others. Based on this information, it is understood that primary school teachers should be better informed within the scope of pre-service and in-service training in order to ensure the development of social-emotional skills in children during primary school years. As a result, it is thought that social-emotional development would take place in the learning-teaching process with all its dimensions. Besides, the primary school guidance curriculum consists of the areas of "academic development", "career development" and "social-emotional development". Focusing on the social-emotional development area of the primary school guidance curriculum can be considered a limitation of this study. Related to this limitation, it is recommended that other areas of (academic, career and social-emotional) development can be considered in future studies.

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TÜRKÇE GENİŞ ÖZET

İlkokul Sınıf Rehberlik Programında Sosyal-Duygusal Gelişim: Q-Metodoloji Çalışması

Giriş

Çocukların sosyal-duygusal gelişimlerinin, onların tüm hayatlarını etkilediği görüşü, son yıllarda çocuklara yönelik bakış açılarında da değişimleri beraberinde getirmiştir. Sosyal-duygusal beceriler, duyguları tanımlamak ve yönetmek için bilgi, beceri ve tutumları içeren, başkalarını önemsemek, iyi kararlar vermek için etik ve sorumlu davranmak, olumlu ilişkiler geliştirmek ve olumsuz davranışlardan kaçınmak gibi özellikleri içinde barındıran bir kavramdır (Elias & Moceri, 2012). Sosyal-duygusal becerileri daha güçlü olan çocuklar, kolayca birisi ile tanışabilir, yaşıtlarının oynadığı oyuna dahil olabilir, diğerleriyle olumlu iletişim kurabilir, kendisini ifade edebilir, isteklerini iletebilir, bir diğerinin sınırlarını, kendi sınırları gibi koruyabilir. Dolayısıyla bu tür beceriler gösterebilen bir çocuğun, okula başladığında iletişim sorunları yaşamayacağı ve okul başarısının yüksek olacağı tahmin edilebilir. Türkiye'de Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı tarafından hazırlanan bir kılavuzla, ilkokul düzeyinde kazandırılması hedeflenen sosyal-duygusal gelişim alanlarına yönelik beceriler, öğretmenlerin dikkatine sunulmuştur. Bu çalışmada da MEB tarafından hazırlanan bu kılavuzda yer alan yeterlikler hakkında öğretmenlerin görüşleri ele alınmıştır.

Sınıf Rehberlik Programında sosyal-duygusal gelişim alanına ait amaçlar: (1) Öğrencilerin kendilerini tanımaları, duygularını anlamaları ve yönetmeleri, kişilerarası sağlıklı ilişkiler geliştirmeleri için gerekli bilgi, tutum ve davranışları edinmeleri, (2) Kararlar vermeleri, amaçlar oluşturmaları, amaçlara ulaşmak için gerekli önlemleri almaları ve bu yönde çaba göstermeleri ve (3) Kişisel güvenliğini sağlamaları ve yaşam becerileri geliştirmeleri biçiminde verilmektedir ve bu amaçlar için şu yeterlikler belirlenmiştir: A) Öz-farkındalık (benlik farkındalığı) B) Duyguları anlama ve yönetme C) Kişiler arası beceriler D) Karar verme E) Kişisel güvenliğini sağlama. Bu çalışmada programda yer alan sosyal-duygusal gelişim alanına yönelik yeterliklerin ilkokul 1–4. sınıf düzeyinde öğrenme-öğretme sürecinde ne şekilde yer bulduğuna ilişkin öğretmen görüşlerinin incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Buna göre araştırma soruları aşağıdaki gibi belirlenmiştir:

(1) Sınıf öğretmenleri arasında sınıf rehberlik programında yer alan kazanımların öğrenme-öğretme sürecinde uygulanmasına ilişkin görüş birliği bulunmakta mıdır?

(2) Öğretmenlerin görüşlerine göre sınıf rehberlik programının uygulanmasında hangi kazanımlar ön plana çıkmaktadır?

Yöntem

Bu araştırma, Q metodolojisinde tasarlanmıştır. Bu araştırma kapsamında kolay ulaşılabilir örnekleme yoluyla 63 sınıf öğretmenine ulaşılmıştır. Ancak 14 sınıf öğretmeninin hatalı ve eksik kodlama yapması sonucu veri setinden çıkarılmasıyla toplam 49 sınıf öğretmenine ait veriler ile araştırma tamamlanmıştır.

Araştırmanın verileri araştırmacılar tarafından MEB Sınıf Rehberlik Programında (2020) belirlenen sosyal-duygusal gelişim alanı kazanımları dikkate alınarak hazırlanan Q dizgisi ile toplanmıştır. Verilerin analizi PQMethod 2.35 programı kullanılarak yapılmıştır. Veri girişleri yapılmış ve temel bileşenler analizi (principal component analysis) uygulanmıştır.

Bulgular

Araştırma kapsamında ilk olarak sınıf öğretmenlerinin sosyal-duygusal gelişim kazanımlarını kullanmaya yönelik görüşleri arasında ortak bir görüşün olup olmadığı incelenmiştir. Bu amaçla, öncelikle Q dizgisine ait faktör yükleri belirlenmiştir. Döndürülmemiş faktör yükleri incelendiğinde 11. Kişinin (11K25) birinci ve altıncı faktörlerdeki yüklerinin çok yakın olduğu görülmektedir. Bu nedenle birinci ve altıncı faktörler arasında döndürme işlemi uygulanmıştır. Döndürme bulguları incelendiğinde 1. ve 6. faktörler arasında +7 derecelik pozitif yönde sola döndürme yapıldığı görülmektedir. Döndürme sonucunda 1 ve 6. faktörlerde sırasıyla 0.53 ve 0.53 anlamlılık değerine sahip olan 11. kişi (11K25). +7 derecelik pozitif rotasyon sonucu 0.59 anlamlılık değeri ile 1. faktör altında yer almıştır. Buna ek olarak. 37. ve 41. katılımcılar döndürme sonucu 0.54 anlamlılık düzeyi ile 3. faktöre taşınmıştır. Döndürme bulguları incelendiğinde bu araştırma kapsamında çalışma grubuna dâhil edilen 49 öğretmenin görüşlerinin 6 faktörlü bir yapı oluşturduğu anlaşılmaktadır. Katılımcıların yer aldığı faktörler frekanslarına göre incelendiğinde birinci faktörde 21; ikinci faktörde 9; üçüncü faktörde 5; dört, beş ve altıncı faktörlerde de birer katılımcının yer aldığı görülmektedir. Katılımcılarının önemli bir bölümünün görüşlerinin ilk faktör altında toplanması, görüş birliği olduğu şeklinde ifade edilebilir. Faktörler arası korelasyon incelendiğinde, en yüksek ilişkinin Faktör 2 ile Faktör 6 arasında pozitif yönlü orta düzeyde (r = .49) bir ilişki olduğu görülmektedir. Ayrıca Faktör 3 ile Faktör 4 arasında negatif yönlü düşük düzeyde (r = .32); Faktör 1 ile Faktör 5 arasında negatif yönlü düşük düzeyde (r = .30); Faktör 2 ile Faktör 4 arasında negatif yönlü düşük düzeyde (r = .28); Faktör 1 ile Faktör 6 arasında pozitif yönde düşük düzeyde (r = .27) ve Faktör 1 ile Faktör 2 arasında pozitif yönde düşük düzeyde (r = .21) ilişki olduğu bulunmuştur.

Tartışma, Sonuç ve Öneriler

Bu araştırmanın sonucunda, sınıf öğretmenleri arasında sınıf rehberlik programında yer alan kazanımların öğrenme-öğretme sürecinde uygulanmasına ilişkin bir görüş birliğinin olduğu bulunmuştur. Öğretmenlerin görüşleri büyük oranda ilk faktörde yer almakla birlikte, görüşlerin altı faktörde toplandığı ve faktörler arası ilişkinin genel olarak düşük olduğu görülmüştür. Ayrıca öğretmenlerin görüşlerine göre sınıf rehberlik programının uygulanmasında, ilk faktörde kişisel hak ve sorumlulukları bilmek; ikinci faktörde sorun çözme yollarını bilmek, üçüncü faktörde kendisinin özel olduğunu fark ettirmek; dördüncü faktörde olayların ve düşüncelerin duygular üzerindeki etkisini bilmek; beşinci faktörde farklı duyguları tanımak ve altıncı faktörde

de arkadaşlarıyla yaşadığı sorunları çözebilmek konulu kazanımların ön plana çıktığı sonuçlarına ulaşılmıştır. Katılımcılarının önemli bir bölümünün görüşlerinin ilk faktör altında toplanması, görüş birliği olduğu şeklinde ifade edilebilir. Sosyal-duygusal öğrenme konusunda dünyada yaşanan gelişmeler doğrultusunda ülkemizde uygulamaya konan öğretim programları ve yapılan akademik araştırmalar sosyal-duygusal öğrenmenin önemine dikkati çekmeyi başarmıştır. Sınıf rehberlik programı kapsamında sosyal-duygusal gelişim alanının dikkate alınarak öğretme-öğrenme sürecinde sosyal-duygusal becerilere yer verilmesi bu gelişmelerin bir sonucudur. Sınıf rehberlik programındaki sosyal-duygusal gelişim alanına ait boyutlar sosyal-duygusal gelişimde dikkate alınan evrensel beceriler ile uyumludur. Bu kapsamda, sınıf rehberlik programının çocuklarda sosyal-duygusal gelişimi desteklemede önemli bir görevi olduğu düşünülmektedir. Bununla birlikte, ilkokulda sınıf rehberlik programının uygulanmasındaki sorumluluğun sınıf öğretmenlerindedir. Sınıf öğretmenleri bu dönemde çocuğu en iyi tanıyan kişilerdir. Bu doğrultuda, sınıf rehberlik programının uygulanmasındaki sorumluluğun sınıf öğretmenlerinde olması önemli bir avantajdır. Bu bilgilerden hareketle, ilkokul yıllarında çocuklarda sosyal-duygusal becerilerin gelişimini sağlamak üzere sınıf öğretmenlerinin hizmet öncesi ve hizmet içi eğitimler kapsamında daha fazla bilgilendirilmesi gerektiği anlaşılmaktadır. Böylece, sosyal-duygusal gelişimin tüm boyutlarıyla öğrenme-öğretme sürecinde yer alacağı düşünülmektedir. Bu araştırmada, programın sosyal-duygusal gelişim alanının ele alınması bir sınırlılık olarak kabul edilebilir. Gelecek çalışmalarda programda yer alan kariyer gelişimi, akademik ve sosyal-duygusal gelişim alanlarının da dikkate alınması önerilir.

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E-Learning Performance Assessment Model Proposal for E-Learning Academies*

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Abstract

Corporates provide e-learning systems to their employees to improve their knowledge and competences needed in job descriptions. This study aims to propose a model that measures and analyzes real user data in e-learning system to measure the targeted personal development and learning level of employees of corporates with e-learning academies according to different criteria, compare the success level, and evaluate the effect of training on job performance. Employees' training activities, departments, positions, assessment and survey results, and other related data are recorded in the e-learning system and collected from the e-learning system, LMS (Learning Management System), by data mining method. The document also reviews the System Approach, Kirkpatrick's Four Levels of Training Evaluation Model, Balanced Scorecard, KPI (Key Performance Index), and OKR (Objectives and Key Results). In order to make a performance assessment in the model, data collected from e-learning systems is used, and the academy enters its own target data into the model. The results are associated with the corporate's KPI and OKR targets in the model. Model output is visualized for management review. The results declare that the model helps the academy have a holistic perspective for training activities associated with corporate target, a realistic review of effects of training on job performance, and possible opportunities and plans for future development of the trainings.

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Introduction

E-learning is preferred in training activities in a growing trend as a result of its advantages and the rapid development of internet infrastructure and technologies. This growth is monitored and reported by different organizations in the e-learning sector. According to the report published by Docebo (2020), it is estimated that the e-learning market will reach a total of 286 billion USD in 2023. It is also stated that approximately 100 billion USD of this amount will belong to corporate e-learning. While a growth trend in the future, there are expectations and issues that need to change in parallel with this growth on the side of human resources, training academies, and employees. Most academy professionals state that (Brandon Hall, 2019) it is more important to increase and develop the skills and capacities of existing employees and make them ready for changing needs rather than hiring new employees. In line with this assessment, the relevant departments assess that the priorities in e-learning activities are how personal development training should be offered, identifying the competencies where the existing employee has skills gaps, tracking talent development, and reporting the impact of development on business performance. However, when they evaluate the existing systems and solutions, it is also stated that they have insufficient reporting and analysis features.

Academy professionals reviewed these issues, and it becomes necessary for e-learning academies to develop in two areas: technology and content (Docebo, 2020). In terms of content development, academies explain that they prefer gamification, simulation, and content curation (learning journeys with different content) designs. More changes are expected in technology development (Anton & Shikov, 2018). In this sense, it is evaluated that the learning management systems (LMS) used in e-learning academies will evolve into learning experience systems (LXP-Learning Experience Platform) by focusing on the concept of "experience" rather than management (Fanning, 2019). The development of systems is designed upon the user-centered learning experience, supports talent management, emphasizes learning in the workflow, has an informal learning environment (information sharing with colleagues and managers) where coaching and mentor processes can be used, and can be integrated with all other systems in the organization stands out.

The pandemic period affected the expectations and technological developments described above and seems to accelerate the expected changes (Saverimuttu, 2022). The effects of COVID-19 are also evaluated in the "Future of Jobs Report" published by the World Economic Forum (2020). In the report, technological investments will begin to transform tasks, professions, and skills in organizations trying to overcome the pandemic impact. Nearly half of organizations want to accelerate digitalization for skills development. On the other hand, only very few of them plan to make permanent staff reductions. It can be concluded that organizations aim to retain their existing employees as much as possible to upskill them and increase their productivity.

In corporate e-learning research, the effectiveness of training in e-learning academies has been particularly examined to increase employee productivity and skills (Warner, 2019). However, the measurement of effectiveness for the above-mentioned expectation and need for change issues is not so clear because the business objectives used in the evaluation of the activities in the academies may vary according to each academy and have different priorities. In Brandon Hall Report (2019), employee engagement, personal performance, and supervisor

evaluations are mostly used to measure the effectiveness of e-learning academies. Financial results like revenue growth, annual sales, and effects on the market share are rarely used. However, most of the organizations explained that they still have problems in measuring learning impact and effectiveness (Drozdova & Guseva, 2017). In order to solve measurement problems, different theoretical approaches, models, and methods are proposed in the literature.

Theory and Research

Different methods, approaches, and models are examined in the literature review. Some of these are currently used in e-learning academies. The Kirkpatrick Model, Balanced Scorecard, Key Performance Index, Objectives and Key Results, and System Approach are selected, and it is aimed to use all of them in the model appropriately.

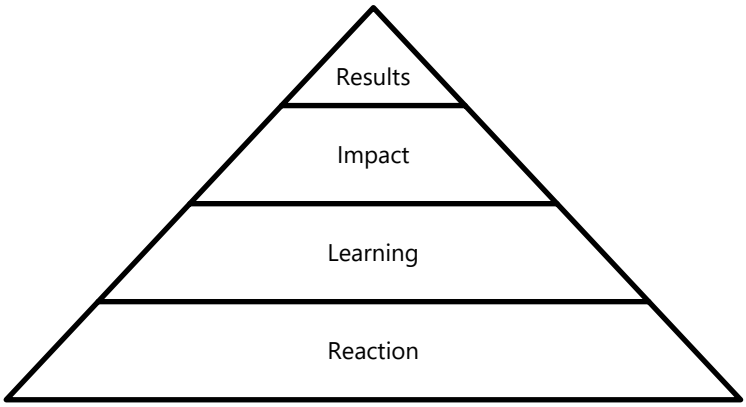
The reasons of choosing the theoretical approaches and model can be explained respectively as follows. The System Approach enables the model to have a holistic framework and use necessary structural parts of corporations that need to have relations with each other for organizational results. By using the Balanced Scorecard, the model gets strategic learning and development targets of e-learning academies. Key Performance Index and Objectives and Key Results provide measurable targets for assessment of the effectiveness of training to Academy professionals in the model. Lastly, the Kirkpatrick Model is chosen in the model since it evaluates specifically the effectiveness of training in every stage of training.

The Kirkpatrick Model

The model is established by Donald Kirkpatrick in 1959, and Kirkpatrick updated the model in 1975 and 1993. The model focuses on the measurement of the effectiveness of training. Four steps in the training processes in the model have features that can facilitate corporates to make measurements according to their business goals in e-learning academies (Chen, 2010). It is expected that the employee with a specific skill will have learning outcomes in knowledge, behavior, and upskills after the training they receive. Following the learning outcomes, it is aimed at increasing competence and, accordingly, a positive improvement in work performance (Cahapay, 2021). In this process, the first 2 levels of the model, named as respectively reaction and learning, can be tracked and reported through existing e-learning academy systems. However, the 3rd and 4th levels, named as respectively impact and results, have important roles, especially in evaluation; therefore, they should be measured, monitored, reported and modeled so that new decisions and plans can be done for the future in the academies.

Figure 1

The Kirkpatrick Model



The Balanced Scorecard

The last stage of the Kirkpatrick Model, the measurement of the contribution of training to the organization at the results level, is an important issue for academies. One of the biggest reasons for this is that human resource capital and training investments are intangible assets. In departments such as finance, sales, marketing, purchasing, and production, targets and results are quantitative and measurable. On the other hand, the human resources capital, strength, and competence of corporates are more qualitative and, therefore ,not easy to measure. When training activities are managed and evaluated within human resources and academies, Balanced Scorecard is one of the methods that is used in this field (Sevinç & Yıldırım, 2001).

The Balanced Scorecard is an approach developed by Robert Kaplan and David Norton in 1992 and defined as "a method for turning a corporate's strategies into actions". The main purpose of the approach is to evaluate the performance of the corporate by considering customers, internal processes, and learning and development, called as non-financial dimensions with financial results of the corporate (Kaplan, 2009). The Balanced Scorecard approach has 4 dimensions. These are (1) Financial, (2) Customer, (3) Internal Processes, and (4) Learning and Development. In the fourth dimension of learning and development, related to the study, the corporate is expected to fulfill the requirements to achieve its long-term goals by keeping continuous development and learning. In this dimension of the Balanced Scorecard, human resources management aims to determine the impact of employees on the goals of the corporate and the impact of human resources activities on all other dimensions. The fourth dimension includes 3 different types of resources: human resources, information resources, and organizational resources. Kaplan (2009) explains that these resources are intangible assets;, therefore, some steps need to be completed in order to incorporate them into the strategy and align them with it.

As human resources and academies, corporates have skills, competencies, and intellectual know-how. Four stages are proposed in human resource readiness. In the first stage, strategic job positions should be identified. All positions can be considered strategically important, or only some positions can be decided to be more strategic. In the second stage, qualification profiles for these positions and the skills and competencies needed for these profiles should be determined. In the next stage, the current level of the employees working or likely to work

in the relevant positions should be evaluated according to the determined competency profiles. In the final stage, a development program should be planned in order to acquire the skills and competencies that employees need to develop in terms of competence after the evaluation (Kaplan, 2009).

In the Balanced Scorecard, scorecards are created for units, managers, and employees in order to ensure that the company strategy can be maintained at the same level from the top to the bottom. Employee cards include not only financial targets but also targets for learning and development so that employees can participate in training and similar development activities within the scope of the development programs mentioned above. The Balanced Scorecard suggests that when planning a development program, the Objectives, Measures, Targets, and Initiatives mentioned in the approach should be prepared according to the company's strategic goals (Petersen, 2008). According to Kaplan (2009), "Objective" refers to the issue to be measured; "Measures" refers to how the issue will be measured and the unit of measurement; "Targets" refers to the point to be reached through the decided unit of measurement; and "Initiatives" refers to the activities needed to achieve the goals. In the measurement and targets headlines, academies need some methods to measure performance and progress quantitatively. In this study, KPI (Key Performance Index) is used as a method for the Learning and Development dimension.

Key Performance Index (KPI)

KPI is a method used in performance measurement and is usually graded on a scale of 0-100. The biggest benefit of the KPI method for academies is to enable the assessment of progress under measurable targets. The common opinion in the KPI method is that the measurement criteria and studies in accordance with the objectives should be correctly selected to achieve a successful result. Minhong et al. (2010) state that KPI can be used to support 3 issues: First, KPI may be used to align the personal training needs of the employee with the competency priorities of the organization. Secondly, it can help to establish the relationship between learning and job performance. Third, it can contribute to social learning and communication between employees. After all evaluations, it is possible to measure the performance outputs of the targets in a more fair and flexible way (Marr, 2012).

Objectives and Key Results (OKR)

Objectives and Key Result (OKR) is one of the current performance systems and aims to ensure engagement and alignment for measurable goals. It helps academies to focus all their resources on identified key issues and provides a framework for managers to demonstrate how the efforts of their direct reports can be linked to company goals (Hatipoğlu, 2020). OKR has two main components: Objectives and Key Results. Objectives are measurable and quantitative definitions of the results the corporates and employees want to achieve. In OKR, it is important that objectives should be meaningful, motivating, attainable, and purposeful for both the corporate and the employee (Milenko, 2017). Critical results can be defined as quantitative, specific, and sub-targets to measure progress towards the goals. It is recommended to set between 2 and 5 to be achievable and trackable (Charoenlarpkul & Tantasanee, 2019).

OKR supports corporates in terms of the organizational focus of all teams, agility, the collaboration between teams, open communication within the company, participation and efficiency, tracking progress, and transparency (Palo, 2020). For the OKR to receive the

necessary support, all units should be included in the goal-setting process; the number of goals should be between 3 and 5; the goals should be determined numerically and have a timeline, and the desired result should be clear instead of general goals being challenging.

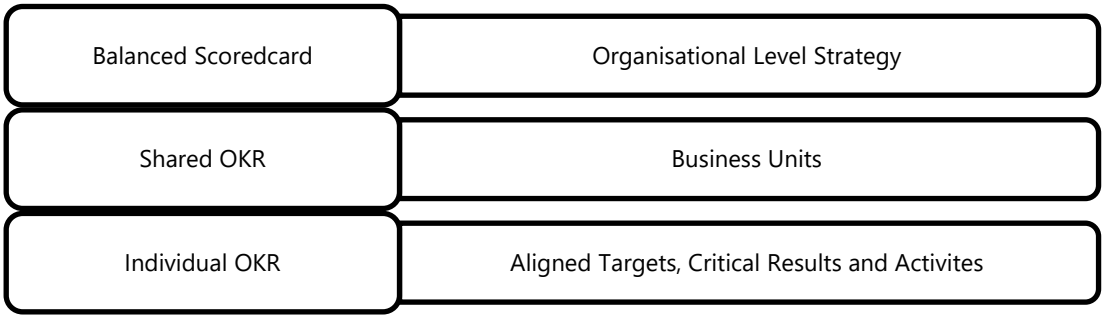
The Relationship between Balanced Scorecard, KPI, and OKR

Corporates use Balanced Scorecard, KPI, and OKR when they want to set goals and measure performance accordingly. Due to the similarities and differences among themselves in these models, corporates make evaluations to choose the appropriate model(s). Balanced Scorecard helps corporates set annual strategic goals. However, the goals are determined hierarchically by management, so they are inflexible, and are expected to be fully achieved. The inflexibility and hierarchical setting of vertical goals reduces employee contribution and has been criticized in this respect. OKR, on the other hand, enables the determination of monthly or quarterly targets. Shorter-term targets help to respond more quickly to rapidly changing conditions. In OKR, targets are not set vertically but are instead set by business units, including the employee. It offers a structure where both vertical and horizontal teams are involved in the process.

These two models can be used together to benefit from their advantages and avoid their disadvantages (Rojas-Chipana et al., 2021). Setting short-term targets in OKR offers the corporate an advantage in adapting to changing conditions. However, there may be a risk of moving away from the main objectives of the corporates in setting short-term targets. This may be especially the case in corporate with multiple business units and a large number of employees (Stray et al., 2023). Rojas-Chipana et al. (2021) suggest that to reduce this risk, alignment with and progress towards the strategic business objective set in the Balanced Scorecard can minimise the risk. On the other hand, hierarchical targets in the Balanced Scorecard may be difficult for employees to comply with and employees may show resistance. In OKR, the flexibility of business units and employees to set their own targets can be used to overcome these problems. This relationship between BS and OKR can be seen in Figure 2:

Figure 2

Balanced Scorecard-OKR Relation



The relationship between OKR and KPIs can be reviewed as complementary parts. OKR provides a strategic framework for objectives. KPIs are the measurements used within this framework. In other words, while the objectives to be achieved are determined with the OKR, KPIs ensure the correct implementation and the achievement of this OKR (Zhou & He, 2018). In achieving the targets, the use of these models together may be beneficial in ensuring efficiency and sustainability in the corporates. In this study, it is aimed to use OKR and KPI together in the model.

System Approach

When Saba (2013) explained the systems approach in his work "Building Future: A Theoretical Perspective", the method of solving problems by dividing them into smaller simple parts is insufficient to understand human behavior, including education, and cannot provide a solution at the organizational level. Saba (2012) declared that organizations have a more complex structure beyond the personal interactions of individuals with them; therefore, it is more important to understand the relationships between components rather than dividing them into parts. Saba (2014) presented a model of a dynamic system approach in his systems approach assessment. In a dynamic system, the targeted structure can be customized for the needs of the employees that can follow them and offer suggestions for their preferences and activities.

In this study, the model aims to integrate the e-learning academies with the learning and development goals set by academies and the performance measurements related to these goals within a system approach, then to achieve holistic results and make evaluations. The model helps the corporates use Balanced Scorecard, KPI, and OKR inputs and assess the measurement of impact and result levels of The Kirkpatrick Model. Therefore, answer to the following question will be sought:

1. Within the framework of the systems approach, can KPIs and OKRs, which are determined for employee development in line with the strategies in the Balanced Scorecard and user data from e-learning academies, be used in a model to evaluate 3rd and 4th levels (Impact & Results) of Kirkpatrick Model?

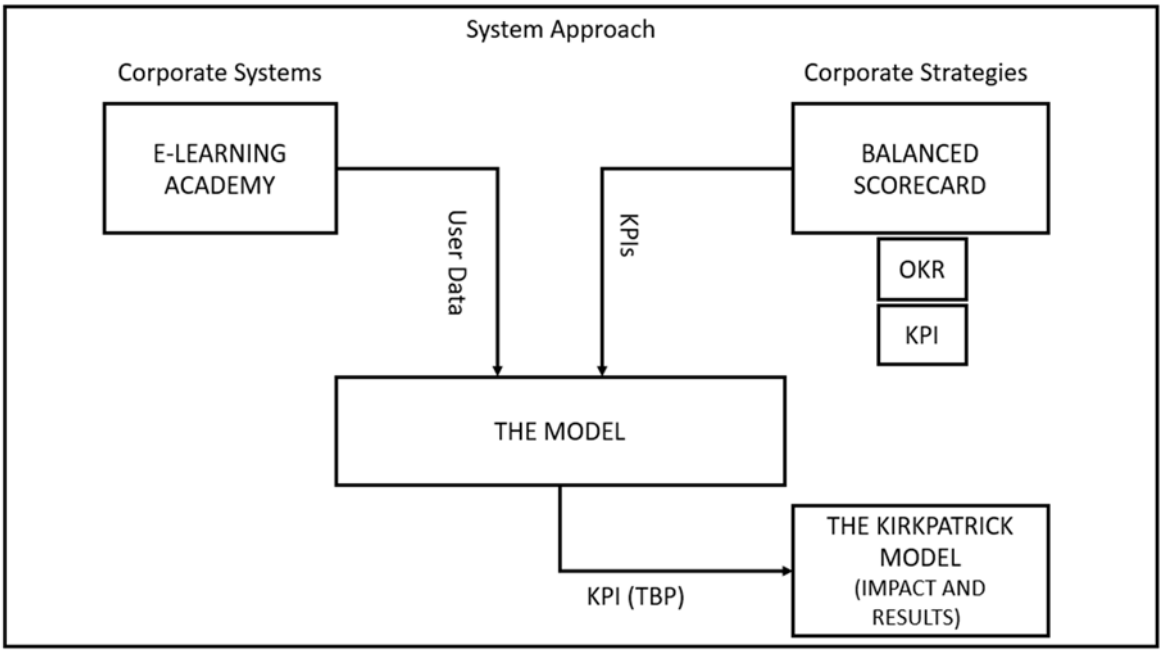
Method

To answer the study's question, a systematic review of the literature and model building are used. The literature review can be described as "a systematic, explicit, and reproducible method for identifying, evaluating, and interpreting the existing body of recorded work" (Fink, 1998). By model building, it is decided which results of the literature review and available data can be included in the model.

As a result of a systematic review of the literature and evaluation of available data, the model can be designed, as seen in Figure 3.

Figure 3

Schema of The Model



As the schema of the model, e-learning academy, Balanced Scorecard targets determined for learning and development, specified KPI and OKRs in line with Balanced Scorecard are used in the model to assess the impact and results levels of The Kirkpatrick Model within the framework of System Approach. The System Approach is not directly used by academy professionals in the model. It provides a holistic view to use corporate's assets via other models and methods. Academy professionals have strategic targets in the Balanced Scorecard and determine KPI and OKRs appropriated with the Balanced Scorecard at different levels (like department and position). They use all of them flexibly in the model. At this stage, training activities in e-learning academies are reported, and associated activity data is added to the model. The outputs are reviewed to assess impact and results levels of The Kirkpatrick Model.

Study Group and Data Collection Process

If the model is planned to be applied in a corporate academy operating in any industry, the following steps can be applied:

1. Academy professionals determine strategic goals for the learning and development dimension of the Balanced Scorecard.
2. They set targets and measurements with KPI and OKRs related to strategical goals at Balanced Scorecard. They also specify the parameters and weights of KPI and OKRs in the model.
3. In order to have training activities data used in the model, the corporate academy needs to be used actively. The academy has employee users, and the employees are expected to participate in training activities through the e-learning system. Training activities, logging in to the system, receiving training, completing training, training evaluation after training, training behavior survey, and exam procedures are carried out via web and mobile interfaces.

4. One-year training data obtained from the e-learning academy used by the research group may be used. This data can be reported from the system and is downloaded in Excel format. The data may be used in the calculations specified in the model. In order to review the model visually, the dashboard interface can be developed (Dewan et al., 2021). In the dashboard interface, there may be sections where the academy can find and select the user data parameters related to the KPIs that the academy wants to measure and determine the percentage weights to assign the importance of the relevant parameters according to itself. In addition, other relevant parameters and data in the academy can be entered manually by the academy professional. In this way, both other relevant data from the academy and reported data from the e-learning academy can be used.
5. In the dashboard interface, the results of the model, clustering analysis and analysis about similarities may be shown to the academy (Sariman, 2014). Position, unit, and employee-based evaluations can be presented in the analysis if needed. There can also be graphics using data visualization.
6. The outputs based on position, unit andemployee, or other aimed criteria are reviewed for impact on behavior and results in business performance.

Performance Assessment Model Parameter and Calculation Structure

Calculation Structure

Table 1

Performance Assessment Model Parameters

Position	*Department*	*OKR*	*Expected Competency*	*KPI Levels*	*KPI Results*	*KPI Performance Results*
P1	B1	O1	Y1	Level 1: [0-20)	KPI (Y1)	KPI (TBP)
P2	B2	• K1	Y2	Level 2: [20-40)	KPI (Y2)	
P3		• K2	Y3	Level 3: [40-60)	KPI (P)	
P4		• K3		Level 4: [60-80)		
				Level 5: [80-100)		

Parameters reported from the e-leaning academy system:

E(T): Training Completion Status (Completed :100; Uncompleted: 0)

E(B): Training Success Status (Success:100 ; Unsuccess: 0)

E(P): Training Score (0-100)

E(D): Training Experience Duration (Hour)

S(B): Exam Success Status (Success: 100; Unsucess:0)

E(De): Training Assessment Survey Result (0-100)

E(Da): Training Behavior Survey Result (0-100)

SÖ: Social Learning Transaction Number

TPSÖ: Platform Total Social Learning Transaction Number

M: User Mobil Experience Duration (Hour)

TD: User Total Experience Duration (Hour)

TDP: Platform Total Experience Duration (Hour)

TE: User Completed Training Number

TEP: Platform Total Completed Training Number

PG: User Platform Login Number

TPG: Platform Total Login Number

EÖ: User Training Recommendation Number

TPEÖ: Platform Total Training Recommendation Number

Parameters entered by the academy's professional:

S(n): A parameter that the academy can define itself. It will be able to define as many parameters as possible to see the effect.

s1: % weight of the identified parameter

Model Calculation

KPI (Yn): KPI value calculated from the model created with user data from the e-learning academy for the relevant competency.

b_1, b_2,... b_n values will be determined as percentages of academy professionals. Their sum is 100%.

Recommended calculation in the model:

KPI (Yn)= b_1 x ((E_1(T)+E_1(B)+E_1(P))/3+ b_2 x (E(D)/TD*100) +b_3 x S(B)+ b_4 x E (De) + b_5 x E(Da) + (s_n x S(n)) (parameter field to add if preferred by academy professional)

KPI (P): KPI value of all other interactions made on the e-learning academy, except for transactions related to training for the relevant competency.

c_1,c_2,...c_n values will be determined as percentages by their units. Their sum is 100%.

Recommended calculation in the model:

KPI (P)= c_1 x (M/TD) *100 +c_2 x (TD/TDP) *100 + c_3 x (TE/TEP) *100+ c_4 x (PG/TPG) *100+ c_5 x (EÖ/TEÖP) *100+ c_6 x (SÖ/TPSÖ) *100

KPI Performance Result: It is the personal success score calculated with the KPI values and coefficients defined by the relevant unit.

a_1, a_2,... a_n values will be determined as percentages by academy unit. Their sum is 100%.

Recommended calculation in the model:

KPI (TBP)= a_1 x KPI (Y1) + a_2 x KPI (Y2) +....a_n x KPI (P)

If the academy prefers, it can make calculations in its own way instead of this model.

After the KPI (TBP) is calculated on an employee basis, the average of the KPI (TBP) scores of employees in the same department and the same position is also calculated. It is possible to evaluate users who are above or below the average. In addition, cluster analysis will be performed on these scores, and employees with similarities will be analyzed. The status of employees in similar positions in different departments can also be observed. If the academy accesses other relevant performance parameters, the effect of scores on performance can also be checked. The model study also aimed at academy professionals to make an assessment about the work to be done in the future.

Results

Regarding the model and calculation structure, an example calculation table is established for academy professionals. The example calculation table is shown below.

Table 2

Example Calculation Table

Employee	Employee 1		
Department	Sales		
Position	Sales Specialist		
OKR O1	Renewal for All Customers		
K1	%50 Increase in Customer Satisfaction		
Competency	Customer Satisfaction		
Min. Level KPI for Competency	Level 4 (60-80 Score)		
KPIs be Calculated		*KPI Weight*	*KPI Value*
KPI (MM)	Customer Success Training KPI	60%	80
KPI (Eİ)	Effective Communication KPI	30%	77
KPI (P)	E-Learning Academy Usage KPI	10%	11
KPI (TBP)			72
Customer Success Training Data	*Status*	*Score*	*Weight (%)*
E(T): (Completed:100; Uncompleted: 0)	Completed	100	30%
E(B): (Success: 100; Unsuccess: 0)	Success	100	
E(P): (0-100)	-	100	
E(D): Training Experience Duration (hour)	1,5	-	20%
S(B): (Success: 100; Unsuccess: 0)	-	100	25%
E(De): (0-100)	-	100	10%
E(Da): (0-100)	-	80	15%

Table 2 (*Cont.*)

Effective Communication Training Data	*Status*	*Score*	*Weight (%)*
E(T): (Completed:100; Uncompleted: 0)	Completed	100	30%
E(B): (Success: 100; Unsuccess: 0)	Success	100	
E(P): (0-100)	-	100	
E(D): Training Experience Duration (hour)	0,5		10%
S(B): (Success: 100; Unsuccess: 0)	-	100	10%
E(De): (0-100)	-	80	10%
E(Da): (0-100)	-	70	40%
E-Learning Academy Usage Data	Status	Score	Weight (%)
M: (hour)	3	-	25%
TD: (hour)	10	-	
TDP: (hour)	250	-	15%
TE:	2	-	
TEP:	25	-	25%
PG:	50	-	
TPG:	5.000	-	15%

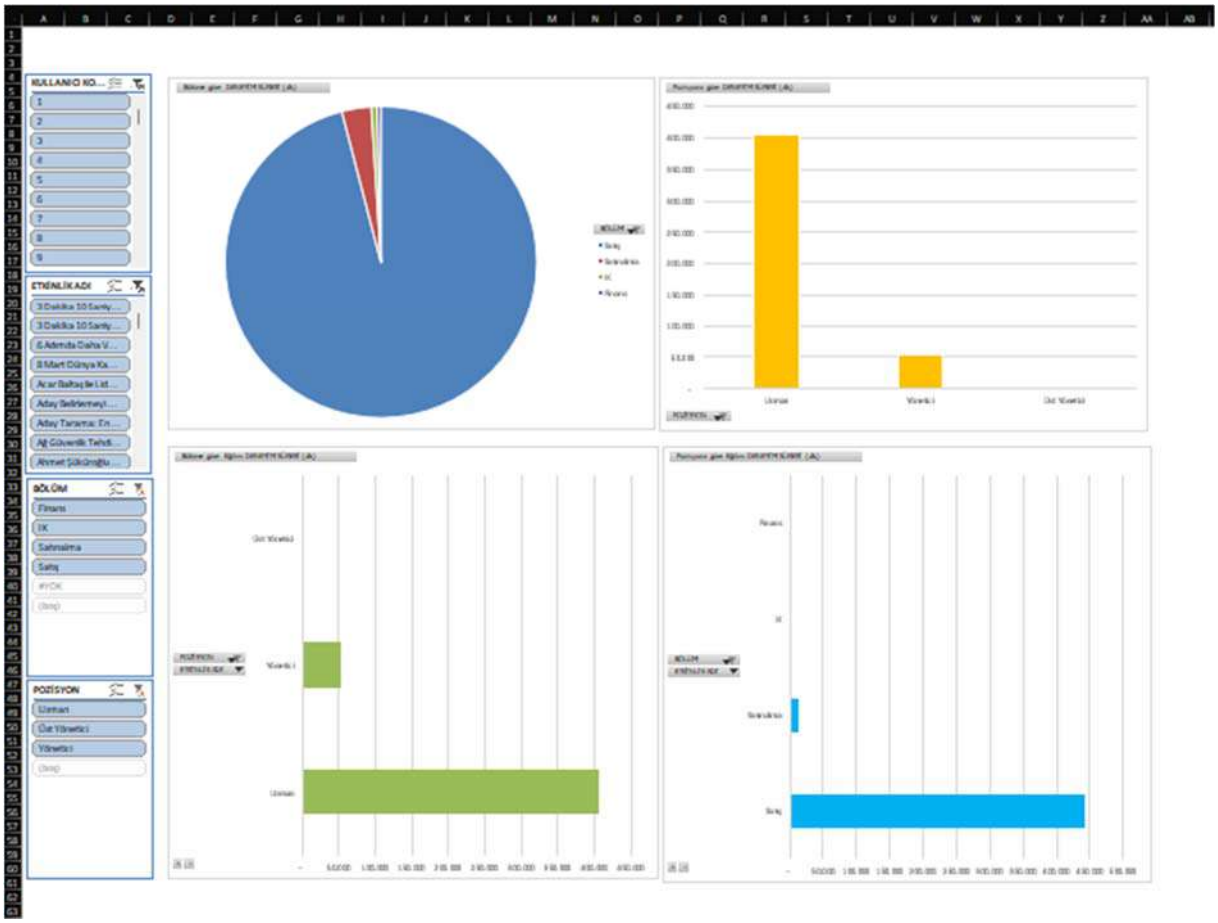
This calculation table shall be applied to all employees at corporate. Total results can be found and combined in a dashboard within MS Excel. The aim of using Excel is to enable academy professionals use easy and applicable application. Possible integrated applications and solutions to corporate-related systems need to require detailed planning, additional workforce, and personal information security measures. Moreover, there will be changes in applications in the future, and these changes will need rework in systems.

The dashboard may be used for overall assessment and making comparisons (Vozniuk et al., 2013). By using Excel pivot and graphical features, the model suggests dashboard example to academy professionals. The main advantage of the dashboard in Excel is to allow academy professionals to create different dashboard presentations whatever they want and focus on. If they plan to improve dashboards, they can also use more specific applications, like Tableau, that work with Excel reports (Slater et al., 2017).

Assessment and comparison can be done not only overall but also based on department, position, and sub-company, if any. Such work helps the academy find competency and talent gaps and learning and development needs related to department and position levels. In future perspective, the academy can review and update human resources and learning and development strategies at Balanced Scorecard, KPI, and OKR.

Figure 4

Example Dashboard in Excel



Discussion, Conclusion, and Implications

As mentioned in the introduction, corporates want to invest in staff learning and development. One of these investments is e-learning academy systems for digital learning experience. When using these systems, corporates not only manage their training activities but also aim to fulfill their learning and development needs (Martins et al., 2019). Naturally, it is stated in the relevant parts of the study that they want to measure and evaluate the impact of this system investment on business performance (Kurt, 2016). In doing so, they use different methods and approaches to monitor alignment with company strategies. However, to use and evaluate these methods and approaches together with the data from the e-learning academy system, a model proposal described in this study is needed.

In the model, academies are expected to enter data according to their own targets and measurements, whose KPI criteria, parameters, and weights for the competencies to be measured are determined in the Balanced Scorecard. The parameters and weights for each KPI calculation will be determined by the academy professionals. OKR target information will need to be used to compare the results on the OKR side. In this way, each academy will be able to make its own measurement and evaluation accordingly.

Employee information and training data can be retrieved from the e-learning academy through the report method. The report can be received monthly, quarterly, semi-annually, or annually, depending on the needed period. The reports contain real user data and can be simplified to be used in the model. The required comparison analysis can be made on the employee information (position, department, experience, and manager informationin the reports. Educational data mining techniques can also be used here for more detailed analysis needs (Khare et al., 2018). In this case, academy professionals may need support in data mining. Instead, it is recommended to proceed with Excel dashboard design as stated in the model as an easier way.

As limitations of the model, the model can be used only in corporates with e-learning academies. Moreover, training activities data need to be reported from the e-learning academy. The e-learning academy should be active for at least 1 year, and it has a minimum 250 employee users. Academy professionals are expected to have KPI and OKR methods and to use them for performance assessments.

By model, academy professionals can make assessments based on situations not only limited to the listed below:

1. Do the duration of experience, completion, and success status vary according to the units of the organization?
2. Do the duration of experience, completion, and success status vary according to the title positions in the organization?
3. In the same training, do the duration of experience, completion, and success status vary according to the units and positions in the organization?
4. Are there similarities or differences in the results according to the units and positions in the same exam?
5. What is the number of employees who did not reach the targets in KPI and OKR results despite receiving the relevant trainings?
6. Do the duration of experience, completion, success and exam results vary according to the duration of professional experience of the employee?
7. Is there a positive relationship between the total experience time spent at the E-Learning Academy and achievement of KPI and OKR targets?
8. Do employees who achieve KPI and OKR targets have training experiences different from the planned training?

In addition to these situations, if the academy prefers, it can make the evaluation more alternative and detailed by adding the parameters it chooses to analyze to the model according to the data received and its own KPI and OKR targets. The reason for providing this flexibility to the model is to ensure that the model is open to updating according to changing targets and evaluation needs in the future.

In the next study, the model will be applied in the corporate academy; then the results will be tested and reviewed. In the test and review process, comments and assessments of academy professionals about the model will be collected. All outputs of the model application will be used to improve the model and to eliminate deficiencies of the model, if any.

In another study, the model will be applied in the corporate academies from different sectors. All processes will be conducted the same as previous study. Additionally, the model

will be tested by each sector's own conditions and expectations, and results will be analyzed for the model's flexibility. Necessary improvement topics can be determined if needed.

In the near future, with the transformation of the systems used in e-learning academies into LXP (Learning Experiment Platform), artificial intelligence algorithms that can track employees and the parameters of these algorithms can be expected to be added to the analysis and evaluations in the model. Artificial intelligence algorithms can also suggest to academy professionals which parameters can be added to the model by analyzing personnel data which user data can be related to which KPI and OKR. In addition to this development, artificial intelligence may provide alternative dashboard presentations for the model to the academy.

Author Contributions

This study is established based on the PhD thesis of the first author. The second author is the supervisor of the dissertation. Both authors have contributed to the study equally.

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TÜRKÇE GENİŞ ÖZET

E-Öğrenme Akademilerine Yönelik E-Öğrenme Başarı Değerlendirme Model Önerisi

Giriş

Docebo'nun (2020) raporuna göre e-öğrenme pazarı, 2023 yılına kadar 286 milyar ABD dolarına ve özellikle kurumsal e-öğrenmede 100 milyar ABD dolara ulaşması beklenmektedir. E-öğrenmedeki büyümeyle birlikte insan kaynakları ve eğitim akademi birimlerinde değişmesi gereken beklentiler ve konular bulunmaktadır. Çoğu İK profesyoneli, yeni çalışanları işe almak yerine mevcut çalışanların beceri ve kapasitelerini geliştirmenin çok önemli olduğuna inanmaktadır (Brandon Hall, 2019). Bu değerlendirmeye göre akademi birimleri çalışanlara kişisel gelişim eğitimleri sunmaya, mevcut çalışanların beceri eksikliklerini belirlemeye, yetenek geliştirmeye ve gelişimin iş performansı üzerindeki etkisini raporlamaya öncelik vermektedir. Ancak akademiler mevcut sistem ve çözümleri değerlendirdiklerinde raporlama ve analiz özelliklerinin yetersiz olduğunu da belirtmektedir. Akademi profesyonelleri, e-öğrenme akademilerinin teknoloji ve içerik geliştirmeye odaklanmasını gerekli bulmaktadır. E-öğrenme akademilerindeki öğrenme yönetim sistemleri (LMS), yönetim yerine "deneyime" öncelik vererek öğrenme deneyimi sistemlerine (LXP) dönüşmeye başlamıştır. Bu sistemlerin geliştirilmesindeki öncelikler; kullanıcı merkezli öğrenme, yetenek yönetimi, iş akışında öğrenme, informal öğrenme, koçluk ve mentorluk süreçleri ve diğer sistemlerle entegrasyon olarak sıralanmaktadır.

Pandemi dönemi ve sonrası beklenen bu değişiklikleri hızlandırmaktadır. COVID-19 etkileri, Dünya Ekonomik Forumu (2020) tarafından yayınlanan Future of Jobs raporunda da değerlendirilmektedir. Raporda, kurumsal şirketlerin yarısı yetenek gelişimi için dijitalleşmeyi hızlandırmayı hedeflerken yalnızca küçük bir kısmı kalıcı personel azaltımı planlamaktadır. Şirketler, üretkenliği artırmak için çalışanlarını elde tutmaya ve becerilerini geliştirmeye çalışmaktadır. E-öğrenme akademilerinin etkililiği, çalışanların üretkenliğini ve becerilerini geliştirmek hedefinde incelenmektedir (Warner, 2019). E-öğrenme akademilerindeki etkinliğin değerlendirilmesinde zorluklar vardır. Çünkü farklı şirketlerin farklı hedefleri ve öncelikleri bulunmaktadır. Etkililiği ölçmek için genellikle çalışan bağlılığı, kişisel performans ve yönetici değerlendirmeleri kullanılmaktadır (Brandon Hall, 2019). Çoğu şirketin aksine gelir artışı ve pazar etkileri nadiren kullanılır. Bununla birlikte öğrenme etkisini ve etkililiğini ölçmek çoğunluk için sorun teşkil etmektedir (Drozdova & Guseva, 2017). Sorunu çözmek için çeşitli yaklaşımlar, modeller ve yöntemler önerilmektedir.

Alanyazın taraması yapıldığında farklı yöntem, yaklaşım ve modellerin incelendiği görülmektedir. Bunlardan bir kısmı mevcut kurumsal e-öğrenme akademilerinde kullanılmaktadır. Kullanılan yaklaşım, yöntem ve modeller içerisinde en çok kullanılan ve incelenenler arasında bir seçim yapılmış ve bu çalışmada önerilen model içerisinde kullanılması değerlendirilmiştir. Kirkpatrick modelinde kurumsal bir akademide verilen eğitimlerin davranış olarak etkili olup olmadığını incelemektedir. Bunun için dört aşamalı bir uygulama süreci vardır. Sürecin sonunda etkililiğini görme ve geliştirme için çıktılar alınabilmektedir. Kurumsal karne metodu akademilerin şirketlerin kurumsal stratejilerinde yer alan öğrenme ve gelişim boyutunda belirlenen hedeflere göre faaliyetler yürütmesini ve bu hedeflerin şirketin tüm birimlerince takip edilmesine yardımcı olmaktadır. Bu hedeflerin iş birimleri seviyesinde ve bireysel seviyede ölçülebilir ve raporlanabilir şekilde yönetilmesi için KPI ve OKR performans ölçümleri kullanılmaktadır. Tüm bu metot ve yöntemleri bir arada kullanmak için sistem yaklaşımından faydalanılmaktadır. Sistem yaklaşımı, dinamik bir şekilde hazırlanan ve tüm bileşenler arasındaki ilişkinin belirlendiği bir yapının daha etkili olacağını önermektedir. Bu çalışmada önerilen model, farklı yöntem ve metotların bir araya getirilmesi ve değişen ihtiyaçlara göre güncellenebilen bir dinamik yapıda bir çözüm önermeyi amaçlamaktadır.

Yöntem

Çalışmada belirtilen soruyu cevaplandırmak için sistematik bir literatür taraması ve model oluşturma yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Literatür taraması, "mevcut kayıtlı çalışmaların tanımlanması, değerlendirilmesi ve yorumlanması için sistematik, açık ve tekrarlanabilir bir yöntem" olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Fink, 1998). Model oluşturma ile literatür taramasının hangi sonuçlarının ve mevcut verilerin modele dahil edilebileceğine karar verilmektedir.

Bulgular

Örnek hesaplama tablosu şirketlerde uygulanabilir bir çalışmadır ve kolay uygulanabilir olması için MS Excel formatında hazırlanması tercih edilmiştir. Farklı uygulamalar kullanılabilir olsa da ek çalışmalara ihtiyaç olacaktır. Tablo her çalışan için ayrı ayrı uygulanabilir ve dashboard arayüz tasarımında birleştirilebilir. Dashboard arayüzü genel değerlendirme ve karşılaştırma yapmak için kullanılabilmektedir (Vozniuk et. al., 2013).

Modelde Excel'deki dashboard tablosunun kullanılması akademi profesyonellerinin tercihlerine ve önceliklerine göre farklı arayüzler hazırlamalarına imkan oluşturmaktadır. Tüm pozisyon, unvan, bölüm ve varsa alt şirket bazında değerlendirme ve karşılaştırma yapma imkanıyla akademi profesyonelleri yetenek gelişim seviyelerini, bu seviyelere göre öğrenme ve gelişim ihtiyaçlarını değerlendirebilecektir. Değerlendirme sürecinde şirket tanımlı Balanced Scorecard, KPI ve OKR'de gözden geçirebilecektir.

Tartışma, Sonuç ve Öneriler

Şirketler çalışanların öğrenme ve gelişimlerini takip etmek, yönetmek ve daha ileri seviyeye taşımak istemektedir ve bunun için e-öğrenme akademisi yatırımları yapmaktadır. Bu yatırımın sonucunda eğitimlerin işe katkısını ve etkisini ölçmek ve değerlendirme amacını da taşımaktadır. Şirketler, e-öğrenme akademisindeki verileri kullanarak kendi strateji ve hedefleriyle beraber bu ölçme ve değerlendirmeyi yapabilmeleri için bir model önerisine

ihtiyaçları vardır. Bu çalışmada önerilen model, bu ihtiyacı karşılamak için eldeki veriler ve şirketin kullanmakta olduğu yöntem ve uygulamaları esnek bir şekilde kullanabilmesi, ölçebilmesi ve değerlendirme yapabilmesini amaçlamaktadır.

Modelde önerilen yöntem ve hesaplamalara ek olarak şirketteki akademi profesyonelleri analiz etmek istedikleri hedef ve strateji parametrelerini modele ekleyebilmekte ve ek değerlendirmeler de yapabilmektedir. Bu esneklik sayesinde sektör, strateji, yöntem ve şirket yapısından bağımsız analizler yapılabilmesi sağlanmaktadır.

Bir sonraki çalışmada model kurumsal akademide uygulanacak, ardından sonuçlar test edilecek ve gözden geçirilecektir. Test ve gözden geçirme sürecinde akademi profesyonellerinin modele ilişkin yorum ve değerlendirmeleri toplanacaktır. Model uygulamasının tüm çıktıları modelin geliştirilmesi ve varsa eksikliklerinin giderilmesi için kullanılacaktır.

Başka bir çalışmada model farklı sektörlerden kurumsal akademilerde uygulanacaktır. Tüm süreçler bir önceki çalışma ile aynı şekilde yürütülecektir. Ayrıca model her sektörün kendi koşulları ve beklentileri ile test edilecek ve sonuçlar modelin esnekliği açısından analiz edilecektir. İhtiyaç duyulması halinde gerekli iyileştirme konuları belirlenebilecektir.

İlerleyen dönemde şirketlerin kullandığı sistemlerin LXP (Learning Experiment Platform) yapısına dönüşmesiyle beraber bu analiz ve değerlendirmelerde yapay zeka ve benzeri algoritmaların da kullanılması beklenebilir. Bu sayede sistemden alınan veriler daha verimli daha farklı alternatiflerde ve ilişkilerde kullanılması ayrıca analiz edilmesi de mümkün olacaktır.