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EGYPTIAN VALIDATION OF SMARTPHONE ADDICTION SCALE SHORT VERSION FOR ADOLESCENTS (SAS-SV)

Abstract: The purpose of this study is to evaluate the psychometric properties of the Egyptian translation of SAS-SV for adolescents. The SAS-SV (Kwon et al., 2013) is a 10 items with a 6-point Likert scale from 1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree. Total scores typically range from 10 – 60, with higher score indicating Problematic Smartphone Usage. Item analysis of Smartphone Addiction Scale for the participant students is shown in Table 1. The internal consistency of the scale was adequate. Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.745 to 0.893 to all items. Reliability coefficient for all the scale was high (alpha = 0.904). Content validity was confirmed by statistically significant differences between heavy and light users ($p < .001$). The use of this instrument can be used conveniently in the screening process to determine those who are likely to be labeled " Smartphone Addicted" in Egypt.

Keywords: validation, smartphone addiction scale, SAS-SV, adolescents

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INTRODUCTION

Worldwide, smartphones were used by 1.85 billion people in 2014. This number is expected to be 2.32 billion in 2017 and 2.87 billion in 2020 (Statista, 2017). Smartphone as a tool is supposed to be a source of enjoyment, pleasure and entertainment for the users, including students in their middle of adolescence. Nevertheless, it can have some negative effects on socially and academically. Academically, excessive use of smartphone is likely to distract them from doing their academic homework, lecturers and in general from their study (Ifeanyi & Chukwuere, 2018). Socially, is likely to distract them from personal engagement with peers and close friends (Tokelo & Joshua, 2018). Becoming a smartphone dependent might lead to development of certain behavioural and mental problems among adolescents. It can lead experience higher level of depression, trait anxiety and state anxiety compare to normal smartphone users (Manvin & Narina, 2018).

Problematic smartphone use might be a serious problem for many students (Taymur, 2016), as they are not paying attention to their class lecturer because they are spending too much time on texting (Lopez-Fernandez 2017; Manvin & Narina, 2018). The *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5)*, American Psychiatric Association (APA), 2013) introduced the diagnostic criteria for Internet gaming disorder and encouraged further research for listing it as a formal diagnosis. Adolescents would be more at risk of smartphone addiction as compared with adults because adolescents are yet to develop self-control in smartphone use (Alosaimi et al., 2016; Lee, Cho, Kim & Noh 2015; Seong-Soo & Bo-Kyung 2018; Young 2015).

Smartphone Addiction Scale (SAS), as indicated by Kwon, Kim, Cho & Yang (2013) is designed to identify the level of the smartphone addiction risk and to distinguish the high-risk group. For 2017, the number of smartphone users in Egypt is estimated to reach 23.6 million, and could reach almost 28 million by 2019 (statistics, 2017). Therefore, this study aims to evaluate the psychometric properties of the Egyptian translation of SAS-SV for adolescents.

METHODS

PARTICIPANTS AND PROCEDURE

The recruited participants were mainly from middle school in Baltim Educational Edra. They were in grades 1-3. Prior to administering the scales, the researcher informed students' parents with the help of social work teacher. They were given the option of accepting or refusing to allow their children's participation in the study. Students were also informed about purpose of the study. The researcher instructed them to honestly complete the scale. They were told to keep their identities anonymous on the scale paper to ensure honesty and sincerity. They also were told that their participation in the study was voluntarily and their responses were for research purposes only. A total of 223 out of 526 eligible students completed the Survey (response rate=42.39%), with 90.7% (205/226) reporting owning a smartphone.

MEASURE

The SAS-SV (Kwon et al., 2013). The aim of this scale is to identify the level of the smartphone addiction risk and to distinguish the high-risk group in adolescent. It is a 10 items with a 6-point Likert scale from 1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree. Total scores typically range from 10 – 60, with higher score indicating Problematic Smartphone Usage. A native Egyptian assistant professor at department of methodology and instruction (English Language), college of education translated the English SAS-SV into Arabic with local adaptations. Backward translation was conducted by a full professor of English. Discrepancies were resolved by discussion and further modification before the instrument was finalized for use in this study.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Content validity was performed. The reliability estimates were also performed through Cronbach's alpha, using the SPSS V. 22.0 software.

FINDINGS

FINDINGS ITEM ANALYSIS AND RELIABILITY

Item analysis of Smartphone Addiction Scale for the participant students is shown in Table 1. The

internal consistency of the scale was adequate. Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.745 to 0.893 to all items. Reliability coefficient for all the scale was high ($\alpha = 0.904$).

Table 1. Item analysis of smartphone addiction scale for the participant students

Scale Mean= 36.071 Sample(N=223) Inter-Item Correlations= 0.517 $\alpha = 0.904$ SD= 6.501				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
1	3.197	0.732	0.701	0.745
2	3.735	0.868	0.812	0.885
3	3.533	0.889	0.700	0.893
4	3.591	0.953	0.788	0.886
5	3.569	0.812	0.772	0.888
6	3.726	0.940	0.807	0.885
7	3.596	0.781	0.753	0.890
8	3.748	0.810	0.833	0.885
9	3.605	0.780	0.729	0.891
10	3.766	0.919	0.773	0.887

VALIDITY

Content validity was confirmed by statistically significant differences between heavy and light users ($p < .001$).

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to test the validity of the Smartphone Addiction scale (Kwon et al., 2013) in a sample of adolescents from middle school in Baltim Educational Edara. The internal consistency of the scale was adequate. Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.745 to 0.893 to all items. Reliability coefficient for all the scale was high ($\alpha = 0.904$). This scale can be a useful tool for determining those who are likely to be labeled "Smartphone Addicted" in Egypt. Adolescents use the internet extensively (Valkenburg, Schouten, & Peter, 2005). As a result, they may postpone or not to carry out their duties and responsibilities related to school (Yasin& Mustafa, 2018). They may have problem with academic performance (Serkan& Ece, 2018). The use of this instrument can be used

conveniently in the screening process to determine those who are likely to be labelled " Smartphone Addicted" in Egypt.

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We'd like thank the sample of adolescents from middle school in Baltim Educational Edara for their willingness to participate.

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CHILDHOOD-ONSET FLUENCY DISORDER (STUTTERING): AN INTERRUPTION IN THE FLOW OF SPEAKING

Abstract: The Childhood-Onset Fluency Disorder (stuttering) reflects a marked impairment in speech fluency that is not attributable to stroke or another medical condition, and developmental or mental disorder (Birstein. 2015). This article examines Childhood-Onset Fluency Disorder (Stuttering): An interruption in the flow of speaking. The focus is on the Diagnostic Criteria in DSM-5 Diagnostic Criteria, Diagnostic Features, Prevalence and Risk Factors are discussed.

Keywords: Childhood-Onset Fluency Disorder, stuttering, interruption, DSM-5 diagnostic criteria, flow of speaking

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INTRODUCTION

Stuttering is a multifactorial disorder in which genetic, neurophysiological, psychological and environmental factors have an influence (Sadock, Pedro & Sadock, 2015). There is evidence that stuttering is more common in children who also have concurrent speech, language, learning or motor difficulties (Ward, 2006).

Although the etiology of stuttering is not fully understood, there is strong evidence to suggest that it emerges from a combination of con situational and environmental factors. Geneticists have found indications that a susceptibility to stuttering may be inherited and that it is most likely to occur in boys (Barry & Edward, 2007).

DEFINITION

Developmental stuttering is a disorder that disrupts speech fluency (Kraft, , Lowther and Beilby, 2019). It is a speech event and a disorder (Yairi & Seery, 2015). Childhood-Onset Fluency Disorder (Stuttering) is a condition characterized by disturbances in the normal fluency and time patterning of speech that are inappropriate for the individual's age and language skills, and persist over time (American Psychiatric Association, 2013; Birstein. 2015).

AETIOLOGY

The aetiology of stuttering is still unknown. No single, exclusive cause of developmental stuttering is known. Psycholinguistics theories and several other theories attempt to explain causes of stuttering, but no single approach, theory, or model is able to explain all cases of stuttering (Birstein. 2015). Research found that stuttering appears to be a disorder that has high heritability and little shared environment effect in early childhood. In stuttering, both early recovery and persistence are heritable (Birstein. 2015).

DIAGNOSTIC CRITERIA IN DSM-5

To be diagnosed with childhood-onset fluency disorder, a person needs to fulfil the following criteria (American Psychiatric Association 2013):

A. Disturbances in the normal fluency and time patterning of speech that are inappropriate for the individual's age and language skills, persist over time, and are characterized by frequent and marked occurrences of one (or more) of the following:

1. Sound and syllable repetitions.
2. Sound prolongations of consonants as well as vowels.
3. Broken words (e.g., pauses within a word).
4. Audible or silent blocking (filled or unfilled pauses in speech).
5. Circumlocutions (word substitutions to avoid problematic words).
6. Words produced with an excess of physical tension.
7. Monosyllabic whole-word repetitions (e.g., "I-I-I see him").

B. The disturbance causes anxiety about speaking or limitations in effective communication, social participation, or academic or occupational performance, individually or in any combination.

C. The onset of symptoms is in the early developmental period.

D. The disturbance is not attributable to a speech-motor or sensory deficit, dysfluency associated with neurological insult (e.g., stroke, tumour, trauma), or another medical condition and is not better explained by another mental disorder.

DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES

The essential feature of childhood-onset fluency disorder (stuttering) is a disturbance in the normal fluency. This disturbance is characterized by frequent repetitions or prolongations of sounds or syllables and by other types of speech dysfluencies, including broken words (e.g., pauses within a word), audible or silent block (i.e., filled or unfilled pauses in speech), circumlocutions (i.e., word substitutions to avoid problematic words), words produced with an excess of physical tension, and monosyllabic whole-word repetitions (e.g., "T-I-I-I see him") (American Psychiatric Association, 2013, P. 47).

COURSE

Developmental stuttering usually starts at the age of 2–6 years, and exhibit an overt speech profile that includes repetitions, sound distortions, and/or blocking (Kraft, et al., 2019). Persons who stutter

recover spontaneously in 70–80% of cases. (Katrin et al., 2017). The onset can be insidious or more sudden. Typically, dysfluencies start gradually, with repetition of initial consonants, first words of a phrase, or long words. (American Psychiatric Association 2013). Approximately 5% of preschool children are affected, but by the end of junior high school this percentage drops to 1% and remains at this level throughout life (Birstein. 2015).

PREVALENCE AND RISK FACTORS

About 5% of all children go through a period of stuttering that lasts six months or more. Three-quarters of those who begin to stutter will recover by late childhood, leaving about 1% of the population with a long-term problem (Barry & Edward, 2007). Risk factors for persistent stuttering include male sex, familial stuttering (especially persistent familial stuttering), onset of the dysfluencies more than 6–12 months ago, age at onset of stuttering >3–4 years, no reduction in stuttering severity within the initial 7–12 months (Katrin et al., 2017)

STUTTERING TREATMENT

There are two methods used for stuttering treatment (Gluck, 2014).

- *Indirect treatment* – this method seeks to teach parents how to provide a relaxing environment so that the child's speech improves on its own. The therapist will encourage parents to exhibit positive speech modelling and to support their child by patiently listening until he gets the entire thought out without trying to finish his sentence or having another negative reaction.
- *Direct treatment* – this method involves face-to-face therapy sessions between the child and the speech pathologist. The therapist will teach the child to slowly form sounds and words, to speak slowly, and to relax even when struggling to speak. The child will learn how to refrain from the physical symptoms of stuttering like eye blinking and head jerks.

CONCLUSION

Stuttering is a speech disorder in which the flow of speech is disrupted by involuntary repetitions and prolongations of sounds, syllables, words or phrases as well as involuntary silent pauses or blocks in which the person who stutters is unable to produce sounds. No single, exclusive cause of developmental stuttering is known. Research found that stuttering appears to be a disorder that has high heritability and little shared environment effect in early childhood. In stuttering, both early recovery and persistence are heritable. Indirect treatment seeks to teach parents how to provide a relaxing environment so that the child's speech improves on its own. While direct treatment involves face-to-face therapy sessions between the child and the speech pathologist. Stuttering is most amenable to treatment during the preschool years when neuronal plasticity is greatest.

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TEACHERS' VIEWS ON CHARACTER/VALUES EDUCATION IN SCHOOLS

Abstract: The purpose of this study is to depict the character /values education in schools through teacher views. This study is mainly based on a descriptive survey model. Quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques were used together in the study. The study group of the study is two public secondary schools in Aydın Province and two public secondary schools in İzmir, in Turkey. A questionnaire was applied to 66 teachers who wanted to participate in the research and semi-structured interviews were conducted with 23 teachers. The percentages, frequencies and averages of the quantitative data were calculated. Qualitative data were analyzed through content analysis. According to the results of the research; the meanings of character/values education are moral development, social benefit, honesty, personality development, love-respect for teachers. The influence of the family is higher than the other factors (media, peer, school and teacher) on character /values education. Family communication is the most effective factor in the family features on the development of character/values. In the media features, the purpose of using the internet and the type of TV programme have the highest effects on the development of the character/values. Educational factors such as the quality of teachers, profession-love, and openness to improvement are the most influential factors on character/values education. Lessons' effects on character/values education such as Religious Culture and Moral Knowledge, Guidance and Career Planning, Social Studies and Turkish are higher than the other lessons. The achievements related to the character/values education have not been sufficiently achieved. Many values have not been realized in schools although they seem very important.

Keywords: values, education, character education, teachers' views

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INTRODUCTION

The character of the individual consists of a combination of unique characteristics and value judgments of the environment (Gündoğdu, 2010). The virtues such as benevolence, honesty and courage are accepted as a character trait, and characterization is used for the character and the person who possesses these virtues (Hökelekli, 2011). The character of the individual consists of three parts: physical, mental, cognitive and moral. Since these elements come together, the individual's character begins to be shaped and the individual should be educated at a very early age (Uysal, 2008).

According to Bakioğlu and Silay (2011), character education states that values such as honesty, fairness, responsibility, respect for themselves and others, being a good citizen should be adopted by the society. Character education tries to develop these values by revealing these values that exist in the nature of the person. What is essential in character education is the ability to convert morally appropriate behaviors into habits (Orhan, 2013). The place where the individual's education can take place first and foremost is the family. The attitudes and behaviors of the family towards the child are of great importance for the healthy development of the child (Gökçek, 2007). It is very important in the character education of the individual that the education that the individual receives from the family and the education they receive from the school support each other by providing effective cooperation with the family (Erdem, 2005).

Character education is to deliberately shape all aspects of school life in order to develop positive character in an individual (Avcı, 2011). Ryan (1993) argues that schools should play a leading role in helping students find good and righteousness and develop their character. In the Turkish Education System, in the National Education Basic Law No. 1739, considering the virtues such as self-confidence, sociality, patience, tolerance, love, peace, benevolence, honesty, honesty, justice, patriotism, protection and development of cultural values, democracy and self-respect. these virtues. When the content of the Basic Law of National Education No. 1739 is

examined, it is seen that it reflects the characteristics of character education (Orhan, 2013). Adopting, protecting and developing the national, moral, human, spiritual and cultural values of the Turkish nation; family, homeland, loving the nation and always trying to glorify, and so on. The task of training generations is given to schools and educational activities in schools, teaching programs, textbooks are prepared taking these items into consideration (Koç, 2013). Modeling and teacher behavior have an important role in character education. Therefore, when teachers consider their modeling behaviors such as responsibility, integrity, honesty, courtesy, patriotism etc. can create effective character training with students (Gökçek, 2007).

According to Lickona (1997), the teacher should approach his students with love and respect for effective character education, create a positive classroom climate, include moral problems in everyday life and ensure that they are discussed freely and fairly in the classroom. The teacher should create a positive and democratic classroom environment. In character education, not only family and educational institutions play an active role. Peer groups also play an important role in the development of the child's personality (Kılınç, 2011). While children are oriented towards families in primary school ages, they later turn to peer groups. The effects of this group are often above the influence of parents and teachers (Gündoğdu, 2010). Peer groups have the power to influence young people positively and negatively in the development of personalities outside the school, in the choice of profession, in school selection, in cigarette, alcohol, drug use, and towards illegal behaviors and therefore the effect on character education is very important (Torun, 2007). . Mass media has destroyed the national borders with the technology they have, causing the social and cultural features of the countries to interact (Taylan and Arklan, 2008).

In terms of value definitions, the most frequently emphasized concepts, beliefs and tendencies, normative standards and objectives are related to values (Mehmedoğlu, 2006). Value is the belief that something is desirable or undesirable (Güngör, 1993). Basaran (1995) defines the value as the quality and quantity that determines the

importance of an object, process, idea and / or action in the organization and states that they are used as a tool in the evaluation of the object, process, idea and / or action. The concept of values education constitutes the basis of the learning in the affective field. In his research on Bloom's complete learning theory, he emphasizes that affective qualities play an important role in the success and influence of individuals (Bloom, 1998). Different contents from ethics to aesthetics, sexuality education and health education can be made subject to education under this name (Kaymakcan and Meydan, 2012). Values education; to reveal the values that exist in the students and to develop them, to introduce the values that the school deems important (Yiğittir, 2009). Values education has two purposes in order to ensure that individuals are happy by living a characterful life and to ensure that the peace and happiness of the individual is reflected in society (Uysal, 2008).

Educational institutions should be involved in the creation of values as part of social life, not only where values are lived, but also places where values are created. Educators state that it is necessary to give importance to values education, which is the common point on which society unites, while preparing the education programs (Bakioğlu & Silay, 2011). In addition to being emphasized in educational programs, values are also included in the learning environment created by the teachers in the classroom, the implementation of activities as well as their attitudes and behaviors towards students (Veugelers and De Kat, 2003). The school environment and in-school interaction areas provide a socializing environment for values. The perception of value is expected to have a significant effect on teachers' view of life, the methods they prefer in teaching values and their attitudes towards the profession (Balcı and Yanpar Yelken, 2010).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to describe the current situation of character/values education that takes place in schools through teacher views. Sub-problems to be answered for this purpose are as follows:

1. What do character/values mean education?
2. What is effective in character/values education of students?
3. To what extent does character/values education take place at school?

METHOD

This study is a descriptive study designed according to the screening model. Survey models are mainly quantitative research approaches that aim to describe a past or present situation as it exists (Karasar, 2012). Survey can be defined as a research material consisting of a series of questions aimed at describing people's living conditions, behaviors, beliefs or attitudes (Thomas, 1998 cited in Büyüköztürk, Kılıç-Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz and Demirel, 2013). Qualitative research methods were also utilized in the study. A descriptive researcher made questionnaire and semi-structured interview forms were used to collect data. Interview is a communication process based on a predetermined and serious objective, based on interaction with the other person asking questions (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2008).

SAMPLING

In this research, 66 teachers working in two secondary schools in Aydın and two secondary schools in İzmir provinces were surveyed. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 23 teachers. The personal information of the teachers participating in the survey is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Personal Information of Teachers Participated to the Survey					
Gender	f	%	Branch	f	%
Female	43	65	Turkish Language	14	21
Male	23	35	Science & Technology	12	18
Total	66	100	Mathematics	10	15
Experience	f	%	English	f	%
21 years and over	4	6	Religious Culture & Ethics	6	9
16-20 years	17	26	Religious Culture & Ethics	4	6
11-15 years	17	26	Physical education	4	6
6-10 years	21	32	Visual Arts	2	3
0-5 years	7	10	Guidance & Career Planning	2	3
Total	66	100	Music	2	3
Age	f	%	Technology & Design	f	%
51 age and over	3	5	Informatics	1	2
41 - 50 ages	19	29			
31 - 40 ages	30	45			
20 - 30 ages	14	21			
Total	66	100	Total	66	100

When Table 1 is examined, it is seen that 43 (65%) of the teachers who answered the questionnaire were female and 23 (35%) were male. 7 (10%) seniority of 0-5 years, 21 (32%) seniority of 6-10 years, 17 (26%) seniority of 11-15 years, seniority of 16-20 years 17 (26%) and 4 (6%) teachers participated in the study. The age ranges of the teachers were 14 (21%) for 20-30 years, 30 (45%) for 31-40 years, 19 (29%) for 41-50 years and 3 (5%) for 51 years and older. shows. When the branches of the teachers participating in the study

were examined, 14 (21%) teachers were in Turkish, 12 (18%) teachers were Science and Technology, 10 (15%) teachers were Mathematics, 7 (11%) teachers were English, 6 (9%) teachers were Social Studies, 4 (6%) Teacher's Religious Culture, 4 (6%) Teacher's Physical Education, 2 (3%) Teacher's Visual Arts, 2 (3%) Guidance and Career Planning, 2 (3%) Teacher's Music, 2 (3%) Teacher's Technology and Design, 1 (2%) teachers are IT teachers. The personal information of the interviewed teachers is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Personal Information of Teachers Participated to the Interviews					
Gender	f	%	Branch	f	%
Female	14	65	Turkish Language	3	13
Male	9	35	Science & Technology	3	13
Total	23	100	Mathematics	3	13
Experience	f	%	Religious Culture & Ethics	f	%
21 years and over	2	9	Social Studies	2	9
16-20 years	7	30	Physical education	2	9
11-15 years	5	22	Visual Arts	2	9
6-10 years	7	30	Guidance & Career Planning	2	9
0-5 years	2	9	Technology & Design	1	4
			Music	1	4
			Arabic	1	4
Total	23	100	Total	23	100

When Table 2 is examined, it is seen that 14 (65%) of the interviewed teachers were female and 9 (35%) were male. According to the seniority of the teachers, 2 (9%) teachers are between 0-5 years, 7 (30%) teachers are between 6-10 years, 5 (22%) are between 11-15 years, 7 (30%) teachers are

between 16-20 years, 2 (9%) teachers have seniority of 21 years or more. 4 (17%) of the teachers were Turkish, 3 (13%) Science and Technology, 3 (13%) Mathematics, 3 (13%) Religious Culture, 2 (9%) Social Studies, 2 (9%) Physical Education, 2 (9%) Visual Arts, 2 (9%) Guidance and Career Planning, 1 (4%) Technology Design and 1 (4%) Music branches.

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

Quantitative data were collected through the questionnaire of character/values education. Qualitative data were collected through semi-structured interviews. In the interview form, the questions were prepared by the researcher in accordance with the purpose of the study together with the literature review. The draft form was finalized in consultation with field experts.

Interviews were held with teachers who volunteered in a selected secondary school in the teachers' room, considering accessibility and volunteering. First, permission was obtained from the school administration for interviews and questionnaires and the subject of the research was introduced to the teachers. Conversations, each lasting approximately 20 minutes, were recorded with the voice recorder. Percentage, frequency and average of the data obtained from the survey were calculated. The qualitative data obtained in the research were analysed through content analysis.

RESULTS

MEANING OF CHARACTER/VALUES EDUCATION

Table 3 presents the findings of the teachers' responses to what character/values education means.

Table 3. Findings related to the meaning of character/values education		
Categories	f	%
Moral development	9	18,4
Social benefit	7	14,3
Honesty	6	12,2
Personality development	5	10,2
Love respect	5	10,2
Helpfulness	4	8,1
the Hoşgr	3	6,1
Responsibility	2	4,1
Diligence	2	4,1
Empathy	2	4,1
Formality studies	1	2,05
Genetic	1	2,05
Stability	1	2,05
self-confidence	1	2,05
Total	49	100

When Table 3 is examined, it is stated that 9 (18.4%) teachers gave moral development response regarding what character/values education means, 7 (14.3%) stated that teachers provided social benefit, 6 (12.2%) teachers' honesty, 5 (10.2%) teacher personality development, 5 (10.2%) teacher love-respect, 4 (8.1%) teacher helpfulness, 3 (6.1%) tolerance, 2 (4.1%) teacher responsibility, 2 (4.1%) teachers worked hard, 2 (4.1%) teachers empathy, one (2.05%) teachers formality, 7 (35%) of the interviews with teachers will provide moral

development of values education, 4 teachers students' personality development (20%).

Similar findings emerged during interviews with teachers. Teachers' responses to what character/values education means are monthly plans, personal development of children, social and spiritual development. The teachers stated that they do monthly studies and they take a value to the centre every month and do studies about it.

WHAT FACTORS AFFECT CHARACTER EDUCATION?

The findings of the teachers' responses to the order of importance (most important 1, not important at

all 4) of the factors affecting the character/values education are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Findings Regarding the Importance of Factors Affecting Character/values Education	
Factors	Ranking
Family	1,57
Peers	2,84
School	3,11
Media	3,14

When table 4. is examined, it is seen that the teachers are in the first place with 1.57 average in the ranking of the factors that are effective in character/values education. The factors that are effective in character/values education are followed by peers ($X=2.84$), school ($X=3.11$) and media ($X=3.14$), respectively. Similar findings emerged during interviews with teachers. The teachers stated the factors that affect character/values education as family, peer, school and lessons and media. The family has been identified as the most important factor by most teachers. The statements of some of the teachers regarding the factors affecting the character/values education are as follows:

T9: "The first place where values education is given is family. Generally, families do not give their education on this issue and behave irrelevant. The biggest administrative and conscientious responsibility after the family falls to us educators. This deficiency of the family exponentially returns to teachers as a more intensive burden. Unfortunately, the lack of behaviours that need to be gained at critical time also appears here. "

T4: "In my opinion, the family takes the first place. If the family, school and environment are all collaborative students, the student is affected. "

T6: "Character is the point where the behaviour meets, taken from the family. I think it's genetic. We can correct this with school education. "

T1: "Values education means moral education for me. The importance of the family becomes more apparent when we place the moral values in the middle. I think character education ends at the end of adolescence. What is done after that age is futile. What I observe at school is that the children who receive correct family upbringing are quite characterful. "

T12: "I think the family is number one as usual, but in recent years media and especially social media have been influential on character. Unfortunately, it is almost impossible for most children to avoid these effects. "

Table 5 presents the findings of teachers' responses to the order of importance (most important 1, least important 9) of family characteristics affecting character/values education.

Table 5. Findings Regarding the Importance of Family Characteristics Affecting Character/values Education	
Characteristics	Ranking
Family communication	3,22
Parent-child relationship	3,45
Education level	4,07
Beliefs and values	4,59
Socio-economic level	5,39
Living with parents only	5,61
Becoming an extended family	6,58
Settlement (place)	6,90
Close communication with relatives	7,06

When the Table 5 is examined, it is seen that the teachers have the highest opinion that family communication is the most effective factor in

character/values education with a mean of 3.22. Parents' association with 3.45 average, education level with 4.07 average, beliefs and values with

4.59 average, socio-economic level with 5.39 average, being nuclear family with 5.61 average, being large family with 6.58 average, respectively.

Is followed by settlement with an average of 6.90 and last relative communication with 7.06.

Similar findings emerged during interviews with teachers. The teachers stated that the family plays a big role in character/values education and especially the communication within the family is effective. The expressions of some of the teachers regarding the family traits that affect character/values education are as follows:

T5: The main determinant of the maturation of children's character is impressive and most importantly, the family. The main factors such as the education, social, cultural and economic structure of the family have a positive or negative effect on the character of the child. "

T11: orum I think the family is very effective in character education. The environment in which the

child lives, the socio-economic level of the family and the democratic environment in the family are very important. Besides, the education level and belief of the family plays an important role. "

T19: "The family should be educated and the environment in which the family lives and their relations with each other play an important role.

T4: "I do not think that the level of education is very effective in character education. I know many excellent families whose family values are significant but have low educational levels. "

Table 6. presents the findings of teachers' responses to the order of importance (most important 1, least important 7) of media factors affecting character/values education.

Table 6. Findings Regarding the Importance of Media Factors Affecting Character/values Education	
Factors	Ranking
Purpose of Internet use	2,77
TV shows	2,98
Spending time with TV	3,95
Spending time on internet	4,09
Followed magazine / newspaper	4,36
Quality of magazine / newspaper	4,60
Critical media literacy	5,42

When table 6. is examined, it is seen that teachers are of the opinion that the purpose of internet use is most effective with 2.77 average among the media factors in character/values education. This is followed by television programs with 2.98 average, 3.95 average television viewing time, 4.09 average time spent on the Internet, 4.36 average magazine-newspaper follow-up, 4.60 average followed by the quality of the magazine-newspaper average and 5.42 average last critical media literacy.

Similar findings emerged during interviews with teachers. Teachers stated that media plays a role in character/values education and especially the purpose of using the internet is effective. The statements of some of the teachers regarding the media factors affecting character/values education are as follows:

T6: I don't think there will be a factor affecting character education more than the series. I think that as the artistic quality of the series increases,

the power of influence will increase. We read that there is a serious value debate in the Arab world for the popularity of Turkish TV series in the Arab market."

T21: gibi It seems like it overtook the effect of internet TV on people. Now, more than a TV addiction focuses on internet addiction. Especially social media is the backbone of the internet. Maybe the next generation has already shaped Facebook."

T5: "The media, TV and the internet are unwittingly transmitting messages to the subconscious of children."

T16: I think TV series are very poor quality and the media should focus on more educational issues. I can say that the issues discussed in the series are very contrary to our values and create a deformation in children. I think that such publications should be limited. "

T22: Unfortunately, since the media and the internet, which is now the abandonment of our age, are used unconsciously, they have a negative impact on the majority of our youth.

Table 7 presents the findings of the teachers' responses to the order of importance (most important 1, least important 17) of school-related factors affecting character/values education.

When Table 7 is examined, it is seen that teachers have the highest opinion that the quality of teachers is most effective with a mean of 4.93 among the characteristics of schools / teachers affecting character/values education. In this respect,

teacher's love of work ($X=5,11$), openness to development ($X=5,70$), individual differences of students ($X=5,82$), children's self-expression environment ($X=6,35$), education given in school ($X=7,44$), the environment of the school ($X=8,17$), the opportunities the school has ($X=8,67$), the teacher's in-service training ($X=9,10$), the economic level of the teacher and the course provided by the school extracurricular activities ($X=9,87$), qualifications of the school administrator ($X=10,01$), the school's infrastructure for sporting activities ($X=10,64$), library and research facilities ($X=11,38$), the school's private school ($X=11,87$), the school is a public school ($X=12,20$), elective course diversity ($X=13,55$).

Table 7.
Findings Regarding the Importance of School / Teacher Characteristics Affecting Character/values Education

Characteristics	Ranking
Teacher quality	4,93
Teacher's love of work	5,11
Openness of teacher to development	5,70
Individual difference of students	5,82
Children's self-expression environment	6,35
Education at school	7,44
School environment	8,17
School facilities	8,67
In-service training received by the teacher	9,10
The economic level of the teacher	9,87
Extracurricular activities provided by the school	9,87
Qualities of the school administrator	10,01
Infrastructure of the school for sports activities	10,64
School library and research facilities	11,38
Being a private school	11,87
Being a public school	12,20
Diversity of elective courses of the school	13,55

Similar findings emerged during interviews with teachers. It is often stated that teachers have an impact on character education. Particular emphasis was given to the role model of teachers. Some of the teachers' statements regarding school/teacher factors affecting character/values education are as follows:

T17: "The teacher is always a role model. The effect on the student is very high. Our behaviour does not escape the attention of the students.

"T20: As we are in constant communication with students throughout the day, we are setting an example (good / bad). Both our character and the way we talk, even our clothes. "

T8: We have great influence. But we cannot give what we want to give because we expect a teaching-

oriented exam success. Education is neglected. The teacher should be a role model, with all kinds of behaviour."

T3: I think we have a great influence on students because of the conditions we are in. We will be able to touch their lives more if the activities are increased while we are at school. We need to share more with the students outside the classes. "

T12: The most important variable after family is the quality of teachers. Loving teachers who do their job well can influence the character of the students. Especially the attitudes of the classroom teachers are quite high in shaping the character of the students compared to the field teachers. We can understand this very easily from the general structure of the students coming to us.

The findings of the teachers' responses to the importance of the courses in character/values education are presented in Table 8.

Table 8. Findings on the Importance of Courses in Character/values Education		
Views	f	%
Important	34	53,9
Partially important	22	34,9
Not important	7	11,1
Total	63	100

When Table 8 is examined, it is seen that 34 (53.9%) teachers stated that the courses were important in character/values education, 22 (34.9%) teachers were partially effective and 7 (11.1%) teachers stated that they were not effective.

Similar findings were obtained during interviews with teachers. While some of the teachers stated that the lessons were important in character/values education, some did not find the lessons effective.

The statements of some teachers are as follows:

T6: Lessons are not important because education is extracurricular. "

T1: Every course has a benefit. But some lessons are more effective. Especially in the subject of Religious Culture and Ethics. Turkish, Visual Arts, Physical Education, Music, Social Studies.

T5: I think that all the lessons taught in the school contribute to character and values education.

Social studies, Turkish, Mathematics, Technology and Design, Visual Arts, Music, Physical Education, Religious Culture and Moral Knowledge. When the specific structure of each course is examined, it is seen that the values pass. In some courses, TEOG focuses on teaching anxiety about raising gains. Yetiştirme

T15: I think that the lessons given in the school do not contribute sufficiently to character education. The prerequisite for values education is to provide an environment for the child to use his or her free will. These values cannot be applied sufficiently because of the common curriculum intensity in academic anxiety. "

Table 9 presents the findings of teachers' responses to the ranking of the courses that contribute to character/values education (the most effective 1, the least effective 13).

Table 9. Ranking of Courses Contributing to Character / Values Education	
Dersler	Ranking
Religious Culture & Ethics	2,74
Guidance & Career Planning	3,01
Sosyal Bilgiler	3,76
Turkish Language	3,78
Physical education & sports	6,02
Human Rights	6,24
History of Turkish Revolution and Atatürk	6,72
Science & Technology	6,82
Music	6,94
Foreign Language	7,07
Visual Arts	7,19
Technology & Design	8,29
Mathematics	8,54

When Table 9 is examined, it is seen that teachers think that Religious Culture and Ethics lesson has the most effect on character/values education with an average of 2.74. Guidance and Career Planning (X=3.01), Social Studies (X=3.76), Turkish

(X=3.78), Physical Education and Sports (X=6.02), Human Rights (X=6.24), History of Turkish Revolution and Kemalism (X=6.72), Science and Technology (X=6.82), Music (X=6.94), Foreign Language (X=7.07), Visual Arts (X=7.19),

Technology and Design (X=8,29) and Mathematics (X=8,54).

Similar findings emerged during interviews with teachers. Teachers frequently mentioned the importance of Religious Culture and Ethics, Guidance and Career Planning, Social Studies and

Turkish courses in character/values education. The expressions of some of the teachers regarding the courses that affect character/values education are as follows:

T7: Courses that require communication such as Social Studies, especially Turkish, are important elements of socialization. The interaction-intensive courses are the ones that contribute the most to character education. "

T9: I think guidance and religious education are particularly effective on the character. It is also important to know your own history. "

T14: "Since Turkish is our own language, it is very important in expressing our situation. Expressing themselves correctly can make them the dominant character. Religious Culture is more related to issues related to the upbringing of individuals with proper character ethics. We can perceive guidance as the basis of character education."

T2: "I think that Sports Activities, Music, Painting lessons are important for students to express themselves. They express themselves freely without note and exam concern."

T16: "I think that my own lesson is especially decisive in character education. As a result, the course of religious culture fully serves this purpose. The content of the Religious Culture course includes Islamic religion in many circles, but Hz. According to the Prophet, one of the three

pillars of Islam is undisputed morality. However, serious weaknesses in the character of individuals who have undergone religious upbringing are a separate research topic."

T18: From my point of view, character education is somewhat limited. As a mathematician, although we do not have much tendency towards this field, it is a fact when we try to be a role-model as a teacher. I think that some of the reading passages of famous mathematicians are related to character education. "

T22: As a mathematician, we can think that we have made the least contribution to character education. This is exactly the case for me. I think we should try to contribute to character education not with our mathematician side but with our teacher side. "

T23: I think that the general quality of guidance teachers is very important in character education.

T13: "I think that universal values such as individual and community education, human love, democracy and morality contribute more to values education in Social Studies, Turkish, Guidance, Religious Culture and Ethics courses.

T8: "In fact, all courses can include values education as intermediate disciplines. But I think it will contribute more to the verbal courses such as Turkish, Social Studies and Religious Culture."

TO WHAT EXTENT DOES CHARACTER/VALUES EDUCATION TAKES PLACE IN SCHOOL?

Table 10 presents the findings of the teachers' responses to the extent to which the character/values education achieves its objectives.

Table 10. Findings on the Attainments of Objectives in Character/values Education		
Views	f	%
Partially Agree	25	38,4
Agree	19	29,2
Do not agree	15	23
Do not agree at all	5	7,7
Absolutely agree	1	1,5
Total	65	100

When Table 10 is examined, 25 (38.4%) teachers agree partially, 19 (29.2%) teachers agree, 15 (23%) teachers disagree, 5 (7.7%) teachers do not and 1 (1.5%) teachers stated that they strongly agree. From the answers given to the questionnaire,

it can be said that teachers have positive opinions about the achievement of the aims of character/values education. In the interviews, it is seen that teachers have more negative opinions about the achievement of the objectives. The views

of some of the teachers on this subject are as follows:

T21: "There is no sufficient time, no sufficient environment, nor a teacher who knows what to do about it."

T12: "I don't think there is anything about character education. In this particular effort is being made. Only the students get what they want to get by observing from their friends or teachers"

T16: "The important deficiency in achieving the objectives is the continuity of the values "

T2: "I do not think that the aims of values education are achieved in this education system. They are trying to gain goals to support the personal development of students, but they cannot be given exactly."

T5: "The aims for the values in the curriculum are not sufficiently achieved due to academic anxiety and activities aimed at raising the common curriculum."

T17: "After seeing a decrease in the respect and love of students even for their teachers, I can say that our values education is useless. Maybe this is the case in our province, but as far as I follow from the press, the problem belongs to our country."

The findings of the teachers' opinions about the importance of the values that are tried to be formed by the character/values education and the degree of realization / observation are presented in Table 11. When Table 11 is examined, it is seen that the honesty of the teachers is very important (80.6%) and they think that it is a little real (51.5%). While traditionalism is seen as important by teachers (37.5%), it is seen that it is a bit (31.5) and very (28.9%) in schools. While empathy / compassion was considered to be very important (81.8%), it was found to be a bit at school (48.4%); While fairness is considered to be very important (87.5%), it is thought that it occurs slightly (48.4%) and less (33.3%) in school. Teachers believe that self-esteem is very important (83.6%) and that it is a little (48.4%) and less (30.3%) in the school.

Democratic thinking is again seen as very important (89.5%), but it is thought that it takes place at school (40.6%) and less (37.5%). Virtue / virtue is considered to be very important (86%) and it is thought to be less (48.8%) and slightly (39.5%) in school. While self-control / discipline was seen as very important (93.3%), it was less (40.7%) and slightly (37%) in the school; while sportsmanship was seen as important (42.5%) and very important

(40.9%), it was slightly (55.8%) in school; While having love is considered very important (90.4%), it is understood that it occurs a little (40%) and less (40%) in school. Teachers think that courage is very important (68.6%), while it is a bit (34.2%), more (23.7%) and sufficient (23.7%) in school. It was very important to follow the rules (88.2%) and less in the school (50%); while respect for human rights is also considered to be very important (94.2%), they think that it is less realized in school (43.7%).

While pride was considered to be very important by the teachers (47.9%), it was observed to be a little bit in the school (40.5%); humility was seen to be very important (71.6%), while it was slightly realized in school (56.2%); while honor was seen as very important (81.1%), it was slightly realized in school (60.6%); while loyalty / commitment was seen to be very important (73%); while social responsibility was seen as very important (80.3%) and less (48.5%) in school; and slightly (42.4%). Generosity is very important (73%), while it is a bit realized in school (42.8%); sharing is again very important (69.8%), but it is a bit realized (40.6%); piety was significant (44.9%) and was slightly higher in school (38.9%); it was found that fraternity was very important (56.2%) and was slightly more frequent in school (52.6%); attention is very important (68.9%) and is thought to be a little bit (45.9%) in the school. While patience was considered to be very important by the teachers (73%), it was found to be a bit at school (43.3%); while politeness / courtesy was considered to be very important (71%), it was less frequent in school (38.2%); while optimism was considered to be very important (76.4%), it was slightly realized in school (45.7%); while competitiveness was considered to be very important (43.7%), it was slightly realized at school (47.3%); while the spirit of cooperation / teamwork was seen as very important (58.9%), it was slightly realized in the school (45.7%); wisdom / wisdom was found to be very important (72.3%), while it was low in school (44.1%); While hospitality is considered very important (66%), the opinion that it takes place at school (30.7%) is predominant. Based on these findings, while almost all values are considered very important by teachers, the realization / observation level of these values is not considered sufficient.

Values	Importance level										Degree of realization									
	Very		Quite		Some		Little		Not		Very		Quite		Some		Little		Not	
	5		4		3		2		1		5		4		3		2		1	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Honesty	50	80,6			12	19,3					2	6,1	7	21,2	17	51,5	5	15,1	2	6,1
Traditionism	9	22,5	15	37,5	10	25	6	15			11	28,9	6	17,1	12	31,5	7	20	2	5,3
Empathy/compassion	36	81,8	6	13,6	2	4,5							5	15,1	16	48,4	10	30,3	2	6,1
Being fair	42	87,5	3	6,2	3	6,2					1	3,0	3	9,1	16	48,4	11	33,3	2	6,1
Self-esteem	41	83,6	5	10,2			3	6,1			1	3,0	3	9,1	16	48,4	10	30,3	3	9,1
Democratic thinking	43	89,5	1	2,0	1	2,0	2	4,1	1	2,0			3	9,4	13	40,6	12	37,5	4	12,5
Virtuousness / virtues	43	86	3	6,0	4	8,0							2	4,6	17	39,5	21	48,8	3	6,9
Self-control / discipline	42	93,3	1	2,2	1	2,2			1	2,2	1	3,7	2	7,4	10	37,0	11	40,7	3	11,1
Sportsmanship/Fair play soul	23	42,5	18	40,9	13	29,5							4	11,8	19	55,8	9	26,4	2	5,8
Having love	47	90,4	4	7,7	1	1,9					1	2,2	7	15,5	18	40	18	40	1	2,2
Courage	35	68,6	9	17,6	7	13,7					9	23,7	9	23,7	13	34,2	5	13,1	2	5,3
Following the rules	45	88,2	4	7,84	2	3,9					1	2,9	1	2,9	11	32,3	17	50	4	11,7
Respect for human rights	49	94,2	1	1,9			2	3,8			1	3,1	3	9,4	12	37,5	14	43,7	2	6,2
Pride	23	47,9	9	18,7	9	18,7	3	6,2	4	8,3	9	24,3	6	16,2	15	40,5	7	18,9		
Humility/Modesty	38	71,6	11	20,7	2	3,7	2	3,7			1	3,1	2	6,2	18	56,2	10	31,2	1	3,1
Honor	43	81,1	6	11,3	2	3,7	2	3,7			1	3,0	5	15,1	20	60,6	6	18,1	1	3,0
Loyalty/fidelity/loyalty	38	73,0	10	19,2	4	7,7					4	11,8	2	5,9	19	55,9	8	23,5	2	5,9
Social responsibility	41	80,3	6	11,7	2	3,9	2	3,9					1	3,0	14	42,4	16	48,5	2	6,1
Generosity	38	73,0	10	19,2	4	7,7					4	12,5	5	14,3	15	42,8	9	28,1	2	5,7
Sharing	37	69,8	9	16,9	7	13,2					1	3,1	7	21,9	13	40,6	9	28,1	2	6,2
Piety	22	44,9	10	20,4	9	18,3	6	12,2	2	4,1	6	16,6	8	22,2	14	38,9	5	13,9	3	8,3
Frugality	27	56,2	10	20,8	9	18,7	2	4,2			6	15,8	3	7,9	20	52,6	8	21,0	1	2,6
Carefulness	31	68,9	7	15,5	7	15,5					5	13,5	2	5,4	17	45,9	10	27,0	3	8,1
Patience	38	73,0	8	15,4	6	12,5					1	3,3	1	3,3	13	43,3	10	33,3	5	16,6
Politeness / courtesy	38	71,0	12	22,6	1	1,9	2	3,7			2	5,9	2	5,9	11	32,3	13	38,2	6	17,6
Optimism	39	76,4	8	15,7	2	3,9	2	3,9			2	5,7	4	11,4	16	45,7	10	28,5	3	8,5
Competitiveness	21	43,7	9	18,7	15	31,2	3	6,2			5	13,1	5	13,1	18	47,3	7	18,4	3	7,9
Cooperation/teamwork	33	58,9	7	12,5	13	23,2	3	5,3			2	5,7	3	8,5	16	45,7	10	28,5	4	11,4
Wisdom	34	72,3	8	17,0	3	6,4			2	4,2	1	2,9	2	5,9	12	35,2	15	44,1	4	11,7
Hospitality	35	66,0	10	18,8	8	15,1					10	25,6	11	28,2	12	30,7	5	12,8	1	2,5

CONCLUSION, DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTIONS

For teachers, character/values education means social benefit and moral development in students. Aydın and Akyol Güler (2014) talk about similar meanings in his book. Yeşil and Aydın (2007) define values education as the education of society to behave within the framework of their values from the individuals who make up it.

Teachers are of the opinion that most family, then peer, school and media influenced character/values education. In the study of Uysal (2008), all the teachers evaluating the role of the family in the character education of the students emphasized that the family is very important. In addition to these ideas, most of the teachers stated that the most important factor in character education was family. Family communication was the most influential among the family factors affecting character/values education, followed by the association of parents, education level, beliefs and values, socio-economic level, living with parents, relative communication, location and extended family opinion has emerged.

Teachers perceive the purpose of the use of the internet and the most watched television programs among the media factors affecting character/values education. These factors are followed by television watching time, internet usage time, whether or not the magazine / newspaper being followed, the nature of the magazine / newspaper being followed, and critical media literacy. Tomlinson (2004) states that the impact of media on character and values is broad due to its important role in all areas of globalization, but limited because it is not the only source of cultural experience.

Teachers are of the opinion that teacher quality is the most effective among the characteristics of schools / teachers that affect character/values education. In this respect, the teacher's love of work, openness to development, individual differences of students, children's self-expression environment, the teacher's economic level, the education given in the school, the opportunities the school has, the teacher's in-service training, the school environment, the school administrator's qualifications, the school is a public school, the extracurricular activities provided by the school,

the infrastructure of the school for sporting activities, the school being a private school, library and research facilities, and the diversity of elective courses are followed. In the study of Orhan (2013), it was found that school administrators should be a model for students in terms of character education. According to Çağatay (2009), the school has great importance in the development of the student's character. Teachers' classroom behaviors and methods and school administrators were also effective on the child's character development. According to Kaymakcan and Meydan (2012), it is very important for moral character education to be organized in appropriate conditions for moral character development such as family, school, peer group and environment in which the student lives. In his study, Avcı (2011) concluded that the role model of teachers was effective on the character development of students. Uysal (2008) stated that since the families and society cannot provide adequate moral education, the school and therefore the teachers assume responsibility for character/values education.

It has been concluded that the development of teachers on the child is effective especially in the early ages, the children are affected when they see the values they have as behaviour, the teachers are models for them, and the positive and negative effects are effective in all aspects. In a study, Avcı (2011) concluded that the role model of teachers was effective on the character development of students.

Teachers are of the opinion that Religious Culture and Ethics course is most effective in character/values education. However, Guidance and Career Planning, Social Studies, Turkish lessons are seen to be effective on character/values education. According to Karatay (2011), developing a common sense, thinking and understanding of value is possible only by presenting literary works containing these values to children. Such works can compare the values that children should acquire in the socialization process and meet the expectations of the society regarding their character education. In the study of Orhan (2013), it was found out that the information given in the Life Science course was learned by living without memorization and became active in the lesson and that the Life Science program

facilitated the student's self and life recognition. In developed countries, character education is integrated into a curriculum depending on the situation or a civic and social studies course. In these courses, it is aimed that individuals adopt universal values such as courage, loyalty, justice, respect, hope, honesty and love (Karatay, 2011). They think that the character/values education of the teachers mostly fails to reach their goals. Ateş (2013) stated in his research that values education practices are mostly on paper, families are inadequate in bringing universal values to children, and media, social sharing sites, and in a values education to be given without the support of the environment, the school alone will be inadequate.

According to Kaymakcan and Meydan (2012), it is not enough to form the system theoretically or to give the knowledge of moral concepts and principles, and to try to create habits by applying them. Implementing programs to improve students' behaviour related to their character structures is an important task. Everyone in the school community should be involved and the process and progress should be evaluated (Bulach, 2002). According to Stiff-Williams (2010), school principals should provide the necessary team training and organize a special planning event in which teachers can combine character education and standard-based curriculum instruction.

Based on the results of the research, the following recommendations can be made for researchers and practitioners:

For researchers; The effect of the family in character/values education can be examined through interviews with parents and students. How characters / values education takes place can be examined through observations. Interviews can be held with teachers working in schools at different levels.

For the practitioners; it can be ensured that concepts and practices related to character/values education take more place in the courses. Teachers can be informed in order to achieve the objectives of the gains in character/values education and they can be provided with more time in the education of values in and out of the lesson.

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PREDICTORS OF SELF-REGULATED LEARNING SKILLS OF COMPUTER EDUCATION AND INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNOLOGY (CEIT) STUDENTS

Abstract: In this correlational survey study, it was aimed to determine significant predictors of self-regulated learning skills of Computer Education and Instructional Technology (CEIT) students. The sample consisted of 458 CEIT students registered at some universities among the ADIM Universities Consortium in Turkey. As data collection tools, the “Web Pedagogical Content Knowledge Scale” which was developed by Lee, Tsai & Chang (2008) and adapted to Turkish by Horzum (2011), the “Curriculum Orientations Inventory” which was developed by Cheung and Wong (2002) and adapted to Turkish by Eren (2010), and the “Self-Regulated Learning Scale” which was developed by Turan (2009) were used in the study. Descriptive statistics, correlation and path analysis were used in analyzing data. Findings showed that there were low, medium and high significant correlations found among sub-factors. Path analysis results showed that academic and technological orientations of CEIT students were significant predictors of attitude toward web-based instruction. Results also showed that curriculum orientations and attitudes toward web-based instruction were significant predictors of self-regulated learning skills.

Keywords: CEIT students, web pedagogical content knowledge, curriculum orientations, self-regulated learning skills, path analysis

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INTRODUCTION

Teachers have some beliefs about how to design and implement the curriculum. Curriculum orientations are an important concept in understanding the thoughts of teachers about curriculum elements and classroom practices (Cheung and Wong, 2002). It is observed in the related literature that the concepts of curriculum orientations, curriculum beliefs, curriculum ideologies and educational value orientations are used synonymously. There is no common terminology for these expressions, which are basically supported by similar studies (Cheung and Wong, 2002, Eren, 2010). According to Cheung and Wong, the curriculum orientation concept can be described as a common belief system about curriculum components. In this study, the concept of curriculum orientation was used.

It is seen that educators have different orientations to curriculum as well as the researchers who study curriculum orientations. It can be said that although curriculum orientations are handled in different classifications and different forms, these forms have similar characteristics. Eisner and Vallance's (1974) classification scheme consists of five curriculum orientations: academic rationalism, cognitive processes, social reconstruction-relevance, self-actualization and curriculum as technology. McNeill (1996) classifies curriculum orientations as a four-factor structure including academic, technological, humanistic and social reconstructionist factors. In the Cheung and Wong (2002) classification which was followed in this research, curriculum orientations consist of a five-factor structure including academic, cognitive processes, social reconstruction, humanistic and technological factors.

The *academic orientation* is one of the oldest and most basic approaches used in the curriculum orientation classification. This approach argues that the main function of the school is to encourage the intellectual development of students on certain issues (Eisner, 1985). This orientation, which was popular between 1930 and 1950, lost its popularity a little after the 1950s (Bay et al., 2012). Students are expected to behave like a physicist, mathematician or historian in this approach where it is important to acquire new and important content

and knowledge in various academic disciplines in the program (Cheung and Wong, 2002). The *cognitive processes orientation* focuses on the learning process rather than the subject content, contrary to the academic orientation. Implemented programs and instructional strategies should support the development of cognitive processes of the students (Eisner, 1985). According to this approach, high-level cognitive process skills, especially transferable skills, are more important in the learning process. Teachers should plan the time needed to help students improve their problem-solving skills (Cheung and Wong, 2002). The *social reconstructionist orientation* regards the school program as a means of facilitating social change. In this orientation, students are given the opportunity to learn critically while analyzing the social problems that mankind faces. The curriculum emphasis is on group experiences, sense of social responsibility, and the development of critical awareness of students (Cheung and Wong, 2002).

The *humanist orientation* is based on a humanist approach, humanist psychology and child-centered education (Bybee and Welch, 2012). In this orientation, students are seen as the most important source of the curriculum, and the integration of the cognitive processes (intellectual knowledge and skills) and the affective domains (emotion, attitude and value) of learners are the main priorities of this orientation (Cheung and Wong, 2002). The *technological orientation*, which was influenced by the behaviorist approach, is based on systematic curriculum planning and teaching efficiency. This orientation argues that school curricula should be prepared according to pre-determined learning objectives (Cheung and Wong, 2002). The organization of the curriculum content is done in logical order, and it is recommended that teachers use computer-supported instruction (Cheung and Wong, 2002).

The first type of knowledge that teachers focused on during the teaching phase was content knowledge. However, the question of how to deliver content to learners remained behind. Shulman (1986) described a new definition under the title of "*Pedagogical Content Knowledge*"

(PCK), suggesting that teaching should not focus solely on content knowledge, and that content and the way it is given are in interaction with each other. With the development of technology in the following years, Mishra and Koehler (2006) added

the concept of technology to PCK, and made a new definition under the name of “*Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge*” (TPCK). Lee, Tsai, and Chang (2008) described “*Web Pedagogical Content Knowledge*” (WPCK), a specialized form of technological pedagogical content knowledge which considers the fact that the web technologies must develop and that the web-based teaching knowledge of teachers must be at a high level.

In the nineteenth century, learning was regarded as an official discipline, and the failure of learners in learning was thought to be caused by personal limitations such as lack of intelligence and diligence. Some reformers and progressive educators, such as John Dewey, E. L. Thorndike and Maria Montessori, thought that it would be appropriate to group the students homogeneously according to their age and skills so that the curriculum could be adapted to individual differences. In the studies conducted after the last quarter of the twentieth century, researchers based individual differences among students on the lack of self-regulation skills of students and advocated for students to manage themselves and their limitations and to improve their ability to recognize individual differences (Zimmerman, 2002).

Different definitions have been made for the concepts of self-regulation and self-regulated learning, which are subjects explored in the literature by many authors. According to Pintrich (2005), self-regulated learning is “an active and constructive process in which learners set their own learning objectives and then monitor their cognition, behavior and motivation, and interact with their goals and surroundings”. Zimmerman (1992) defines self-regulated learning as “setting objectives, developing strategies to achieve these objectives, and controlling what these strategies have gained”.

The *Theory of Planned Behavior* (TPB) was first proposed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1977) and

reorganized by Ajzen (1991) (Erten, 2002). According to Ajzen, it is difficult to explain human behavior in its entire complex structure. Physiological, social and psychological approaches have been developed to explain the causes of behavior. Psychologists have examined biological

and environmental factors that affect behavior. Ajzen, a psychologist, also worked on the beliefs and attitudes that affect behavior, and put forward the PBT. In this study, an attempt was made to present a model proposal by testing the variables of behavioral beliefs (curriculum orientations), attitudes towards behavior (attitudes towards web-based instruction), and intentions towards behaviors (self-regulated learning skills) according to PBT. According to Ajzen (1991), there is a very close relationship between intention towards a behavior and the behavior itself. If the intention towards a behavior is determined, it will be easier to comment on the behavior itself. According to the PBT, the intention towards a behavior must first be established in order to enable that behavior to occur. The assumed behavior control can also affect the behavior directly.

Today, particularly in Turkey, it is seen that the activities of instructional technology are limited only to the studies carried out in the Computer and Instructional Technology Education (CEIT) departments, (Çağltay and Göktaş, 2016). The main purpose of this study is to determine to what extent prospective teachers’ approach to the curriculum, and their beliefs and orientations, especially their technological curriculum orientations, affect those prospective teachers’ attitudes towards web-based instruction and self-regulated learning skills, according to *Ajzen’s Planned Behavior Theory*.

When the literature is examined, there are studies that examine prospective teachers’ curriculum orientations (e.g., Aktemur, 2014; Bay, Gündoğdu, Ozan, Dilekçi & Özdemir, 2012; Cheung, 2000; Cheung & Wong, 2002; Crummey, 2007; Eren, 2010; Foil, 2008; Geçitli, 2008; Jenkins, 2007; Jones, 1978; Kamil, Mukminin, Jamin, Yusuf & Idrus, 2013; Reding, 2008; Singleton, 2013; Tanrıverdi & Apak, 2014; Wyatt, 1994; Yeşilyurt,

2013; Zhang, 2015) and web pedagogical content knowledge levels (e.g., Akayüüre, Nabie & Sofo,

2013; Akgün, 2013; Barış, 2015; Ekici, Ekici & Altunışık, 2015; Gömleksiz & Fidan, 2011; Horzum, 2011; Kavanoz, Yüksel & Özcan, 2015; Kaya, Özdemir, Emre & Kaya, 2011; Kazu & Erten, 2011; Lee & Tsai, 2010; Lee, Tsai & Chang, 2008; Oskay & Odabaşı, 2016; Turan & Koç, 2016; Yeşiltaş, 2016). There are also studies that examine self-regulation, web-based instruction and online learning together (e.g., Barnard, Lan, To, Paton & Lai, 2009; Cho & Shen, 2013; Joo, Bong & Choi, 2000; Liaw & Huang, 2013; Shea & Bidjerano,

2010; However, there is no study of how teacher candidates' curriculum orientations affect their attitudes towards web-based instruction in these studies. It is important to know to what extent prospective teachers' curriculum orientations, which are defined as the common belief system, influence their attitudes (attitudes toward web-based learning) toward behavior (self-regulated learning skills). Based on *Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior*, which is frequently encountered in the literature, this study will try to determine to

what extent the CEIT students' beliefs and attitudes affect their self-regulatory learning skills, and

thereby, it is hoped that an important contribution will be made to the literature.

METHOD

In this research, it was aimed to determine significant correlations between web pedagogical content knowledge, curriculum orientations and self-regulatory skills, and significant predictors of self-regulated learning skills.

SAMPLING

The study universe consists of 2,055 students studying from 1st to 4th years in Computer Education and Instructional Technology (CEIT) departments of 14 ADIM¹ Universities in the 2016-2017 academic year in Turkey. The sample of the study was chosen with the typical case sampling method which is one of the purposive sampling methods, and consists of 458 students attending to the CEIT departments of ADIM Universities in western part of Turkey. The demographic characteristics of the participants in the sample are given in Table 1.

Table1.
Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Category		Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Female	217	47.6
	Male	239	52.4
Year	1st Year	65	14.2
	2nd Year	128	27.9
	3rd Year	153	33.4
	4th Year	112	24.5
High school Type	General	50	11.0
	Teacher Training	18	3.9
	Science	4	0.9
	Foreign Languages	67	14.7
	Vocational	316	69.5

During the selection of the universities, priority was given to whether the universities are the four founding members of the ADIM Universities Consortium and to whether the foundation years of those universities are close. There are 458 students

in five universities. The sample is about 22% of the universe. A minimum of 324 participants in a universe of 2,055 people with a 95% confidence

¹ The ADIM Universities Consortium was founded in 2001 by four public universities situated in the western part of Turkey for the purpose of co-operation in education, research and

development, and scientific, technical and cultural university events.

level and an acceptable error of $\pm 5\%$ is sufficient. A sample of 458 individuals in this study is

sufficient to represent the universe at 22% (Cochran, 1962).

DATA COLLECTION TOOLS

The Web Pedagogical Content Knowledge Scale (WPCKS) was developed by Lee, Tsai and Chang (2008) and confirmatory factor analysis was done by applying it with teachers by Lee and Tsai (2010). The validity and reliability studies of the original form of the scale were conducted on 558 teachers in Taiwan. First, varimax rotation explanatory factor analysis was applied to the scale, and the scale was found to be composed of 30 items and 5 subscales in a 6-point Likert-type scale (from 1=strongly disagree to 6=strongly agree). After confirmatory factor analysis, it was concluded that the compliance indices confirmed the pattern. The scale was first translated into Turkish for adaptation by Horzum (2011), and after being organized according to expert opinions. It was converted into a 5-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree 5=strongly agree). The Turkish and English versions of the scale were filled out by 30 students every two weeks and the Turkish and English forms were considered as equivalent. As a result of the exploratory factor analysis, the scale was found to have a similar structure to the original one. After the confirmatory factor analysis, it was found that all the concordance indices taken into the evaluation showed values that have strong consistency or are close to strong consistency. The scale used in this study consists of 30 items and 5 dimensions.

The first dimension is the "General Web", and includes the 1st-7th items; the second dimension is the "Communicative Web", and includes the 8th-11th items; the third dimension is "Web Content Knowledge", and includes the 12th.-16th items; the fourth dimension is "Web Pedagogical Content Knowledge", and includes the 17th-24th items; and the final dimension is "Attitudes towards Web-Based Instruction", and includes the 25th-30th items. The Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficients obtained in this study are .97, .97, .91, .94, .93 for the five dimensions respectively, and

.93 for all of the scale. These values indicate that the reliability of the scale is high.

The Curriculum Orientation Inventory (COI) was developed by Cheung and Wong (2002), and in the original version was implemented to 648 teachers in Hong Kong. The scale has 5-sub-dimensions

with 30 items and is in an 8-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 8 = strongly agree). In the scale, items 1-6 include the "Academic", items 7-12 include the "Cognitive Processes", items 13-18 include the "Social Reconstructionist", items 19-24 include the "Humanistic" and items 25-30 include the "Technological" sub-dimensions. The scale was first translated into Turkish for the purpose of adaptation by Eren (2010) and submitted for the consideration of 2 experts working in a foreign languages department. As a result of the confirmatory factor analysis done after corrections, it was found that the concordance indices of the scale were at the acceptable values. The Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficients obtained for this study were .89, .92, .88, .93, .93 for the five sub-dimensions respectively, and .98 for all of the scale. These values indicate that the scale has high reliability.

The Self-Regulated Learning Skills Scale (SRLSS) was developed by Turan (2009) and is in a 5-point Likert-type scale consisting of 41 items. In the preparation of the scale, the researcher benefited from the relevant research studies, and a draft of 95 items was initially developed. Afterwards, the scale draft was revised by the researcher and 2 experts, and was reduced to 64 items by eliminating expressions that were difficult to understand. By using exploratory factor analysis after the experimental studies, expressions with a factor load value of less than .45 and expressions in more than one factor were searched for and a 4-factor scale and a 41-item scale with an eigenvalue greater than 1.5 were obtained. The scale has sub-dimensions, which are "Acting for Motivation and Learning" consisting of 7 items (1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9), "Planning and Goal Setting" consisting of 8 items (10,11,13,14,15,16,17,18), "Strategy Usage and Assessment" consisting of 19 items (19,21,23,24,25,26,27,28,29,30,31,33,34,35,36,37

,38,40,41), and “Lack of Self-Directedness” consisting of 7 items (3, 7, 12, 20, 23, 32, 39). The

Cronbach’s Alpha reliability coefficients obtained in this study are .86, .92, .94, .88. for the four sub-dimensions respectively, and .92 for all of the scale. These values indicate that the scale has high reliability.

DATA ANALYSIS

In the study, the data obtained through the forms were coded and entered into the SPSS 23.00 statistical package software one by one to make statistical measurements. 460 items of data

obtained through printed and online forms that checked the same information were examined and it was determined that in 2 items of data at least one of the scales was not filled in, and this scale was extracted from the data set. Descriptive statistics, such as the frequency and percentage for the demographics of the participants, were calculated. Data were analyzed with nonparametric tests, and Cronbach’s Alpha reliability coefficient was examined for reliability coefficients. AMOS 24.00

software was used for the path analysis, and this was done by using the “*Asymptotically Distributed Free*” (ADF) method because of not obtaining multivariate normality. The ADF method is used in situations where multivariate normality is not achieved (Van Praag et al., 1985; Johns and Wallar, 2015). In the path analysis, whether the fit indices of χ^2 / sd , AGFI, GFI, CFI, NFI, IFI, RMSEA and SRMR showed excellent fit was also noted.

FINDINGS

RESULTS RELATED TO THE CORRELATIONS

As can be seen from the correlation results in Table 3, there are high, medium and low positive and negative correlations among almost all subscales. The highest correlation was found between the humanistic and technological curriculum orientation subscales ($r=.863$). The lowest correlation was found between the technological curriculum orientation and lack of self-directedness subscales ($r=.122$).

Table 3. Correlation Results of Subscales										
Factors	Att	Aca	Cog	Soc	Hum	Tech	Mot	Plan	Str	Lack
Att	-									
Aca	.389*	-								
Cog	.402*	.808*	-							
Soc	.334*	.758*	.769*	-						
Hum	.391*	.727*	.847*	.768*	-					
Tech	.451*	.752*	.837*	.780*	.863*	-				
Mot	.354*	.299*	.273*	.344*	.311*	.332*	-			
Plan	.337*	.383*	.308*	.369*	.328*	.384*	.681*	-		
Str	.345*	.365*	.285*	.364*	.292*	.348*	.687*	.849*	-	
Lack	-.021	.033	.192*	-.002	.220*	.122*	-.159*	-.216*	-.284*	-

*Correlation is significant at the 0,05 level. (Att: Attitudes Toward Web-Based Instruction, Aca: Academic Orientation, Cog: Cognitive Processes Orientation, Soc: Social Reconstructionist Orientation, Hum: Humanistic Orientation, Tech: Technological Orientation, Mot: Motivation and Action to Learning, Plan: Planning and Goal

Setting, Str: Strategy Usage and Assessment, Lack: Lack of Self-Directedness

PATH ANALYSIS

Path analysis was done with AMOS 24.00 software in order to determine the significant predictors of

self-regulated learning skills of the students of CEIT and to calculate the effect size of these

predictors. The multivariate normality values of the model are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Kurtosis and Skewness Values for Multivariate Normality				
Variable	Skewness	c.r.	Kurtosis	c.r.
Technological	-1.487	-12.987	2.941	12.847
Humanistic	-1.465	-12.802	2.968	12.967
Social Reconstructionist	-1.090	-9.527	1.576	6.885
Cognitive Processes	-1.382	-12.070	2.374	10.369
Academic	-1.236	-10.800	1.963	8.577
Attitudes Toward Web-Based Instruction	-1.977	-17.270	5.254	22.950
Planning and Goal Setting	-1.142	-9.974	2.077	9.072
Strategy Usage and Assessment	-1.111	-9.709	3.366	14.704
Motivation and Action to Learning	-1.524	-13.314	4.604	20.113
Lack of Self-Directedness	.204	1.779	-.849	-3.709
Multivariate			77.398	53.459

The fact that skewness and kurtosis values are not within ± 1 according to Table 4 means that a single variate normal distribution is not achieved (Muthén and Kaplan, 1985). Also, it was determined that the multivariate critical ratio (Mardia coefficient) is greater than 1.96, so that multivariate normality is not provided (Mardia, 1970). Due to the inability to reach the acceptable values in spite of the deletion from the dataset of 100 items of data that impair normal distribution, and since the number of data to be used in the path analysis must be at a high level, the data deletion method was abandoned to ensure normal distribution. It was also assumed that the data do not distributed normally. The

model was created using the ADF method. When the model was constructed, it was first prepared based on the theoretical model (TPB, Ajzen, 1991). Because of the fact that the model's fit indices were far from the accepted values and the paths had no significant results ($-1.96 < t < 1.96$), the model was revised so as not to disrupt the theoretical structure. The theoretical and specialized model paths and the fit indices of the model are shown in Table 5, Figure 1 and Figure 2. Direct, indirect and total path coefficients for the customized model are shown in Table 6. The values of the effect size of the customized model are shown in Table 7.

Table 5. Model Fit Indices for Path Analysis

Fit Indices	Perfect Fit Indices	Acceptable Fit Indices	Theoretical Model	Specialized Model
χ^2/sd	$0 \leq \chi^2/sd \leq 2$	$2 \leq \chi^2/sd \leq 3$	3.457	1.968
AGFI	$.90 \leq AGFI \leq 1$	$.85 \leq AGFI \leq .90$.72	.90
GFI	$.95 \leq GFI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq GFI \leq .95$.92	.97
CFI	$.95 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq CFI \leq .95$.85	.95
NFI	$.95 \leq NFI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq NFI \leq .95$.82	.90
IFI	$.95 \leq IFI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq IFI \leq .95$.87	.95
RMSEA	$.00 \leq RMSEA \leq .05$	$.05 \leq RMSEA \leq .08$.073	.046
SRMR	$.00 \leq SRMR \leq .05$	$.05 \leq SRMR \leq .10$.31	.08

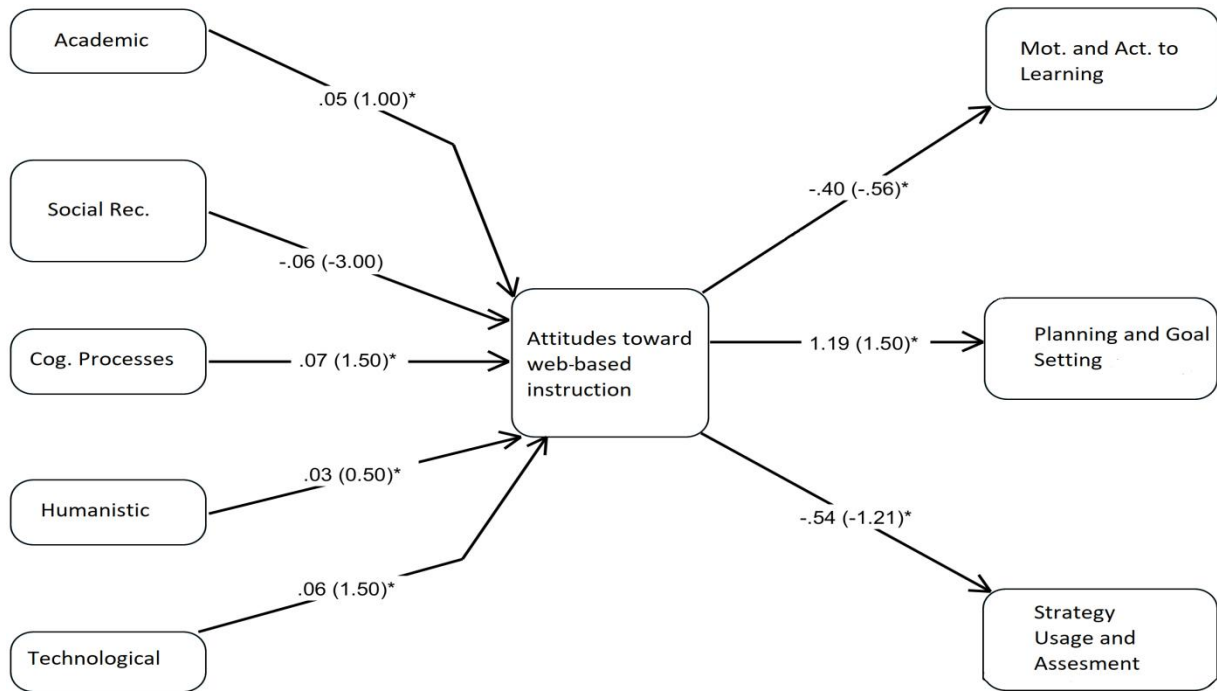
Fit Indices (Munro, 2005; Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow and King, 2006; Şimşek, 2007; Hooper and Mullen 2008; Schumacker and Lomax, 2010;

Waltz, Strickland and Lenz 2010; Wang and Wang, 2012; cited by Çapık, 2014).

According to Table 5., the majority of the customized model's fit indices provided perfect fit

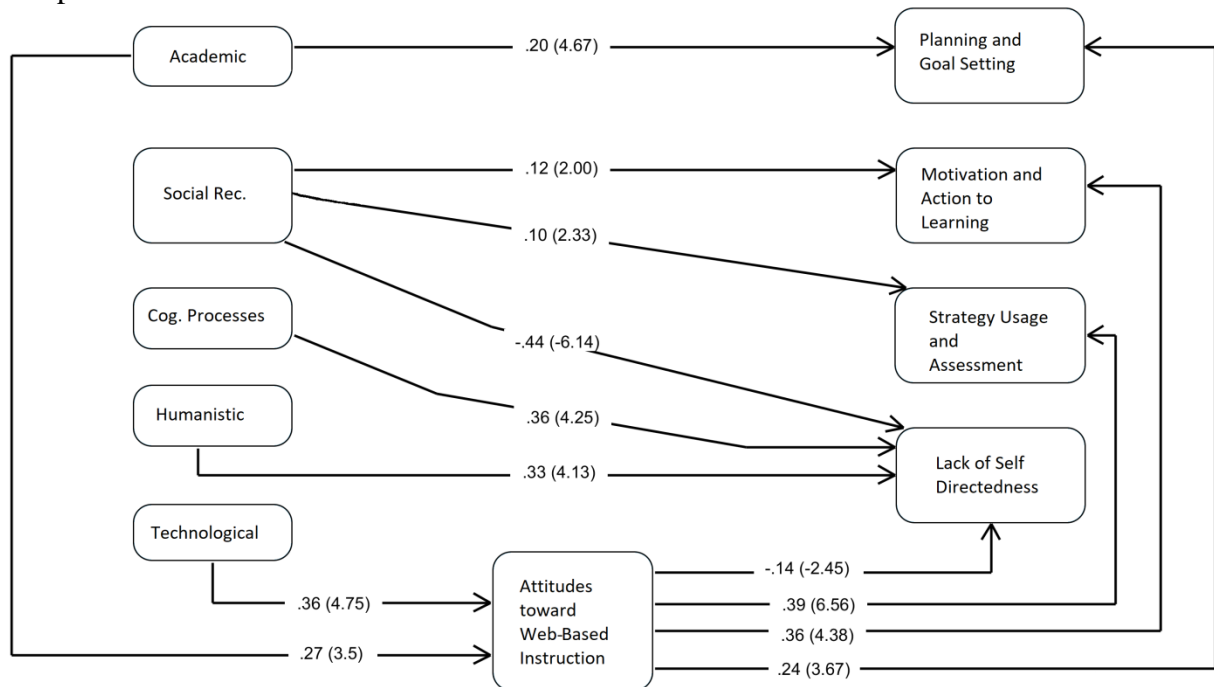
indices ($\chi^2 / sd = 1.968$, AGFI = .90, GFI = .97, CFI = .95, NFI = .90, IFI = .95, RMSEA = .08).

Figure 1. Theoretical Model Path Coefficients and t -values



* The path is not significant ($-1.96 < t < 1.96$).

Figure 2. Specialized Model Path Coefficients and t Values



$\chi^2 = 33.456$ $sd = 17$

Table 6. Customized Model Path Coefficients (β)																		
Variables	Technological			Humanistic			Social			Cognitive			Academic			Attitudes		
	Dir.	Indir.	Tot.	Dir.	Indir.	Tot.	Dir.	Indir.	Tot.	Dir.	Indir.	Tot.	Dir.	Indir.	Tot.	Dir.	Indir.	Tot.
Attitudes	.36	-	.36	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.27	-	.27	-	-	-
Planning	-	.09	.09	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.20	.07	.27	.24	-	.24
Strategy	-	.14	.14	-	-	-	.10	-	.10	-	-	-	-	.11	.11	.39	-	.39
Motivation	-	.13	.13	-	-	-	.12	-	.12	-	-	-	-	.10	.10	.36	-	.36
Lack of Self	-	-.05	-.05	.33	-	.33	-.44	-	-.44	.36	-	.36	-	-.04	-.04	-.14	-	-.14

(Attitudes = Attitudes Toward Web-Based Instruction, Planning = Planning and Goal Setting, Strategy = Strategy Usage and Assessment, Motivation = Motivation and Action to Learning, Lack of Self = Lack of Self-Directedness, Dir.= Direct Impact, Indir. = Indirect Impact, Tot. = Total Effect)

Table 7. Effect Size Values for Specialized Model	
Variables	R ²
Attitudes Toward Web-Based Instruction	0.343
Planning and Goal Setting	0.153
Strategy Usage and Assessment	0.203
Motivation and Action to Learning	0.181
Lack of Self-Directedness	0.138

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to determine predictors of self-regulated learning skills. It was also aimed to observe significant correlations between web pedagogical content knowledge, curriculum orientations and self-regulatory skills of CEIT students registered in different years and public universities. Correlation results showed that there are high, medium and low positive and negative correlations among almost all subscales employed in this research. The results show that there is a positive correlation between the attitudes towards web-based instruction and self-regulated learning skills of candidate teachers. Similar to this conclusion, Shea & Bidjerano (2010) concludes in their study that online learning environments were effective in learner self-regulated learning skills. In a similar study, Barnard et al. (2009) also concludes that the self-regulatory learning process has a larger and more important role in online learning environments.

In another study, investigating self-efficacy and self-regulation self-efficacy, Joo et al. (2000), a positive relationship between self-efficacy self-efficacy self-regulation of the internet. Studies in the literature showed that online learning, internet efficacy, web-based instruction and self-regulatory skills are all correlated. This study discusses the predictors of self-regulatory skills such as curriculum orientations and attitudes toward web-based instruction.

Analyzing the results of path analysis in the current study, it was determined that CEIT students' academic and technological curriculum orientations explain 34.3% of their attitudes toward web-based instruction. The results also indicated that the students' academic curriculum orientations ($\beta=.27$) directly predict their attitudes toward web-based instruction positively and significantly. In addition, it was found that the students' technological curriculum orientations ($\beta=.36$) predict their attitudes toward web-based instruction directly, positively, and significantly. There is no significant path among social reconstructionist orientation, humanistic orientation and attitudes towards web-based

teaching. It may be argued that in the emergence of this situation, the cognitive processes related items in the scale for social reconstructionist and humanistic orientations are directly related to self-regulated learning skills.

The results indicated that students' academic and technological curriculum orientations and attitudes towards web-based instruction explain 15.3% of the variance of planning and goal setting, which is a subscale of self-regulated learning skills. It was also clarified that the academic curriculum orientation ($\beta=.20$) and attitudes toward web-based instruction ($\beta=.24$) predicted the planning and goal setting directly, positively and significantly. In addition, the academic curriculum orientation ($\beta=.07$) and the technological curriculum orientation ($\beta=.09$) were found to have predicted the planning and goal setting indirectly, positively and significantly. In a similar study by Liaw and Huang (2013), interactive learning environments emerged as the significant predictors of self-regulatory learning.

Students' academic, technological and social reconstructionist curriculum orientations and attitudes towards web-based instruction explain 20.3% of the variance of strategy usage and assessment in the study. It was also found that the social reconstructionist curriculum orientation ($\beta=.10$) and attitudes toward web-based instruction ($\beta=.39$) predicted strategy usage and assessment directly, positively and significantly. In addition, the technological curriculum orientation ($\beta=.14$) and the academic curriculum orientation ($\beta=.11$) were found to have predicted strategy usage and assessment indirectly, positively and significantly. Technological and social reconstructionist curriculum orientations and attitudes toward web-based instruction explain 18.1% of the variance of motivation and action to learning. The social reconstructionist curriculum orientation ($\beta=.12$) and attitudes toward web-based instruction ($\beta=.36$) predicted the strategy usage and assessment directly, positively and significantly. Besides, it was found that the technological curriculum orientation ($\beta=.13$) and the academic curriculum orientation ($\beta=.10$)

predicted the strategy usage and assessment indirectly, positively and significantly.

Finally, it was determined that all curriculum orientations and attitudes towards web-based instruction explain 13.8% of the variance of lack of self-directedness. While the humanistic curriculum orientation ($\beta=.33$) and cognitive processes orientation ($\beta=.36$) predicted the dimension of lack of self-directedness directly, positively and significantly. The social reconstructionist curriculum orientation ($\beta=-.44$) and attitudes toward web-based instruction ($\beta=-.14$) predicted the lack of self-directedness directly, negatively and significantly. Moreover the technological curriculum orientation ($\beta=-.05$) and the academic curriculum orientation ($\beta=-.04$) predicted the lack of self-directedness indirectly, negatively and significantly. Based on the results of the study, a similar study may be done with information technology teachers in order to obtain deeper qualitative aspects of the variables studied. Regarding the results of the study, time used for web-based instruction in higher education may be increased to help students' self-regulated learning skills.

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A COMPARATIVE CASE STUDY ON THE PERCEPTIONS OF PRE-SCHOOL TEACHERS ON GENDER ROLES AND PRACTICES

Abstract: The aim of this study is to examine the perceptions of preschool teachers on gender roles and classroom practices in a comparative manner. Qualitative research method was used in this study. The participants of the study are preschool teachers working in Turkey and Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. In this study, convenience sampling method was used. The study group comprised 21 preschool teachers volunteering to participate and provided written consent. The data were collected through an interview schedule that comprised 9 semi structured questions. The results obtained from teachers in Turkey and Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus showed teachers showed gender stereotypical behaviors in their classrooms in both countries. According to the teacher perceptions, women are passive, fragile and emotional while men are independent and powerful. It can be concluded that teachers in both countries have practices aimed to prevent the development of gender prejudices in children.

Keywords: classroom practices, gender roles; preschool classroom; preschool teacher

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INTRODUCTION

Education plays an essential role in human life. Pre-school education is defined as the development and education phase including most of the cognitive, physical and social-emotional development (Berk, 2013). Differences of behaviour and personal characteristics between men and women are socially learnt and shaped. Children at pre-school age given gender-stereotyped answers and act “properly” in accordance with their gender as expected by the society (Kanka, Wagner, Schober & Spiel, 2013). During the development phase, the child is introduced to rules and behaviour deemed appropriate to gender by the society and the family. Pre-school teacher is important as it is the first teacher figure apart from parents. The teacher attitudes and behaviours have permanent effects allowing the child to learn and internalise attitude and behaviour regarding gender roles (Avcı & Toran, 2012; Connell, 1998; Driscoll & Nagel, 2008; Meece & Daniels, 2008; İnceoğlu & Akçalı, 2018).

Gender denotes both innate physiological and biological traits for men and women. Accordingly, male and female gender traits change into gender roles due to the influence by social values and demonstrate differences in behaviour (Burr, 1998; Marshall, 1999; Todor, 2010). According to Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development data (OECD), the majority of the pre-school and elementary school teachers in most countries are female (OECD, 2015). Cultural and economic conditions have shaped gender roles in teaching throughout history. Religious and moral values of the society have influenced its gender perceptions and expectations. In this respect, the trust in the protective and supportive nature of woman has resulted in the perception that the pre-school education profession is perceived as services aimed at providing care and protection for the child and in man not giving trust as much as the woman does in terms of fulfilling these services (Akman, Taskın, Ozden, Okyay & Corfu, 2014; Birey & Beyidoğlu Önen, 2013; Sak, Kızılkaya, Yılmaz & Dereli, 2015). In fact, teaching in general and specifically “pre-school teaching” is perceived as a woman’s occupation in society.

The influence of stereotypical judgements regarding gender roles during teacher-student communication in the teaching-learning process is obvious. Teachers’ behaviours and attitudes supporting sexist stereotypical judgements of the family and culture influence the games and toys children play, game friend choices, language properties they use and their problem-solving methods.

As reported by Berk (2013), teachers might act in a manner that helps continue the social gender roles taught at home and support stereotypical judgements. While manly behaviours of girls are sometimes perceived as being “strong” and is approved, feminine behaviours of boys are most often suppressed strongly. Savinskaya (2017) suggests preschool teachers to incorporate effective instructional strategies to promote pre-school students’ knowledge in science, technology, engineering and mathematics and to engage their students in technology and mathematics activities. This may bridge gender-gap in the choice of professions.

CURRENT SITUATION IN TURKEY

Although Turkish education system complies with global gender equality policies, it still inherits inequal and discriminatory mentality (Sayılan, 2012). World Economic Forum has studied the level of gender inequality between men and women since 2016 but the situation was not pleasant for Turkey in 2017. This study covers 144 countries and health, politics, education and economy categories. In 2017, gender gap increased in 60 countries and decreased in 82 countries. The report indicates Turkey as one of the countries with the increased gap. Prime Ministry General Directorate of Women’s Status, Ministry of Education and numerous other government offices, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) (Turkish Industry & Business Association-TUSIAD, 2007), and universities carried out studies on gender roles in society (Demirgöz Bal, 2014; Göğüş Tan & Somel, 2005; İnceoğlu & Akçalı, 2018; Solak, 2017; World Economic Forum, 2017). The National Action Plan for Gender Equality aims to remove discrimination against women and to

develop a road map for inclusion of gender equality in all public policies. The National Action Plan covers critical areas identified in the Beijing Platform for "Women's Education and Teaching", "Women and Economy", "Women and Poverty", "Women and Health", "Participation in Authority and Decision Making Processes", "Women and Media", "Women's Human Rights", "Girls" and "Institutional Mechanisms in the Progress of Women." However, in 2007, a report was prepared to be used as a reference document on the institutional structures and policy experiences of EU countries in order to place gender equality in the master plans and programs (General Directorate of the Status of the Prime Minister, 2009; The General Directorate on the Status of Women of Prime Ministry, 2018).

The Prime Ministry Directorate General on the Status of Women proposes that gender equality is a human rights issue and an important condition of the social justice. A "Project for Improving Gender Equality in Education" funded by from the European Union and the Republic of Turkey, is a situation assessment and needs analysis initiative, aiming demonstrate the current situation concerning social gender equality and gender-sensitive school environment at 40 pilot schools (ETCEP, 2016).

Data obtained is expected to form the groundwork for preparation of "Social Gender Equality Assurance Tool for Schools (SGEATS)" and the relevant activities for educational programs (Gender Mainstreaming Law, 2015). The 2016 data foresees 170 years required for women to be able to obtain equal professional compensation with men, this figure is estimated to be 217 years in the 2017 data (Solak, 2017; TUSIAD, 2007; World Economic Forum, 2017). "Preschool Education and Elementary Educational Institution Standards (Institutional Standards)" system has been developed so teachers and administrators at all academic levels gain insight of the educational service.

Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) was established in 1983. Fighting for independence, Turkish Cypriots, both men and women demonstrated a high solidarity level. Tombak and Topdal (2014) reported the socio-economic and physical restructuring process of the Island has increased the number of working women. Most women in TRNC work outside home. Women attained a significant place in society by joining work life, gaining economic independence, increasing self-confidence and being directly involved in the production process.

The 1962 European Human Rights Convention, The 1996 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, and the 2004 Civil and Political Rights Convention are the primary conventions in TRNC regarding social gender and human rights. Besides, Center for Women's Studies (KAEM) at Eastern Mediterranean University (DAU) carries out numerous studies as the first and only research and education centre in the area of social gender academically.

The Department of Social Gender Equality, expected to be established in TRNC, is one of many other initiatives to realise all (survey, information sharing, cooperation etc.) to be performed for increasing public awareness in the social gender field. (www.lefkosabelediyesi.org; www.mevzuat.kamunet.net). The school environment created to help children realise their value as individuals before learning discriminatory attitude and behaviour regarding gender and starting to believe that the traditional attitude to gender roles cannot be changed. It is assumed that teachers' gender beliefs influence their practices and interactions with children and may affect children's gender behaviours in pre-school (Emilson, Folkesson, and Linberg, 2016). The purpose of this study is to examine the perceptions and in-class practices of preschool teachers regarding social gender roles in the context of social and cultural comparison.

CURRENT SITUATION IN TRNC

THEORETICAL/CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Gender roles are defined as psychosocial roles in which individuals are characterized as either women or men. Although the concepts of social gender and gender are two different concepts, it is not possible to evaluate these two concepts independently. Generally, the expectations of society from women and men are shaped by their biological and physical characteristics. Taking these characteristics into consideration, behaviors deemed appropriate for a gender constitute the stereotypes of the gender roles of the individuals in the society. These stereotypes are among the most powerful factors that cause inequality between men and women in society (Oakley, 1991).

Acquisition of gender roles is explained from different perspectives by Biological Theory, Social Learning Theory, Cognitive Development Theory, Gender Schematic Theory and Psychoanalytic Theory. The Social Learning Theory developed by Albert Bandura argues that the children gain gender roles by modeling and identifying with the people in the immediate vicinity (Bandura, 1978). The Gender Schema Theory was developed by Sandra Lipsitz Bern (1981).

This theory emphasizes that gender roles have been observed, analyzed, and schemes for gender have been developed by the child. According to this theory, which explains the social gender roles in the light of cognitive development, the child places the behaviors specific to women and men in the schemas. For example, the ability to be physically strong can be placed on the male schema by the child or the emotional feature can be placed on the female schema. It is important to recognize that each individual who is important in gaining gender roles has strengths and weaknesses, talents and interests of his own. For example, in some societies women are thought to be unsuccessful in mechanical or managerial tasks such as car repairs. But every man can not achieve success in these works. Failing to make generalizations and evaluating individual characteristics is a key element of creating an unbiased environment.

Although some previous research (Eccles & Blumenfeld, 1985) proves that teachers have no effect on gender roles acquisition, there are now studies that demonstrate the influence of teachers

on gender roles after the family (Gray & Leith, 2004, Sayman, 2007, Streitmatter, 1994).

METHODS

MODEL

A qualitative research method was used to conduct a comparative study of the perception and in-class practices of preschool teachers regarding social gender roles. Data collection methods such as observation, interview, stories, myths, sample events and narration are used, and a qualitative process is followed to demonstrate, in a realistic and integrative manner and in a natural setting, the perceptions and events related to an issue. Qualitative research aims to provide a better understanding of human behaviour in its natural environment (Sönmez & Alacapınar, 2014; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011).

PARTICIPANTS

In this study, convenience sampling method was used. The participants comprise school teachers who are in collaboration with the researchers of this current study as part of the teaching practice courses.. The study group comprised 21 preschool teachers (11 from Turkey and 10 from TRNC) volunteering to participate and provided written consent. Teachers in the study group work with children aged 3-6 years.

DATA COLLECTION TOOL

The interview questions were developed by the researchers and piloted by two experts from the field of pre-school teaching. The interview schedule was revised based on the feedback came from the experts. Accordingly, 9 open-ended questions aiming to understand the influence of gender perceptions of teachers on the environment created in their classrooms and the conducted activities. An interview schedule developed by the researchers was used as the data collection tool. The schedule, aiming to learn about the social gender perceptions and opinions of preschool teachers, was constructed based on the relevant literature of the field.

DATA COLLECTION

The interview questions were distributed to preschool teachers via e-mail or social media tools sent by the researchers. Pre-interviews were conducted with the participants before they were sent the questions via e-mail or social media tools, to ensure the clarity and understandability of the questions. A consent was obtained from the participants on the clarity and the understandability of the questions. After the consent, the teachers were asked to deliver their written answers to the interview questions. Administration phase lasted for 2 weeks.

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY ASSESSMENT OF THE DATA COLLECTION TOOL

To interpret the findings obtained from a qualitative study objectively, the researcher needs to employ certain additional methods such as participant review and peer review. Three researchers reviewed the relevant literature and prepared draft questions by taking into account the study goals. After the items were drafted, the researchers collectively examined the proposed items and finalized the schedule. A peer-review method was used for the data reliability assessment and data validation (Creswell, 2014; Merriam, 2009).

The reliability of the analyzed data was calculated using Miles and Huberman's (1994) Reliability Formula = Number of agreements / Number of agreements + Disagreements. The reliability score was found to be 92%. The obtained reliability test

result is above 70% and the reliability of the test is considered to be achieved (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis process was the content analysis in grouping data around specific concepts and themes, coding the data with similar digits, organizing them in an easy-to-understand manner and interpreting them. The qualitative data obtained has the following four phases;

- Data coding,
- Determining the themes,
- Organizing codes and themes,
- Defining and interpreting findings (Creswell, 2014; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011).

Each interview question here constitutes the study themes. Each participant was given a separate code to ensure their anonymity (e.g. T1T denotes teacher number 1 from Turkey, while code T1C denotes the teacher from TRNC- Cyprus).

RESULTS

The data collected from the teachers were summarized in tables. These tables contain statements placed in sub-themes and the frequency by which the respondents expressed from Turkey and TRNC.

Table 1. Gender roles of male and female teachers

Sub-themes	Sample statements	Expression frequency Turkey TRNC
Two genders are equal except for biological differences	Of course, gender differences might be obvious in situations demanding physical strength or skills (T4T) In my opinion, both genders are equal, and there are only biological differences between the two genders (T1C)	1 1
Two genders are equal	Roles should not vary based on gender, both genders are equal in any case (T1T) In my opinion gender roles must be equal. I	7 2

	mean a woman can do whatever a man can do. (T2C)	
Both genders have different social gender roles	The male is strong, is the head of household and makes a living, brings money when he works; the female takes care of the house and the kids, she has a passive role (T4T) Gender roles of women are mostly about sensitivity, being emotional, dependence while gender roles of men are about leadership, dominance and independence. (T4C)	3 4

Table 1 shows responses to the questions “What are the gender roles that men and women should have? What are the gender roles in marriage or relationship? How should they be?” One teacher from Turkey and one teacher from TRNC think that both genders are equal except for biological differences. 7 teachers from Turkey and 2 teachers from TRNC think that both genders are equal.

Three teachers from Turkey and 4 teachers from TRNC believe that both genders have different gender roles. Teachers from both Turkey and TRNC indicated that the role of women in society is associated with being passive, fragile and emotional while man is associated with being independent and strong

Table 2. In-class activities aimed at developing gender roles at an early age

Sub-themes	Sample Statements	Expression Frequency Turkey TRNC
There are in-class activities	Initiatives focusing on the family, its members and unity of the family (T2T) Occupations and their qualities, demonstration with roleplaying (T4T) Blue Day (Anti-bullying week), children-both boys and girls- dress in blue regardless of gender. Pink Day (Breast Cancer Awareness Day) children-both boys and girls- dress in pink regardless of gender. (T1C)	7 9
There are no in-class activities	We do not have such in-class activities (T1T) I don't do any in-class activities.(T3C)	4 1
Gives consideration to gender in in-class activities	Of course, I take into account gender and personal traits (T7T) During the game, I guide and support the children in their selection of accessories based on their gender. (T9C)	5 3
Does not consider gender in in-class activities	I do not. I prepare my activity based on what I need to teach them. (T5T)	5 7

	During in-class activities, the children in my class play both with dolls and cars. What matters is what they want. (T8C)	
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Table 2. provides an analysis of the combined responses of teachers to the questions of “Do you have in-class activities that aim to help develop gender roles at an early age? Can you please give details with examples?” and “Do you give consideration to children’s genders during in-class activities/practices?” It was seen that teachers in both countries consider gender issues during in-class activities. Nevertheless, it was observed that some teachers did not have such practices. The

responses of participants in Turkey suggest that teachers who take gender into account in in-class activities and those 'who do not' were equal. Except for one teacher, teachers in TRNC indicated that they organized activities aimed at developing gender roles at an early age and it was seen that most of them take children’s genders into account during these events.

Table 3 Creating an environment suitable for gender roles

Sub-themes	Sample Statements	Expression Frequency Turkey TRNC
Making seating arrangements based on children’s gender	Yes I do. Because girls have better social and language skills compared to boys, it influences the seating arrangement. (T8T) I arrange it so that every table has both boys and girls (T3C)	2 4
Not taking gender into account for seating arrangements	I do not take gender into account (T11T) There are no rules for the seating arrangement. They can sit with any friend they like (T10C)	9 5
Not organising any activity to eliminate prejudices regarding gender roles	I don’t (T6T) We haven’t had any activity related to that (T7T) I don’t have such intention(T9T) I don’t specifically aim for that (T3C)	5 1
Organizing activities to eliminate prejudices regarding gender roles	In the class, we talk to students about family, society and occupations in relation to gender (T2T) I pay attention to game centers in the class. I try to make sure every child makes use of all materials.(T8C)	3 5
Implementing wrong practices perceived to be correct when trying to eliminate prejudices related to gender roles.	During activities, we distinguish between clothes for girls and boys when we talk about outfits. (T1T) For toilet training, we send boys and girls to separate restrooms. (T4C)	3 5

Table 3. provides an analysis of the combined teacher responses to the questions “Do you think gender is important in terms of the seating arrangement in class? How do you make the seating arrangement?” and “What kind of efforts do you have for creating an environment suitable for gender roles of children in the class?”. Nine teachers from Turkey indicated they did not take

gender into account while two took gender into consideration for seating arrangements. Five teachers from TRNC did not take gender into account while four did. Five teachers from Turkey did not have any practices for eliminating prejudice related to gender roles, three had practices to help prevent the formation of such prejudice. The responses by three teachers were interpreted as

having activities related to wrong practices. Looking at teacher data from TRNC: five teachers had practices aimed at eliminating prejudices, one

teacher did not have such practices and five teachers had activities related to wrong practices perceived to be correct in society.

Table 4. Practices aimed at the elimination of prejudices related to gender roles

Sub-themes	Sample Statements	Expression Frequency Turkey TRNC
Organizing events/using materials related to this issue.	We usually do our activities using visual reading posters (T1T) When showing artist and scientists, I keep male and female ratio equal and aim to eliminate gender prejudices by avoiding sexist books or such event examples, and by not using female nurse or male fire-fighter visuals when teaching occupations (T10C)	6 7
Making explanations/Informing	I tell them that colours, toys or roles don't have gender. (T6T) I try to explain equality of genders to my students using an appropriate language. (T1C)	2 2
Parent-teacher meeting	This is one of the most problematic issues for me at the beginning of the semester. I organise a parent-teacher meeting in the first week to tell parents about this issue. (T11T) With the goal of increasing parents' awareness, we had organised a training session for families last year, and we plan to do the same this year as well. (T4C)	3 1

Table 4. shows that both in Turkey and TRNC, teachers preferred to organise activities and use materials to eliminate prejudices but that they did

not prefer to make explanations or inform families on the issue of eliminating gender prejudices.

Table 5. Training and involving families for prevention of gender-related prejudices in children

Sub-themes	Sample Statements	Expression Frequency Turkey TRNC
We take action about it	I get in touch with families via meetings, training seminars, individual interviews, or home visits. (T4T) During the meetings, I discuss the issue and share materials with them both during meetings and home visits. (T7C)	8 5
We don't take any action about it	We cannot make any recommendations as we are not allowed to contact families (T6T) Unfortunately, we can only work with children as it's a private school. (T1C)	3 5

The responses to the questions of "Do you contact families to prevent the formation of gender-related prejudices in children? If yes, what do you do? in

Table 5 shows that eight of the teachers from Turkey organised family training and involvement sessions, three took no action about it. Five

teachers from TRNC took action about it, and five took no action. According to the data, it is believed

that teachers in Turkey placed more emphasis on training and involving families of children.

Table 6. Evaluation of the national educational policies and pre-school curriculum concerning their suitability for social gender roles

Sub-themes	Sample Statements	Expression Frequency Turkey TRNC
I find the national educational policies to be discriminative concerning social gender roles	Regarding educational policies, I believe that we have a male-dominant system (T1T) We are a male-dominant society (T2T) I find the educational policies to be traditional.(T7C) Our country has not yet gained the necessary perspective about the issue. People in this area, especially our ministers of education should have that perspective. (T5C)	7 6
I find the approach of the educational policies in my country to gender roles to be integrative.	I think they're positive (T5T) I do not believe that there's any gender discrimination at schools. (T11T) Today, the idea of gender equality has been widely accepted, and educational institutions act accordingly when they educate our children. (T4C)	2 3
Pre-school curriculum covers social gender roles	I try to make sure to prepare curriculum suitable for children's development, and I make necessary changes (T5T) It covers social gender roles. (T2C) It contains no prejudice (T3C)	9 7
Pre-school curriculum does not cover social gender roles	The curriculum of the Ministry of Education defines gains and indicators regarding all areas of development regardless of gender. No (T6T) No, it does not (T7T) In my opinion, the curriculum contains prejudice regarding gender roles.(T8C).	2 2

Teachers' responses to the questions of "How would you evaluate the approach of the preschool curriculum to social gender roles?" and "How would you evaluate the approach of the educational policies in our country to social gender roles?" are presented in Table 6. The majority of the teachers in Turkey and TRNC find the national educational policies to be discriminative regarding social gender roles, and believe that the preschool education curriculum is prepared appropriately concerning social gender roles.

DISCUSSION

The teacher perceptions in both countries on gender roles showed that some of the teachers supported gender equality while others believed that there are different social gender roles despite the gender equality. According to the teacher perceptions, women are passive, fragile and emotional while men are independent and powerful (Marshall, 1999; Torgimson & Minson, 2005). In a study by Vatandaş (2007), women were believed to be loyal, kind, compassionate and considerate while men were competitive, feisty and authoritarian. The research data

obtained from the analysis of the life stories of the four female educators show that the female instructors have a lot of confusion about their role as instructors and their motherhood experiences and have made a great effort to comply with the expectations of the other people (Knowles, Nieuwenhuis & Smit, 2009). In general, male and female gender characteristics in all cultures are influenced by the values of the society and therefore different gender behaviors are revealed. In this respect, while gender roles affect attitudes and behaviors in many cultures, it is noteworthy that stereotypes concerning gender roles in many cultures are similar. For example, weakness, naivety, submissiveness and compatibility in women; reactivity, adventurism, punitiveness and toughness in men (Birey & Beyidoğlu Önen, 2013; Burr, 1998, Dökmen, 2004, Marshall, 1999, Torgrimson & Minson, 2005) are some of them. Gender prejudices are defined as beliefs about how men and women should behave differently, because of their different characteristics men and women (Acker, 1992; Payne, 1997). Prejudices regarding gender roles are among the most powerful factors that cause inequality between women and men in society (Oakley, 1991).

It can be concluded that teachers in both countries have practices aimed to prevent the development of gender prejudices in children. A study conducted in Turkey by Yağan Güder (2014) on the perceptions of the social gender of preschool children, found that children had social gender prejudices. Another study by Bayramoğlu (2015) found that children had gender-based belief patterns. These research studies emphasize the need for teachers to pay attention to the behavior, body language and discourse of their practice with children, and to implement practices that do not involve discriminatory patterns.

Some teachers from TRNC in this study made seating arrangements in the classroom based on gender rather than taking into children's preferences. Majority of the teachers in TRNC and some of the teachers in Turkey indicated that they had in-class activities aimed at eliminating children's gender prejudices. According to Temiz and Cin (2017) teachers in Turkey actively work on eliminating sexist patterns, judgments and prejudices in preschool children. The finding that

neither groups of participants from Turkey and TRNC make explanations or inform families frequently in eliminating gender-related prejudices as a method is contrary to the literature surveyed on the field. As a result, it can be argued that majority of the teachers in Turkey and TRNC prefer to do activities and use material related to the issue; and that they do not like to use the method of making explanations or inform families frequently. In line with other studies conducted in this area, preschool teachers need to do activities aimed at increasing awareness and informing families.

Activities organised by teachers aimed at family training and their involvement would allow the family factor to act as a role model in the development of social gender roles and to have a healthier effect on children. There are many studies that emphasize the effects of parents on the gender perceptions of children (Aksoy & Baran, 2017; Aydılek Çiftçi, 2011; Baran, 1995; Burr, 1998; Eser, 2008; Murray, 2004, Yağan & Güder, 2014,). However, the characteristics of the mother and father which constitute the social and economic status (working-non-working, lower-middle-upper socioeconomic status, education level, family structure etc.) and the number of siblings at family, siblings, game and toy preference also affect the gender perceptions of children.

For this reason, teachers' involvement in family education and family involvement activities will allow parents, who are the role models for children, to create healthier effects for the perception of gender. Lemmer (2012) in his study also found that teachers' collaboration with parents reveals more positive outcomes.

Findings of the study by Sırmabıyıklı (2017) where textbooks for family training for the ages 0-18 were analysed with respect to gender roles, agree that most of the teachers in Turkey find the current educational policies in the country to be discriminative regarding social gender roles. Following the implementation of the National Action Plan for Social Gender Equality between 2008-2013 was prepared by the General Directorate on the Status of Women aiming to develop a roadmap for eliminating discrimination

against women and inclusion of social gender equality in all public policies. As part of this initiative, workshops such as "Women" and "Improvement of Social Gender Equality in Turkey" have been organised. The initiative also aims "rearrangement of educational programs, methods, textbooks and all other educational tools and content (The General Directorate on the Status of Women of Prime Ministry, 2009, 2018). It is also important for the teachers to participate in trainings and to organize workshops on the subject. If teachers continue to operate within the framework of professional development principles (Lessing & Witt, 2007) they will also be able to act to meet their educational needs for gender roles.

As indicated in the European Commission's Report (2010), Curriculum theorist Paechter (2003) draws attention to the fact that the official curriculum rarely emphasised gender equality and social gender prejudices are explicitly (mentioning the skills according to gender) or implicitly reflected. In TRNC, the Project for Social Gender and Peace Training was implemented in cooperation with POST Research Institute and Teachers Union of Cyprus and financed by Friedrich Ebert Stiftung in 2013. The aim was to contribute to the efforts for increasing social gender awareness of future generations and teachers/unionists (Birey & Beyidoğlu Önen, 2013). Besides, various unions, institutions, organisations, universities and NGOs both in Turkey and TRNC currently carry out projects in this area. In this regard, it can be argued that educational policies should be improved as part of the effort for increasing social gender equality and that steps currently taken in this direction are promising.

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FORMS OF EVERYDAY LEARNING OF PARENTHOOD BY PHYSICALLY DISABLED PARENTS IN POLAND. STUDY REPORT

Abstract: The purpose of the study is the attempt to present the empirical aspects of the issue of everyday learning of parenthood by physically disabled adult parents. The author describes the methodological principles and the organization of her own research. The article discusses the results of the ethnographic research concerning everyday learning of parenthood by 17 parents with physical disability (9 women, 8 men) and describes the process of analysing verbal data with the use of coding and categorization techniques according to Gibbs, which constitutes the answer to the specified research questions. The main research question was: What are the forms of everyday learning of parenthood by physically disabled parents in Poland? The analyses suggest that parents with physical disabilities every day gain parental experience in the various manner in 4 forms as: situational learning, performed self-learning, learning by the dialogue and non-verbal learning.

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INTRODUCTION

Stelter and Bakiera (2014) highlight that „parenthood occupies a specific place among other family roles as being a mother or a father brings significant values and experiences to the human's life. A baby gives a sense of satisfaction and initiates love bonds by the very fact of being born into the family. Parents become more and more engaged in life and start to see its meaning” (Bakiera, Stelter, 2014, 131). According to Tyszkowa (2014), „every family member, depending on their current stage of life and their individual values, fulfils different family roles and at the same time interacts in various ways and occupies an individual position in the system of personal relationships” (Tyszkowa, 2014, 135). Therefore, it may be stated that a family is an environment whose members, including primarily the parents, learn and gain experience every single day.

Jurgiel-Aleksander (2017) stresses that „an experience of being a parent is one of those which gives adults an opportunity to learn” (Jurgiel – Aleksander, 2017, 75). Przybylska and Wajsprych (2018) in their analysis of the concept of a family as an environment of everyday learning emphasize that its uniqueness in this aspect arises from an intense and strong relationship that connects its members in both the emotional and social spheres (Przybylska, Wajsprych, 2018). Moreover, the authors indicate that learning in the family is possible thanks to the "interpersonal communication during which individuals learn to fulfil the social roles, to follow standards of behaviour, interpretation patterns and experience symbolisation as well as to build emotional relations with other family members and the social world" (Przybylska, Wajsprych, 2018, 36).

According to Przybylska and Wajsprych (2018), the analysis of Polish specialised literature enables us to observe that “the current exploration of the processes of learning in the family focuses mainly around decisive events, such as marriage, child birth or divorce. The knowledge on learning by the members of the family in their direct contacts and a complex network of social relations is considerably smaller” (Przybylska,

Wajsprych, 2018, 100). Therefore, I would like to highlight the significance and need for research that would allow people to get to know and understand the aspect of everyday learning by the adult members of the family. Learning the ways of how physically disabled parents obtain knowledge and skills in everyday social situations in relations with their closest relatives is, in my perspective, cognitively valuable and worth of deeper exploration.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The presented report is a part of the ethnographic research conducted with the participation of 17 adults (including 9 women and 8 men) with physical disability who play the roles of parents (and whose disability started before the birth of the child). The research was conducted in years 2016-2019 during the implementation of the research project as a part of the doctoral dissertation entitled “Everyday learning of parenthood by people with physical disability. Ethnographic research” (Karpińska, 2019, 106). The data come from the unpublished doctoral thesis written under the supervision of Beata Borowska-Beszta, PhD, Professor at the University of Nicholas Copernicus, which was defended at the Faculty of Education, Nicholas Copernicus University in Toruń in 2019 (Karpińska, 2019).

The aim of the research was to get to know and understand the specific nature of everyday learning of parenthood by 17 physically disabled parents in Poland. This report includes methodological assumptions as well as the analysis of verbal data that constitutes the answer to the following research question: What are the forms of everyday learning of parenthood by physically disabled parents in Poland? (Karpińska, 2019).

METHOD

The studies were based on interpretive paradigm. They were complemented with the use of qualitative strategy described in methodological publications by, among others: Borowska – Baszta (2005), Flick (2010), Kubinowski (2010), Jemielniak (2012), Denzin and Lincoln (2009). The research method with the use of which I have

conducted the project was based on ethnography analysed by, among others: Hammersley and Atkinson (1989), Bauman (2003), Borowska – Beszta (2005, 2013), Angrosino (2010), Kostera and Krzyworzeka (2012), Juszczak (2013). While collecting data I used the technique of ethnographic interview according to Spradley (1979) in Borowska – Beszta (2005). The obtained verbal data were analysed with the use of the techniques of coding and categorisation according to Gibbs (2010). The aim of this study was to identify and understand the phenomena of everyday learning of parenthood by physically disabled adult parents and to answer the following research question: What are the forms of everyday learning of parenthood by physically disabled parents in Poland? (Karpińska, 2019).

PURPOSIVE SAMPLE

I examined how 17 physically disabled parents (9 women, 8 men) at the age of 24-45 every day learn to be parents. A dominant physical dysfunction among female participants was infantile cerebral palsy (4 women, 3 of whom were moving on wheelchairs). The second dominant dysfunction was spina bifida and myelomeningocele (3 women, all of whom were moving on wheelchairs). 1 woman had congenital bone brittleness and used a wheelchair. 1 person had undergone through-knee amputations of the lower limbs and a through-elbow amputation of the right upper limb in childhood (she moved independently without the assistance of prostheses). Whereas the dominant dysfunction among the male participants was infantile cerebral palsy (4 men, 2 of whom used a wheelchair). 2 participants had had their limbs amputated in childhood (one man had had his lower limbs amputated and used a wheelchair, the second had undergone a transhumeral amputation of his upper limb). 1 participant had experienced a transportation accident as a result of which he had suffered a spinal cord injury (he used a wheelchair). 1 man had been diagnosed with Arnold-Chiari malformation (Karpińska, 2019). The selection of informants was purposeful. The personal data of the participants were encoded during the research process.

DATA COLLECTION

I started the project in October 2016 and finished in February 2019. The research lasted 29 months in total. I gathered the account of 17 physically disabled adult parents (9 mothers and 8 fathers), whose disability started before the birth of the child. Before I started a conversation, I had informed each participant about the aim of the study, its assumptions and the fact that their anonymity would be preserved through personal data coding. Moreover, the participants obtained information concerning the purpose of the conversation and a possibility to resign at any time of the research. 15 informants gave their written consent to take part in the study by signing the consent form. Whereas 2 participants gave their oral consent, which was registered during the study, as their conversation took place via Skype. According to Green and Bloome, an oral consent is methodically justified and hence possible. All interviews were registered on a voice recorder (Karpińska, 2019).

DATA ANALYSIS

The technique of data analysis that I chose to use in this research project was the technique of coding and categorisation by Gibbs (Gibbs, 2010). The analytical process started with a deep exploration of raw data (verbatim) to later confront them with the following research question: What are the forms of everyday learning of parenthood by physically disabled parents in Poland? Next, I conducted open coding (Gibbs, 2010). I specified analytical categories out of the obtained verbal data. Then I assigned analytical codes (descriptive codes, analytical codes) to the above-mentioned categories. These activities indicated the further course of the analysis and allowed me to find the answer to the raised research question.

I asked the informants about them gaining parenthood experience every day and one of the categories of raw data (verbatim) was the following category: The forms of parenthood learning, which was formed by the following analytical codes: form: situational learning; form: self-learning; form: learning by dialogue; form: non-verbal learning.

RESULTS

FORM: SITUATIONAL LEARNING

One of the forms of everyday learning of parenthood by physically disabled adults is situational learning. Parents learn by solving problems in situations in which they found themselves. The activities they engage in and reflection on it become a valuable source of knowledge and experience, which are used in the further life. When found in a problematic situation, parents have to act independently, which results in obtaining knowledge and skills, which they may use to solve other subsequent parental difficulties.

*“For example, there has been lately a situation in which A*** got such big spots on her arms (2.0) and ::: we got very frightened, me and my wife, because we didn’t know what that was and ::: that was Sunday so our doctor’s office was closed (3.0). We tried to help her on our own. I got that ointment that we had at home > the name associated with vitamin A< and we put it on her spots and::: waited (3.0). They got smaller and smaller after a few hours so we didn’t need to go to the emergency (4.0), ::: so it works out when something happens (2.0). And now I will know for the future what to do in such a situation (3.0)”.* (Male informant m2)

“Generally it was like that ::: I even on the ward that I stayed on, the ward sister was my mother’s good friend so ::: it was plain and clear, because I immediately woke up after this CC and they told me that my baby was hungry and they gave her to me and latched on to my breast (.), I got her, fed her and that was it (2.0). And ::: later I just knew it because I learned it when I was doing it (2.0)”. (Female informant k7)

*“(2.0) oh for example, such a simple situation, when we went to the doctor and::: A*** was very naughty so I gave him sweets in order not to create commotion (1.0). And::: now I know that ::: I can’t do it because every time we were there he extorted them from me through his behaviour (1.0). I learned that ::: I can’t raise him by bribing.”*(Female informant k3)

“But many things were just happening just day by day when I did something (3.0). And it is still like that, when I do something good it stays and if not I know what to change (3.0). I learned like that and I learn, not that I read something on purpose or acquired (6.0).” (Informant m7)

One of the informants (Informant m3) highlights that he gains experience in everyday situations that he later analyses. He points out that there is a need to create a place where physically disabled parents can share their parental experience. He emphasises that it is a significant element of the functioning of the disabled adults in their roles of mother/fathers as the exchange of experiences and knowledge of how to deal with certain situations despite dysfunctions is the best way to learn parenthood.

“(2.0) I act day by day, I learn out of new situations, I gain experience (2.0). What happens each day, the way I solve something, is the best lesson of being a dad (3.0), but sometimes it is difficult for me, a disabled person, to learn something, to do something, so I would gladly make some contact with other parents in such a situation (3.0), uhm so there would be a place where we could share our experience, talk about the way we do something despite our dysfunctions.” (Male informant m3)

FORM: SELF-LEARNING

It can be observed from the obtained data that participants obtain knowledge also in the form of self-learning. Female informant k9 states that she has always learned everything by herself. She has shaped her skills on her own, including those related to motherhood. Whereas male informant m5 stresses that learning of parenthood involves own search for knowledge and only in that form of learning one can be sure that he/she is a good parent. Moreover, informant k4 describes the fear of the action she was to take when taking care of the baby and only thanks to her own learning and making attempts she overcame this fear and has learned care and nursing activities. What is more, female informant k1 highlights that self-learning and learning of parental roles constituted the source of satisfaction; while responding to more and more challenges made her happy and

complacent, which she would not have felt if she had learned that from books or other people.

"I have been a self-taught person my whole life. I even helped others learn something other than others would have helped me (3.0). The biggest challenge in my life is to hang sheer curtains, ::: the rest I can handle on my own (2.0), so it is clear, I learned because I had to learn, ::: but much more from my own mistakes (3.0). I reached everything on my own (2.0), I learned everything on my own (2.0)". (Female informant k9)

"(1.0) I have always learned on my own (.), I pondered, did, handled something, changed (2.0). And because sometimes I had to support something in my teeth and I tried to do it, I practised and invented my own technique and changed it (2.0), but ::: it was good, I devised the system on my own (laughter) (3.0). Only thanks to the fact that ::: a man trains something, he can learn his role well (4.0)" (Male informant m5)

"At the beginning one is terrified, he/she supposedly decides to do something and ::: everything is planned ::: and everything (3.0), but ::: the reality is different because everything comes with time (4.0). Generally, when my daughter was born, I was frightened (3.0). Because she was so small. I couldn't imagine how I would take the child on my hands> My mobility is reduced, I have a huge problem with balance< so it was hard for me (3.0), but ::: later when we got home it all was happening gradually and it was better and better day by day (3.0). Mostly it was my husband who did most of the things (4.0), and I gradually learned myself what I was supposed to do (2.0). Day by day I did new things, but ::: as I said, I had to learn it slowly on my own because ::: I was very afraid (2.0)" (Female informant k4)

(4.0) I did not look for any information (3.0) on how to take care of a child (3.0). I just waited until the baby is born (4.0) and step by step I learned everything myself (4.0). The purest joy came from the fact ::: that I could do everything every day; learn something new (3.0). If I had read books and ::: had known it, I ::: would not have felt that, you know, that feeling that ::: I had done something on my own and it had been good (3.0). Nobody taught me, only myself (3.0), and ::: together with my husband we could experience

those ::: (2.0) wonderful moments." (Female informant k1)

FORM: LEARNING BY DIALOGUE

The next form of learning of parenthood by physically disabled adults is learning by dialogue. Female informant k5, female informant k6 and female informant k2 talk about learning through conversation with their mothers/fathers, friends or siblings. The women stressed that sharing experiences and learning from the experience of others is a good form of learning to be a mother. Moreover, in their view, a dialogue with another person enables them to acquire a distance to oneself and own problems.

"I derived many things, such experiences and I still have ::: from my mother (2.0), who had 3 children and ::: including me with such problems >, and she also struggled with some prejudices et cetera (2.0). I talk with my mother a lot about such things, so she always tells me something out of her own experience (2.0), for example when she had the same problem with me as I have now and ::: I make some conclusions and ::: try to transfer it to my daughters (4.0)." (Female informant k6)

"(2.0). I asked my friends who already have children how to take care of them and what it is like in general (2.0). I have also talked with more experienced people over the Internet, who told me what it was like in their cases (2.0)." (Female informant k5)

"(4.0) My mother helps me a lot and also my sisters; they have adult children so they went through everything on their own so I talk with them a lot." (Female informant k2)

FORM: NON-VERBAL LEARNING

The collected data allowed me to distinguish a code that indicates that physically disabled parents learn to be mothers/fathers in a non-verbal form. Male informant m8 highlighted that running a blog on which he posts his child's photos allows him to observe how his child is changing, developing and therefore he analyses his parenthood, makes conclusions what is good and what should be improved. Female informant k8

talks about being with her daughters and observing them as a form of improving own parental experience.

"I run a blog on which I post photos of my son (3.0) and my whole family (4.0). I want to show that ::: even though we are disabled and ::: we have a child, we live normally (2.0) and that ::: disabled parents are not worse than others (4.0). That's why I show my child in different stages of development (3.0). In different situations in order to demonstrate that ::: we live the way others live (3.0). It allows me to look at what it was like (1.0), observe my son and wonder if what I did (.), I did good (2.0) I learn how to be a dad through this (2.0)." (Male informant m8)

"I spend a lot of time with my daughters (2.0), observe them ::: It allows me to see how they change (1.0), and what their needs are" (Female informant k8)

"(5.0) but ::: I gain a lot ::: when I can see what my daughters do (1.0). And when they were small, I also looked at them, when they played or something :::, I knew what to do next, it helps (Male informant m4).

CONCLUSION

The conducted analyses suggest that parents with physical disabilities every day gain parental experience in the following manner. Firstly, they learn from situations which they experience every day. Secondly, they look for knowledge on their own and shape their parental skills. Thirdly, they learn by dialogue – through conversation thanks to which they share their experience and derive from the experience of their parents, siblings, friends. Last but not least, they learn to be mothers/fathers in a non-verbal form. The study results, obtained with the use of the technique of coding and categorisation¹⁶ in response to the research question on forms of everyday learning of parenthood by physically disabled adult parents lead to a statement that the structure of everyday learning of parenthood in the case of these 17 physically disabled adults is built by the forms of everyday gaining of skills and messages, among others. Four forms of everyday learning of parenthood emerge from the study. One of them is situational learning, appointed by 5 informants. Another form distinguished out of raw data

(verbatim) is self-learning, which was indicated by 4 informants. Yet another form of everyday learning of parenthood by the physically disabled is learning by dialogue, which is used in everyday life by 3 informants. The collected verbal data allowed me to observe that physically disabled parents learn to be mothers/fathers in a non-verbal form. 2 informants talk about observation of a child and being with them as a form of learning. Whereas 1 informant indicates that running a blog with his son's photos is a form of reflexion on his parenthood.

Parenthood constitutes a significant value in the lives of my informants, namely 17 physically disabled parents. They gain knowledge and experience on how to be a parent every day. Despite a satisfaction from their own parental competences and complacency about the fact that multiple barriers in learning to be mothers/fathers can be overcome, the parents indicate a need to share their experience with other physically disabled parents, which is echoed, for example, in the following statement: "I would gladly make some contact with other parents in such situation, so there would be a place where we could share our experience, talk about the way we do something despite our dysfunctions". Hence, it can be presumed that creating a place for sharing everyday experience for parents with physical disabilities would help them in everyday learning of parenthood.

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POST-TRAUMATIC GROWTH AMONG THE 1999 DÜZCE EARTHQUAKE SURVIVORS

Abstract: The current study aimed to examine posttraumatic growth (PTG) after earthquake victimization. Variables that may be related to PTG were examined by using Model of Life Crises and Personal Growth (Schaefer & Moos, 1992). In order to examine PTG, the roles of demographic variables, event-related variables, environmental factors, system factors, earthquake specific coping, cognitive appraisal factors, and general ways of coping responses factors were examined. One hundred ninety-nine adults (105 females and 94 males with an age range of 18 to 73) were participants of the study. The participants were from Kaynaşlı, Düzce. The participants were selected on the basis of their age, gender, and the type of their houses. They were contacted through home visits. In the result section, the variables related to PTG were presented. As a result of the regression analysis, it was found that being married, perceived social support, well-being, problem-focused coping, and seeking social support coping were significant predictors of the level of PTG. The results of regression analysis also showed that, general problem focused coping was more efficient than earthquake specific active coping after earthquake victimization for the development of PTG. The article was written from the Ph.D. thesis, titled: "Positive outcomes among the 1999 Düzce earthquake survivors: Earthquake preparedness behaviour and posttraumatic growth".

Keywords: disasters, posttraumatic growth, earthquake preparedness behavior, coping, resources.

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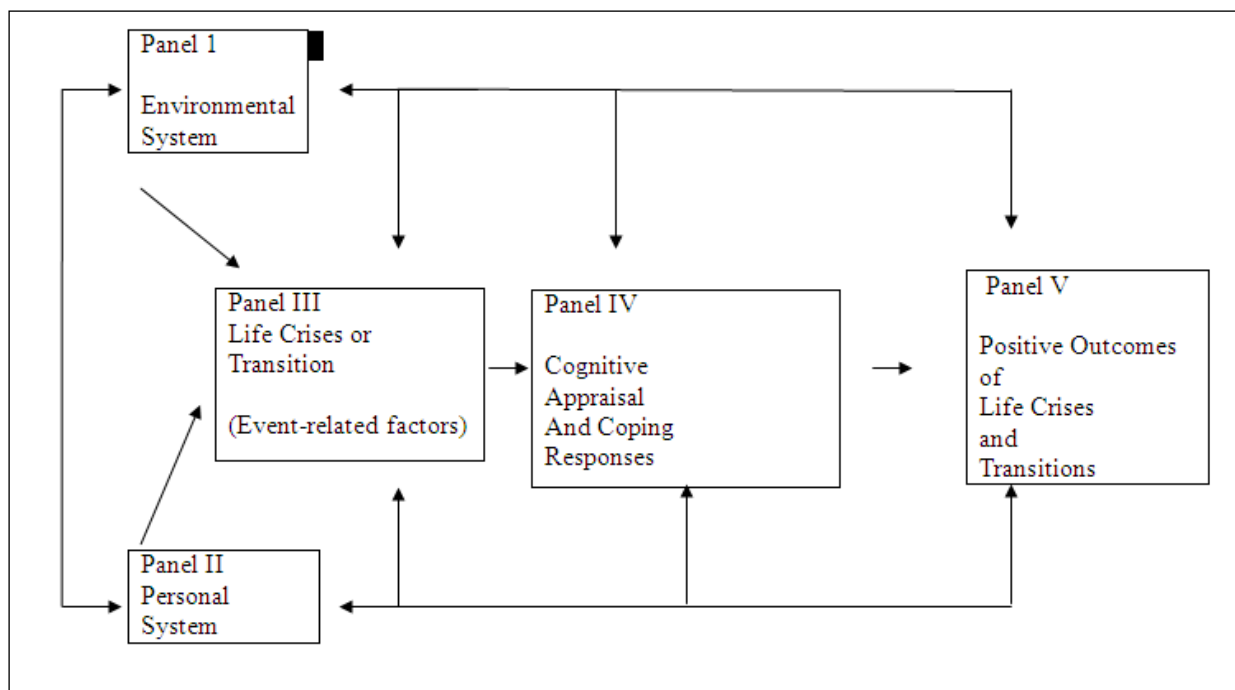
INTRODUCTION

The current study aimed to examine a potential positive outcome of Düzce Earthquake experience, namely posttraumatic growth (PTG). In order to examine PTG, environmental factors, system factors, event related factors, earthquake specific coping and cognitive appraisal factors, and general ways of coping responses factors were examined. Variables that may be related to PTG was examined after earthquake victimization by using a model, which was the Model of Life Crises and Personal Growth (Schaefer & Moos, 1992).

MODEL OF LIFE CRISES AND PERSONAL GROWTH

Schaefer and Moos (1992) incorporated the possible roles of environmental, individual, and event related factors, cognitive processing, and coping in explaining subsequently on growth reactions. They suggested a conceptual framework, namely “life crises and personal growth model” to explain PTG as an unintentional change model.

Figure 1. A conceptual model for understanding positive outcomes of life crises and transitions (Schaefer & Moos, 1992).



According to the model, environmental and personal factors influence life crisis and their aftermath, and influence appraisal and coping responses which in turn influences personal growth. Growth is based on enhanced social resources, personal resources, cognitive appraisals, and coping responses. Environmental and personal system factors interact with event related factors (e.g., severity, duration, and timing of a crisis and its scope), which determine cognitive processes and coping and subsequently their aftermath, which in turn affects resources (see Figure 1).

Therefore, what determines the situation after the traumatic experience (Panel III) is the combination of one's personal (Panel II), and environmental (Panel I) resources and how it is appraised and dealt with (Panel 4). Thus, according to the model for PTG (Panel 5), crucial factors are:

Panel I: Environmental System Factors: The resources of this panel are economical situation, social support network, quality of life determinants, income, a positive family environment. In the current study, quality of life,

social support, and income were examined as the factors of Panel I.

Panel II: Personal System Factors: The resources of this panel are increased personal resources such as self-efficacy, spirituality, and past experiences, being married, being older, and having better education are related to facilitation of PTG. In the current study, age, marital status, sex, education, religiousness and well-being were examined as the factors of Panel II.

Panel III: Life Crisis and Transition (event-related factors): In the current study, severity of earthquake experience and posttraumatic stress were examined as the factors of Panel III.

Panel IV: Cognitive Appraisal and Coping Responses Factors: In the current study, earthquake preparedness behavior was examined as earthquake specific coping, and self-efficacy and outcome-efficacy were examined as earthquake specific cognitive appraisals. Problem-Focused Coping, Seeking Social Support, Helplessness Coping and Fatalistic Coping were examined as general coping responses.

Panel V: Positive Outcomes of Life Crisis and Transitions (PTG): In the current study, PTG was used as positive outcome panel.

Consistent with the theory of stress and coping, Schaefer and Moos (1992) suggested that how much the person becomes distressed is affected by his or her characteristics, appraisal of the event, and coping strategies. These three factor groups determine the transition from trauma to PTG. Appraisals and coping strategies play an important role in this transition. With problem-focused coping, the individual evaluates the event in a rational manner and reappraises the event in a more positive way, and takes actions to solve problems. However, with avoidance coping, the individual evaluates the event as unimportant or beyond their control, and chooses to be passive in the face of the traumatic event. Some studies have empirically tested Schaefer and Moos model. The study of Siegel, Schrimshaw and Pretter (2005) showed that negative affect negatively and positive reappraisal coping, and emotional support were positively and significantly related to PTG among the HIV/AIDS patients.

Similar to Schaefer and Moos' model, Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory (Hobfoll, 1989) emphasized that individuals, families, societies try to maintain, foster and protect their resources when exposed to traumatic events. Their purpose is to provide further resource protection by repairing their damage and mobilizing resources. In this process, they don't show only reactive behaviors to the stressors, they also show proactive behaviors. This result may lead to change in their reliance on themselves and on others (Hobfoll, 2001). This is the proposal of the COR theory. In the current study resources and active coping behavior concepts of COR Theory were used to supplement the Schaefer and Moos' Model, which is the basic model of the current study. For this purpose, earthquake preparedness behavior was taken as an active coping behavior and integrated into the cognitive appraisal and coping responses panel of Schaefer and Moos' Model.

In the current study, this active coping behaviour was earthquake preparedness behaviour and so in addition to Schaefer and Moos Model, cognitive appraisal and coping responses panel was divided into two parts. First part include earthquake specific coping, namely earthquake preparedness behaviour and earthquake specific cognitive appraisal namely self-efficacy and outcome-efficacy, it comes from Hobfoll's argument and we added it to the Schaefer and Moos' Model. On the other hand, second part includes general ways of coping namely problem-focused, seeking social support, helplessness and fatalistic coping responses. Similar with Schaefer and Moos' Model, religiousness, coping abilities, coping self-efficacy, and social support are very important personal resources for COR Theory.

The most important addition of Hobfoll (2007) to the model of Schaefer and Moos is "the need for behavioural changes for PTG" argument. In order to experience PTG, survivors should actually engage in something behavioural. According to Hobfoll, if changes in thoughts are not transformed into behavioural changes, PTG can be an illusion. Therefore, behavioural strategies and active coping are important for "real PTG".

Different models emphasize different parts of the growth concept. In the present study, PTG after

victimization was evaluated within the COR model and Schaefer and Moos' Life Crises and Personal Growth Model, hypothesizing that key personal resources which are socio-demographic factors, coping abilities, religiousness and perceived social support influence the PTG after earthquake victimization.

- Empirical Research on Factors Related to Posttraumatic Growth
- Environmental System Factors That Predict Posttraumatic Growth

Some of the environmental system factors, such as quality of life, social support and income were investigated as environmental system factors panel of Schaefer and Moos Life Crisis and Personal Growth Model in the current study. According to study of Tang (2006) after the Southeast Asian Earthquake-Tsunami, frequent support seeking was one of the best predictors of PTG. In order to extend their model on PTG, Calhoun and Tedeschi (2004) studied children who experienced Hurricane Floyd and the subsequent flooding. According to the results of their study, supportive social environment was significantly related to PTG. Furthermore, the amount and type of social support can be important and they can be determined by the severity of the event, prior stressors, and prior personal and social resources (Tedeschi, Park, & Calhoun, 1998). With regards to income, Linley and Joseph (2004) and Hobfoll's (2001) studies examined the relationship between socio-demographic variables and PTG. The results of these studies showed that income is a significant predictor of PTG. Higher income was found to be significantly related with more PTG (Linley & Joseph, 2004). Thus, individuals with higher income as a resource, as proposed by Hobfoll (2001), show more PTG.

PERSONAL SYSTEM FACTORS THAT PREDICT POSTTRAUMATIC GROWTH

With regard to sex and age, women and younger survivors were found to be more likely to report PTG than men and older survivors, respectively (Linley & Joseph, 2004). Milam (2004) found significant contribution of religiosity on PTG

among HIV/AIDS patients. Religiousness may have a stress-buffering role by influencing the choice of specific coping strategies (Park, Cohen, & Herb, 1990). Religious activities were one of the many available resources for extending social networks. For example, going to mosque after disaster victimization might be a critical way of interacting with other disaster victims. Social support might be an important mediator in the relationship between religiosity and PTG.

LIFE CRISIS OR TRANSITION (EVENT-RELATED) FACTORS THAT PREDICT POSTTRAUMATIC GROWTH

People's responses to crisis are based on some event related factors, such as severity, amount of exposure, proximity and duration (Schaefer & Moos, 1992). Some studies found that more severe exposure is associated with more psychological symptoms and distress (Carr, Lewin, Webster, Hazell, Kenardy, & Carter, 1995; Lonigan, Shannon, Taylor, Finch, & Sallee, 1994). People in Kaynaşlı, study site, experienced two severe earthquakes during a span of 3 months. According to PTG Model of Tedeschi and Calhoun (1998), greater distress is expected to lead to greater posttraumatic growth. According to Tedeschi and Calhoun (1998), the traumatic event can lead to significant damage in the existing schemas. Traumatic stressful events are seismic challenges for the previous schemas by shattering pre-trauma goals, beliefs and coping.

EARTHQUAKE SPECIFIC COPING, COGNITIVE APPRAISAL AND GENERAL COPING RESPONSES FACTORS THAT PREDICT POSTTRAUMATIC GROWTH

There is no research that directly examine the relationship between earthquake preparedness behaviour, self-efficacy, outcome-efficacy, and PTG. One of the important contributions of the current study is to analyze the relationship between earthquake preparedness behavior and PTG. The development of new coping resources and using problem-focused coping is one of the most important variable related to PTG. The study of Oaksford, Frude, and Cuddihy (2004), after the Lower Limb Amputation, and the study of Tang

(2004) after the Southeast Asian Earthquake-Tsunami showed the predictive power of active coping on posttraumatic psychological growth. As a result, for the post-trauma factors, people using more problem-focused coping handle the trauma more easily and have more improvement (Sheikh, 2004). By using problem focused coping, people evaluate the traumatic event in a more rational way, reappraise the event in a more positive manner, and take some logical actions to solve the trauma related problems.

1999 MARMARA AND DÜZCE EARTHQUAKES

The 17 August 1999 Marmara Earthquake was the second worst natural disaster in terms of extent of human loss, after the 1939 Erzincan Earthquake, ever to take place in Turkey. It resulted from the rupture of the North Anatolian fault system with a magnitude of 7.4 at the Richter scale. The earthquake caused 17,127 deaths and 43,953 injuries. After the earthquake, 10,000 houses were totally destroyed and approximately 240,000 houses and work buildings were severely damaged (Government Crisis Center, 1999a). Three months after the 17 August 1999 Marmara Earthquake, another earthquake of 7.2 magnitude occurred near Duzce on November 12, 1999 (Government Crisis Center, 1999b). The earthquake caused 244 deaths and 544 injuries only in Kaynaşlı.

HYPOTHESIS

1. In terms of environmental system factors, higher quality of life, social support, and income will be related to higher PTG.
2. In terms of personal system factors, being older, being married, being female and higher education, religiousness, and well-being will be related to higher PTG.
3. In terms of event-related factors, higher severity of traumatic event, and posttraumatic stress will be related to higher PTG.
4. In terms of earthquake specific coping and cognitive appraisal factors, higher earthquake

preparedness behavior, self-efficacy and outcome-efficacy will be related to higher PTG.

5. In terms of general coping responses factors, more problem-focused coping, seeking social support, lower helplessness coping, and fatalistic coping will be related to higher PTG.

METHOD

SAMPLE

One hundred ninety-nine adults (105 females and 94 males with an age range of 18 to 73) from Kaynaşlı were participants of the study. The participants were selected on the basis of their age, gender, and the type of their houses. They were contacted through home visits. The mean age of the participants was 34.81 (Range: 18-73). The majority of the participants were married (74.9%). Fifty six percent of the sample was employed and 73.9% of the participants reported having a child in their homes. Considering education level, 4% of them ($n=8$) were illiterate, 38.7% of them ($n=77$) were primary school graduates, 22.1% of them ($n=44$) were secondary school graduates, 32.2 % of them ($n=64$) were high school graduates, and 3% of them ($n=6$) were university graduates. Most of the sample lived the majority of their lives in Kaynaşlı.

INSTRUMENTS

THE WAYS OF COPING QUESTIONNAIRE (WCQ)

Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WCQ) was designed by Lazarus and Folkman in 1985 to examine a broad array of cognitive and behavioral strategies that people engage in when they are in diverse stressful contexts. In the current study, to examine the type and frequency of the coping styles, that 1999 Duzce Earthquake survivors used after victimization, the 42-item WCQ which was obtained from the study of Karanci, Alkan, Akşit, Sucuoğlu, and Balta (1999) was used. Karanci et al., (1999) reported the Cronbach's alpha reliabilities of the five scales as problem solving ($r=.75$), fatalistic approach ($r=.78$), helplessness approach ($r=.69$), seeking social

support ($r=.59$), and escape ($r=.39$). According to data of the present study 4 factors were determined. The first factor was labeled as “problem solving/optimistic coping” ($r=.81$), the second factor was “fatalistic approach” ($r=.76$), the third factor was labeled as “helplessness/self-blaming approach” ($r=.59$) and the fourth factor was labeled as “seeking social support” ($r=.58$). The internal consistency of the whole scale was found to be .84.

POST-TRAUMATIC GROWTH INVENTORY

Post-traumatic Growth Inventory (PTGI) was developed by Tedeschi and Calhoun (1996). In 1996, Tedeschi and Calhoun conducted a study for the reliability of the PTGI in a university sample. The results of this study showed an acceptable construct validity, internal consistency coefficient (.90) and test-retest reliability over a two months' time interval (.71). In 2005, Kılıç made the Turkish translation of PTGI. Although, the original PTGI used 6-point scales, in his translation, Kılıç used 5-point scale with a different wording as compared to the original and he also used a 4-factor solution. Cronbach alpha reliability of the scale was moderate (.73) in the current study.

WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION QUALITY OF LIFE SCALE (WHOQOL-BREF)

The WHOQOL-BREF was developed by the World Health Organization (1993) to collect information related to the quality of life of patients. The WHOQOL-BREF instrument has 26 items measuring the following broad domains: physical health, psychological health, social relationships, and environment. Fidaner, Elbi, Fidaner, Yalçın, Eser, Eser, and Göker (1999) adapted the WHOQOL-BREF into Turkish. The study showed that WHOQOL-BREF can be used instead of WHOQOL-100 as a reliable and valid scale. Correlation coefficients ranged between .49 and .78. In the current study WHOQOL-BREF version was used and its Cronbach's alpha reliability was .88.

REVISED AND TRANSLATED MULILIS-LIPPA EARTHQUAKE PREPAREDNESS SCALE (MLEPS)

The original form of MLEPS has been translated and adapted into Turkish by Şakiroğlu (2005). In the study of Şakiroğlu, preparedness was examined in 5 categories, namely supply, utilities, stabilization, planning, and knowledge. In the original scale subjects were asked to rate the difficulty of preparing for each item to measure the variable of self-efficacy on a 5-point scale, from 1: not at all difficult to 5: extremely difficult. In the Turkish version, subjects were also asked to rate the perceived effectiveness of preparing for each item in order to measure the variable of outcome efficacy. Participants rated both difficulty and effectiveness of preparing on 3 point scales (1=not at all, 2=a little, 3=very much) instead of a 5-point scale (Şakiroğlu, 2005). The internal reliabilities of the preparedness part was ($\alpha=.78$), difficulty (self-efficacy) part ($\alpha=.86$) and effectiveness (outcome efficacy) part was ($\alpha=.80$) were satisfactory.

RELIGIOUSNESS SCALE (RS)

RS of Yaparel (1996) was used to assess religious resources of the participants. It consists of 31 items rated on 5-point scale. According to Yaparel, RS has 4 subscales, which are religious knowledge, religious feelings, religious behaviours and religious beliefs. Cronbach's alpha reliability of the 10-item RS was .91.

MULTIDIMENSIONAL SCALE OF PERCEIVED SOCIAL SUPPORT (MSPSS)

MSPSS was developed by Zimet, Dahlen, Zimet, and Forley (1988). It consists of 12 items rated on 7-point scales, to assess perceived adequacy of social support from friends, family and significant others. Eker and Arkar (1995) has adapted MSPSS into Turkish with high Cronbach alphas from different studies ranging between .85 to .91. In the present study, whole scale point was used and its Cronbach alpha reliabilities was .89.

PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING SCALE

In order to represent and assess Psychological Well-being, the scale was developed by Ryff (1989). In the present study, the 18-item shortened Psychological Well-being Scale was used. The correlation coefficients between the shortened subscales with the main scales ranged from .70 to .89. The factor analysis confirmed the 6-factor model with a single-second order factor called psychological well-being.

TRAUMATIC STRESS SYMPTOM CHECKLIST (TSSC)

Traumatic Stress Symptom Checklist (TSSC), includes 17 PTSD symptoms and 6 depression symptoms assessed in relation to 'last week'. All measures of TSSC on an 4-point intensity scale (0=not at all bothered; 1=slightly; 2=fairly, 3=very much bothered). The TSSC was validated by Basoglu et. al. (2001). Cronbach's alpha reliability of the TSSC was .83. In the current study Cronbach alpha reliability of the scale was high (.89).

FINDINGS

PREDICTORS OF LEVEL OF POSTTRAUMATIC GROWTH

Hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to examine how well environmental factors, system factors, event related factors, earthquake specific coping and cognitive appraisal factors, and finally coping responses factors of Life Crisis and Personal Growth Model of Schaefer and Moos (1992) predicted PTG. In the analysis, the first block consisted of environmental factors, which were quality of life, social support, and income; and personal system factors namely, age, gender, marital status, education, religiosity, and well-being. Predictors in the second block were event related factors, namely severity of past earthquake experience and posttraumatic stress. The third block consisted of earthquake specific coping, namely earthquake preparedness behaviour and earthquake specific cognitive appraisal factors, namely poor self-efficacy and outcome-efficacy. Predictors in the fourth block were general ways of coping responses factors, which were problem-focused coping, seeking social support coping, helplessness coping and fatalistic coping. Blocks

were added to analysis with enter method. The criterion variable (DV) in this analysis was the level of PTG. Table 1 presents the variables that were used in the prediction of PTG, their means, standard deviations, ranges, and in which step they were introduced in the regression analyses. Table 2 presents the standardized regression coefficients (β), R^2 , t values, df and significant F change after each block of the regression analyses. Variables resulted in a significant increment in explained variance (R^2) at the end of each block.

The inclusion of all environmental and system factors of Life Crisis and Personal Growth Model of Schaefer and Moos (1992) in the first step resulted in a significant increment in R^2 , and explained 28.8% of the variance, $R^2 = .288$, $F(9, 181) = 8.129$, $p < .001$. Social support of environmental system factors; marital status and well-being of personal system factors were significant predictors in the first step. Then, in the second step, event related variables resulted in a significant increment in R^2 and explained 2.7% of the variance, $R^2 = .315$, $F(2, 179) = 3.523$, $p < .05$. In addition to social support, marital status and well-being; severity of earthquake experience of event related variables was significant predictor of PTG in the second step. In the third step, earthquake preparedness behaviour and earthquake specific cognitive appraisal factors resulted in a significant increment in R^2 and explained 3.5% of the variance $R^2 = .350$, $F(3, 176) = 3.210$, $p < .05$. In addition to social support, marital status, well-being and severity of earthquake experience; earthquake preparedness behaviour was a significant predictor of PTG in the third block. Finally in the last step, coping responses variables resulted in a significant increment in R^2 and explained 15.9% of the variance $R^2 = .509$, $F(4, 172) = 13.945$, $p < .001$. In addition to social support, marital status and well-being; problem focused coping and seeking social support coping were significant variables in the last step. While earthquake preparedness behaviour and severity of earthquake experience were significant in the third step, after the inclusion of coping responses in fourth step, they were no longer significant. With all these factors in the model, 50.9% of the variance in the level of PTG was explained. When each single variable

was considered in the third step, being unmarried ($t = -4.406, p < .001$), social support ($t = .4291, p < .001$), well-being ($t = 2.917, p < .01$), severity of earthquake experience ($t = 2.238, p < .05$) and earthquake preparedness behaviour ($t = 2.343, p < .05$) were found to be positively and significantly related to posttraumatic growth. In the last step when coping responses were added to the analysis, being unmarried ($t = -3.247, p$

$< .001$), social support ($t = 3.180, p < .01$), well-being ($t = 2.238, p < .05$), problem-focused coping ($t = 5.341, p < .001$) and seeking social support coping ($t = 3.173, p < .01$) were found to be positively and significantly related, but earthquake preparedness behaviour and severity of earthquake experience was not significant after the addition of coping responses.

Table 1. Means and Standard Deviations of Criterion and Predictor Variables Entered in the Three Steps of the Regression Analysis of PTG

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Range
PTG (DV)	3.22	.99	
Block 1			
Income(1:<500; 2:500-1000; 3:1000-2000; 4:2000<)	2.20	.70	
Quality of Life	3.51	.49	
Well-Being	3.45	.38	
Age	34.8	12.6	18-73
Gender(1: Male; 2: Female)	1.54	.49	
Marital Status (1: Married, 2: Single)	1.27	.48	
Education	12.92	3.58	3-18
Religiousness	4.37	.70	
Social Support	5.27	1.35	
Block 2			
Severity of Earthquake Experience (1:No, 2: Yes)	1.60	.49	
PTS	1.27	.44	
Block 3			
Earthquake Preparedness Behavior	2.01	.36	
Outcome-Efficacy (1:None, 2:Little, 3: Very)	2.79	.28	
Poor Self-Efficacy (1:None, 2:Little, 3: Very)	1.31	.29	
Block 4			
Problem-Focused Coping (1:never, 2:sometimes, 3:always)	2.49	.29	
Seeking Social Support Coping (1:never, 2:sometimes, 3:always)	2.15	.48	
Helplessness Coping (1:never, 2:sometimes, 3:always)	1.93	.37	
Fatalistic Coping (1:never, 2:sometimes, 3:always)	2.15	.37	

Table 2. Predictors of Levels of Posttraumatic Growth

Variables	Block	R^2	df	F Change	B	t
	1	.288	9, 181	8.129***		
	2	.315	2, 179	3.523*		
	3	.350	3, 176	3.210*		

	4	.509	4, 172	13.945***		
BLOCK 1						
Income					.052	.794
Quality of Life					.035	.487
Well-Being					.209**	2.917
Age					-.119	-1.591
Gender					.049	.776
Marital Status					-.295***	-4.406
Education					-.110	-1.575
Religiousness					.064	.953
Social Support					.288***	4.291
BLOCK 2						
PTS					-.076	-1.108
Severity of Earthquake Experience					.148*	2.238
BLOCK 3						
Earthquake Preparedness Behavior					.153*	2.343
Outcome-Efficacy					.086	1.278
Poor Self-Efficacy					-.027	-.400
BLOCK 4						
Problem-Focused Coping					B .379***	t 5.341
Seeking Social Support Coping					.204**	3.173
Helplessness Coping					.076	1.264
Fatalistic Coping					-.013	-.181
Significant Predictors on Final Block Well-Being						
					.145*	2.238
Marital Status					-.199***	-3.247
Social Support					.196**	3.180
Problem-Focused Coping					.379***	5.341
Seeking Social Support Coping					.204**	3.173

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hierarchical regression analysis results revealed that being married, perceived social support, well-being, problem-focused coping, and seeking social support coping were significant predictors of the level of PTG. The results of regression analysis also showed that, general problem focused coping was more efficient than

earthquake specific active coping after earthquake victimization for the development of PTG.

CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study is a comprehensive study to examine the factors that may be related to PTG after severe disaster victimization. A major strength of the study was that it examined positive outcomes within comprehensive models and thus yielded an understanding of the concepts of earthquake preparedness behaviour, and PTG. Based on the results about the importance of social support and problem-focused coping on positive outcomes after victimization, these variables may be important in guiding education programs for disasters and disaster management. A survivor's ability to return to social life and to their social support networks appeared as important factors. Therefore, they may need to be considered when implementing interventions to maximize PTG after disaster victimization. Furthermore, using problem-focused coping as a resource was important for positive outcomes. In order to help disaster survivors to be more prepared, and to experience more positive outcomes after disaster victimization, it may prove useful to foster problem-focused coping in disaster training programs is recommended.

In order to prevent possible psychological problems before the earthquakes happen, some kind of resource gain before or after the earthquake could be helpful. The result of the current study showed that social factors (perceived social support) and coping (using more problem-focused coping) may increase PTG, so in disaster training programs, ways to increase social (such as community groups), and coping resources might be examined. According to the results of the current study, posttraumatic stress and earthquake preparedness behaviour were found to be negatively and significantly related. Disasters and disaster related distress effected survivors' level of earthquake preparedness behaviour. In Turkey there is a high risk for earthquakes. For this reason understanding the personal, social and psychological factors is very important to reduce the negative effects of disasters. Preparing for a possible earthquake would reduce the number of life and property loss and decreasing the psychological distress caused by the expectations of future earthquake it will

also have a protective effect on the mental health of people. As previously mentioned, some studies showed that major earthquakes lead to psychological problems among the Turkish survivors (Başoğlu et al., 2002; Salcioğlu et al., 2002). In order to prevent possible psychological problems before and after the earthquakes happen, some kind of social, personal, environmental resources gain and learning the use of problem-focused coping in stressful situations could be helpful.

The results of the present study offer additional support for The Life Crises and Personal Growth Model of Schafer and Moos (1992) to understand PTG. The effect of various variables on positive outcomes of survivors is examined. These measures can be adjusted to the needs of each group and individuals will need to be treated in sensitive ways. In these treatment models, such as cognitive behavioural therapy, social support might be increased and using problem-focused coping might be emphasized. Professionals may identify coping skills and encourage the use of them for dealing with the difficulties posed by the disaster. They need to be sensitive to positive changes that survivors experience after disaster victimization and may try to facilitate PTG in more favourable perceptions of self by the help of increment in resources, such as problem-focused coping, well-being, and social support.

The effect of traumatic events depends on the individuals and varies from individual to individual so it is a complex situation to understand. Therefore, various factors may contribute to positive, negative, and the mixture of negative and positive experiences (Calhoun & Tedeschi, 2004; Jang, 2006). The current study included a group of variables that may be associated with possible positive outcomes in survivors who experienced a severe disaster. The effect of personal, such as income; and environmental resources, such as social support; earthquake related variables, such as earthquake specific coping; and coping styles such as problem-focused coping on PTG was shown in the present study. All therapists, psychologist and other specialists must carefully examine these variables, and psychological interventions considering these variables may improve the

positive outcomes after a severe disaster experience.

There are some limitations of this study that needs to be addressed. The most important limitation of the present study was its cross-sectional design. Longitudinal research is needed to examine how variables contribute the development of positive outcomes after victimization across time. Another limitation of the current study was small sample size. If the sample size of the present study is increased, larger variances on positive outcomes after victimization may be explained by more variables. As another limitation of the present study, the self-report nature of the questionnaires could be marked, since it creates methodological limitations.

The results, therefore, may be subject to self-report bias. The possible differences between perceived and actual state of PTG might be taken into account in interpreting the results. Furthermore, actual state of PTG need to be assessed by other report, such as the clinicians', another family member's report and socio-economic status indicators. Selection of sample from Kaynaşlı, Turkey, led to problems of the representativeness of this sample for other earthquake exposed areas. The selection of present sample only from Kaynaşlı brings about generality problems of the present findings to earthquake survivors from other socioeconomic groups in regards to gender, income, marital status, education level, and employment status and from the big cities.

In terms of recommendations, although the present study included lots of important factors, future studies can measure some other factors that might influence the positive outcomes, such as self-efficacy (Calhoun & Tedeschi, 1998b; Tedeschi et al., 1998), introversion- extraversion (Sheikh, 2004), optimism (Calhoun & Tedeschi, 1998b), and hopefulness (Tennen & Affleck, 1998).

Finally, apart from experiencing a severe disaster it was possible that many of survivors in the present sample had traumatic events in their lives. As a recommendation for future studies, occurrence of other stressful events might be examined with a traumatic event checklist to

determine the relationship between other stressful events for earthquake survivors and positive outcomes. The present study can be replicated with other samples after different types of disaster victimization, such as survivors of flood in order to figure out their psychological distress and PTG levels, and understand relationships between resources, PTG and disaster preparedness. Obtaining findings from different samples exposed to different types of disasters, provide more broad-spectrum support for the Person Relative to Event (PrE) Model (Mulilis & Duval, 1997) and Model of Life Crises and Personal Growth (Schaefer, & Moos, 1992).

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