YEAR FIVE TURKISH TEACHERS’ INTERPRETATIONS AND
IMPLEMENTATIONS OF THE TURKISH GUIDE BOOK IN A STATE PRIMARY
SCHOOL AND A PRIVATE PRIMARY SCHOOL IN TURKEY

Thesis submitted for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

at the University of Leicester

by

Alca Dokuzoğlu

School of Education

University of Leicester

January 2011
ABSTRACT

This study focuses on the State and the Private Primary School teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book. Turkey’s candidacy for accession to the European Union led to some reformations in education in 2004 (Aksit, 2006). One of the aims of the 2004 reforms was to introduce new teaching styles along with renewed textbooks and teachers’ guide books. However, throughout these reformation movements, there has been little attention given to teachers’ training. Although the Turkish Guide Book meant to standardise teaching nationwide, it was also meant to transform primary schooling in Turkey. The main purpose of this study is to gain an understanding of State and Private Primary School teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book in Year Five of Primary Education in Turkey. In this research, naturalistic research tools were used to gather qualitative data. Observations, interviews and documentary analysis were the main research tools. The study took place in a State Primary School and a Private Primary School, both situated in Ankara, Turkey. The research was first conducted in the State Primary School from March 2007 to April 2007 which led to the idea of conducting further research in the private context. Research conducted in the Private Primary School took place between December 2007 and January 2008. The data were collected from ten primary school teachers by means of semi structured interviews and classroom observations. Drawing upon the theoretical framework of Foucault’s (1977) modern power control strategies, a major factor influencing teachers’ classroom practices both in the State and the Private Primary Schools emerged. A highly centralised Turkish educational system has a major influence on teachers’ classroom practices. However the State Primary School participants’ attitude towards teaching and learning was different from the Private Primary School participants. The State School participants had doubts about the new Turkish Guide Book; however they did not make any changes with their implementations of it. However, teachers from the Private School adopted various activities into their teaching. The difference among teachers’ classroom behaviour may be explained through the structure of the schools. Although both of the schools are controlled and inspected by Ministry of National Education (MONE), MONE’s influence over the State Primary School is more evident. Spatiality can also be considered to be a mode of modern power control (Massey, 1994). Therefore the structure of space in both the State and the Private Primary Schools is a form of surveillance apparatus. In particular, Ataturk portraits and Turkish flags were prominently displayed in every corner of the State School, which acted as a reminder of the state control and ‘Turkishness’. On the
other hand, in the Private Primary School state control was not as apparent; however, the structure of the school was organised according to permanent visibility
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract......................................................................................................................................i  

Table of Contents....................................................................................................................iii  

List of Tables............................................................................................................................ix  

List of Figures...........................................................................................................................x  

Glossary....................................................................................................................................xi  

Acknowledgments..................................................................................................................xii  

Dedication..............................................................................................................................xiii  

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION...........................................................................................1  

1.1 Aims and Focus of the Study...............................................................................................1  

1.2 Background to the Study..................................................................................................1  

1.3 The Importance of the Topic............................................................................................5  

1.4 Scope of the Study...........................................................................................................9  

1.5 Research Design.............................................................................................................10  

1.6 Organisation of the Thesis.............................................................................................11  

CHAPTER 2: CONTEXT OF THE STUDY.......................................................................14  

2.1 Introduction.......................................................................................................................14  

2.2 The Policy and Intellectual Contexts of the Study........................................................15  

2.3 Recent Reforms in the Turkish Educational System......................................................17
2.4 Changes in Turkish National Curriculum and the Turkish Year Five Teachers’ Guide Book.................................................................................................................................18

2.5 Privatisation of the Schools in Turkey.............................................................................................21

2.6 PISA rank in Turkey in 2003.............................................................................................................23

2.7 Teachers’ Educational Beliefs and Values.....................................................................................24

2.8 Teaching Activities.........................................................................................................................29

  2.8.1 Teacher Talk Activities...........................................................................................................29

  2.8.2 Teachers’ Questioning.............................................................................................................31

  2.8.3 Co-operative Learning Activities.......................................................................................33

2.9 Multiple Intelligences.....................................................................................................................34

2.10 Choosing Learning Activities......................................................................................................35

  2.10.1 Choosing for Instructional Planning....................................................................................35

  2.10.2 The Teacher as Decision-Maker..........................................................................................41

2.11 Chapter Summary.........................................................................................................................42

CHAPTER 3: CONSTRUCTIVISM AND MODERN POWER CONTROL.................................44

3.1 Introduction....................................................................................................................................44

3.2 Theoretical underpinnings of the Thesis.....................................................................................44

3.3 Constructivism..............................................................................................................................50

  3.3.1 Constructionist versus Constructivist..................................................................................50

  3.3.2 The Socio-Cultural Theory of Vygotsky................................................................................55

  3.3.3 Constructivist Pedagogy.........................................................................................................58

iv
3.4 Modern Power............................................................................................................................................63

3.4.1 Panopticism and Hierarchical Observation.........................................................................................67

3.4.2 Symbolic Architecture and Space.........................................................................................................71

3.4.3 Examinations..........................................................................................................................................80

3.4.4 Normalising Judgments.........................................................................................................................83

3.5 Chapter Summary........................................................................................................................................85

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.......................................................................................................87

4.1 Introduction..............................................................................................................................................87

4.2 Aims of the Study.....................................................................................................................................87

4.3 Ontology and Epistemology of the Study.................................................................................................88

4.3.1 Ontological........................................................................................................................................88

4.3.2 Epistemological...................................................................................................................................91

4.4 Preparation of the Research Design .........................................................................................................93

4.4.1 Case Study Design and Rationale........................................................................................................94

4.4.2 Generalization in Case Studies............................................................................................................98

4.4.3 Trustworthiness and Validity................................................................................................................100

4.5 Sampling..................................................................................................................................................103

4.5.1 Sampling of the Literature..................................................................................................................105

4.6 Data Collection Techniques....................................................................................................................106

4.6.1 Observations.......................................................................................................................................107

4.6.2 Interviews..........................................................................................................................................110
CHAPTER 5: TEACHERS’ KNOWLEDGE OF CURRICULUM AND PUPILS’ LEARNING.......................................................................................................................... 171

5.5.2 Knowledge of Pupils............................................................................................................. 171
5.5.3 Knowledge about the Teaching of Particular Content Topics.............................................. 173
5.5.4 Knowledge about Curriclum Materials and Programmes...................................................... 177

5.6 Chapter Summary...................................................................................................................... 182

CHAPTER 6: TEACHERS’ CHOICES OF CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES AND SPATIALITY IN SCHOOLS................................................................................................................. 184

6.1 Introduction...................................................................................................................... 184

6.2 The Factors Influencing Teachers’ Choices of Classroom Activities.............................................. 184

6.2.1 Activities for Exam Preperations.................................................................................. 188

6.2.2 Pupils’ Academic Needs.............................................................................................. 190

6.2.3 The Turkish Guide Book Requirements........................................................................... 200

6.3 Impact of School and Classroom Space on Y5 Turklish Teachers’ Classroom Behaviour................................................................................................................................. 211

6.3.1 Use of Space in the State Primary School................................................................ 211

6.3.2 Use of Space in the Private Primary School.................................................................. 215

6.4 Chapter Summary...................................................................................................................... 221

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION............................................................................................................. 225

7.1 Introduction...................................................................................................................... 225

7.2 The Factors Influencing Teachers’ Interpretations and Implementations................................. 225
7.3 The Factors Influencing Teachers’ Choices of Classroom Activities.................................231

7.4 Power Control in Centralised Turkish Education.................................................................236
   7.4.1 Power Control Through the Turkish Guide Book and the Textbook..................236
   7.4.2 Power Control Through Examinations..............................................................237
   7.4.3 Power Control Through Spatiality....................................................................240
   7.4.4 Power Control Through Repetitive Rituals and the Pledge to Turkish Youth...242

7.5 Chapter Summary.............................................................................................................243

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION............................................................................................245

8.1 Summary of the Study......................................................................................................245

8.2 Addressing the Gap in Literature on Turkish Education..................................................249
   8.3.1 The Demands of the Gatekeeper and the Participants.......................................249
   8.3.2 Participants’ Doubts About My Identity and Ethical Considerations..............251

8.3 Directions and Recommendations for Future Research...............................................254

8.4 What I have learnt as a researcher from undertaking this study....................................255

REFERENCES.....................................................................................................................256

Appendix 1: A sample Transcript.........................................................................................276

Appendix 2: Observation Field Notes...................................................................................283

Appendix 3: A Colour Coded transcript..............................................................................291

Appendix 4: Permission Letter.............................................................................................296

Appendix 5: A Sample text from the Turkish Guide Book..................................................298
LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 PISA Scores ..............................................................................................................23
Table 2.2 Teaching Activities ..................................................................................................29
Table 2.3 Question Types .........................................................................................................32
Table 4.1 Ontological and Epistemological Positions ..............................................................90
Table 4.2 Types of Case Study .................................................................................................95
Table 4.3 Ethical Theory ........................................................................................................127
Table 5.1 Contents of the Turkish Guide Book .......................................................................134
Table 5.2 Analysis of the Turkish Guide Book ......................................................................135
Table 5.3 Participants .............................................................................................................154
Table 5.4 Populations of the State and the Private Primary School .......................................166
Table 5.5 Teachers Knowledge ...............................................................................................167
Table 6.1 The State Primary School Classroom Observation Schedule ................................185
Table 6.2 Private Primary School Classroom Observation Schedule ....................................186
Table 6.3 factors Influencing Teachers’ Choices ...................................................................187
Table 7.1 The Private Primary School Aims .........................................................................241
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 6.1 Primary School Building and the Assembly Area................................................213
Figure 6.2 The Private School Entrance.................................................................................216
Figure 6.3 The Private Primary School Display.....................................................................217
Figure 6.4 The Private Primary School Group Work Classroom Organisation.....................218
Figure 6.5 The State Primary School Classroom Layout.......................................................220
Figure 6.6 The Private Primary School Classroom Layout....................................................221
## GLOSSARY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BEI</td>
<td>British Education Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BERA</td>
<td>British Educational Research Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DfES</td>
<td>The Department for Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MONE</td>
<td>Ministry of National Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NLS</td>
<td>National Literacy Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC</td>
<td>The National Curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGfL</td>
<td>The National Grid for Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ofsted</td>
<td>The Office for Standards in Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORACLE</td>
<td>Observational Research and Classroom Learning Evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZPD</td>
<td>The Zone of Proximal Development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

“I can no other answer make, but, thanks, and thanks.” William Shakespeare

First and foremost, I would like to thank my supervisor Dr Hugh Busher for his analytical and constructive feedback throughout this journey. His in-depth and direct comments helped me to comprehend my needs for constructing this work.

This is a great opportunity to express my respect for the participants whom I identified as Mr Utopia, Ms Nurse, Mrs Joy, Mrs Love, Mrs Reason, Ms Young, Mrs Life, Ms Fun, Mrs Art and Mrs Experience who shared with me their experiences, knowledge and thoughts, and therefore made this thesis possible.

I am indebted to many of my colleagues from the University of Leicester for their support. I am pleased to thank Jongil Yi (Blue), Fatma Al Saidi, Nadia Shukri, Zahra Baalawi, Wan Baba and Kenny Nommian. Our endless discussions encouraged me to finish this journey. I also would like to thank my dearest friends Murat Kinaci and Levent Kazanci for inspiring me. I also would like to thank Patsy Ottewell for her prayers which gave me the strength to persevere in this study. I am also very grateful to Joe Maingot and Karen Lomax for the time they spent and the effort they put into proofreading this work.

I reserve my deepest gratitude to my dearest darling husband, Stephen who was always there for me throughout this journey. This thesis would not have been possible unless he had endlessly encouraged me with his sincere optimism on this work. Thank you for believing in me. This thesis owes you more than I can express. I would also like to thank my father for his open minded attitude for nearly ‘everything’ which taught me how to be a free thinker. And finally I would like to thank my dearest mum for being the reason for who I am yesterday, today and tomorrow.
To my husband Stephen Ottewell for his optimistic soul,

To my father Dr Lutfi Dokuzoglu for showing me different dimensions of thinking,

To my mother Dr Muzeyyen Dokuzoglu for being my reason.

Thank you.
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Aims and Focus of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to gain an understanding of State and Private Primary School teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book in Year Five of Primary Education in Turkey.

Other aims of the study are:

- To investigate the major sources influencing teachers’ implementation and their interpretation of the Turkish Guide Book.
- To identify the factors influencing teachers’ choices of classroom activities.
- To identify the similarities and differences in teachers’ interpretations and their implementations of the Turkish Guide Book in both Private and State Primary Schools.
- To identify the impact of the school and classroom space on Y5 Turkish teachers’ classroom practices.

1.2 Background to the Study

The study took place in a State Primary School and a Private Primary School, both situated in Ankara, Turkey. The research was first conducted in the State Primary School from March 2007 to April 2007 which led to the idea of conducting further research in the private sector. Initially the research design did not focus on Private Primary Schools. Consequently, the arrangements for research into this sector were made a year after the first part of the research. Research conducted in the Private Primary School took place between December 2007 and January 2008. In the Research Methodology Chapter, detailed explanations of the research design are discussed.
The Turkish educational system was founded on the basis of top-down reform processes (Babadogan & Olkun, 2007). These reforms have had an impact on the current educational practices in Turkey. Therefore, this part of the introduction chapter summarises the previous educational reforms and how they formed the current Turkish educational system. Since the current problems in education are related to the previous inadequacies, it is crucial to explain the previous educational reformations and their place in shaping what we see today in Turkish primary schools.

After the establishment of the Turkish Republic in 1923, the educational system was considered to be a functional tool for a ‘flourishing Turkish nation’ (Gok, 2006, p. 64). This was the reason that the education system was so strategically transformed (Kazamias, 1966). The critical aim of this new approach to education was to create a modern nation without any reference to the ‘culture of their own people’ (Turan, 2000, p. 553).

Throughout the early stages of Turkey’s development as a republic, numerous top-down changes in education took place (Kazamias, 1966). These changes were mainly based on the aim of sustaining secular unity (Kazamias, 1966). One of the most influential reforms in its new educational system was the adoption of Latin script as opposed to Arabic, which together with the purification of the Turkish language from Arabic and Persian words, made mass education more accessible (Kazamias, 1966).

A year before the Turkish Republic was proclaimed, John Dewey was invited to observe and advise politicians on the Turkish educational system (Brickman, 1964). The aim was to raise the standards of education to the level of other modern societies (Turan, 2000). Having carried out a considerable number of observations and assessments over a two month period, Dewey prepared two reports (Wolf-Gazo, 1996). One of the most important changes Dewey noted was related to the secular nature of the Turkish Republic (Brickman, 1964), which was uniting all the schools under the National Educational Ministry, including religious schools (Cayir, 2009). This created a clear dilemma between unity and uniformity. Dewey supported the idea of unity, whereas he considered uniformity as potentially harmful for unity (Brickman, 1964). On the other hand, the phenomena of uniformity within the Turkish educational system was misleading as regards to any ideas of centralization - in other words, one-body control could harm secular unity (Brickman, 1964). Dewey’s reform in 1924 was
not accepted and Turkish educational philosophy is still a ‘strictly centralized educational system’ (Turan, 2000, p. 553).

A year after the founding of the Turkish Republic in 1923, the Code for the Unification of Teaching (1924) was accepted (Cayir & Gurkaynak, 2008, p. 51). Moreover, this strictly centralised nature of the educational system determined teachers’ beliefs and values of schooling in Turkey (Cayir & Gurkaynak, 2008). The educational system is reflected in teachers’ classroom practices.

Dewey also promoted the idea of inter-village schools (Arayici, 1999). Accordingly, the idea of the “social school” emerged which involved schooling along with social and economic needs (Arayici, 1999). John Dewey’s report of 1924 in Turkey stated:

The system should be flexible enough to accommodate itself to local conditions, especially economic. In the towns and rural districts, the studies should primarily be of a practical nature, agricultural or industrial according to the customs of the locality (Turan 2000, p. 550).

By formalising the education system, it was ensured that primary schooling should serve the needs of real life (Arayici, 1999). As the majority of the Turkish population was rural, it was more proficient to provide them with a rural education which could be applied to their own lives (Arayici, 1999). As Ataturk stated, “Peasants are the masters of a nation” (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2007) so they should be given equal opportunities to be educated. However, Dewey’s suggestion was not acted upon for a decade. Village institutes employed a ‘progressive and democratic’ understanding of teaching which was a threat to Turkish unity (Arayici, 1999).

The concept of modernisation was the ultimate aim of the Turkish Republic with a particular emphasis on Westernisation (Gok, 2006). This could be achieved through a single nation society (Gok, 2006). Education, therefore, was an essential instrument to indoctrinate ‘Turkishness’ to its society (Cayir, 2009; Gok, 2006; Kanci & Altinay, 2006). However, this mission discriminated against ‘other’ native ethnic communities such as the ‘Circassians, Assyrians, Kurds, Laz, Romany and Pomak’ (Kanci & Altinay, 2006, p. 24). Throughout the process of developing citizenship, the militarisation of the educational system was also another dimension of schooling in Turkey (Gok, 2006).
The aim of militarisation in education was to keep secular unity under control (Kanci & Altinay, 2006). There were some courses which praised and promoted military power by discriminating against ‘other nations’ in Turkey (Kanci & Altinay, 2006). In these courses, the necessity of the military forces was justified by the ‘geopolitical significance of Turkey’ and ‘a dislike of a strong nation’ (Kanci & Altinay, 2006, p. 60). The primary textbooks attempted to indoctrinate pupils with the ideas of ‘internal and external threats’ and therefore justified strong military forces (Kanci & Altinay, 2006, p. 60).

The Turkish educational system had not been significantly altered since the foundation of the Turkish Republic in 1923. Educational reforms were focused on the curriculum; classroom teaching was not the major focus (Aksit, 2006). After the Basic Education Reform Act of 1997, the idea of an eight year compulsory primary education was introduced (Aksit, 2006). However, it did not focus on teaching strategies.

Turkey’s candidacy for accession to the European Union led to some reformations in education in 2004 (Aksit, 2006). The reform of 2004 was one of the most influential changes in the Turkish education system (Aksit, 2006). It was intended that the reform would introduce ‘modern’ teaching styles into the educational system (MONE, 2005). New textbooks were introduced with the ethos of ‘student-centred learning, encouraging curiosity, research and critical thinking’ (Kanci & Altinay, 2006, p. 64). “Although wars (particularly the independence war of 1923) and military victories remained central topics of discussion, the new textbooks signalled an attempt at demilitarisation” (Kanci & Altinay, 2006, p. 64). Demilitarisation is a term used to describe the attempt of diminishing the militaristic tone of the textbooks (Kanci & Altinay, 2006).

However, there were still some weaknesses mentioned by various authors (Aksit, 2006; Cayir, 2009; Gok, 2006; Kanci & Altinay, 2006). The weaknesses of the new system were related to its top-down reform processes and teaching and learning materials (Babadogan & Olkun, 2007). These weaknesses are briefly explained in the following and their significance to this study is demonstrated.

After the development of the new curriculum, it was piloted in a number of schools. However, ‘the curriculum was revised according to very limited feedback from pilot schools
and other stakeholders’ (Babadogan & Olkun, 2007, p. 6). In addition, although this improvement required a long period of teachers’ training, the new curriculum was not considered in great detail (Babadogan & Olkun, 2007).

The new reform did not target teachers’ specific needs (World bank, 2005). “The current education system is neither structured to respond to the needs of individual schools nor to support teachers’ efforts to improve the learning of all children in their classrooms” (World Bank, 2006).

The change in the National Curriculum from the behaviourist to constructivist teaching strategies were not identified clearly in the Guide Books (Babadogan & Olkun, 2007). In the Teachers’ Guide Book, there were explanations of how to implement activities but there was no explanation as to how these activities might stimulate learning (Goren et al., 2005).

At this point, it is crucial to understand how teachers interpret and implement these set activities. In this way, intended outcomes may not have been achieved through teachers’ implementations from the recent reformations. This research aims to examine to what extent teachers modify set activities by their implementation of the Turkish Guide Book; in other words, whether the prescriptive curriculum, or its packages, achieve their objectives and how it is really put into practice by teachers. Hence, the main focus of this study is the teachers’ interpretations and implementations of The Turkish Guide Book.

1.3 The Importance of the Topic

As previously mentioned, the primary objective of this study is to investigate how teachers interpret and implement the new Teachers’ Guide Book. The new Turkish Guide Book has been referenced as (Goren et al., 2004) throughout the thesis. The Ministry of National Education (MONE) in Turkey is focusing on the National Curriculum in order to revitalize education, whilst preserving the centralised nature of the system. Altering the National Curriculum seems, to policy makers, to be a solution for raising academic achievement.

Although the educational system had already been transformed massively, little attention had been given to teachers’ training (Babadogan & Olkun, 2007). Therefore teachers’ educational values and beliefs were dependent on the prescriptive guidebooks. The focus of
this study is the Year 5 Teachers’ Turkish Guide Book which prescribes constructivist teaching (Goren et al., 2005). Although the Guide Book defines constructivist teaching within set activities, teachers’ understanding of those activities is the concern of the study.

At the end of High School Education, pupils must sit exams for entry into university (Aksit, 2006). These are all knowledge based, multiple choice summative examinations (Aksit, 2006). For that reason, pupils start to prepare themselves for these types of examinations as early as possible because their whole future depends on them.

There are diverse factors or motives affecting the implementation of the Turkish Guide Book such as teachers’ teaching beliefs, conceptions and intentions (Nicholson, 1996). These various factors and motives shape the classroom atmosphere. Learning takes place if a teacher adapts certain activities according to the classroom needs. A prescriptive Guide Book can influence a classroom environment through teachers’ various adaptations. Therefore, what teachers understand from the Guide Book is more significant than what it ‘tries’ to impose. Thus, a teacher’s interpretation plays a crucial role in the classroom implementation of the prescribed curriculum.

As Yero (2001) stressed:

> Individual beliefs and values of teachers play a vital role in shaping the objectives, goals, curriculum, and instructional methods of schools. Those beliefs and values can spell success or failure for any reform efforts imposed by a school or district. (p.1)

Therefore a study about teachers’ interpretations and the implementations of the guidelines would demonstrate the ‘success or failure’ of the educational system in Turkey.

As part of the process of Turkey’s accession to the European Union, the Turkish educational system has attracted attention from numerous researchers (Aksit, 2006; Cayir, 2009; Gok, 2006). Although some of the researchers refer to curricular development and citizenship education (Cayir, 2009), teaching activities were not the main interest of these studies. Hence, the aim of this study is to fill the gap in literature about teaching and learning in Turkey.

The highly centralised Turkish educational system controls teachers in various ways; teachers must employ the Turkish textbooks along with the guidelines (Cayir, 2009). Thus, teachers
are controlled in various ways. However, they are still free to make their own classroom decisions. In particular, classroom practice is based on the teachers’ interpretations and the implementations of the Guide Book. In addition to this, a teacher’s understanding of the teaching activities and the outcomes of set activities play a crucial role in their actual delivery.

According to the 2004 reformations, the textbooks and the teachers’ guidebooks were also improved partially in favour of demilitarisation (Kanci & Altinay, 2006). However, demilitarising the textbooks may only be the first step; the structure of both the State and the Private Primary Schools can act as solid evidence for discriminatory militaristic schooling. This study, therefore, is important in order to identify the current situation of Turkish primary schooling from the perspective of both State and the Private Primary Schools.

The recent situation in Turkey has been defined as:

A mainly Muslim country that practises full secular democracy, it is a working refutation of the widespread belief that Islam and democracy are incompatible. That's not the only reason why Turkey matters. It is a big and strategically important country, has the largest army in NATO after America, offers a crucial energy route into Europe that avoids Russia and is the only source of much of the water in the Middle East. (The Economist, 2007, p. 9)

Turkey is important because of its geopolitical significance between Asia and Europe, famously acting as a bridge between Islam and the West. With the growth of Islam throughout the world, Turkey is trapped between juxtaposing ideas of Secularism and Islam (The Economist, 2007). Events, especially during April 2007, highlight this argument very clearly; a million secular citizens marched in protest through the cities of Istanbul, Ankara and Izmir against the new government which was deemed to be a danger to the secular Republic of Turkey (The Economist, 2007, p. 9). The Turkish Armed Forces is regarded as the “guardian of Ataturk”, as such, military leaders hold executive command over the government. So, if needed, the Turkish Armed Forces could intervene against governmental policy. These events echo previous intervention by the Turkish Armed Forces in 1997.

Current situations in Turkey inspired me to choose the research sites. It was crucial to find schools situated in both the ‘new’ Islamic and ‘elite’ secular Ankara. Therefore, the 2007 election was a good source from which to select the right schools for this study.
The State Primary School is chosen from the Sincan district in Ankara. The district of Sincan is considered to be the centre of the new Islamic wave in Turkey. It is of considerable strategic significance for this study that the State Primary School is located here. The Private Primary School, however, is chosen from a more liberal part of Ankara where the Republican Party was elected in July 2007 (BBC, 2007). These opposing structures of school and location may also affect teachers’ pedagogical thinking, a phenomenon which is discussed in Chapter 2.

In order to give a full picture of the research sites, it is crucial to demonstrate the events which have taken place in Sincan in recent years. The Mayor of Sincan, Bekir Yıldız, and the Iranian Ambassador to Turkey, Riza Bagheri, organised a night called ‘Kudus Gecesi’ (Jerusalem Night) in 1997. The event was advertised as ‘a mass rally to demonstrate against Israel and in favour of Islam’ (Hafez, 2000, p. 169) in locations where posters of Hezbollah and Hamas had been displayed in January 1997 (Altunisik, 2005). The event was considered to be a threat to the Turkish Republic because of its fundamentalist nature (Hafez, 2000). Just four days later, the National Security Council sent tanks into Sincan to demonstrate just how far it was prepared to go.

In addition to these events, some reformations were made on 28th February 1998 (Altunisik, 2005).

1) Extension of Primary Schooling from 5 to 8 years on 21st May 1997.
2) The Welfare Party (Refah partisi) was disbanded on 17th January 1998 because of its threat towards the secular republic. However, the party was reformed under the new name of The Justice Party (Ak Party) (Altunisik, 2005).

Although these memories faded away over time, Sincan may still be considered as the centre of Islamic Ankara. The Economist refers to Islamist groups as “a new class” which emigrated from rural Anatolia to the big cities (The Economist, 2007). Since it received immigrants from rural Anatolia, Sincan is also the heart of the new class, particularly when the events of 1997 are taken into consideration.
1.4 Scope of the Study

Originally the research was a comparative study between English and Turkish educational systems. The first part of the research took place in Turkey. Later, the idea for conducting the research in a Private Primary School emerged as a result of interviewing participants in the State Primary School. Interviews with my participants sometimes led me to unexpected areas. “Interviewing is a flexible, emergent technique; ideas and issues emerge during the interview, and the interviewer can then immediately pursue these leads” (Charmaz, 2003, p. 312).

During discussions with a State Primary School participant about how I was perceived as a researcher in Sincan, Mr Utopia (Teacher 1) brought up the idea of conducting research in a Private Primary School:

The most important thing is that they (parents) have doubts about your identity. You knew that anyway. You tried to explain yourself and what you are doing, but it did not help some of ‘us’ to ease their curiosity. One of my parents asked me if you were a secret agent - they came to ask me, actually. Even if you explain who you are, they would not listen to you, they would not believe anyone; they would only regurgitate their own thoughts. If you had gone to a Private Primary School, it would be different. Why? The people who brought us colleges are the imperialists. Colleges are not Turkish; pupils are not brought up as Turkish. Therefore they would not react to you in this way; our reaction is actually a very Turkish reaction. (Mr Utopia/I/ 10.04.2007)

Mr Utopia defines “being Turkish” as “being curious” or “being distrustful”. Since I was there, in the centre of “the new class”, as a researcher from the University of Leicester with a foreign surname, I caused some curiosity, especially among parents. My participants could not comprehend the nature of the research which was a new phenomenon in that particular school. The concept of ‘research’ in a Turkish sense is often equated with sending out tick-box questionnaires without the researcher being present in the field. Therefore, my presence at the school to carry out research created a climate of fear (of the unknown). When Sincan’s political features are considered, it is not a particularly surprising reaction.
Thus the idea of comparative research between the State and the Private Primary Schools emerged through Mr Utopia’s scrutiny. Replicating the same research design in a Private Primary School was an appealing idea. Most of the private schools have different outlooks regarding education. In addition to this, some of them also have Western influences in their system which may differ from the State Primary School’s approach towards my particular research topic.

There were also other factors that led me to this study. According to the semi-structured interviews in the State Primary School, Ms Nurse (Teacher 2) revealed that one of the factors preventing State Primary School teachers from implementing the Guide Book was its financially demanding features. As Ms Nurse revealed,

... in Music, for example, the Teachers’ Guide wants me to record pupils’ singing; there is not a CD player at the school. Or it asks us to play with a keyboard. It is not possible to find a keyboard especially in a village school. You can only use a flute. Their families cannot support these activities financially, either. In terms of equipment, we have great difficulty. (Ms Nurse/I/05.04.2007).

State Primary Schools are financially struggling to provide enough equipment for various activities. Chiefly, it is very difficult to provide computers for everybody’s needs. On the other hand, most of the Private Primary Schools are rich enough to provide all sorts of equipment for all of these activities (Cinoglu, 2006). In the Literature Review Chapter, information about Private schooling will be given in detail.

1.5 Research Design

When social science research is considered from an existentialist and romantic epistemological framework, the social environment cannot be measured but it can be understood (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). By manipulating the social environment, the researcher cannot reach the answers of the research questions (Cohen et al., 2007).

One of the aims of this research was to understand the natural classroom environment. Therefore, conducting research to comprehend teachers’ interpretations and the
implementations of the Turkish Guide Book could only be understood through a naturalistic paradigm. Since this study focused on the teachers’ perceptions of major factors influencing the pedagogical choices in Turkish lessons, positivist data points would be irrelevant. The case study method is one of the ways of investigating naturalistic approaches without manipulating the events; therefore, a case study was employed to gather qualitative data (Stake, 1995).

One of the most practical features of the case study approach is that it allows the employment of multiple research gathering tools (Yin, 2003b). Therefore, in this research, lesson observations and a series of semi-structured interviews were used in both the State and the Private Primary Schools.

Although the research design had been prepared thoroughly after piloting the research tools, once in the research field, the demands on the gatekeepers and the participants changed the research design relatively. Thus, the research design was altered according to participants’ wishes as explained in detail in the Research Chapter.

1.6 Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis consists of eight chapters. Chapter 1 demonstrates the overall structure of the study by emphasizing the focus and the aims of the study. A brief description outlining the historical background of the Turkish educational system and the impact of the reforms on current schooling is also discussed. In addition, the importance and the rationale of the study and its design are explained.

Chapter 2 discusses the theoretical and the contextual framework of the study. At the beginning of the chapter, the contextual background of the study and Citizenship Education are described and criticised. In addition, the privatization of schools in Turkey is explored in detail. Next, there is a discussion of the contextual background and teachers’ instructional beliefs along with an explanation of their teaching activities.

The new Turkish educational reform requires a constructivist approach to teaching. Therefore, in Chapter 3, Piaget’s (1975) constructivist learning theory is clarified in relation
to teaching. In addition, social constructivism and its influence on teaching practices are explored.

Foucault’s (1977) *Discipline and Punish: The Birth of the Prison* is explained and discussed so as to be able to demonstrate the impact of the centralised education system. Specifically, Foucault’s (1977) analogy of Panopticism which has been adopted into the educational structure of the Turkish State and Private Primary Schools is discussed. In addition, ‘correct training’ is discussed in reference to education. In this section, the aim is to express the link between militaristic indoctrination in the Turkish Guide Book and Foucault’s theory of discipline (Foucault, 1977).

Chapter 4 describes and defines the choice of appropriate research design for this particular study. Starting with the ontological and the epistemological position of the research, the suitability of the case study approach is discussed. The data gathering tools; semi-structured interviews and classroom observations are defined and their appropriateness rationalised. Moreover, challenges in gaining access into the field and the gatekeeper’s demands are discussed in detail. Ethical considerations of the study are also discussed and some dilemmas regarding ethical issues are revealed with references to the research field. The procedures of analysing data are also explained.

Chapter 5 is divided into three sections. The first section addresses factors which influence teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book. Brief information about the participants is also given with details of their educational backgrounds.

Chapter 6 examines teachers’ choices of teaching activities and their typical classroom practices. According to the classroom observations carried out, participants’ typical lessons were selected. The lessons reflected teachers’ attitudes towards teaching and education. This section also considers various typical classroom activities conducted by teachers. The final section of this chapter presents the findings from the classroom observations and the semi-structured interviews. Both the State and the Private Primary Schools are described and the symbolic architectural design and panopticism are discussed. In addition, teachers’ and pupils’ everyday routines and power control relations are analysed.
Chapter 7 discusses the findings of the study. This chapter is divided into three sections which relate directly to the corresponding aspects of the analysis chapters. The aim of the chapter is to complement chapters 5 and 6.

Chapter 8 concludes the research and summarises the study. In addition, this chapter evaluates the contribution and limitations of the study in detail.
CHAPTER 2: CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

2.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the contextual framework of the study and analyses the issues related to the Turkish educational system. In addition, teachers’ values, assumptions and beliefs in relation to teaching are discussed.

It is essential to start the chapter with a brief history of the Turkish educational system, which is also reflected in the present situation and the recent educational reforms. In addition, issues regarding citizenship education and pupils’ indoctrination in ‘Turkishness’ are examined. A brief discussion of the privatisation process and the structure of private education in Turkey are also included in this section.

Turkish primary school teachers’ pedagogical choices are determined by the Ministry of National Education (MONE) (Goren et al., 2005). Teachers in state schools in Turkey have to make instructional decisions based on their prescriptive guidelines (Goren et al., 2005). Therefore, the Year 5 Turkish Teachers’ Guide Book and its weaknesses are examined in this chapter.

Although Turkish primary school teachers need to follow certain guidelines, their unique interpretations and implementations create differences between their classroom environments (Merry, 2004). This ‘restricted’ flexibility allows Turkish primary school teachers to make some classroom decisions of their own. Therefore, teachers’ choices of activities and their various planning models are also explained in order to demonstrate teachers’ choice of practices.

Since the literature about Turkish teachers’ choices and instructional decision-making was limited, various sources from the United Kingdom and the United States of America are also reviewed.
2.2 The Policy and Intellectual Contexts of the Study

The Gokturk Empire was the first formal state established at the foot of the Altai Mountains in Central Asia by Bumin and Istemi Khan in 552AD. Information about educational practices of that time is sparse; “the only evidence of formal education was the alphabet of 38 letters” (Turan, 2000, p. 102). In time, some of the tribes moved westward and eventually settled in Anatolia in central Turkey. Gradually, after accepting Islam, the influence of Islam was almost indelibly stamped on the educational system. The Selcuk Empire was the first leading empire to form an educational system in Turkish history, and was followed by the Ottoman Empire (Turan, 2000). The educational system was predominantly influenced by Islamic values, since the Ottoman Empire was governed by the principals of Islam. Primary education was intended to make ‘good’ Muslims (Aycan, 2005; Kazamias, 1966).

The Turkish Republic was established in 1923, which led to top-down transformations in the structure of the country. Mustafa Kemal Ataturk was elected as leader of the newly proclaimed Republic (Kazamias, 1966). The main problem at the time was that 90% of the population were illiterate (Kazamias, 1966).

Today, our most important and most productive task is national education. We have to be successful in national education and we shall be. The liberation of a nation is only achieved in this way (Ataturk, 1922) (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2007).

‘Europeanisation’ was Ataturk’s ultimate aim (Turan, 2000). ‘Europeanisation’ was considered to be a modernisation process which altered the new Turkish Republic in light of European models (Turan, 2000). Dewey (1964) defines this modernisation period as a moment of tragedy and confusion for Turkey. ‘Europeanisation’ diminished the traces of the Ottoman Empire and propagated the founding of a new Republic on the basis of European standards (Turan, 2000, p. 553).

In the process of ‘modernising and westernising’ the Turkish nation, education was considered to be a functional tool (Gok, 2006, p. 248). It was believed that education was a helpful agent to transform an ‘Islamic community’ into a ‘modern society and a respectful member of Western civilisation and culture’ (Gok, 2006, p. 248). In other words, the target of
education was to build a ‘Turkish’ nation (with a national culture, a single ethnic identity and a single religion and language) (Cayir, 2009, p. 40), which Dewey considered as dangerous for Turkey (Turan, 2000).

The Turkish nation is a military nation’ is one of the foundational myths of Turkish nationalism” (Kanci & Altinay, 2006, p. 52). Therefore, the apparent mission of Turkish education was manifested in primary schools by certain compulsory elements of the curriculum, such as ‘The History of the Turkish Revolution and Ataturkism’, ‘Studies in National Security’ and ‘Religious Culture and Ethics’ (Cayir, 2009, p. 40). These courses praised the ‘nationalistic, passive and authoritarian notion of citizenship’ (Dimitrov & Boyadjieva, 2009, p. 159). Moreover, these courses denied ‘other’ ethnic groups and even portrayed them as a threat to the Turkish nation (Cayir, 2009; Cayir & Gurkaynak, 2008; Kanci & Altinay, 2006).

The Turkish educational system is strictly centralised and controlled by the Code for the Unification of Teaching (1924) (Cayir, 2009; Gok, 2006). All schools in Turkey are required to be administrated by the Ministry of National Education (MONE) (Cayir & Gurkaynak, 2008, p. 51), including foreign and minority schools (Gok, 2006, p. 247). MONE is responsible for everything related to education; the appointment of teachers and head teachers and the preparation of the curriculum (Karakaya, 2004). This highly restricted system does not allow teachers, pupils and parents to create an effective learning environment (Gok, 2006). Moreover, this restricted system does not permit teachers to personalise their teaching according to pupils’ individual learning styles. All the administrative ‘red tape’ and ‘clerical routine work’ are also controlled by the MONE (Cayir, 2009; Karakaya, 2004). Due to the centralised nature of the Turkish curriculum, the textbooks are adorned with nationalistic themes (Cayir, 2009; Cayir & Gurkaynak, 2008). Syllabi, textbooks and guidelines are prepared by MONE (Atici & Merry, 2001; Demir, 2006; MONE, 2001b; Turan, 2000; Yildirim, 2003). Every minute of classroom teaching is also prescribed by the central authority (Karakaya, 2004).

Teachers are civil servants, thus, they rationalise their practices to head teachers and head teachers in turn justify these to MONE (Karakaya, 2004). The typical responses of Turkish teachers’ when asked to describe their responsibilities, as reported by Karakaya (2004), are listed below:
- To do one’s work and be present every day.
- To respect the curriculum objectives.
- Responsibility for carrying out curriculum objectives, that is putting them into practice in my class.

(Karakaya, 2004, p. 202)

As these statements suggest, teachers regard themselves as being accountable to MONE rather than being responsible for the pupils’ enhancement (Yildirim, 2003). Moreover, one of the regulations of the Turkish National Curriculum is to have unit and daily plans, which have to be submitted to MONE (Yildirim, 2003). However, teachers did not find writing reports for MONE essential for effective classroom teaching (Yildirim, 2003).

2.3 Recent Reforms in the Turkish Educational System

Until recently, the Turkish educational system had not been altered since the foundation of the Turkish Republic in 1923 (Gok, 2006). However, Turkey’s candidacy for the EU and ‘domestic critiques of the educational system by academics and civil society’ (Kanci & Altinay, 2006, p. 53) have led to the emergence of reform movements in education (Cayir, 2009; Cayir & Gurkaynak, 2008). This transformation was necessary for a developing Turkish educational system (Aksit, 2006; Cayir, 2009). To be able to meet the educational standards of the EU, educational reforms were crucial according to Chapter 26 of the “Acquis” (European Commission, 2008). ‘The Acquis Communautaire’ is a set of rules and regulations which the EU has introduced (BBC, 2010). This new system was aimed at enabling the nation to reach the same standard of that of current EU members, and as a result, to standardise education. Therefore, some alterations were indispensable (Aksit, 2006; Grossman, Onkol, & Sands, 2006), and MONE decided to embark on a mission to update the educational curriculum for primary schools in December 2004 (Aksit, 2006; Cayir, 2009).

Two fundamental reform proposals were made (Aksit, 2006; Babadogan & Olkun, 2007). The first was related to the improvement of the National Curriculum and the other reform was ‘structural’. This was aimed at the decentralisation of the educational system (Aksit,
However, the second proposal was not accepted when it was introduced in 2004 (Aksit, 2006).

These curriculum transformations were related to teachers’ pedagogical choices and the textbooks. The new curriculum introduced a student-centred approach along with the new textbook which was prescribed with the Teachers’ Guide Book and the Students’ Work Book (MONE, 2005b). The new textbook differed from its antecedents in terms of its pedagogical approach and the content which demilitarised the educational system in Turkey (Kanci & Altinay, 2006, p. 53).

The reforms of 2004-2005 seemed to show history repeating itself. Dewey’s suggestions of eighty years ago were still relevant to contemporary needs, a point which is developed later in this chapter. The same problems were still addressed and the same pertinent solutions were proposed. However, policy makers are still reluctant to take further steps towards “Europeanisation”.

Teachers have to meet the requirements of MONE which creates a stressful working environment (Karakaya, 2004). Moreover, teachers in Turkey do not consider fulfilling students’ needs since the requirements of MONE are the priority for them (Karakaya, 2004). Teachers are not given the choice of what to set and how to teach; they are required to follow ‘centrally prescribed guidelines’ which have altered very little in recent times. Therefore, teachers do not see the need to justify their classroom activities to anyone but MONE (Karakaya, 2004).

2.4 Changes in Turkish National Curriculum and the Turkish Year Five Teachers’ Guide Book

In the Introductory Handbook for Primary Schools, MONE explains all the renovations of the new curriculum and its implementation (MONE, 2004a). In addition, the importance of social constructivism is highlighted (Goren et al., 2005). MONE (2004a) also mentions renewing textbooks and making them more applicable to the new interactive educational system. Zeki Selçuk, Chairman of the State Board of Education considered eight different strategies during the establishment of the new educational system.
1. International league tables were considered such as the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), TIMMS and PIRLS.

2. Whilst preparing the curriculum, 114 academic theses and their data were analysed and used to structure the new curriculum.

3. 37 civil nation associations were invited and consulted regarding the new curriculum.

4. 25 civil nation associations were responded to in writing.

5. Opinions of 2,133 teachers were taken into consideration.

6. 697 inspectors’ ideas were reflected in the new curriculum.

7. 9,192 parental suggestions were taken into consideration.

8. 26,304 suggestions by students were considered (MONE, 2004a).

In Turkish primary schools there was a lack of sufficient cooperation between the experts in education and administrators which caused some difficulty in establishing innovative educational ideas in primary schools (Ozcelik et al., 1993).

The new curriculum was piloted in 120 schools in various parts of the country in the 2004-2005 periods (Aksit, 2006).

The objectives of this curriculum were:

- To reduce the amount of content and number of concepts.
- To arrange the units thematically.
- To develop nine core competencies across the curriculum.
- To move from a teacher-centred didactic model to a student-centred constructivist model.
- To incorporate ICT into instruction.
- To monitor student progress through formative assessment.
- To enhance citizenship education.
- To introduce second language courses into primary schools.
- To widen the scope of religious education.
- To establish a system of student representation and engage students in community work. (Aksit, 2006, p. 10)
These changes were mainly intended to alter teaching strategies, focusing on various learning styles and pupil-centred teaching (Goren et al., 2005). The main objective of this reform was to establish innovative teaching styles (MONE, 2005a).

Although there were some progressive developments with the new reforms, the textbooks were still indoctrinating Kemalist ideologies in a militaristic way (Cayir, 2009). Since education was a crucial tool for developing the ‘Turkish’ nation, bureaucracy and militarism were the central themes when preparing educational reforms. Hence, the fundamental goal for education has not been changed. As Article 1 of the Basic Law (1973) states, the main objective of education is:

> To raise all individuals as citizens who are committed to the principles and reforms of Ataturk and to the nationalism of Ataturk, as expressed in the Constitution; who adopt, protect and promote the national, moral, human, spiritual and cultural values of the Turkish Nation; who love and always seek to exalt their family, country and nation; who know their duties and responsibilities towards the Republic of Turkey which is a democratic, secular and social state governed by the rule of law, founded on human rights and on the tenets laid down in the preamble to the Constitution, and who have incorporated these into their behaviour (MONE, 2001a).

Textbooks before the 2005 reform ‘glorified the state and demanded martyrdom for the nation, since it was always under threat by internal divisive movements and external enemies’ such as Turkey’s neighbours, Greece and Armenia, as mentioned in the ‘Studies in National Security’ textbook (Cayir, 2009, p. 45). In addition to this argument, Kanci and Altinay (2006) focused on the militarised popular sayings and their impact on the textbooks in Turkey. For example, ‘Turks are Soldiers by Birth’ and another one might be, ‘Turks have no friends but Turks’ (Kanci & Altinay, 2006). These popular myths have also had an impact on education in Turkey.

The desire for accession into the EU has been the major driving force behind educational reform. Thus, Turkey’s human rights record and understanding of democracy have been topics of heated debate in Citizenship Education (Cayir & Gurkaynak, 2008). On the other hand, Citizenship Education reflects ‘the historical paradox of Turkish modernity’ (Cayir & Gurkaynak, 2008, p. 56). The curriculum is not only encouraging a civilised world but also wants to indoctrinate Turkish nationality. In addition, the establishment of the Turkish nation also required strong military education which involved an implicit militarisation in
classrooms. Although the paradox was more evident before the 2005 educational reforms, the reforms mainly dealt with instructional methodology (Cayir & Gurkaynak, 2008).

The most important change to the prescriptive guidelines was their constructivist nature which praises interactive teaching (Cayir, 2009). Teachers are asked to stimulate pupils to construct knowledge rather than simply using knowledge transmission (Cayir, 2009). The textbooks do not consist of authoritative texts which need to be learned by heart, rather they guide pupils (Kanci & Altinay, 2006). Despite the positive changes to the tone of the texts, ‘heroism and self-sacrifice’ for the Turkish nation is still valued (Kanci & Altinay, 2006, p. 64). Some of the metaphorical nationalistic examples (blood, the colour red and the Turkish flag) were replaced by milder explanations (Kanci & Altinay, 2006).

On the other hand, pupils in Turkey still have to recite the national pledge of allegiance every school day and have done so since 1933 (Karabat, 2009). The pledge involves the following statement:

‘I offer my existence as a gift to the Turkish nation.’

Although Turkey is considered to be a society with a multi-cultural identity, children between the age of 6 and 13 are required to repeat their militaristic duties every morning (Calislar, 2009). The aim of the pledge was to unify society; however, it discriminates against non-Turks who have to repeat ‘how happy one is to be Turkish’ every school day. At the same time, Karabat (2009) also pinpointed the militaristic nature of the pledge which brings up ‘little soldiers’ (Kanci & Altinay, 2006).

2.5 Privatisation of the Schools in Turkey

As highlighted above, education was a functional tool for building a modern and Western nation in Turkey. Therefore, there were some reforms in the educational structure (Gok, 2006). One of the most important reforms concerned the legal regulations of private schooling which was enacted with the Law on Institutions of Private Education in 1965 (Gok, 2006, p. 250). According to Article 2 of this law, private schools were not meant to make a
profit (Gok, 2006), but according to Cinoglu (2006) they were effectively profit-making institutions.

There are various reasons for the establishment of the private education sector in Turkey (Cinoglu, 2006; Gok, 2006). Educational demand of middle and upper class parents was one of the factors for the appearance of an increasing number of private schools after the 1980s (Cinoglu, 2006; Gok, 2006). The inequality in distribution of income in Turkey caused an increase in private schools which served the rich (Gok, 2006, p. 251). At the same time, lower income groups received free education in crowded classrooms without sufficient resources (Gok, 2006, p. 251).

After the adjustment of neo-liberal economic policies in 1980, the state encouraged privatisation and reduced government funding for education (Gok, 2006). As a result, the quality of state education was reduced. Since “the reduction in education expenditure has been accompanied by a rapid rise in population” (Gok, 2006, p. 251), the average size of a typical class in a State Primary School is 60-70 and in crowded neighbourhoods, one may observe as many as 100 pupils per class (Gok, 2006). The regional socio-economical gap between East and West Turkey caused massive migration from one region to another. This migration had a major impact on the class size in the state schools (Cinoglu, 2006, p. 678), seriously affecting the quality of state education (Gok, 2006).

Since educational expenditure was reduced, State Primary School teachers’ salaries fell and were no longer sufficient (Gok, 2006). Thus ‘well-trained and successful’ teachers chose to work in private schools which three to four times the state salary (Gok, 2006, p. 251). Therefore the quality of private schooling increased rapidly (Gok, 2006). Teachers and head teachers in the private sector have temporary contracts and so, in order to secure their jobs, they must make themselves very much accountable to both the pupils’ and parents’ academic demands (Cinoglu, 2006). For that reason, the Private Primary School teachers need to keep up with all the latest educational innovations.

According to Article 42 of the Law on Institutions of Private Education, private schools were also strictly controlled by the Ministry of National Education (Cinoglu, 2006, p. 681). Therefore, they also have to follow the prescribed national curriculum (Cinoglu, 2006). However, private schools can fulfil the needs of the multi-cultural Turkish society (Cinoglu,
Although private schools have had their content, choice and teaching style standardised by MONE, many ethnic and religious groups seek different types of education within the private sector (Cinoglu, 2006, p. 681).

2.6 PISA rank in Turkey in 2003

PISA tries to answer certain questions based on a student’s level of understanding and analysis of knowledge and his/her ability to continue learning throughout life (OECD, 2003). PISA was first founded to test students’ reading abilities but later, in 2003, PISA started to examine scientific, mathematical and problem solving aptitudes amongst fifteen year olds (OECD, 2003). The PISA report also examines students’ motivation to learning, gender impact on learning, and the socio-economic background of pupils and its effects on their learning (OECD, 2003).

There are thirty countries who are members of the Organisations for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), as well as eleven participant states in PISA (OECD, 2003). Both England and Turkey are in the OECD, they were also members of PISA in 2003 (OECD, 2003).

Table 2.1 PISA Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mathematics</th>
<th>Problem solving</th>
<th>Science</th>
<th>Reading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Turkey among OECD countries</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All countries</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Turkey is reported as statistically significantly below the OECD average in mathematics, problem solving, science and reading (OECD, 2003).

In mathematics, Turkey is rated as one of the bottom five countries of all the participants. The reasons for this low attainment may be related to Turkish students’ anxiety regarding mathematics. In addition to this, according to principals’ reports, there is a shortage of mathematic teachers. However, students commented that mathematics teachers offered the greatest support in their lessons (OECD, 2003).
Pupils in Turkey were found to have the lowest sense of belonging to a school amongst the member states (OECD, 2003). In addition to this, 40% of students reported that school had done little to prepare them for real life. However, this is not likely to change the school environment because principals in Turkey do not believe that pupil-related factors are important (OECD, 2003).

The impact of socio-economic background on Turkish pupils’ attainment is above the average of member states according to PISA results in 2003, it also affects Private Primary School pupils’ achievement. According to the Pisa 2003 results, private schools’ performance in Turkey is higher than that of state schools and furthermore, than that of the OECD state and private schools average (Aksit, 2006). In light of this, a comparative study of State and Private Primary School contexts and practices in Turkey is likely to be a revealing study.

2.7 Teachers’ Educational Beliefs and Values

The issues concerning values and beliefs were not fundamental interests of the educational researchers (Campbell et al., 2004). However, knowledge of teachers’ values and beliefs in and outside of the classroom is essential in order to understand their teaching styles (Campbell et al., 2004). Thus, effective teaching should be analysed according to teachers’ ‘value assumptions’ which depend on their respective classrooms, societies, cultures, religions and so on (Campbell et al., 2004).

Teachers’ values and beliefs have an impact on pupils’ academic achievement (Petty, 2009), as teachers’ beliefs and performances are correlated (Serefoglu et al., 2009). Teachers’ beliefs also influence teachers’ daily routines like planning and decision making (Braithwaite, 1999). However, ‘measuring and developing teachers’ beliefs is challenging’ (Rosenfeld & Rosenfeld, 2007, p. 246), as teachers are not necessarily aware of their instructional beliefs or they find it difficult to articulate their beliefs (Cooper & McIntyre, 1998; Yilmaz, 2008).

In addition, there are various types of teachers’ beliefs mentioned by several researchers (Demir, 2006; Isikoglu et al., 2009). However, in this study, the term ‘teachers’ beliefs’ refers to teachers’ instructional principals for enhancing effective learning environments, which also overlaps with terms such as ‘teachers’ classroom images’ (Cooper & McIntyre, 1998),
‘teachers’ value assumptions’ (Campbell et al., 2004; Petty, 2009), ‘teachers’ conceptions’ (Yilmaz, 2008) and ‘teachers’ thinking’ (McAlpine et al., 2006).

The idea of ‘proximity effect’ has been mentioned by researchers, which is defined as ‘the closer you are to the learner, the greater your effect on their achievement’ (Petty, 2009, p. 509). In other words, the impact of teachers on pupils’ academic achievement is three to four times more than that of schools or colleges (Petty, 2009). According to Kyriacou’s (2009) concept of effective teaching, there should be a positive rapport and respect between teachers and pupils, and teachers should genuinely care for each pupil’s progress. In addition, teachers believed that pupils should like their teacher as a person in order to develop a positive attitude towards learning (Haser & Star, 2009, p. 301). Petty (2009) also listed teachers’ values as: ‘to value students as individuals, to improve students’ life chances, to create interest and curiosity’ (p. 508). Although this list is related to pupil’s academic progress, it does not refer to teachers’ pedagogical beliefs.

In addition, Petty (2009) recommends overlapping categories of ‘fundamental values and beliefs’: ethical beliefs, normative beliefs, religious and spiritual beliefs and psychological and philosophical beliefs (p.430). This categorisation was related to teachers’ fundamental beliefs rather than their instructional beliefs. However, teachers’ fundamental beliefs impact on their classroom practices which eventually reflect on pupils’ academic improvement (Petty, 2009).

Another study concerning effective teachers' beliefs about learners employed the term ‘interventionist belief’, which refers to the set of teachers’ beliefs about the possibility of pupils’ equal academic success in an inclusive classroom (Rosenfeld & Rosenfeld, 2007). This is a teachers’ belief about pupils’ learning differences and classroom inclusion. Although this type of belief is related to pupils’ achievement, ‘interventionist belief’ is not about teachers’ instructional principles either (Rosenfeld & Rosenfeld, 2007).

According to a study of American and Turkish teachers’ pedagogical and practical beliefs, there are two main pedagogical beliefs: essentialism and progressivism (Demir, 2006). According to this divide, Turkish teachers’ dominant philosophy was considered to be essentialism which emphasises discipline and order (Cayir, 2009; Demir, 2006). Turkish teachers’ pedagogical practices were mainly teacher-directed questioning and lecturing; on
rare occasions they used presentations and teacher-led discussions (Demir, 2006). These findings may be supported with another study on four schools in four different regions in Turkey (World Bank, 2005). The results of this qualitative study also indicated that classroom teaching practice was mainly based on teacher-centred and teacher-led teaching styles (World Bank, 2005).

On the other hand, a study concerning Turkish teachers’ instructional beliefs employed different theoretical terms such as constructivist and non-constructivist perspectives (Isikoglu et al., 2009). According to this study, Turkish teachers generally prefer pupil-centred teaching strategies. However, there are some differences between subject teachers and early year (between Years 1 and 5) classroom teachers’ implementations (Isikoglu et al., 2009, p. 355). The subject teachers prefer teacher-centred teaching strategies because the curriculum content can be better transmitted and the outcome can be better assessed through standardised tests (Isikoglu et al., 2009, p. 355).

In Demir’s (2006) exploratory study, she used the term ‘personal philosophy’ instead of ‘value assumption’. Turkish teachers’ personal beliefs were no different from the Ministry of National Education’s objectives (Demir, 2006). Thus, Turkish teachers want to bring up loyal Turkish citizens with the understanding of Ataturk and his principles (Cennet Demir, 2006). When Foucault’s (1977) modern power control strategies in disciplinary institutions are considered (modern power control is discussed in Chapter 3?, page 63), the national examinations and the national curriculum requirements are clearly the modern ways of controlling, training and disciplining (McGregor, 2004).

In addition to the above argument, a study about Turkish teachers’ conflicts between beliefs and practices indicated that teachers’ goals have more impact on their teaching than their beliefs (Karaagac & Threlfall, 2004). “Due to the belief that increases in test scores can, and do, objectively determine the validity and worth of certain forms of teacher activity, such activity is subsequently described as ‘best practice’ ” (Adams, 2008 p. 376). When the Turkish educational context is considered, particularly the fact that educational targets have been formed by the results of multiple choice national examinations, teachers often struggle between their beliefs and the set goals (Karaagac & Threlfall, 2004). In other words, teachers in Turkey cannot practise their instructional beliefs in their classrooms (Karaagac & Threlfall, 2004).
Teachers in Turkey are restricted in their choices by MONE (Cayir, 2009). However, teachers’ beliefs and MONE’s requirements do not necessarily coincide. Militaristic ideologies in textbooks may influence teachers’ beliefs and ideologies or they may be in direct conflict with teachers’ values (Cayir, 2009). According to a comparative study of Turkish and English teachers’ professional responsibility, teachers feel more responsible towards MONE rather than towards their pupils’ academic attainment (Karakaya, 2004). This finding is also supported by another study about Turkish teachers’ accountability by Yildirim (2003). However, Turkish teachers’ accountability to MONE can be explained by the highly centralised nature of the Turkish educational system. Nonetheless, this often leads to a conflict between teachers’ beliefs and MONE’s requirements.

A study by Haser & Star (2009) about the changes in Turkish mathematics teachers’ beliefs after their first year of teaching revealed that the most influential factors impacting teachers’ beliefs and practices were stated as ‘curriculum load and pace’ (Haser & Star, 2009). There were two types of instructional beliefs that were mentioned by the participants: student-centred and teacher-centred teaching (Haser & Star, 2009). However, these teachers questioned their pedagogical beliefs because ‘students lacked previous knowledge, schools lacked essential materials, and the curriculum rush’ (Haser & Star, 2009). The findings of the Haser & Star (2009) may show more clearly than ever the conflict between teachers’ instructional beliefs and MONE’s requirements, since the National Curriculum has been prescribed by MONE. This dilemma brings up Petty’s (2009) fundamental question, ‘how much of a difference are teachers able to make?’ (p.509).

In addition, another study about pre-service and in-service teachers’ beliefs indicated that Turkish pre-service teachers should be guided to form their own belief systems about their teaching which could help them to identify and improve their teaching practices (Serefoglu et al., 2009). The same research focused on teachers’ beliefs expressed via metaphors. Interestingly, the most popular metaphors were ‘teacher as guide, teacher as facilitator, teacher as resource person’ (Serefoglu et al., 2009, p. 331). Unfortunately, these metaphors were not analysed in depth and therefore it was difficult to get an understanding of teachers’ instructional beliefs in addition to how they perceive their role as a teacher (Serefoglu et al., 2009). However, ‘teacher as guide, teacher as facilitator, and teacher as resource person’ would suggest constructivist perspective teaching styles as discussed on page 58.
The study of teachers’ beliefs through metaphors was also related to teachers’ classroom images (Serefoglu et al., 2009). Teachers’ classroom images ‘function as frameworks within which teachers structure and process their classroom experience’ (Cooper & McIntyre, 1998, p. 86). Teachers’ images can allow teachers to identify their classroom beliefs and practices (Cooper & McIntyre, 1998). There were examples of various teachers’ classroom images explained in the study in order to demonstrate the interrelation between teachers’ classroom images and teachers’ classroom practices (Cooper & McIntyre, 1998). However, these images were not necessarily drawing attention to teachers’ desirable teaching practices. Indeed, frequently, these images elucidate teachers’ undesired classroom behaviour (Cooper & McIntyre, 1998) which may help teachers to form an image of their ideal classroom. Therefore, it is not necessary to find out teachers’ images of their classroom behaviour.

Research on effective teaching of literacy and teachers’ beliefs indicated that effective teachers paid ‘systematic attention both to the goals they had identified for reading and writing (the understanding and production of meaningful text) and to technical processes such as phonic knowledge, spelling, grammatical knowledge and punctuation’ (Medwell et al., 1999, p. 49). Another study about effective teaching in England indicated that there are various attributes to effective teaching of literacy (Wray & Medwell, 2000). According to this research, effective teachers were teaching ‘word, sentence, and text levels’ within the same context, and therefore, pupils were able to make connections between the knowledge and the context (Wray & Medwell, 2000, p. 83). Effective teachers had ‘distinctive beginnings and ends of the lessons and after an activity, pupils were asked to review the activity (Topping & Ferguson, 2005, p. 126). In addition to this, effective teachers make the ‘purposes and processes of literacy’ explicit which encourages pupils’ learning (Wray & Medwell, 2000, p. 83). According to the research, some of the activities were listed as, “write dialogue, write letters to fantasy characters, skim and scan texts whilst describing thought processes, write letters and collect words with those letters, make notes, demonstrate intonation in reading aloud, select words from the banks of vocabulary lists, model formal and informal speech and punctuate text” (Wray & Medwell, 2000, p. 81).
2.8 Teaching Activities

Teaching activities vary according to teachers’ understanding of pupils’ autonomy in the classroom (Pollard, Broadfoot, Croll, Osborn, & Abbott, 1994).

There are two main learning activities stated by Kyriacou (2007); these are ‘teacher talk activities’ and ‘academic tasks’. On the other hand, Kasambria (1993) divided classroom activities into seven different categories. Although Kasambria (1993) does not include academic tasks as classroom activities, some of the activities overlap with Kyriacou’s (1998) categorisation. Kasambria (1993) names some of the activities as the lecturing method, the questioning method, the inquiry learning method, the discovery learning/teaching method, the group project method, the role playing method and the read, review, recite method. According to Petty’s (2009) division, there are three types of teaching methods: teacher-centred methods, active methods and student-centred methods. Table 2.2 below shows the teaching activities.

Table 2.2 Teaching Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Talk Activities</th>
<th>Academic Tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kyriacou</td>
<td>Kazambria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exposition</td>
<td>Lecturing method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective explaining</td>
<td>Cooperative learning activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questioning</td>
<td>Questioning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom discussion</td>
<td>Role playing method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kyriacou</td>
<td>Kazambria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The read, review, recite method</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inquiry Learning method</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discovery learning/Teaching method</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.8.1 Teacher Talk Activities

Effective teacher-talk is very important for a successful lesson (Alexander, 2000; Campbell et al., 2004; Kyriacou, 1998, 2007; Petty, 2009). The passport to school success is very much
linked to the use of ‘talk’ in the classroom (Alexander, 2000). Teacher-talk is the most commonly employed method and forms 60 per cent of lessons (Petty, 2009, p. 162).

There are various talking activities for teachers to choose: exposition, explaining, questioning and guiding classroom discussions (Kyriacou, 1998, p. 33). However, Kerry and Wilding (2004) call all the teacher-talk activities “explaining”. In order to explain, inform and instruct, teachers need to employ exposition (Kasambira, 1993; Kerry & Wilding, 2004). In order to conduct academic activities effectively, teachers need to explain the activities clearly (Kerry & Wilding, 2004).

Another study mentions two types of teachers’ talk: “the first type of talk is ‘inferential talk’ which involves reasoning that draws on evidence or ideas that go beyond the text given to the pupils (Blatchford, Baines, Davies, Bassett, & Chowne, 2006). The second, and lower level form of reasoning, we call ‘text-based talk’ because pupils would often just refer to information provided by the text or worksheet to justify their views”. (Blatchford et al., 2006, p. 752).

Although explaining may not be considered as a constructivist activity (Constructivist teaching is explained on page 58), it is necessary to strike a balance between teacher-centred and student-centred activities (Watts & Jofili, 1998). Clear explanation is a necessary tool for a student-centred classroom teaching (Watts & Jofili, 1998). According to this argument, teachers also need to build their explanations on the basis of pupils’ prior knowledge (Petty, 2009). Therefore, effective explanation can be used in constructivist teaching which is discussed on page 58.

Kasambira (1993) refers to teachers’ talk activities as lecturing. Lecturing is the most popular method used by teachers because it is relatively undemanding to employ (Kasambira, 1993). One of the disadvantages of this method is the difficulty of holding pupils’ interests for a sufficient time (Kasambira, 1993). It is also difficult to maintain ‘promoting creativity, or helping pupils develop responsibility or imagination’ (Kasambira, 1993).

The lecturing style may be useful for some particular learning outcomes. However, it may be necessary to avoid it for some objectives (Kasambira, 1993). It should especially be avoided when a teacher wants to stimulate learning and interest, encourage creativity and imagination.
and build responsibility (Kasambira, 1993). In addition, the lecturing method does not help pupils to develop higher order thinking skills (Kasambira, 1993).

Leading discussion is another teacher-talk activity (Kyriacou, 1998, 2007). Guiding discussions involves chairing a discussion among pupils (Kyriacou, 1998, 2007). The teacher’s role here is to explain the purpose and the rules of the discussion (Kyriacou, 1998, 2007). In addition, teachers also need to draw a conclusion after each discussion (Kyriacou, 1998, 2007). Some teachers ask their pupils to review their assignments by conducting discussions. This is called the read-review-recite method (Kasambira, 1993). This type of teaching activity may be recognised as a sub-category of the discussion method.

2.8.2 Teachers’ Questioning

Questioning is a very powerful tool for ‘bringing about understanding; it is also a vital technique for checking that learning has taken place’ (Petty, 2009, p. 178). There are various reasons for questioning in a classroom. According to the citation, teachers ask questions -

- To encourage thought and understanding of ideas, phenomena, procedures and values.
- To check understanding, knowledge and skills.
- To gain pupils’ attention to a task.
- To enable a teacher to move towards teaching points.
- As a ‘warm-up’ activity for pupils.
- To review, revise and recall; for the reinforcement of recently learnt points and as reminders of procedures mentioned earlier.
- For management, settling down, to stop calling out by pupils, to direct attention to the teacher or text, to warn of precautions.
- Specifically to teach whole class through pupil answers.
- To give everyone a chance to answer.
- To prompt bright pupils to encourage others.
- To draw in shyer pupils.
- To probe pupils’ knowledge after critical answers.
- To redirect questions to pupils who wish to respond or to other pupils.
- To allow expressions of feelings, views and empathy.
(Kyriacou, 2007, pp. 38-39)

The questioning method, or ‘Socratic method’, is a way of constructing knowledge by asking questions and leading the pupils to ‘logical contradiction’ (Kasambira, 1993). This ‘logical contradiction’ may also be related to Piaget’s ‘socio-conflict theory’ (Marin, Benaroch, & Gomez, 2000). Although questioning can be used to cause disequilibrium, it can also be
employed to explain the absurdity of common misunderstandings which is called ‘reductio ad absurdum’ (Petty, 2009, p. 178). According to this technique, by asking leading questions teachers elicit desired knowledge from the pupil (Petty, 2009).

Although teachers’ questioning is divided into different types by various authors, these distinctions are all interlinked. Kasambira (1993) divides questioning into four types as general questions, divergent questions (there is not any wrong answer, the answer is based on pupils’ interpretations), higher order questions (questions like, ‘What are the differences and similarities of...’), and probing questions (leading questions) (Kasambira, 1993).

Alternatively Kyriacou (1998) makes a more general distinction. The most distinctive forms of questioning are ‘open-ended’ and ‘closed’ questions (Kyriacou, 1998, p. 35). In addition to this, another important distinction can be made between ‘higher order’ questions and ‘lower order’ questions (Kyriacou, 1998, p. 35). Open-ended questions are considered to be higher order questions which have more than one answer (Kerry & Wilding, 2004; Kyriacou, 1998).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2.3 Question Types</th>
<th>Kasambira (1993)</th>
<th>Kyriacou (2008)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General Questions</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probing Questions (leading questions)</td>
<td>Not mentioned</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divergent Questions (no wrong answer, may have more than one answer)</td>
<td>Open-ended Questions (no wrong answer, may have more than one answer)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Order Questions (Pupils are asked to “imagine, reason, use evidence, analyse, apply, synthesise and evaluate” (Kerry &amp; Wilding, 2004, p. 106))</td>
<td>Higher Order Questions (Pupils are asked to “imagine, reason, use evidence, analyse, apply, synthesise and evaluate” (Kerry &amp; Wilding, 2004, p. 106))</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower Order Questions (comprehension questions)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Closed Questions (factual questions with ‘yes’ or ‘no’ answers)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to some research studies about teachers’ questioning, teachers prefer to ask more closed and lower order questions (Kyriacou, 1998, p. 35). However, open-ended and higher order questions are more influential in pupils’ learning but these type of questions are more time-consuming and challenging for teachers (Kyriacou, 1998, p. 35).
2.8.3 Co-operative Learning Activities

Group projects are also a fairly commonly used method by teachers (Kasambira, 1993). However, the quality of employing this method can vary according to teachers’ skills with regard to the method (Galton & Williamson, 1992; Kasambira, 1993; Kyriacou, 1998). In addition, experimental research on group projects revealed that some teachers have concerns when employing group work activities, particularly that while ‘able’ students benefit from group work, other ‘less able’ students need to be guided in a more structured way (Blatchford et al., 2006). Teachers also felt that male pupils are more likely to struggle to work in groups and this might lead to problems in classroom discipline (Blatchford et al., 2006). Thus, some teachers are reluctant to use co-operative activities because of their fear of losing control (Kyriacou, 2007). Conversely, the Observational and Classroom Learning Evaluation (ORACLE) study revealed that group activities are used regularly. Although the group project methods are employed more frequently in this scenario, the scaffolding was found to be lacking (Galton et al., 1999b).

Inquiry-learning, discovery learning and role-play may also be considered as part of certain academic tasks (Kyriacou, 2007). Inquiry-learning encourages pupils' involvement (Kasambira, 1993). The disadvantage of this teaching method is that it is highly time consuming (Kasambira, 1993). Discovery learning is defined as 'Intentional learning through problem solving' (Kasambira, 1993). One of the disadvantages of discovery learning is that it is difficult to provide feedback to reflect pupils' progress which may lead to frustration (Kasambira, 1993).

Major studies in primary schools, such as the Primary Assessment, Curriculum and Experience (PACE) Project (which ran from 1989 to 1997) and ORACLE, observed teachers’ approaches to classroom teaching. The PACE study finds that Key Stage 2 pupils spend their time mostly on individual work.

Pupils in England are allowed to choose among ‘carefully framed’ activities like writing a story, doing construction and puppet theatre which are called ‘free choice’ activities (Pollard et al., 1994). In some classrooms, children are given even more freedom to choose (Pollard et
al., 1994). In some schools, a teacher allows the pupils to choose among the activities prescribed by The National Curriculum when they finish a task (Pollard et al., 1994). In other words, pupils are rewarded with the choice of an activity after finishing a task. According to the PACE study, the majority of the teachers (over 70 per cent) agree that they use ‘mixed’ teaching methods. However, there has been a fall in child-centred approaches according to the PACE study (Pollard, Triggs, Broadfoot, Mcness, & Osborn, 2000).

Since a Turkish pupil’s future depends on the national examinations, examinations are the main concern for the parents, teachers and pupils (Aksit, 2006). These anxieties about the national examinations prevent teachers from implementing the curriculum effectively (Aksit, 2006). Although the new reform (2004) recommends constructivist teaching, teachers’ desire to prepare pupils for the national examinations may interfere with effective constructivist teaching (Adams, 2006). Since good teaching is measured by exam results in a Turkish context (Aksit, 2006), teachers were determined to teach according to the needs of the national examinations (Adams, 2006). Preparing pupils for the multiple choice question style examinations requires factual knowledge transmission which is very different from the curriculum requirements in Turkey (Aksit, 2006).

2.9 Multiple Intelligences

According to the new educational reformation (2004), MONE defines the new system as suitable for pupils’ multiple intelligences (MONE, 2004a). Therefore, it is crucial to explain multiple intelligences in this section. According to Howard Gardner, there are eight ‘relatively independent’ types of intelligences (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). Initially there were seven types of intelligences. However, Gardner expanded his theory to eight categories (Smith, 2008). Gardner’s multiple intelligences are listed as: ‘linguistic intelligence, logical-mathematical intelligence, musical intelligence, spatial intelligence, bodily-kinaesthetic intelligence, interpersonal intelligence and naturalist intelligence.’ (Smith, 2008). According to this theory of multiple intelligences, the structure of curricula and the schools should reflect these types of intelligences (Smith, 2008). In addition, teachers should also prepare their lessons according to pupils’ various types of intelligences (Smith, 2008).
2.10 Choosing Learning Activities

Educationalists agree that teachers’ choices of teaching activities must be related to lesson objectives (Petty, 2009). In addition, teachers should also prepare plenty of student activities (Petty, 2009, p. 423). There are two different approaches to guide teachers’ choices; the educare approach and the CIA approach (Petty, 2009, p. 423). If the objective of the lesson is to acquire specific skills, then the educare approach is the most appropriate approach. This approach is also called mnemonic, so the activities should stimulate pupils to remember certain skills (Petty, 2009). On the other hand, the CIA approach requires critical thinking skills (Petty, 2009). Hence, teachers need to understand the content and then prepare activities accordingly.

These different approaches are related to a specific lesson objective but, of course, it should be remembered that there may be more than one objective in a lesson. Another consideration here is that these approaches do not consider pupils’ specific learning styles.

2.10.1 Choosing for Instructional planning

Instructional planning is defined as “a short, carefully written outline which contains information on the teacher’s objectives, topic, skills or strategies and activities for each period.” (Kasambira, 1993, p. 17). Planning formalises the intentions of teachers, but in implementation, some teachers may shift their plan to make it more appropriate to the teaching context (John, 2006).

There are five reasons to make lesson plans:

1) Being organized helps teachers to visualize the lesson and to choose appropriate activities;
2) To avoid ‘instant planning’, impromptu or ‘off-the-cuff’ teaching which, because it does not have sound grounds, often leads to poor teaching;
3) As an assessment: in the future it helps to identify the weaknesses and strength of a lesson;
4) To be appreciated by pupils because the teacher prepares for the lesson;
5) Because planning is related to teaching.
(Kasambira, 1993, p. 17).

There are two aspects of planning strategy that encourage learning: multiple learning goals and the arrangement of sequences of prerequisites (Gagne & Briggs, 1979). Beside these elements, the most common feature of instructional planning is that it should encourage
learning experiences (Bennet & Dunne, 1992; Gagne, 1974; Gagne & Briggs, 1979; John, 2006). Tyler (1949) noted that,

The term ‘learning experience’ refers to the interaction between the learner and the external conditions in the environment to which he can react (p. 63).

There are several instructional planning models that are accentuated by various researchers (Yildirim, 2003). As Yildirim (2003) and John (2006) stressed, Tyler’s rational planning is the most widely known model that concentrates on ‘the selection of objectives’. According to the rational model, there is no room for spontaneity and therefore this model does not fit pupils’ needs (John, 2006). Each activity may have a different effect in different classrooms. Moreover, some pupils may respond to the same activity very differently. Therefore, it is important to personalise the learning activities according to classroom needs (Kyriacou, 1998). In contrast, rational planning focuses on the objectives rather than activities. It is not possible to expect the same outcome from each classroom or even from each pupil (Kyriacou, 1998). In the rational planning model, outcomes are more important than the process (John, 2006), and that does not allow teachers to personalise their teaching (John, 2006).

According to research on teachers’ planning (Clark & Yinger, 1979), Tyler’s rational planning model was not preferred by teachers (Kyriacou, 1998, 2007). Teachers actually start planning by choosing the learning activities (Kyriacou, 1998). Moreover teachers build their plans around their pupils and the learning activities (Clark & Yinger, 1979). Besides, many teachers prefer mental planning rather than writing everything down (Clark & Yinger, 1979). It is also important to be flexible while planning as unpredictable events may occur (Kyriacou, 1998, 2007).

There are alternatives to the rational planning model, such as the ‘naturalistic’ or ‘organic’ model which are based on the works of Stenhouse (1975), Egan (1992, 1997) and John (2006). This model states that because the rational planning model does not fulfil pupils’ learning needs, it is essential to start a plan with learning activities rather than objectives (John, 2006). While implementing the learning activities, objectives can be set according to pupils’ capacities (John, 2006). According to this model, pupils’ needs are central to the
objectives. Consequently, an effective teachers’ skills should be sensitive to pupils’ needs (Kyriacou, 1998, 2007).

Another model is the interactional model based on the implementation of a plan. While a teacher is conducting the rational plan, the plan changes according to teachers’ interpretations of implementations (John, 2006).

However, in Turkey, curriculum objectives are defined and targets are set by policy makers (Karakaya, 2004). Designing an effective learning environment is a concern for the teachers (Karakaya, 2004). Since teachers design the external conditions suitable for pupils’ learning needs, teachers’ pedagogical choices in their plans have an enormous impact on the students’ learning (Yildirim, 2003). According to Tyler (1949), a successful learning experience can be achieved by structuring an environment that stimulates the desired reaction. In order to create an effective learning environment, decisions should be based on teachers’ background knowledge about the pupils’ interests (Tyler, 1949). Throughout the planning process, teachers should try to design a lesson with:

- An opportunity for students to experience the desired behaviour.
- Satisfaction throughout the learning experience.
- A consideration of students’ skill and attainment levels.
- Different objectives.

Conversely, DfES defines their principles of learning and teaching as:

- Ensure every child succeeds.
- Build on what learners already know.
- Make learning vivid and real.
- Make learning an enjoyable and challenging experience.
- Enrich the learning experience.
- Promote assessment for learning (DfES, 2003, p. 29).

When these principles are compared to Gagne’s (1974) lesson planning strategies, the similarities between DfES and Gagne’s model are discernible. Gagne’s (1974) lesson designs aimed to activate motivation, to inform the learner about the objectives, to direct learners’ attention, to stimulate recall (of prior knowledge), to provide learning guidance, to enhance retention, to promote transfer of learning and to elicit the performance by providing a
feedback. However, these principles are far from Tyler’s (1949) design, which requires knowledge of pupils’ traits, something lacking among policy makers.

The requirements of the Turkish National Curriculum are the main criteria influencing teachers’ pedagogical choices while planning. However, the goals set out in the National Curriculum can be incredibly challenging to achieve. Since Turkish attainment targets were already set with the motivation of raising achievement and giving equal opportunities to each pupil (MONE, 2004a), it seems teachers struggle to accomplish these targets with their own instructional plans. Yet the New Turkish Guide Book is offering alternative templates for coping with planning (Goren et al., 2005).

The aim of studying teachers’ pedagogical choices is to perceive the influences of the centralised curriculum on ‘effective’ classroom practice. It seems that in Turkey the majority of pedagogy is governed by the National Curriculum and its packages. According to the research on instructional planning in Turkish primary schools (Yildirim, 2003), the most common problem experienced by primary school teachers concerns the correlation between the requirements of the National Curriculum and the needs of the classrooms (Yildirim, 2003). Teachers stated that certain units in the National Curriculum may not relate to pupils’ backgrounds, needs and interests; as a result, teachers do not follow the plans in their actual lessons, whereas principals (head teachers) and inspectors want to see their teachers reflecting the National Curriculum as much as possible (Yildirim, 2003). This is the main paradox of the highly centralized Turkish educational system (Yildirim, 2003).

Some of the teachers in Turkey have tried to solve the dilemma between the real classroom needs and the National Curriculum by modifying the National Curriculum into their instructional plans, whilst continuing to teach according to pupils’ needs (Yildirim, 2003). Research on teachers’ accountability proves the argument that the guidelines in the National Curriculum do not match the real classroom environment (Yildirim, 2003). Hence, teachers use them to fulfil principals’ and inspectors’ expectations. Although the new guide book gives flexibility to teachers, adaptations of this guideline may be very different from what is actually intended by these guidelines, since different teachers may interpret them differently (Yildirim, 2003). Teachers are considered to be *unfree* when they are making choices as a result of ‘different social and institutional pressures’ that make teachers ‘become de-professionalised’ (Kock et al., 2005, p.801).
In Turkey, instructional planning is prescribed by the ministry. However, what teachers decide to do in the classroom is still very much their own personal choice (MONE, 2005a). Teachers’ choices with regard to learning activities depend on their beliefs and the efficiency of the activity for the type of learning (Kerry & Wilding, 2004). In addition, teachers’ choices are influenced by the context of the lesson (Kerry & Wilding, 2004).

Teachers’ choices in the learning environment are very much related to their practical knowledge (Kock et al., 2005). Practical knowledge has been defined as “the integrated whole of knowledge, beliefs and values with regard to teaching” which can be attained by personal and professional experiences (Kock et al., 2005). According to research on teachers’ choices in the learning environment, teachers’ decisions were not based on rational decision-making; but on practical knowledge. Teachers’ different ways of organizing classroom arrangements were identified with teachers’ individualistic choices (Kock et al., 2005). Regarding research on teachers’ implementations of the National Literacy Strategy (NLS), the way teachers talk while they are teaching is more essential to creating an effective learning environment than formal planning (Flyn, 2007).

According to the National Training Laboratories research on the correlation between teachers’ pedagogical choices and learners’ outcomes, lecturing and knowledge transmission should be restricted in teaching. According to this research, the style of teaching has a huge impact on learning (Kerry & Wilding, 2004). The table below shows the correlation between teaching style and how much information the student retains (Kerry & Wilding, 2004, p. 47):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style</th>
<th>Retention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lecture</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audio-visual</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstration</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion group</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice by doing</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teach others/immediate use of learning</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘Attention-based knowledge’ refers to teachers’ actions beyond their planned activities (Ainley et al., 2004). Moreover, it is a hidden knowledge which aids teachers to counter efficiently in their classroom practices. Nicholson (1996) calls this type of knowledge
‘personal practical knowledge’ which cannot be quantitatively researched, since it is a personal knowledge which is constructed through experience, values and beliefs (Nicholson, 1996).

The National Curriculum (NC) in Turkey structures an ideal classroom environment on one theory and prescribed teaching activities (Goren et al., 2005). This ‘one size fits all’ attitude of the NC does not allow teachers to alternate their pedagogical choices very much. However, on the implementation phase of the NC, teachers use ‘personal practical knowledge’ or ‘attention-based knowledge’. In this study, this type of knowledge will be called personal adaptation.

Personal adaptation is based on teachers’ interpretation of the Turkish Guide Book and on the implementation phase. Teachers adopt various types of teaching styles. These styles are influenced by teachers’ beliefs, values and pedagogical and content knowledge.

Personal adaptation reshapes the set curriculum and adopts a real classroom atmosphere. The teacher’s role is to mould what is considered to be an effective method and develop its use in a classroom (Goren et al., 2005). While teachers are adopting the prescribed textbook, they make alterations according to their classroom needs (Calderhead, 1984). Particularly experienced teachers can manage to deal with unexpected problems in a more professional way than less experienced teachers (Calderhead, 1984). This process can be achieved by the implementation of subject knowledge and pedagogical knowledge (Kerry & Wilding, 2004). However, teachers’ interpretations would give meaning to the Turkish Guide Book, since it is reproduced using teachers’ interpretations. Therefore, individualistic adaptation is the centre of this study.

The McAlpine et al. (2006) study of teacher thinking in higher education discerned four different teacher thinking zones. Although the study took place in higher education, the findings can also be applied to any educational environment because they are related to thinking skills rather than instructional skills. These zones refer to teachers’ thinking strategies: conceptual, enactive, strategic and tactical. This technical description of teachers’ thinking may also formalise the theoretical framework of this study.
The ‘conceptual zone’ refers to teachers’ personal understanding of their profession, and also covers teachers’ beliefs and values in relation to their profession (McAlpine et al., 2006). The strategic zone emerges from technical or practical aspects of teaching (the subject of the lesson, etc.) (McAlpine et al., 2006). The ‘tactical zone’ is the zone of more specific technical thinking (size of the classroom, number of pupils etc). The ‘enactive zone’ concerns teachers’ pedagogical decisions during teaching; in other words, teachers’ pedagogical choices and their thinking strategies when they are choosing activities (McAlpine et al., 2006). This study mainly focuses on the enactive zone of teachers’ thinking.

2.10.2 The Teacher as Decision-Maker

Our decisions provide bridges between thought and action, linking the ways in which we understand the environment in relation to our actions (Calderhead, 1984, p. 1). It is important to comprehend decision-making in order to have a better understanding of ‘why teachers do what they do in their classrooms’ (Stoffels, 2005, p. 532). In addition to this, effective decision-making is considered to be the centrepiece of effective teaching (Hayes, 1999). There are various decision-making approaches from different disciplines (Calderhead, 1981). A sociological approach focuses on classroom and society. However, a curricular decision-making approach focuses on teachers’ implementations of a curriculum and the nature of curriculum targets (Calderhead, 1981).

There are three types of teachers’ decisions: reflective decisions are about important future plans, immediate decisions concern actions being decided on the spot and routine decisions concern everyday events (Calderhead, 1984). Teachers’ decisions, however, are also divided according to their consciousness. Teachers make decisions on various signals; some of the decisions are ‘instinctive’ and some are ‘conscious decisions’ (Hayes, 1999, p. 345). Teachers’ decisions, whatever the type, are shaped by the context. There are external factors that influence these decisions.

Teachers employ various teaching techniques when they come across unexpected events. Classroom decision-making should be differentiated between the preactive phase concerning decisions made after or before the ‘planning’ or ‘evaluation’ stage, and the interactive phase, concerning teachers’ immediate or routine decisions in the classroom (Calderhead, 1984). In addition to this model, Peterson and Clark’s (1978) model of decision-making is the most
influential model in teachers’ decision making based on ‘cue observation’ (Hayes, 1999, p. 343). This model is also based on teachers’ experiences of teaching, since it is about interpreting the needs of the pupils (Hayes, 1999). However, experienced teachers do not need to think about the decisions they make because their teaching actions have developed through experience (Calderhead, 1984). At the same time, experienced teachers cannot explain ‘why they do what they do’ through time and experience; they start to use intuition rather than making conscious decisions (Hayes, 1999). Experience is the key element for effective teaching. Research on teachers' conceptions of teaching while decision making in planning, found that teachers did not actually consider teaching conceptions while making decisions. However, they sometimes recalled previous examples of teaching and reflected on their present lessons (Eley, 2006).

2.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter has been divided into two sections. The first section provided a brief historical background of the Turkish educational system and gave some information about the current issues relating to the educational system in Turkey. However, in order to demonstrate the current situation, it was, of course, important to understand the origins and foundations of the educational system.

Throughout the establishment of the Turkish Republic, the educational system was transformed from the Islamic model to ‘modern’ and ‘westernized’ schools (Karakaya, 2004). During the transformation, the idea of unity was misunderstood and schools became strictly centralized (Turan, 2000). In addition, militarized texts were added to textbooks (Kanci & Altinay, 2006).

During the establishment of the educational system in 1923, education was the most essential tool for the unity of the Turkish Republic. Schools were formed according to militaristic precepts. In other words, to be able to keep ‘Turkish’ unity, schools were used to indoctrinate ‘Turkishness’ and militarize pupils for potential dangers. The educational system was essentially behaviourist, where 'good’ behavior was reinforced.

Since the establishment of the Turkish Republic, the educational system had not been dramatically altered until recent times (Aksit, 2006). Turkey’s attempt to get into the EU
brought some developments in education in 2004 (Aksit, 2006). Of particular note, as regards to these reforms, was that the element of militaristic indoctrination partially diminished in textbooks (Cayir, 2009). However, militaristic school routines and their architecture lead to Foucault’s analogy of panaticonism and power-control relation, which is discussed in Chapter 3. In addition, constructivist teaching ideas were introduced into the educational arena (Aksit, 2006). However, all those changes were top-down reformation processes, which gave no attention to teachers’ training. Therefore, teachers’ adaptation of the new reformation into their classrooms is the concern of this study. As a result, teachers’ educational values and beliefs were also discussed in this chapter.

Since this study is about teachers’ interpretations and the implementations of the Turkish Guide Book, it is also essential to have some comprehension of teaching activities in general. Teaching activities were divided into two categories: teacher talk activities and academic tasks. Although teachers in Turkey have to follow prescriptive guidelines, they still have the flexibility to adapt set activities to their specific classroom needs. Therefore, classroom practices were discussed in detail.

The factors that influence teachers’ choice of activity are based on teachers’ values and beliefs. These values and beliefs were also discussed in relation to teachers’ classroom practices. In addition, methods of writing lesson plans and teachers’ decision making processes were discussed.

One of the requirements of the new Guide Book is constructivist teaching. Chapter three, therefore, covers constructivism and constructivist teaching.
CHAPTER 3: CONSTRUCTIVISM AND MODERN POWER CONTROL

3.1 Introduction

This chapter consists of two sections. The first section is about constructivism and the second section is about Foucault’s (1977) theory of modern power control.

Since constructivism is considered to be a learning theory rather than a teaching approach (Richardson, 2003), it is necessary to comprehend the constructivist learning theory first to be able to capture the constructivist teaching methods.

3.2 Theoretical Underpinnings of the Thesis

This study is about the interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book, in particular school spaces by Turkish Teachers of Year Five pupils. In this study, there are three independent and interrelated theoretical frameworks employed which are surveillance, place/space and social constructivism. This section discusses the interrelationship between these three theoretical frameworks.

The Turkish Guide Book is a way through which MONE asserts power control as explained through Foucault’s (1977) disciplinary techniques. Foucault’s (1977) power control is the foregrounding concept which unifies surveillance, place/space and social constructivism. Although Foucault (1977) employed analogies of military training and disciplining prisoners in order to demonstrate the archaeology of disciplinary techniques, the modern power control techniques apply to any organised institution like schools, hospitals and factories. Therefore Foucault’s (1977) power control techniques unite three different theoretical frameworks of the study.
This study is about the relationship between the Turkish Guide Book and the Year Five Turkish teachers. This relationship can be considered as modern power-control relations of MONE. Modern power control techniques originate from the idea of disciplining, correcting and training docile bodies rather than physical punishment (Gutting, 2005, p. 81), rather it is a punishment of the soul (Foucault, 1977). According to the modern punishment techniques, manipulating the soul through conditioning attitudes and tendencies is a modern power control strategy (Gutting, 2005). ‘The soul is the effect and instrument of a political anatomy; the soul is the prison of the body’ (Foucault, 1977, p. 30). Thus, the modern punishment techniques focus on the ‘soul’ to normalise a society. Therefore the highly centralised Turkish educational system and its political tools can be considered as MONE’s power control strategies.

The Turkish Guide Book can be considered as a surveillance tool. According to Foucault’s (1977) modern power control strategies, docile bodies are produced through hierarchical observation which is based on the practice of power knowledge relations. Through observing docile bodies means sustaining power-control and exercising modern punishment (Foucault, 1977). In other words, gathering knowledge through observing docile bodies is a way of controlling them. Thus, surveillance has been raised to a new level of power control strategy (Gutting, 2005).

It was also organised as a multiple, automatic and anonymous power; for although surveillance rests on individuals, its functioning is that of a network of relations from top to bottom, but also to a certain extent from bottom to top and laterally; this network ‘holds’ the whole together and traverses it in its entirety with effects of power that derive from one another: supervisors, perpetually supervised. (Foucault, 1977, p. 176)

According to the quotation above, there is not anybody on top of the surveillance apparatus. MONE (2003) also encourages the using of pupils as part of the surveillance apparatus. According to Article 137, MONE (2010) encourages teachers to assign a head of class and monitors who sustain constant supervision for pupils. This coincides with the practices noted by Foucault (1977). ‘In order to help the teacher, Batencour selected from among the best pupils a whole series of ‘officers’ – intendants, observers, monitors, tutors, reciters of prayers, writing officers, receivers of ink, almoners and visitors’ (Foucault, 1977, p. 175). As this apparatus is hierarchized, docile bodies who are constantly observed can also involve with the same surveillance apparatus by taking the role of observing other docile bodies.
In the Turkish educational system, surveillance has been sustained through controlling teachers’ classroom behaviours. As the Turkish educational system has been strictly centralised and controlled by the Code for the Unification of Teaching (1924) (Cayir, 2009; Gok, 2006, p. 81), this highly restricted system controls, moulds and structures Turkish teachers choices of classroom behaviours (Gok, 2006). Teachers are considered to be civil servants; thus, they justify their practices to head teachers and head teachers in turn justify it to MONE (Karakaya, 2004). There are two types of modern surveillance techniques that have been employed by MONE. The first one is direct surveillance. MONE’s Internal Inspections Unit is the main example in which teachers are subject to surveillance apparatus. The aim of the internal inspection unit summarises Foucault’s (1977) modern power control strategies. The main aim of the Internal Inspection Unit is the ‘control of effective, economic and productive implementation of activities of an institution in accordance with the aims and identified policies and in compliance with regulations’ (MONE, 2010). According to this, teachers’ implementations of the prescribed aims and policies are inspected in order to sustain effective and constructive practices. However, MONE does not mention any dates for these inspections (MONE, 2010). Since there is not prescribed dates for the inspections, teachers are both the tool and the subject of this surveillance apparatus because they are subjected to implement the Turkish Guide Book and at the same time teachers need to police their classroom actions accordingly. As the inspectors may visit anytime of the school year, teachers need to sustain their classroom teaching according to MONE’s requirements. This is a way of self-surveillance in which the subject assumes that they are going to be watched and therefore they correct their actions accordingly (Lawson, 2004a).

The second power control apparatus is self-surveillance. According to self-surveillance, teachers are also part of the power control mechanism who are disciplined through surveying their own practices (Lawson, 2004a). MONE prescribes teaching and learning activities with prescriptive texts and datelines. This system does not allow teachers to employ different activities because the middle school transference exam is based on the curricular requirements (MONE, 2010). Teachers, therefore, need to follow the Turkish Guide Book thoroughly and police their actions according to the requirements of the Turkish Guide Book.

The new middle school transference system does not seem more relevant to the constructivist teaching methods (MONE, 2004b). The only change seems to be the empowering of teachers
over pupils in the middle school transmission which gives teachers more authority but at the same time burdens them with ‘self-surveillance’ (Lawson, 2004b). Teachers are asked to grade pupils according to their participation and attitude. Therefore teachers were assigned more power over pupils’ education (Lawson, 2004b). Before the new system, teachers’ grade was not used for the middle school transference system (MONE, 2004a). In addition, there was not a middle school transference system (MONE, 2004a). Pupils used to be transferred to middle school. However, empowering teachers with more responsibilities paradoxically can also limit their powers in the classroom. In addition, the grading of attitude is supposed to be ‘objective’. The pupils’ main teachers were asked to provide a score for each pupil (MONE, 2004b). Moreover, this collaborative grading system may sustain ‘objectivity’, but at the same time it may be considered as ‘self-surveillance’. In other words, teachers were asked to check their colleagues’ grades in order to maintain ‘objectivity’.

Spatiality as a theoretical framework of the thesis is also strictly related to Foucault’s (1977) modern power strategies (Dixon, 2004; Massey, 1994; McGregor, 2004). Foucault’s (1977) archaeology of surveillance as modern punishment is an introduction to space and place. As ‘space’ sustains the distribution and the exclusion of individuals, it makes surveillance more systematic and efficient (Foucault, 1977). “Spatiality is the production of space through the interaction of the material and the social” (McGregor, 2004, p. 13). Space and place are thus defined through social interaction which identifies the power and power relations. Thus, spatiality also can be a tool for modern power strategies. When Foucault’s (1977) military training strategies are considered, ‘discipline organises analytical space’ (p.143). According to this analogy, constructing effective troops require distribution of ‘docile bodies’ in various places and spaces by prescribing activities and setting timetables (Foucault, 1977). Therefore, MONE attempts to control the distribution of spaces in schools is important to analyse in order to understand the way power is exercised. According to the Article 144, MONE (2003) controls not only the school buildings but also the use of furniture.

The art of distribution of spaces is one of the basic tactics of military training. “In the first instance, discipline proceeds from the distribution of individuals in space” (Foucault, 1977, p. 141). Foucault (1977) demonstrates various uses of space and place as disciplinary techniques. Hierarchical observation is a way of using a punishment technique which is based on the idea that observing is a form of controlling docile bodies (Foucault, 1977). Therefore Foucault (1977) employs the analogy of Bentham’s Panopticon prison model in order to
present considerable significance to the use of architecture in modern punishment, which can also be applied to any educational setting. Foucault (1977) uses the analogy of panopticon in order to demonstrate the symbolic use of space in power relations. This panopticon prison model can be a useful tool when analysing state and private primary schools' spatiality. In this case, spatiality is an arena in which Foucault’s (1977) disciplinary techniques are applied and spatiality is a way of power control. According to Article 145, the instruction of classroom wall displays of Ataturk portrait, Turkish Anthem, Ataturk’s Speech to Youth were given in detail (MONE, 2003). MONE (2003) uses Ataturk’s portrait as a symbolic tool for reminding teachers and pupils of the state control. In addition, Ataturk’s portrait is also used as a tool for symbolic surveillance because it reminds pupils and teachers about the surveillance apparatus of the centralised educational system. MONE’s use of space and place through Ataturk’s portrait in primary classrooms is a way of manifestating the power of the state control over pupils and teachers.

Article: 145
There should be an equal number of desks and tables as pupils’ numbers in classrooms. Types of desks and tables depend on the age, physical growth and the study style of pupils.
In classrooms, there should be a portrait of Ataturk on top of the blackboard and on top of that there should be a Turkish Flag with a star on the right side, on the right of Ataturk’s portrait, the words of the Turkish Anthem should be placed. On the left of Ataturk’s portrait, there should be a copy of Ataturk’s Speech to Turkish Youth should be written. In addition, throughout the academic year, there should be an Ataturk corner which has been constructed and upgraded through pupil-teacher co-ordination. (MONE, 2003)

The Turkish Guide Book prescribes teaching and learning activities according to constructivist and social constructivist teaching approaches (Goren et al., 2005). Constructivist teaching techniques were introduced with the December 2004 educational reforms. However, these top down prescriptive changes in the National Curriculum, from behaviourist to constructivist teaching strategies, were not identified clearly in the Turkish Guide Book (Babadogan & Olkun, 2007). There is not much attention given over to teachers’ training (Babadogan & Olkun, 2007). Therefore teachers’ educational values and beliefs were highly dependent on the prescriptive guide books.

At this point, constructivism as a theoretical framework is related to Foucault’s (1977) power control strategies in various ways. At first, MONE’s top down reforms can be considered as a way of controlling teachers’ classroom behaviour. As teachers’ epistemological beliefs
should fit into the prescribed teaching techniques in order to make meaning of their actions when they are implementing the Turkish Guide Book (Yang et al., 2008), they are actually left to teach the Turkish Guide Book without necessarily understanding what they are doing. Since teachers are not trained to teach according to constructivist teaching techniques, the Turkish Guide Book is the only source for them to be able to conduct constructivist teaching. Thus, the Turkish Guide Book moulds teachers in order to meet the needs of producing docile bodies by considering the goals of MONE as their own. Therefore they were left without any choice of constructing teaching activities according to their own classroom needs, but implementing the prescribed activities as their own. Therefore MONE’s ‘top down’ reform strategy can be considered as a way of self-surveillance.

MONE wanted constructivist teaching methods adopted in Year Five lessons (Goren et al., 2005, p. 11). However, teachers were not trained in constructivist teaching methods (Babadogan & Olkun, 2007). For this reason teachers have to follow the Turkish Guide Book strictly in order to have constructivist teaching activities in their lessons. As a result teachers do not have control over their own course of action. Thus, following the Turkish Guide Book in every step of their classroom teaching, they are actually controlling their actions according to the prescribed activities. ‘The end result of disciplinary technologies is therefore self-regulating subjects, individuals who experience the goals of government as their own, because their subjectivity has been constituted by the practices of the institutions that they inhabit’ (Lawson, 2004b, p. 6). According to this quotation, Turkish teachers’ understanding of teaching has been constituted by MONE’s prescriptive teaching strategies. Hence this leads teachers to self-regulate their classroom actions according to MONE’s requirements. It was, therefore, important to understand the constructivist teaching methods in order to comprehend teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book.

Constructivist teaching can be considered as an issue of power-relations or ‘mixed authority’ (Watts & Jofili, 1998, p. 175). As constructivist teaching is considered to be ‘student centred’ teaching (Richardson, 2003), the power struggle between the teacher and the pupil may lead to classroom management problems (Watts & Jofili, 1998). As Turkish teachers need to finish strictly prescribed learning activities in certain times, they also need to allow pupils to take control of their learning practices (Richardson, 2003). When teachers are instructing pupils about the constructivist activities, they should have the control of the classroom, but at
the same time they need to make sure that pupils are playing an active role in their own learning processes. This contradictory structure of the Turkish Guide Book leads to Foucault’s (1977) panopticon apparatus which can also be applied to control its own mechanism. Teachers actually need to switch their role from ‘being observed’ to ‘the observer’. According to the analogy of panopticon surveillance system (Foucault, 1977), teachers are controlled and watched by MONE, however, according to the constructivist teaching, the teacher’s role is to observe pupils’ learning. Everybody in the classroom is involved in this surveillance mechanism in one way or another. Foucault (1977) defines this as the transparency of the panoptic institutions.

3.3 Constructivism

The Ministry of National Education (MONE) developed a new curriculum on the basis of constructivist teaching methods in 2004. Thus, it is essential to understand the constructivism and constructivist teaching methods to be able to comprehend teachers’ implementations and interpretations of the Turkish Guide Book (MONE, 2004a).

There are various arguments about constructivism as a learning theory or a teaching method. Richardson (2003) divided constructivism into two the categories of Social constructivism and Psychological constructivism. According to this divide, psychological constructivism contributes to the pedagogical processes (Richardson, 2003 p. 1625).

3.3.1 Constructionist versus Constructivist

I shall use the term ‘social constructionism’, rather than ‘constructivism’ throughout. These terms are sometimes used interchangeably, but Gergen (1985) recommended the use of ‘constructionism’ since ‘constructivism’ is sometimes used to refer to Piagetian theory and to a particular kind of perceptual theory, and could cause confusion (Burr, 1995 p. 2).

Constructionism is a sociological approach to understanding the construction of identities (Burr, 1995). Richardson (2003) defined and uses the terms ‘social constructivism’ and ‘social constructionist’ together. The construction of knowledge is determined ‘by such things as politics, ideologies, values, the exertion of power and the preservation of status,
religious beliefs, and economy and social factors’ (Richardson, 2003 p. 1624). In addition, this type of knowledge is not an objective reflection of the real world.

On the other hand, Richardson (2003) defined the term ‘psychological constructivism’ as a developmental and learning theory whereby learners actively engage with the construction of ‘phenomena’ and construct meanings according to their prior knowledge (p.1624). Thus, this is the ‘formal’ knowledge that has been imposed on learning practices in schools. In this case, the learning environment is not authentic, but is manipulated by ‘the teachers’.

The debate about the differences between Piaget and Vygotsky has been an issue among theorists (Daniels, 2003). Daniels (2003) highlighted common comparisons “(biological versus social) or locational/contextual (Swiss versus Russian)” (p. 37). However there are also various comparisons related to their theories of cognitive development.

Vygotsky’s perspective focuses on development processes. It also investigates how a learner engages with a new task; the learner’s adaptability to a new challenge is central to a Vygotskian understanding of development. In this process, development occurs if the learner can apply concepts to new tasks and new challenges. On the other hand, the Piagetian perspective claims that development leads to learning. In other words, the process of development is the major principle of Piaget rather than progress (Palincsar, 1998).

In Piaget’s socio-cognitive conflict, social interaction is necessary in order to create disequilibrium. However, development centres on the learners’ capacity; in other words, interaction is a stimulus for development. On the other hand, in Vgotsky’s meditational concept, development is based on social interaction.

Construction of knowledge can be achieved independently within a social context according to Piaget’s Constructivism (Fleury, 1998) whereas, according to social constructivism, learning emerges with the help of the cultural environment. In other words, learner’s development is based on the social interaction.

Social constructivism focuses on the social and cultural rather than the individual and psychological, as in Piagetian constructivism (Welsch & Jenlink, 1998).
Piaget was a biologist who was interested in the construction of knowledge in people (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). His research method concerned observing his children, and this was considered to be very different from a behaviourist approach (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). A behaviourist principle concerns the transmission of factual knowledge in which learning occurs through adaptation or imitation (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). Petty (2009) alters this definition and states that according to the behaviourist approach of teaching, ‘learners require reinforcement for learning’ (p. 15).

Fleury (1998) considered Piaget’s concepts like ‘assimilation, accommodation, equilibrium, and learning stages’ as part of teachers’ daily and yearly preparation criteria (p. 158). Since this study focuses on primary teachers’ interpretations and the implementations of the Turkish Guide Book, it is vital to understand the meanings of these concepts.

According to Marin (2000), it is important to understand the meaning of ‘scheme and concept’, terms which are commonly used in cognitive psychology. ‘Scheme’ concerns meaningful and coherent knowledge and ‘concept’ refers to the learners’ responses (Marin, 2000). Moreover, Marin, Benarroch & Gomez (2000) considered the Piagetian scheme as pupils’ academic knowledge. According to this interpretation of Piaget, if the ‘scheme’ is considered to relate to the level of academic knowledge, it could not allow the learner to construct a meaning of their environment. In other words, if academic knowledge is deemed as being related to conventional curriculum subjects, it may not be pragmatic enough for pupils to adapt it to real life. Thus, the Piagetian constructed ‘scheme’ does not fit into Dewey’s understanding of pragmatic schooling.

Constructivist learning focuses on pupils’ knowledge processes and the influences of these processes on thought practices (Adams, 2006). Gergen (2003) extended this definition as pertaining to knowledge which is not gathered mechanically but as part of an active process of people with social experiences. In this respect, knowledge is constructed in a variety of forms according to the subjects’ historical and cultural experiences. Schuh (2003) described a learner’s unique experience as their ‘trajectory’, which is formed by the learner’s individualistic life experiences. The organization of these experiences into meaningful structures was called a ‘scheme’ by Piaget (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). In other words, learning is an active process by which learners construct meanings or ‘schemes’ according to their unique experiences.
During Schuh’s (2003) constructivist study of three classrooms, two major findings emerged. First of all it was found that learners’ knowledge construction could be stimulated through cues. The second finding was related to learners’ prior knowledge which was activated through cues. These cues were actually prompts of learners’ prior knowledge. Moreover, to discover a learner’s ‘trajectory’, appropriate cues must be given (Schuh, 2003).

Piagetian Constructivism focuses on schemes which become meaningful when perceived by a subject. However, the knowledge should be gradually increased to a complex level. Complex knowledge can be constructed on a basis of simple knowledge; this process makes the foundation strong (Marin et al., 2000).

The existing scheme should also harmonise with the newly received scheme which creates ‘equilibrium’ (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). Equilibrium is considered as harmony, stability and balance. When an equilibrium is not achieved, the learner is faced with confusion (disequilibrium) (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). Equilibrium is necessary for the construction of knowledge. When people can understand the events around themselves, life makes sense and this is called being in a state of equilibrium (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001).

In order to establish equilibrium, schemes should be subject to ‘adaptation’ (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). In other words, previous knowledge should be altered according to newly received knowledge. ‘Accommodation’ is the term for modification of the scheme according to the existing scheme (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). ‘Assimilation’ is also a kind of adaptation - when new concepts emerge. The newly received scheme is modified according to the previous one.

There are three types of equilibrium. At the beginning of the primary socialising between subject and object, there is the equilibration between the schemes and the object. They are both assimilated and accommodated. The second equilibration occurs between independent schemes. The third type of equilibrium is that of hierarchical assimilation and accommodation (Piaget, 1975). Piaget (1975) gave the example of “the traveller walking about in the moving train”. In this example, the subject should differentiate accommodations. There are two schemes which are accommodated into a moving scheme. However, the traveller’s movement is different from that of the train. The traveller is walking in the
opposite direction to the train. In this case, although there is the same scheme of moving, the traveller and the train are different. Therefore the subject needs to make sense between these two different movements and the objects (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001; Marin et al., 2000).

When the scheme is assimilated, invalid conclusions can be drawn by the learner because of the existing scheme (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001; Sacco & Bucciarelli, 2006). During the process of assimilation, the scheme, which has been reformed by an existing scheme, may not necessarily fit into the expected scheme - in other words another scheme would be constructed according to the existing scheme.

The socio-cognitive conflict theory of Piaget concerns learners’ confusion (disequilibrium) through their interaction with peers. This conflict leads to learners’ questioning their present knowledge and constructing solutions on the basis of their confusion. (Hills, 2007; Palincsar, 1998; Sacco & Bucciarelli, 2006). According to Hills’ (2007) argument, disequilibrium is essential for learning. When people engage with ‘appropriate levels of internal conflict’, they actually solve the dilemma by creating better solutions. Therefore, confusion is also an indispensable aid for motivation, (Hills, 2007, p. 337).

When learners are working alone they cannot decentralise their problems. However, when they are working with their peers, they can often understand their problems better (Hills, 2007; Sacco & Bucciarelli, 2006). Palinscar (1998) (cited in Bell et al., 1985) stated that children learn better with group work than by working individually. For cognitive development, it would seem social interaction is essential. However, this interaction should be challenging enough to raise some questions in learners’ minds in order for cognitive development to be fulfilled (Palinscar, 1998). However, if learning is about adopting a skill, this can best be accomplished by a more able partner.

Socio-cognitive conflict theory is mainly used for children’s conversational tasks. For reasoning, it is essential to have different points of view. There are two main approaches of socio-cognitive conflict theory: learners focus on socializing among peers with different levels of understanding and interaction between learners of different statuses (Sacco & Bucciarelli, 2006). However, Palinscar (1998) did not discuss this in his article about socio-cognitive conflict theory. Palinscar (1998) claimed that learners should be actively involved
with problem-solving activities, otherwise the activity would not be effective. According to Palincsar’s argument, involvement is more essential than socialising with peers.

Hills (2007) considered socio-cognitive conflict theory as risk taking, which is an essential tool for learning. However, this risk taking should occur in a classroom associated with social interaction. As a result of this argument, Hills (2007) suggested that it is important to consider pupils’ individual differences when using constructivist teaching tools.

### 3.3.2 The Socio-Cultural Theory of Vygotsky

Daniels (2001) advocated Vygotsky’s theory “within which social, cultural and historical forces play a part in development.” Bruner (1985) reinforced this by adding that in Vygotsky’s work, language and thought are used as instruments to take actions. Language is a way to establish thoughts or it helps to organize thoughts (Daniels, 2001).

Vygotsky’s idea of the Zone of Proximal Development was introduced in order to deal with problems of “the assessment of children’s intellectual abilities and the evaluation of instructional practices” (Wertsch, 1985, p. 67). Vygotsky compares the actual level of development and potential level of development:

> Imagine that we have examined two children and have determined that the mental age of both is seven years. This means that both children solve tasks accessible to seven-year-olds. However, when we attempt to push these children further when carrying out tests, there turns out to be an essential difference between them. With the help of leading questions, examples, and demonstrations, one of them easily solves tests items taken from two years above the child’s level of [actual] development. The other solves test items that are only a half-year above his or her level of [actual] development (Vygotsky, 1999, p. 187)

Vygotsky draws attention to the potential level of development. Vygotsky’s example illustrates that these two children are not the same. According to his theory, teachers should consider pupils’ potential level of development to ‘scaffold’ (Bruner, 1985) them until they achieve their potential. Adults, or more able peers, scaffold the pupil to have ‘control’ until the pupil achieves his/her potential (Bruner, 1985). At this point, adults and more able pupils provide the ‘scaffolding’ (Bruner, 1985). In this process, communication plays a crucial role (Bruner, 1985).
The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) concerns a range of tasks that a child cannot yet do alone but can accomplish when assisted by a more skilled partner (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001, p. 56). For learners, there is a target level that they are more likely to reach with assistance. According to Palincsar (1998), the Zone of Proximal Development is about learning, and should be determined by the child’s stage of development. In order to understand this relationship, it is important to identify the child’s ‘actual and potential development’ (Palincsar, 1998). Actual development refers to learners’ achievement on their own without assistance. Potential development is the maximum level that learners can achieve with assistance (Palincsar, 1998). Moreover, this assistance (scaffolding) should come through guidance rather than knowledge transmission (Daniels, 2001).

The discrepancy between a child’s actual mental age and the level he reaches in solving problems with assistance indicates the zone of his proximal development. Experience has shown that the child with the larger zone of proximal development will do much better in school (Vygotsky, 1999, p. 187).

In Gillen’s (2000) critical work on Vygotsky’s interpretations, she questioned if ZPD is the centre of Vygotsky’s work or whether it is the key to other theories of Vygotsky. Gillen (2000) also discussed various interpretations of ZPD. According to Gillen’s (2000) analysis of the work of Van der Veer and Valsiner, he exposed ZPD as cultural scaffolding; the child receives assistance from family members (Gillen, 2000). Alternatively, other interpretations of Vygotsky’s work introduced ZPD as relating to a learner who can achieve more with assistance either from an adult or a more capable peer. As McIneney notes, “The ZPD is typically thought of as each person’s range of potential for learning, where that learning is culturally shaped by the social environment in which learning takes place” (McIneney, 2005, p. 591). In McIneney’s (2005) definition of ZPD, the influence of the cultural environment is observed, whereas parents’ roles are not. Daniels (2001) also analysed different interpretations. In his study, scaffolding was also deemed as a form of cultural assistance or a way of ‘negotiation’. Daniels (2001) also added that Vygotsky has not been clear about this issue.

Cole (1985) considers ZPD as a development in which children observe adults’ “culturally organized activities” and adopt them into their behaviour. In this adaptation there is also social interaction (p.155). Cole (1985) uses the example of a Zinacantecan weaver in south-central Mexico. The first time the new weaver starts, the adults intervene and, as time goes
by, adults’ intervention with the beginners becomes increasingly infrequent (Cole, 1985). This type of aid from adults can be considered as an apprenticeship. At the beginning of this relationship between learner and master, the master gives commands, but during the later stages of learning, talk turns to comments about the process of the work (Cole, 1985).

Mediation is considered to be the key concept of cultural psychology, and is about a relationship between subject and object. This relationship is mediated by artefacts or tools (Daniels, 2001). Vygotsky (1998) demonstrated three types of tools: ‘material tools, psychological tools and other human beings’. As Daniels stated this:

…opens the way for the development of a non-deterministic account in which mediators serve as the means by which the individual acts upon and is acted upon by social, cultural and historical actors (Daniels, 2001, p. 14).

Daniels (2001) considered human actions as mediated by tools. Tools can be seen as anything that contextualizes human understanding of the world. In an educational context, tools can be used to make meaningful teaching (Bomer, 2003). In Bomer’s (2003) contextualized article, he considered workshops as tools which are stables, pointers and anything in the classroom. Bomer (2003) interpreted Vygotsky’s mediation as a way of using tools to construct pupils’ thinking. In other words, when the tools do not exist, it is impossible to talk about their existence. Therefore, pupils’ thinking skills will not be improved on that particular object.

As Bomer (2003) suggested, every tool has its own use according to its design, which symbolises actual activity. However, Bomer (2003) did not mention the need of the tool, which also creates the original design. Bomer (2003) also added to Vygotsky’s definition of the tool which is ‘not only a hammer but also a word, a diagram, a gesture, a progress, a concept’ (p. 227). As a result, a tool has additional functionality than intended by its’ original design. However, the meaning of the tool depends on an individual’s historical and cultural background. Bomer used Vygotsky’s (1978) example of a ‘stick horse’ that changes meaning for a child and is identified with a real horse. In other words, the stick has acquired another meaning. Therefore it can be claimed that the object gets its meaning through subjects’ interpretation.

Hoffmann (2007) considered semiotic systems as mediators that are signs and representations. Hoffmann (2007) began his article with an example of a pupil who is able to
count wooden objects from 1 to 26 but cannot count from 1 to 26 without these counters (p. 185). Can it be considered that the pupil knows how to count from 1 to 26? According to Vygotsky’s mediation approach, counting objects is considered as knowledge nevertheless. In Hoffmann’s (2007) article, semiotic systems were considered as implicit knowledge. Explicit knowledge is being able to count the numbers without any symbolic help. These objects are actually representing the knowledge. From a pragmatic perspective, knowledge should serve needs. Therefore, implicit knowledge applies to real life situations which represent concrete objects. Conversely, explicit knowledge is abstract knowledge that really does not fit into real world situations. Hoffmann (2007) related implicit knowledge to cognitive activities, which are different from knowledge. This ‘knowledge’ system is more applicable to a behaviourist approach in which facts are passed on through language.

Vygotsky (1978) used the famous example of ‘tying a knot in a handkerchief to remember something’ (Cited in Bomer, 2003, p.229). In a way, the knot takes the place of ‘the thing’ that needs to be remembered. Bomer (2003) explained the teacher’s role with Vgotsky’s (1978) example, as a teacher metaphorical ‘ties knots’ everywhere in the classroom and uses those knots to stimulate pupils to dispense meanings. By doing this exercise using various tools in larger groups, pupils can have a chance to share the meanings (Bomer, 2003).

Daniels (2003) considered the genetic method as a key element of mediation. The genetic method deems that a "human mental process can be understood by analysing how and where they occur in growth” (Wertsch, 1985, p. 17). It is considered to be a very subjective, individualistic way of learning in real life situations. Its key features are:

- It emphasises mediated action in a context;
- It insists on the importance of the ‘genetic method’ understood broadly to include historical, ontogenetic and micro-genetic levels of analysis;
- It seeks to ground its analysis in everyday life events;
- It assumes that mind emerges in the joint mediated activity of people. Mind then is an important sense, ‘co-constructed and distrusted’;
- It assumes that individuals are active agents in their own development but do not act in settings entirely of their own choosing;
- It rejects cause-effect, stimulus-response, explanatory frameworks;
- It draws upon methodologies from humanities as well as from the social land biological sciences.

(Daniels, 2001, p. 13)

3.3.3 Constructivist Pedagogy

Bruner stated that:
Reality construction is the product of meaning making shaped by traditions and by a culture’s tool-kit of ways of thought. In this sense, education must be conceived as aiding young humans in learning to use the tools of meaning making and reality construction, to better adapt to the world in which they find themselves and to help in the process of changing it as required. In this sense, it can even be conceived as akin to helping people become better architects and better builders (Bruner, 2003, p. 169).

According to Bruner (1985), education should be about making sense of the world. This pragmatic approach to education is about the social exchange of knowledge. Human beings exchange knowledge about ‘reality’ and the meaning of the world through language and the language is the key motive for constructing knowledge (Bruner, 1985). Each individual constructs their own knowledge differently which stems from learners’ different ways of learning (Adams, 2006; M. Gergen & Gergen, 2003; Hills, 2007; Marin et al., 2000; Schuh, 2003). The construction of knowledge, therefore, can be achieved through a variety of methods (Richardson, 2003). This part of the chapter is going to examine how knowledge construction is interpreted by various authors. Constructivism covers what ‘objectivism’ does not cover as a term. Moreover, constructivism concerns how an observer interprets the world around himself with his own understanding (Larochelle & Bednarz, 1998, p. 5).

As already observed above, constructivist pedagogy cannot be defined as a teaching method ‘because constructivism is a theory of learning, not a theory of teaching’ (Yang et al., 2008 p. 528). However, constructivist learning theory can be employed to build teaching methods (Richardson, 2003). Since constructivist teaching is not readily defined, teachers find it difficult to position themselves in their classrooms (Richardson, 2003). On the other hand, a constructivist teacher is considered to be a facilitator rather than a “teacher-as-expert” (Welsch & Jenlink, 1998). When this definition is extended, the teacher’s role may be to send messages to pupils (receivers), through which the pupils’ construction mechanisms are stimulated (Larochelle & Bednarz, 1998). In this section, the aim is to define constructivist teaching and to focus on the various issues concerning constructivist teaching.

According to constructivism, teaching should be focused on ‘mindful activities’ which should allow pupils to talk (Adams, 2006). These activities should employ “communicative methods such as role-play, concept mapping, drawing and the use of artefacts” (Adams, 2006, p. 249). Interaction is a major tool for learning. However, not only pupil-teacher co-construction but
also pupil-pupil interaction is necessary (Adams, 2006, p. 249). Pupil-pupil interaction also helps pupils to develop their independence (Adams, 2006).

In cognitive constructivism, social interaction is necessary according to socio-cognitive conflict. Over time, the learner constructs knowledge individually. (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). Prospective teachers are asked how to “elicit student participation and then use students’ existing ideas as a basis for helping them construct new, more disciplined understanding” (Reynolds, 1999, p. 22). Participation is the key for Piagetian constructivism which emphasises “reflecting, building, inquiring, talking, writing and project-centred learning” (Reynolds, 1999, p. 22). However, in the constructivist classroom a teacher’s first concern must be pupils’ prior knowledge after which pupils construct formal knowledge; pupils extend and link the prior knowledge with the new learning (Isikoglu et al., 2009).

According to Adams (2006), teaching and learning are embedded with assessment which is an ongoing process of constructing knowledge. ZPD can be employed as a useful tool for assessment (Adams, 2006). ZPD provides teachers with an opportunity to clearly identify pupils’ needs. Thus, ZPD can be used both for scaffolding and assessing effective teaching and learning (Adams, 2006).

Certain features of constructivist teaching have been discussed by various authors (Adams, 2006; Eggen & Kauchak, 2001; Richardson, 2003). The common characteristics are summarised below.

1. Learning is stimulated by social interaction.
2. In a classroom environment, social interaction between teacher and pupils, as well as among pupils, should be encouraged.
3. Encouraging group dialogue is necessary for constructing knowledge.
4. Teachers should be able to assess pupils’ prior knowledge to facilitate learning.
5. Teachers should focus on ‘student-centred’ teaching activities (Richardson, 2003).
6. Teaching tasks should be authentic, meaningful and pragmatic, and fit into real life.
7. Teachers organise tasks for pupils ‘to determine, challenge, change or add to existing beliefs and understandings through engagement in tasks’ (Richardson, 2003, p. 1626)
8. Teachers need to take on various roles to be able to ‘monitor and evaluate learning, and then constrain and structure learning environments to challenge’ (Richardson, 2003, p. 1626).
Although these features are not specific enough, they give an insight into constructivist teaching. Thus, constructivist pedagogy is actually a term which is used to describe ‘classroom environments, activities, and methods that’ are based on the theories of constructivist learning which is derived mainly from the work of Vygotsky and Piaget (Richardson, 2003). Therefore it is crucial to comprehend constructivist learning theory before attempting to comprehend constructivist teaching.

In constructivist teaching, media or tools are used to stimulate learners’ thinking (Bomer, 2003, p. 225). Bomer’s (2003) case study about tools as mediation indicated that there are various ways of teaching with tools. The main purpose of teaching with tools is to create a symbolic meaning for a tool (Bomer, 2003). There are two types of tools: tools that symbolised the action (tying a knot) and tools that are symbolised by action (a cushion symbolises comfort) (Bomer, 2003). Pupils construct meanings through the use of the tools or give symbolic meanings to a tool. In addition to this, Bomer (2003, p. 234) also observed a teacher use a simile of books (‘books are like babies’) in order to teach them how to treat their books. In this example, the teacher is presenting a meaning of books with the help of a tool. In other words, metaphors are tools used to encourage critical thinking (Bomer, 2003). On the other hand, using tools in the classroom as a meditational aid can lead to a ‘robust materiality’ (Bomer, 2003). In other terms, pupils can also use tools without any symbolic making of meaning (Bomer, 2003, p. 236).

Tools can also be used in rewarding pupils’ learning. However, extrinsic rewarding undervalues the learning process (Adams, 2006). Extrinsic rewarding in the classroom is nothing to do with learning processes. Therefore, rewarding pupils would not motivate them (Adams, 2006). In this case, pupils associate learning with rewards rather than learning as a reward (Adams, 2006). However, one favourable feature of extrinsic rewarding is that it may attract pupils’ attention in subjects that they find uninteresting (Adams, 2006).
Constructivist teaching is an issue of power-relations. ‘Constructivism implies what might be called mixed authority’ in the classroom (Watts & Jofili, 1998, p. 175). Since constructivism is deemed to be ‘student-centred’ (Richardson, 2003), pupils should have some power (Watts & Jofili, 1998). However, this power struggle between teachers and pupils can cause certain issues like losing classroom control, professional conflict and losing track of curriculum requirements.

‘Mixed teaching’ is not only about a power struggle between teachers and the pupils, but also about teachers’ role being switched in lessons (Richardson, 2003). In other words, pupils can take control over their learning practices. Teachers sometimes instruct what ‘pupils should do, in order to achieve certain aims’, and then implement certain activities from constructivist perspectives (Richardson, 2003). In this case, teachers’ need to balance their activities in order to control pupils’ actions and the impact of these actions and at the same time encourage ‘open-ended exploration and expression’ (Osborne, 1997, p. 183).

Osborne (1997) observed a classroom dilemma created when constructivist teaching was implemented. This dilemma occurred between open-ended conversations with pupils and the subject matter (Osborne, 1997). Her story-telling research presented a pupil called Cory who is vibrant but at the same time disturbs to the classroom environment (Osborne, 1997). In this classroom, the teacher encourages each pupil to be free to express his or her thoughts to the group. In this case, each child should act as an individual as well as a member of the group (Osborne, 1997). However, this is not always easy to achieve when dealing with pupils like Cory. When Cory is stimulated, he constructs knowledge and inspires others, but he can also be destructive as a member of the group. Thus, the teacher is presented with a certain dilemma when considering the best approach for this group.

In a different classroom, a different teacher also struggles to teach from a constructivist teaching perspective (Paley, 1994). This story is about Wally. His teacher also has a dilemma between supporting Wally’s learning through his imagination or disciplining him (Paley, 1994). The teacher is not sure about using Wally’s colourful imagination in his learning because his imagination can be destructive to other pupils (Paley, 1994). In both of these cases, the teachers’ problem is that they find it difficult to interrupt the conversations or the activities to correct the misbehaviour (Osborne, 1997; Paley, 1994). According to theories of
constructivist teaching, pupils should be the centre of learning which gives them the authority and control over their learning; conversely this control may disturb other pupils’ rights to learning (Watts & Jofili, 1998). Thus, teachers need to balance the instructive teaching (traditional teaching) strategy and constructivist strategy (Watts & Jofili, 1998).

According to constructivist learning theory, pupils are deemed to be active explorers of the meaning of the external world and they construct knowledge accordingly (S. Edwards, 2005, p. 38). This argument suggests pupils should have an active involvement with the external world, and arrive at meanings through interpretation (S. Edwards, 2005). However, pupils like Cory and Wally are active in their learning processes but disturb other pupils’ learning rights. In both of these cases, the teachers’ confusion is about their roles in constructivist teaching (Osborne, 1997; Paley, 1994).

Although teachers might be confused about their roles in the classroom, in Welsch and Jenlink’s (1998) study, they were able to identify constructivist teaching. When teachers were asked to represent constructivist classroom teaching, they drew an artist (a teacher) holding a paintbrush and the pupils hand was laid on the artist’s hand (Welsch & Jenlink, 1998). This metaphor reveals the teachers’ role of scaffolding (Welsch & Jenlink, 1998). However, this does not mean that teachers actually know how to guide pupils.

A teacher’s personal epistemology is about a teacher’s belief with regard to ‘knowledge and knowing’ (Yang et al., 2008 ) or ‘one’s view of reality and justifications those views’ (Parrow & Sanchez, 2007, p. 227). Thus, teachers’ epistemological beliefs need to fit into prescribed teaching styles. However, a study on teachers’ personal epistemology in Taiwan indicated teachers’ dilemmas between personal epistemology and ‘the philosophy of constructivist instruction’ (Yang et al., 2008 ). In others words, teachers need to be trained to teach in a constructivist way before ‘top down’ reformations are made (Isikoglu et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2008 ).

3.4 Modern Power

“Nothing is more dangerous than a political system that claims to prescribe the truth” (Foucault, 2002).
Foucault’s (1977) *Discipline and Punish: the Birth of the Prison* explores modern power and various forms of punishment; hierarchical observations, examinations and normalizing judgements. These modern punishment techniques can be employed in any institution. In an educational context, teachers’ choices are limited and controlled in various ways. This part of the chapter examines Foucault’s power relations and how it can be applied to educational settings.

Foucault employs Bentham’s prison model, panopticon, which can be applied to any educational institution. This model of prison gives considerable significance to the use of architecture in punishment which is a useful tool when analysing state and private primary schools’ settings. Additionally, extreme surveillance through prescriptive guidelines and inspections is evident in Turkish state and private schools. Thus, teachers’ choices are very much dependent on power relations.

The satirical novel *Nineteen Eighty-Four* (Orwell, 1949, p. 3) is about a society called Oceania where the superpower controls the nation with a symbolic head, Big Brother (Orwell, 1949, p. 3). In this society, there is one rule - ultimate obedience to the power (Orwell, 1949). The citizens of the society are constantly controlled and watched by Big Brother (Orwell, 1949, p. 3). This novel is about the tricks of authoritarian governments and their power games (Orwell, 1949).

The aim of this section is to investigate the factors which influence teachers’ implementations of the Turkish Guide Book. As the Turkish educational system is highly centralised, teachers’ classroom practices in Turkey are based on prescriptive guidelines. These prescriptive guidelines are ways of power control by MONE. In addition, Foucault’s (1977) modern punishment and correct training strategies form the classroom environment and therefore it is crucial to understand the various ways of power control in schooling.

In *Discipline and Punish: the Birth of the Prison* Foucault (1977) opens the first chapter with a disturbing scene of someone torturing a criminal in 17th century Paris (Foucault, 1977, p. 3). This primitive way of revenge was replaced by a gentler form of punishment which can be employed as an effective means of control in everyday life (Gutting, 2005). This type of control can be applied in various institutions (Lawson, 2004b). For this section, the aim is to
review the literature concerning Foucault’s ideas of modern power and its relations to teachers’ choices in a Turkish context.

In feudal times, power was exercised through signs and taxes (Foucault, 2002). The signs of loyalty to the feudal lords were a way to distinguish the roles between the powerful and the weak (Foucault, 2002). The signs were ‘rituals, ceremonies, and so forth, and levies in the form of taxes, pillage, hunting, war, and so on’ (Foucault, 2002). In the seventeenth and the eighteenth centuries, exercise of power took shape as a means of ‘social production’ (Foucault, 2002).

... in the sense that power had to be able to gain access to the bodies of individuals, to their acts, attitudes, and modes of everyday behaviour. Hence the significance of methods such as school discipline, which succeeded in making children’s bodies the object of highly complex systems of manipulation and conditioning (Foucault, 2002, p. 125).

According to modern punishment, the prevention of the crime and ‘correcting the operations of the body’ (Foucault, 1977, p. 136) are the main tools of ‘power’ rather than displayed executions and corporal punishments (Gutting, 2005). Modern control can be achieved in more gentle and effective ways (Gutting, 2005).

Foucault (1977) defined modern power in relation to knowledge (Stokes, 2004). Stokes (2004) considered all Foucault’s work in relation to the theme of a power-knowledge relationship (p. 187). Scientific knowledge is used by the authorities as a means of control. In other words, having ‘scientific’ knowledge is considered as being powerful (Stokes, 2004, p. 187). Moreover, for the authorities, modern power is about controlling the mind (Stokes, 2004) rather than physical control, and this is only possible through knowledge (Gutting, 2008). In this case, knowledge of the individual (potential criminal) and ‘scientific’ knowledge is key for having power. In order to control society, knowledge of ‘the potential criminal’ is essential. In other words, knowledge of ‘you’ is the way to control ‘you’. Simultaneously, the process of gathering data about ‘you’ is a means of modern punishment at the same time (Gutting, 2005). In other terms ‘pastoral knowledge’ is used for schooling and in other institutions to discipline its subjects, with the justification of ‘their well-being’ (Paechter, 2001a)
Power relations create boundaries and recreate boundaries among groups and categories defined by gender, class, and race (Bernstein, 2000). However, power relations in the classroom present an imbalance between the teacher and pupils (Paechter, 2001b). Teachers have the knowledge which they transmit in their own time and in their own way, which forms the basis of power relations in the classroom (Paechter, 2001b). However, when the central curriculum and the curriculum requirements are considered, it is MONE that sets the rules rather than the teachers deciding on their learning outcomes (MONE, 2005a). In other words, as teachers in Turkey have limited power over their classroom environment, the power struggle is between the educational system and teachers.

An alternative interpretation of power-knowledge relations is associated with the curriculum and the curriculum subjects (Paechter, 2001a). Schooling operates the knowledge distribution between the teachers and the learners: it forms the power roles (Paechter, 2001a). In addition, the curriculum subjects are determined by the source of power (Paechter, 2001a). According to this interpretation, the curriculum and the curriculum subjects are geared towards the masculine gender and the curriculum subjects have been labelled with genders (Paechter, 2001a). Some subjects have been identified with masculinity and this also differentiates the roles of the individuals (teacher or student) (Paechter, 2001a). In other words, some of the curriculum subjects help to form power structures among genders in the society (Paechter, 2001a). Formal education or ‘school knowledge’ is different from knowledge gained outside the school: formal education is not only associated with genders but also class systems (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977). Pragmatic knowledge (everyday knowledge) was disowned by the middle and upper classes (Castles & Wustenberg, 1979; Paechter, 2001b) in order to exclude working class pupils from gaining more power (Paechter, 2001b). This argument brings us to the recommendations of Dewey during the establishment of the Turkish Educational system in 1952 (Turan, 2000), which has been discussed in detail in Chapter 1.

According to Foucault, there are three ways of establishing modern control: ‘hierarchical observation, normalizing judgment, and the examination’ (Foucault, 1977; Gutting, 2005, 2008, p. 82). These are all associated with modern education and power-knowledge (Lawson, 2004).
3.4.1. Panopticism and Hierarchical Observation

Hierarchical observation is used as a tool to control people as well as to punish potential criminals (Curtis, 2006; Foucault, 1977; Gutting, 2005; Lawson, 2004b). Foucault (1977) used the idea of Bentham’s Panopticon prisons in order to explain the ‘analytical arrangement of space’ and systematic surveillance (p. 203). Panopticism is used as a metaphor for imposing certain behaviours and tasks into multiple individuals in various institutions (Foucault, 1977, p. 204).

In a Panopticon prison, architectural features are essential because it has to be shaped to enable clear visibility at all times (Foucault, 1977; Gutting, 2005; Lawson, 2004b; Margolis & Fram, 2007; Selwyn, 2000). It is designed as a star where the guards can watch the prisoners from towers at the centre (Foucault, 1977; Gutting, 2005). These towers are pierced with wide windows which open onto the cells (Foucault, 1977; Gutting, 2005). These cells have two windows, one inside the cell and another to the outside which provides enough light to enable the supervisors to see (Foucault, 1977). From the central tower, the wardens can see all the prisoners; the prisoners are permanently visible and they cannot be sure when they were going to be observed. It is therefore ‘a system of self-surveillance’ (Gutting, 2005). The prisoners should also be kept in separate cells so that they cannot communicate with each another (Foucault, 1977; Lawson, 2004b).

The aim of this architectural organization is to prevent inmates from ‘collective escape, the planning of new crimes, bad reciprocal influences’ (Foucault, 1977, p. 200). If this type of architectural plan is applied to schools, there would be ‘no copying, no noise, no chatter, no waste of time’ (Foucault, 1977, p. 201).

In this idea for a prison, Bentham endeavoured to maximize control with minimal effort (Gutting, 2005, p. 82). Prisoners are observed in order to gather information and to be punished. With this type of power control, the aim was to change the behaviour of the criminals without corporal punishment (Gutting, 2008). As stated previously, observation for the prevention of crime is another means of power control. Hierarchical observation is not necessarily applied after the crime: rather, observational power is everywhere in everyday life (Lawson, 2004).
This power of surveillance was not only concerned with exercising power but also providing security for society (Besley, 2005). Since security is essential for freedom, power has to be exercised (Besley, 2005). With this type of security, crime has been predicted. In other words, every individual has been placed into the category of potential criminal. In Steven Spielberg’s movie *Minority Report*, crimes are foreseen and prevented by the pre-crime department (Spielberg, 2002). However, the chief detective discovers that he is the potential criminal and decides to reveal that the “police seers” into the future (called recogs) can also make mistakes (Spielberg, 2002). As in this movie, everybody is a potential criminal and therefore, they should be corrected, trained and controlled by power before committing a crime (Spielberg, 4 July 2002). Hence the idea of panopticon (surveillance) is in every institution (Foucault, 1977).

In this context, disciplinary technologies refers to the ways in which time and space are organized to act upon individuals in such ways that human behaviour becomes standardized and controlled. The example par excellence of this is the CCTV cameras in public spaces (Lawson, 2004b, p. 6).

In a panopticon, architectural features were essential to be able to maintain permanent visibility. However, surveillance became easier with technological devices (Margolis & Fram, 2007). Notably, with the advent of CCTV cameras, which are used for rigorous surveillance within and outside schools. As another example of technical devices, the RM Tutor Computer program is a device which gives the teachers and supervisors (wardens) the tools for power and control they need (RM Tutor 3, 1997). This computer program can be both used in improving pupils’ computer skills and also for limiting pupils’ internet use (RM Tutor 3, 1997). Margolis and Fram (2007) not only discuss the use of technology in surveillance apparatuses but also the use of technology in revealing the surveillance. For instance, ‘scanning devices, digital technology and the internet’ were employed in order to reveal ‘the surveillance, discipline and the punishment’ (Margolis & Fram, 2007, p. 193).

This model of architecture can be successful if it is used in every part of the society (Foucault, 1977). Although the metaphor of the panopticon can be used for negative functions like ‘arresting evil, breaking communications, suspending time’, it can also be employed for improving exercise of power in a more subtle and gentle way. ‘It must be remembered that power can be both repressive and productive’ (Selwyn, 2000, p. 252).
In 1997, the Department for Education and Employment in the UK, through the National Grid for Learning (NGfL), intended to integrate ICT into education (Selwyn, 2000). The plan with the NGfL was to establish ‘various on-line resources for schools, most importantly the ‘Virtual Teacher Centre’ which provides teachers with the access to curriculum materials and discussion boards’ (Selwyn, 2000, p. 244). However, the idea of surveillance through the internet is in addition to the disciplinary pattern (Selwyn, 2000). Although ICT can be used for punishment, it can also be used to assist teachers’ improvement. In other words, when surveillance is used for information purposes, power control can be justified (Selwyn, 2000).

The panopticon, on the other hand, has a role of amplification; although it arranges power, although it is intended to make it more economical and more effective, it does so not for power itself, nor for the immediate salvation of a threatened society: its aim is to strengthen the social forces – to increase production, to develop the economy, spread education, raise the level of public morality; to increase and multiply (Foucault, 1977, p. 208).

The panopticon is an apparatus which can also be applied to control its own mechanism (Foucault, 1977). Supervisors are also watched by their directors and the directors are watched by their superiors. In addition, their work can be judged and corrected if necessary. However, Foucault (1977) does not discuss the top of the panopticon system or the ‘Big brother’. The panopticon system is a surveillance mechanism whose limits and borders of power have not been identified or clearly defined (Foucault, 1977). Everybody in the society is involved in this surveillance mechanism in one way or another. Foucault (1977) defines this as the transparency of the panoptic institutions. It makes the mechanism democratic, and therefore the exercise of power can be observed by the entire society because everybody is allowed to enter into the system of surveillance (Foucault, 1977).

The panopticon can be employed as a research tool (Foucault, 1977). By observation and understanding the patterns of people’s behaviour, the knowledge of power may be advanced (Foucault, 1977). However, as in the German movie ‘Das Experiment’ (2001) which is based on the real events of Zimbardo’s ‘Stanford Prison’, the exercise of power ends in disaster. The message of the movie is that when individuals take over the power of surveillance, ‘the mechanism can be degenerated and it can turn into tyranny’ (Foucault, 1977, p. 207). Therefore there are also dangers of this ‘democratic’ surveillance apparatus. When the wrong individuals get to top of the surveillance system, they may abuse it. However, Foucault
(1977) did not offer any procedure to choose the people who are going to be at the top of the surveillance system.

3.4.1.2 Different Forms of ‘Big Brother’ in Turkey

In his biography, Mustafa Akyol is described as a Turkish Muslim writer (Akyol, 2004). He is a columnist for the Turkish Daily News and also regularly writes a column in *The Star*, which is one of the most popular newspapers in Turkey (Akyol, 2004). One of his articles in *The Star*; ‘*Can Ataturk hear our prayers?*’ describes the dogmatic ‘Ataturk cult’ and how Ataturk himself has replaced religion in Turkey (Akyol, 2008). Although the article was written to support Islamic understanding, it also gave an insight into symbolic power and its effects on society (Akyol, 2008).

The article started with Akyol’s visit to Bodrum Castle museum where the sunken war ships are displayed. Next to the massive war ships there is a portrait of Ataturk along with a saying of the archaeologists - ‘we work with the knowledge that you are watching’ (Akyol, 2008). In this context, the statement means that archaeologists got inspiration from Ataturk while they were working (Akyol, 2008). Being watched is interpreted in a positive way. Ataturk’s portrait has been situated in every official institution as in George Orwell’s ‘Big Brother’. Therefore, there is symbolic power control in every institution. However, it seems like the archaeologists are so conditioned that they even think their success is due to the portrait of Ataturk.

Mustafa Aksoy also gave another example of the familiarization of power control in Turkish society (Akyol, 2008). One of the Year 5 pupils’ poems which received an award exhibited an acceptance of intense surveillance (Akyol, 2008).

*You are placed at the sky, my Ataturk,*

*You are the one who watches us from there*

*You are always there*

*You are the one who decides our destiny*

*You are the one who makes us survive and saves us from the death (Akyol, 2008)*
This article also gave a good example of Foucault’s hierarchical observation. This is not an actual observation mechanism. However, being reminded of those with the power may be a way of maintaining surveillance (Akyol, 2008).

Since the foundation of the Turkish republic in 1923, in order to sustain unity, more patriotic and militaristic themes were included in school textbooks (Cayir & Gürkaynak, 2008). Moreover, schools were centralised. Although the educational reformation in 2004 intended to decrease the number of these patriotic themes, schools are still part of the centralised Ministry of National Education. Therefore, schools are still adorned with Ataturk posters and nationalistic themes, reminding pupils and teachers of the power control. This surveillance apparatus is still evident in Turkish schools and is discussed in Chapter 6.

3.4.2 Symbolic Architecture and Space

Foucault’s (1977) genealogy of surveillance as modern punishment is an introduction to the use of space. As ‘space’ secures the distribution and the exclusion of individuals, it makes surveillance more systematic and efficient (Foucault, 1977). According to Foucault’s genealogy of surveillance, leprosy gave rise to rituals of exclusion and then the plague gave rise to disciplinary projects which ‘called for multiple separations, individualising distributions, an organisation in depth of surveillance and control, an intensification and a ramification of power’ (Foucault, 1977, p. 198). Space has been used for isolating and monitoring ‘patients’ who are the marginalised group of the society. In modern power, disciplinary institutions use space as it was used at the end of the Seventeenth Century.

“Spatiality is the production of space through the interaction of the material and the social” (McGregor, 2004, p. 13). Therefore the meaning of space has been adopted through social interaction which defines the power and power relations. At the same time, space can also be used as a political instrument which demonstrates power and power relations (McGregor, 2004). In other words space provides the concrete ways of displaying control (Margolis & Fram, 2007).

Foucault (1977):

In the eighteenth century, the table was both a technique of power and a procedure of knowledge. It was a question of organizing the multiple, of providing oneself with an
instrument to cover it and to master it; it was a question of imposing upon it an ‘order’ (p.148).

According to this quotation, the relationship between the ‘object’ and the people presents the role of the ‘object’ and the object becomes a tool for the ‘subject’ to demonstrate or to hide the power. Therefore, the role of the teacher’s table in a classroom is based on the teacher’s engagement with it. Thus, the teacher constructs a meaning from the table. This symbolic meaning may bear some resemblance to the wardens’ tower in the panopticon.

However, notions of place vary considerably in terms of their definitions (Massey, 1994). In the above sense, the place has been defined geographically (Massey, 1994). Since a place divides the people and the power relations among them, it is essential to identify the analogy of place. Massey (1994), in her alternative definition of place, noted that it is not the boundaries of the areas, but the social networks of relations in a particular time that identify the notion of place. According to this definition, place has been identified with people and the people’s constructions of the meaning of it (Massey, 1994). Thus, a place cannot be interpreted within its physical environment, but it becomes meaningful along with the social interactions. In addition, the boundaries of a place do not draw lines around the social network; to a certain extent, social networks draw the boundaries of a place. Thus, a society can construct its ‘place’ wherever it is, which does not mean that a place loses its meaning with the mobility of a society, rather it gains meaning in a different ‘place’.

When Massey’s (1994) argument is considered, the question of whether boundaries construct a place or social networks draw the boundaries of a place could be raised. Visibly, a place is defined by its boundaries. However, the social networks construct a meaning to a place. In other words, a place exists without a social network. However, the meaning of a place would not be there without the society. Thus, when the society leaves a place, the place gains a different meaning.

3.4.2.1 School Spatiality

Bentham’s panoptic surveillance has been a model for other disciplinary institutions like schools, hospitals and factories (Gutting, 2005). These institutions were organised and formed according to the contemporary political movements (McGregor, 2004, p. 14). Various architectural designs of the schools and the layout of the classrooms reflect the manifestation
of power and the power relations within and outside the schools (McGregor, 2004). Therefore, close examination of spatiality in schools would reveal teachers’ interpretations and the implementations of the Turkish Guide Book and would demonstrate various types of power control through education and within the education system.

Spatiality should not only be considered as a physical need (Dixon, 2004). Children are associated with energy and liveliness and therefore they need space to be able to identify their cognitive motor skills (Dixon, 2004). According to Dixon’s (2004) article about space and schools; pupils’ construction of knowledge may be stimulated through pupils’ active involvement in an appropriate spatial organisation, it is therefore important to distinguish pupils’ spatial needs. Additionally, space can be used as a teaching tool which should allow pupils active engagement with space. However, playground space may be the only place where pupils are allowed to explore their ‘physical’ surroundings (Dixon, 2004). Therefore ‘social hierarchies’ among pupils are more evident in playgrounds (Dixon, 2004). McGregor (2004) also considered ‘the corridor’ as a private place for pupils. This may be explained through less adult control in playgrounds and corridors where pupils’ power struggle is apparent. In other words, in schools, power shifts from teachers’ classroom control to pupils’ playground power display.

According to Horne’s (2004) article, schools are not able to meet the demands of the modern society (p. 6). Schools and official buildings are bordered with ‘physical and non-physical boundaries’ which does not allow the outside world into the classroom (Horne, 2004). The physical boundary of schools can be considered to be the buildings and the security cameras (Horne, 2004). This physical boundary divides the teachers and pupils from the rest of the society and identifies their roles inside and outside the building. In other words, this physical boundary separates these two different worlds as ‘outside and inside the school’. In addition, the non-physical boundary of the ‘disciplinary buildings’ is related to curriculum subjects. As Paechter (2001b) revealed; ‘the school knowledge is in some way different from that found and used in the world outside’ (p.168). In other words, the curriculum subjects are not applicable to the ‘real’ world (outside the school), and therefore the pupils would not fit into societal needs outside the school (Horne, 2004). Therefore it is essential to bring the outside world into the classroom (Horne, 2004, p. 6). The argument above also correlates to Massey’s (1994) explanation of place-making through a social network which is not only related to socialisation within school premises but also socialisation outside the school borders.
‘The internet, video conferencing and other distance learning technology also provide access to a diverse range of external knowledge sources within the classroom’ (Horne, 2004, p.6). According to Horne’s (2004) suggestion, distance learning technology is a way of bringing the outside world into the classroom, however; these external knowledge sources may also be structured and programmed by other disciplinary institutions which may be a way of exchanging knowledge rather than bringing the outside world into the classroom. In other words, distance learning technology does not really allow pupils to explore outside space where they can ‘build up an image of ‘the self-in-space’ and the ‘self-in-relation-to-others-in-space’ (Dixon, 2004, p. 20).

On the other hand, Horne (2004) suggested that ‘more vocational curriculum and more work-related learning’ would allow the outside world into the classroom. However work-related curriculum subjects would not serve the needs of the upper-class elite (Paechter, 2001b). Additionally, in order to implement a work-related curriculum, it is important to have a suitable classroom environment. Conversely, ‘nature of space and place has changed little in the concept of the classrooms in 200 years’ (Fisher, 2004, p. 37). Although physical spaces in schools do not meet pupils’ physical needs and development, they discipline and train children about ‘adult expectations and power structures’ (Dixon, 2004, p. 20). In other words, they train pupils about the outside world in an unintended paradoxical way.

What young children could be learning, for example, from the space and place where the teacher sits, to where the children themselves sit for most of the day, to who is allowed to use the pencil sharpener or collect books. All represent the beginning of a social knowledge situated in a particular space. (Dixon, 2004, p. 20).

Another approach to bringing the outside world into the classroom is ‘spatial-pedagogical-social praxis’ which refers to interrelation of pupils and teachers active and social collaboration of bringing their ‘everyday lives and lived realities and identities’ into their schools and use these realities as a form of place-making (Fisher, 2004, p. 36). Fisher (2004) explained this theory with an example where the idea of an ‘eco-school’ emerged from one classroom to the entire school. The Eco-School is a long term school project ‘about sustainable development issues and sustainable practices into everyday school life’ (Eco-school, 2009 ). Although the Eco-School project brings environmental issues into perspective
Margolis and Fram (2007) used photography as a research tool to show the extreme surveillance and the symbolic architectural design in schools. Since photography can record ‘visible elements of school life’, it can be a great source of architectural designs (Margolis & Fram, 2007). The interior designs of the schools were planned according to relationships with authorities (Margolis & Fram, 2007). Moreover, the architectural designs of the schools suggest ‘top-down’ educational activities (Margolis & Fram, 2007). In this article, pupils were presented as the victims of surveillance (Margolis & Fram, 2007). However, in the surveillance system, every individual either takes part or is a victim of the apparatus (Foucault, 1977). It may explain playground social hierarchies where pupils participate in severe surveillance when adult control is not present (Dixon, 2004).

At the tiered rows of seats in a lecture hall, or well-lit classrooms with large windows and wide aisles, not only facilitate learning, they also make it extremely easy for teachers to see what everyone is doing (Gutting, 2005, p. 82).

As the quotation above suggests, space is used in various ways to control, train and correct pupils (Foucault, 1977; Gutting, 2005, 2008). First of all, space should have allocated purposes so that it is easier to identify and label individuals with their places (Foucault, 1977). The boundaries of the school should be drawn very clearly for the pupils and their parents (Foucault, 1977). In Laerke’s (2006) ethnographic research about children’s body and school space, the analysis of the use of the body in a village primary school focused on the size of the spaces and furniture. Spaces are allocated to certain uses like tables for working, a playground for games, and a library for studying. This space division is used for disciplining and correcting pupils (Laerke, 2006). When the school bell rings, pupils enter and exit the buildings in single file (Laerke, 2006). In addition, the space is organized according to the hierarchy (Foucault, 1977). Each floor of the school is organized according to the year groups or subject areas. The decoration of the rooms and the seating plans are arranged according to symbolic power and discipline (Laerke, 2006).

In the article about the politics of passion in education (Zembylas, 2007), learning has been defined as ‘an art of becoming something else’ (Zembylas, 2007, p. 144). In order to allow passion to ‘control’ both teachers and learners to ‘become something’, the classroom should
let learners be free from their imprisoned identities (Zembylas, 2007). Although passion in education was interpreted using various negative terms like ‘out of control’ or as something special experienced by a few ‘talented individuals’ (Zembylas, 2007, p. 146), educational passion is a constructive way of ‘creating’ various identities according to Foucault’s understanding. Therefore the classroom should be organized without any doubts of power control, but at the same time, the classroom should be adorned with meaningful objects stimulating creative learning.

3.4.2.2 Various School Spaces

a. Staffroom

The school space is also used for displaying power relations among teachers from different subjects in staffrooms (Paechter, 2004). Paechter (2004) noted that teachers’ seating arrangements in staffrooms reflect power relations among teachers. Teachers from core subjects choose to sit places where they can display the seriousness of their subjects, this also demonstrates power relations and their status in the school community (Paechter, 2004). The place and the object have been identified through teachers’ power displays (Paechter, 2004). In other words, the teachers’ ‘meaning making’ process of the object and the place depends on their relations with the object rather than social networking. Although teachers were allocated to their places in the staffroom through their social status, it was not necessarily what placed them into their social network with others in the school community. Teachers’ statuses were determined through hierarchical acceptance of teaching subjects which were considered to be core curricular.

Core-curriculum subject teachers’ display of power in a staffroom can be a representative of macro-level society regulations. Teachers who are not a full member of the school society are considered as ‘peripheral members’, and therefore they need to establish their own marginalised group in the school society to be able to get full membership (Paechter, 2006). The distribution of the power relations in society can be manifested through identification of architecture and the objects. Therefore a staffroom environment is only a representation of the symbolic architectural display of power. It is therefore essential to understand staffroom power displays to be able to have a full understanding of schooling in general.
b. Classroom

The classroom is an important tool especially for ‘non-traditional’ teachers (Bissell, 2004 p. 32). The origin of schools and classrooms traced back to the late 19th Century (McGregor, 2004, p. 15). The emergence of schools was related to the need of manifestation of systematic power control in a concrete demonstration (McGregor, 2004). In other words, spaces and objects were used in order to demonstrate and systematise power control. According to Foucault (1977) panoptic surveillance, normalising judgement and examinations are the ways of manifestation of power through space.

The representation of ‘the classroom’, whether in policy or education writing (or indeed graphical or televisual images) as a simple container for teaching and learning ignores, amongst other things, the way in which pupils and teachers interact within a power-geometry. The designation of the room and time of ‘the class’, the arrangement of the furniture and the use of space by pupils and staff plus the curriculum and pedagogic strategies employed: all interact as social relations of power in which individuals are differently located (McGregor, 2004, p. 15).

According to the quotation above, ‘the classroom’ has been organised and used as a form of manifestation of power relations. This disciplinary order and control have been considered as the measure of teachers’ success rather than pupils’ attainment (McGregor, 2004). Therefore it is crucial for the teacher to maintain discipline through spatial distribution. Foucault’s (1977) disciplining and controlling strategies are also related to classroom organisations or pedagogic rituals. Foucault’s (1977) theory of controlling and training docile bodies started from ‘the art of distributions’ in which individuals were allocated into various spaces (Foucault, 1977, p. 141). Therefore spaces were labelled and associated with certain levels and uses in classrooms.

Comber and Wall (2001) revisited and analysed the findings of the ORACLE study. ORACLE (Observational Research and Classroom Learning Evaluation) is a large scale study which aimed to observe ‘the relative effectiveness of different teaching approaches’ (Hargreaves & Galton, 2002). There are two phases of the study; the first part of the study took place in 1977 and the second part in 1996 (Galton et al., 1999a). In the second ORACLE, researchers wanted to distinguish the changes in teaching approaches between the years 1977 and 1996. In 1977, Oracle researchers observed fifty-eight different classrooms and eight target students in three different local authorities (Galton et al., 1999a). Unlike the previous research, in 1996 they had a limited sample size of twenty-eight classrooms and six
target students (Galton et al., 1999a). Although the ORACLE researchers limited their research sample, the methodology was the same as the previous study (Galton et al., 1999a).

In 1976, classrooms were organised more akin to Victorian style rows of desks and pupils spent most of their time working on their seats, and they did not move around the classroom or interact with each another (Comber & Wall, 2001). However the organisation of the classrooms had changed by 1996; there were three different types of classroom spaces used in English classrooms, which were classified as ‘the teacher’s desk, the carpet area and information technology’ (Comber & Wall, 2001).

Power has been associated with designated areas like the teachers’ table (or the raised bench in science laboratories), which is normally at the front of class (McGregor, 2004, p. 15). The teacher’s desk has the symbolic power of authority and is the centre of surveillance (Comber & Wall, 2001; McGregor, 2004). The central teacher’s desk also symbolises teacher knowledge transmission rather than constructive teaching that involves pupils in their learning (McGregor, 2004). In the 1970s, the position of the teachers’ desk was changed to the centre of the classroom. However the function of the desk was not changed and the desk has the same significance as ever (Comber & Wall, 2001). The teacher’s desk is the area which ‘pupils may not touch, although teachers may move and remove articles that pupils have on their desk’ (McGregor, 2004, p. 15). Pupils are only allowed to use the teachers’ desk when they are punished and isolated from their peers (McGregor, 2004).

The carpet area has been considered as a classroom space for shared activities (Comber & Wall, 2001). Although the carpet area has been considered to be a comfortable communal area, it is actually the centre of the control (Comber & Wall, 2001). Since pupils have more flexibility with their movements, teachers can arrange their seating according to their position (Comber & Wall, 2001). In other words, it may seem like pupils have more room and flexibility in the carpet area, it is still up to teachers to decide how and when pupils are going to be in the carpet area.

ORACLE study researchers observed massive changes in primary classrooms layout however, the use of computers was still limited in 1996 (Comber & Wall, 2001). Although there was a dedicated place for computers, the equipment was old and rarely used (Comber & Wall, 2001). McGregor (2004) also observed that ‘Computer suites’ were used for individual
work rather than group interaction. Therefore ‘Computer suites’ were not used for constructive teaching activities.

Comber and Wall (2001) discussed three types of classroom shapes; the ‘horseshoe’, the ‘shoebox’ and the ‘open-plan’. The horseshoe shape of arrangements facilitates the monitoring of pupils with special learning difficulties; in order to observe them effectively these pupils are placed close to the teachers’ desk. Furthermore, the horseshoe classroom arrangement allows different interactive activities like pair-share, discussions and group-work activities (Comber & Wall, 2001).

Open-plan classroom design encourages ‘team arrangements’ (Galton et al., 1999a). ‘Open-plan’ school was introduced as ‘a reaction against whole-class teaching’, since open-plan classrooms were more child-centred, ‘with fewer concrete boundaries allowing an increase in flexibility, facilitating the timetabling and teaching of different activities and notionally increased pupil agency’ (McGregor, 2004, p. 15). Although obvious physical surveillance is not apparent in open-plan classrooms, pupils and teachers are controlled and punished through national examinations (McGregor, 2004). In other words, progressive and more flexible teaching activities are available in open-plan classrooms, the prescriptive guide-lines actually decide how and what to teach in the classroom and therefore non-physical surveillance is present even in an open-plan classroom. Another purpose of this type of arrangement was to share resources for instance; both Year 5 and Year 6 pupils are able to share the facilities of a classroom which could encourage scaffolding in teaching (Galton et al., 1999a). Since older or more ‘able’ pupils share the same facilities together, they also can interact and help each other (Galton et al., 1999a).

In ORACLE 1996 researchers observed twenty-eight classrooms and twenty of them were ‘shoebox’ shaped (Galton et al., 1999a). The classrooms were separated from the rest of the school with a door (Galton et al., 1999a). These types of classrooms were limited in space and therefore there was a lack of variation in teaching activities (McGregor, 2004).

A recent OFSTED inspection report acknowledged that the cramped nature of the classrooms restricted opportunities for teaching and learning, drawing attention to the lack of adequate storage space and the fact that a lack of water supply to most classrooms adversely affected practical activities (Comber & Wall, 2001, p. 96).
According to the quotation above, in order to implement practical activities, the classroom environment should be sufficient.

A centralised Turkish education system has an immense impact over school and classroom spatiality in Turkey. Therefore, Foucault’s (1977) modern power control strategies are applicable in the context of Turkish education. Thus, in Chapter 5 detailed analyses of school space, surveillance and various types of power control is given.

### 3.4.3 Examinations

An examination is a combination of hierarchical observation and normalizing judgement (Foucault, 1977; Gutting, 2005). The aim of examinations is to classify, categorise and then punish (Foucault, 1977). Therefore an examination is very important to the production of docile bodies because examinations guarantee the transmission of knowledge (Foucault, 1977). At the same time, examinations reassure the teacher and the examiner about their positions in this power struggle. However, in this struggle, the most powerful one decides the rules of the examination (Foucault, 1977). Moreover, examinations are also meant to compare people and to be used to make judgments about their knowledge and, according to these measurements, docile bodies can be trained, corrected, classified, normalized, and excluded (Foucault, 1977).

The examination that places individuals in a field of surveillance also situates them in a network of writing; it engages them in a whole mass of documents that capture and fix them. The procedures of examination were accompanied at the same time by a system of intense registration and of documentary accumulation. A ‘power of writing’ was constituted as an essential part in the mechanisms of discipline (Foucault, 1977, p. 189).

Examinations are not only about documentations, but also the objectification of the individual (Foucault, 1977). The docile bodies are actually objectified through the power of the examination (Foucault, 1977). The students are not only imposed upon by signs of the power but also they are the subjects of power (Foucault, 1977).

Foucault (1977) also claimed that public examinations are used to acquire data about the people since the results of the examinations are recorded. According to this argument, each person who takes a test turns into a case (Foucault, 1977). This type of knowledge can be
used to gain power over the public, since power-knowledge relations are inevitable. Consequently, the power can be employed to control society.

Fulcher and Davidson (2008) constructed an imaginary Socratic Dialogue between Foucault and J.S. Mill on testing. Foucault, in his argument, is very rigid and direct (Fulcher & Davidson, 2008), arguing that tests are the worst way of controlling and oppressing human beings (Fulcher & Davidson, 2008, p. 408). Tests are a ‘mechanism of discipline’ over individuals or docile bodies, where “the powerful remain in power and decide what knowledge is to be valued” (Fulcher & Davidson, 2008, p. 408). As a result, those taking the test have to fulfil the demands of the powerful and sit the exam.

In contrast, Mill starts his argument with Socrates’ idea that “individual happiness is possible through knowledge” and it is every individuals’ right to be happy (Collini, 2003; Fulcher & Davidson, 2008). In order to achieve individual happiness, the powerful need to exercise disciplinary power over individuals. According to Mill, in order to protect an individual's freedom, the state has to limit the freedom of others (Collini, 2003; Fulcher & Davidson, 2008). Therefore, some individuals need to exercise power over others. Mill also questions who should have the responsibility to examine (Fulcher & Davidson, 2008). This paradoxical power game has to be achieved in order to establish equality and quality in a society (Collini, 2003; Fulcher & Davidson, 2008).

According to Mill, happiness is at the centre of individual growth; therefore the state should make sure that everybody is educated equally, although this does not mean that the state should control the education (Collini, 2003). Mill believes that the financial support from the state for poor citizens permits the state to make decisions for those citizens with regard to educational matters (Collini, 2003).

However, Mill (Collini, 2003) agrees that to provide people with an education up to a certain ‘standard of excellence’ would be acceptable. His argument does not extend the meaning of ‘standard of excellence’ which may also refer to uniformity of education (Collini, 2003). In addition, uniformity can also be a danger for education (Turan, 2000). Mill (Collini, 2003) defines an effective learning environment as one where students are ‘self-creating individuals’ that ‘grow in a questioning environment’: conversely the state ‘standards’, even if they are ‘excellent’, are the standards of the powerful.
Although Mill (Collini, 2003) agrees that it is necessary to limit the state power, he also believes in the importance of public examinations which give opportunities for ordinary people to succeed (Fulcher & Davidson, 2008). At the same time, when public examinations are prepared professionally, this demonstrates the power of the state (Fulcher & Davidson, 2008). As stated previously, the role of society should be limited in order to balance mass happiness, which can only be achieved through limiting others’ freedom (Collini, 2003; Fulcher & Davidson, 2008). Examinations can be employed to eliminate the less successful ordinary people. Consequently, ordinary people can gain ‘meritocratic access to the power’. However, since ‘the instrument for enforcing the law could be no other than public examinations, extending to all children, and beginning at an early age’ (Collini, 2003, p. 106), the state control of examinations should also be limited.

Mill states that ‘a general state education is a mere contrivance for moulding people to be exactly one another’ (Collini, 2003, p. 106), therefore the state should not examine religion, politics or other disputed topics on true or false grounds (Collini, 2003; Fulcher & Davidson, 2008). The test takers should be able to express their true feelings about their beliefs and they should not be judged on the basis of their opinions and therefore the state should not examine these subjects (Collini, 2003). Moreover, the state should not have any power over degree tests which allow the individuals to enter into professions (Fulcher & Davidson, 2008). Mill also considers the idea that the state might have a specific agenda when assigning people to specific jobs. A member from each profession should allocate people with degrees (Fulcher & Davidson, 2008).

Mill alternates Foucault’s arguments regarding the importance of assessment in classroom teaching and learning (Fulcher & Davidson, 2008). Public examinations are not the same as classroom assessments (Fulcher & Davidson, 2008). According to Mill, the purpose of assessment is to make decisions about learning and to improve teaching (Collini, 2003). However, when the standards of the education are centralized and learning and teaching is made uniform by the central government, classroom assessment could be based on the standards of national education rather than the particular teaching of the teacher or the classroom needs. In other words, the classroom assessment in Turkey may be related to the standards of MONE. Therefore, the classroom assessment is based on prescriptive guidelines.
3.4.4 Normalizing Judgments

Another ‘distinctive modern disciplinary control’ is normalizing judgment (Gutting, 2005). Each individual is judged according to standard comparisons; individuals are not valued according to their individualistic input but rather by where they stand in the rank order of the system (Gutting, 2005). Gutting (2008) uses an alternative description: ‘Discipline through imposing precise norms’ rather than labelling people as normal or abnormal (Gutting, 2005). Although citizens are not labelled as normal or abnormal, they are normalized and labelled through being ranked using comparative scales. This type of distribution of individuals has two aspects: ‘it marks the gaps, hierarchies, qualities, skills and aptitudes; but also it punishes and rewards’ (Foucault, 1977, p. 181). In this competition, there is only one winner – the one who has the first rank, and the rest of society is labelled as losers who are trying to be rewarded.

Children must not simply learn to read but must be in the 50th percentile of their reading group. A restaurant must not merely provide good food but be one of the top ten establishments in the city... On the official level, we set national standards for educational programs for medical practice and for industrial processes and products; less formally, we have an obsession with lists that rank-order everything from tourists sites, to our body weights... (Gutting, 2005, p. 84)

Normalizing judgment is a way of correcting people by keeping records of their ‘behaviour, speech, body and sexuality’ (Foucault, 1977). In addition, individuals are punished in various ways by being humiliated and ignored (Foucault, 1977). In other words, punishment has changed its form as well. Foucault (1977) gave the example of a pupil who has not achieved the right level as set by the power. Therefore this pupil has to sit on the ‘ignorant’ bench (Foucault, 1977, p. 179). This type of punishment can be considered as symbolic humiliation. Also, disciplinary punishments are based on exercising, ‘intensified, multiplied forms of training, several times repeated’. The purpose of this punishment is to train the learner to the level of others (Foucault, 1977). If they cannot achieve the level, their rank is reduced until they pass an examination. On the other hand, the teacher should not only punish to improve the pupils: the teachers should also reward them in order for the punishment to be more effective.

In the eighteenth century, ‘rank’ begins to define the great form of distribution of individuals in the educational order: rows or ranks of pupils in the class, corridors, courtyards; rank attributed to each pupil at the end of each task and each examination; the rank he obtains from
week to week, month to month, year to year; an alignment of age groups, one after another; a succession of subjects taught and questions treated, according to an order of increasing difficulty (Foucault, 1977, p. 146).

According to normalizing judgment, individuals are differentiated and excluded by various ranking methods (Foucault, 1977). There are national standards for every institutional area such as education, health and so on (Gutting, 2005). The competitions are not only national but there are also various international league tables like PISA and TIMMS. This type of power control encourages individuals, institutions and nations to become involved in the various competitions. However, there is no end to it because there is always a better score to be attained (Gutting, 2005).

Foucault’s philosophy of a ‘disciplinary regime’ and ‘normalizing judgment’ can also prove the point of empowerment (Lawson, 2004b). According to Foucault, observation means having knowledge about a person. As knowledge is considered to be powerful, the observer has the power of the observed individual. In the classroom context, teachers have the power to observe pupils. However, in England, The Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) has control over the teachers and this can add to the argument (Curtis, 2006). In the Turkish context, a centralized education system may intensify teaching which can be considered as a way of empowering teachers’ roles (Stoffels, 2005).

Lawson’s (2004b) article about teachers’ autonomy considered empowerment as relating to control over teachers. Teachers’ autonomy may provide freedom in their profession when progressive pedagogy is implemented and the teachers own the classroom (Lawson, 2004b). On the other hand, teachers’ autonomy is a term referring to strict control and surveillance. Teachers in England are controlled by OFSTED which ‘inspects and regulates to achieve excellence in the care of children and young people’ (Lawson, 2004b). Although the move from the central power to OFSTED seems on face value to be giving more power to teachers, this shift is actually aimed at ensuring teachers’ self-surveillance (Lawson, 2004b). In order to cope with ‘intensification’ of the ministry, teachers in South Africa minimize their time on instructional planning by using their freedom for a variety of learning materials, teaching strategies or assessment techniques (Stoffels, 2005). These South African teachers also choose to teach the ‘average learner instead of the unique needs of each learner in his/her class, or follow prescribed texts to the hilt’ (Stoffels, 2005, p. 536). They also spend
considerable time on classroom disorder, ‘a more answer-oriented, structured and control heavy pedagogy’ (Stoffels, 2005, p. 536).

3.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided the theoretical framework of the study. It has been divided into two independent categories: the first section discussed constructivism and the second section explored Foucault’s (1977) modern power control and spatiality.

Both of the sections are related to the study in different ways. Firstly, constructivist teaching is prescribed by MONE in Turkey. Teachers need to adapt their teaching methods according to constructivist teaching. Therefore, understanding constructivism and an overview of constructivist teaching was necessary to this study. On the other hand, Foucault’s (1977) power control has been related to the structure of the Turkish educational system. Because the Turkish educational system is highly centralised, the central power controls the schooling in Turkey. Hence Foucault’s (1977) theory of power control explains the systematic surveillance and modern punishment in Turkish education.

Constructivism is considered to be a learning theory rather than a teaching approach. Therefore the first section started with Piaget’s constructivist learning theory which is about learners’ meaning making processes in various stages (Schuh, 2003). In order to sustain learners’ equilibrium, teachers need to help learners to adopt a new scheme through their prior knowledge (Schuh, 2003). This process can also be achieved through social interaction which leads to the social constructivist theory. Vygotsky brought the idea that more able individuals could guide the learners to their potential (Wertsch, 1985). Therefore social interaction is necessary for constructivist teaching.

Although the constructivist teaching may seem to be a remedy for raising the education standards to the level of the EU, prescriptive top-down reformations might only confuse teachers. The issues related to constructivist teaching were also discussed in order to demonstrate the challenges of constructivist teaching. Therefore, after the 2004 education reform, teachers in Turkey needed to have training before the top-down changes were pushed through. The textbooks and teachers’ guide books were altered according to the constructivist
teaching methods. However, there are not any explanations as to how to guide pupils’
according to constructivism.

Throughout the establishment of the Turkish Republic, education was a tool for sustaining a
single nation unity. Therefore the educational system was founded on the basis of strict
centralisation. Education was employed as a tool to militarise the nation. Thus, the ultimate
aim of education was ‘raising people, physically and psychologically fit to be Turkish’ (Cayir
& Gurkaynak, 2008, p. 51). Therefore, Foucault’s (1977) idea of disciplining and correcting
docile bodies can be seen as the best possible explanation of the mission of the Turkish
educational system. Moreover, teachers’ interpretations and their implementations were
determined by MONE.

The highly centralised nature of the Turkish educational system (Karakaya, 2004) controls
teachers by prescribing teaching methods. Hence teachers’ choices are determined by the
Ministry of National Education (MONE). According to Foucault (1977), there are three ways
of modern control: hierarchical observation, examination, and normalising judgement. Each
of these can be applied to my own observations and interpretations of two different cases in
Turkey.

Before starting to analyse the various methods of control and how my participants were
determined, it is essential to understand the architectural design of the schools. The use of
space, symbolic teachers’ tables, seating designs and the classrooms will be discussed in
detail in Chapter 6. The analogy of panopticon and how it was applied into a Turkish context
will also be analysed.

Examinations are another way of controlling a society (Foucault, 1977). Participants’ conflict
between the desire to employ progressive teaching methods and the pressures of examination
preparation is also a feature of a way of controlling which relates to Foucault’s analysis of
power control.

Lastly, normalising judgement and its impact on the Turkish schools that are required to fit
into a rank as part of the controlling process are relevant here. Therefore, Foucault’s (1977)
theory of modern punishment can contribute to our understanding of the Turkish context. In
addition, the competition among schools, teachers, and pupils to fit into ‘society’ could be seen as a part of normalising judgement
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the aim is to discuss methodological issues and theoretical perspectives. Research questions are examined and an appropriate design for this particular research is then conferred. The case study approach is rationalised and the strengths of using this approach are also discussed. Moreover, ethical considerations of the study in a Turkish context are addressed in detail.

The first section discusses the aims of the research and the research questions. In addition, the ontological and epistemological position of the study is explained and rationalised. The second section focuses on the appropriate research design for this study. The case study approach is described and the suitability of the choice explained. In addition, the sampling strategy is explained and rationalised. The selection of appropriate research tools is also described. Additionally, issues associated with generalisation are explained. Data collection tools and their appropriateness are described. The data analysis strategy is also explained in detail. The final section of this chapter considers ethical concerns and researchers’ bias.

4.2 Aims of the Study

The main aim of the study is to understand Year Five Turkish teachers’ various interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book. Detailed information has been given about the Turkish Guide Book in the Literature Review Chapter.

Specifically the objectives of the study are:

- To investigate the major sources influencing teachers’ implementation and their interpretation of the Turkish Guide Book.
- To identify the factors influencing teachers’ choices of classroom practices.
- To identify the similarities and differences in teachers’ interpretations and the implementations of the Turkish Guide Book in both private and state schools.
- To identify the impact of the school and classroom space on Y5 Turkish teachers’ classroom behaviour.
The research questions reflect the research aims, which are stated below:

- What factors influence teachers’ implementations of the Turkish Guide Book?
- What factors influence teachers’ choices of classroom activities?
- What are the differences and similarities in teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Guide Book in both private and state schools?
- How do school and classroom spaces have an impact on Y5 Turkish teachers’ classroom behaviour?

In both State and Private Primary Schools, Year Five Turkish teachers are prescribed the same Guide Book, which recommends certain teaching activities. One purpose of this study is to understand primary (Y5) teachers’ interpretations of set activities and how their values and beliefs about teaching influence their classroom environment when implementing the activities in two different school contexts. In addition, teachers’ various adaptations of the Turkish Guide Book are also examined in this study.

4.3 Ontology and Epistemology of this Study

4.3.1 Ontological

Ontology is defined as the branch of metaphysics that studies the nature of existence or being (Honderich, 1995, p. 3). The definition of ‘being’ is the major study of ontology (Marsh & Furlong, 2002): ‘The key question is whether there is a “real” world “out there” that is independent of our knowledge of it’ (Marsh & Furlong, 2002, p. 18). In other words, ontological arguments discuss the existence of knowledge without our consciousness. An alternative to this ontological question would be: ‘What kinds of things are there in the world?’ (Huhges, 1990, p. 5). In both definitive questions, there is a quest for the unknown which is not necessarily about a ‘concrete’ material (quantitative). Thus, ontology is not about facts (Huges, 1990). In addition, ontological arguments use as a foundation the notion that the world exists without human consciousness. However, the meaning of the world is constructed by the mind (Crotty, 1998, p. 11).
Since the essence of ontology is ‘being’, a research process begins with ontological discussions (Marsh & Furlong, 2002). In Social Science, ontological positions are referred to as “objectivism and constructionism” (Bryman & Teevan, 2005, p. 12). On the other hand, realism is also considered to be an ontological position by Crotty (1998). Since realism is identified with objectivism (Crotty, 1998), some authors like Bryman & Teevan, (2005) and Grix (2002), consider objectivism as an ontological position instead of realism.

Objectivists note that there are regulations and rules, which are followed by members of certain organisations (Bryman & Teevan, 2005). In addition, objectivism is also part of the ‘existing world’ (Crotty, 1998). The meaning of an object comes from reality, which leads to the objectivism debate: “If we give meaning to the objects, do objects exist without our consciousness?” (Crotty, 1998). In other words, it is a debate between objectivism and constructivism. According to this debate, objectivism concerns the ‘relative’ existence of the objects without our consciousness.

According to constructionism, there is not a truth but a fact or ‘reality’ (Crotty, 1998). An object gets its meaning when human-kind engages with it; therefore meaning is constructed through the engagement with the object (Crotty, 1998). In other words, the meaning of the object is constructed by the social actors. However, this making of meaning does not arise as soon as the engagement occurs. This gradual process is also related to the prior knowledge of the ‘learner’. We are all born into a society with meanings and we eventually inherit them. In other words, we make meanings for objects through the perspective of the society (culture) we are in (Crotty, 1998). Realism in ontology is considered to be similar to constructionism in epistemology (Crotty, 1998, p. 11).

This study focuses on primary school teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book, which also deals with teachers’ choices of teaching activities. Moreover, the focus of this study is on teachers’ perceptions of teaching and how they adopt them into their classroom environment. Consequently, a teacher’s ontological position is important in order to analyse what they call ‘reality’ in teaching. In addition, my role as a researcher is to understand the participants’ different interpretations and implementations of teaching. Therefore, my ontological position is applicable in to the phenomena of teaching (Grix, 2002).
According to constructionism, social actors construct meanings from objects through their engagement with them (Bryman, 2004). Since every individual has different experiences with an object, the meaning of the object would vary accordingly. The aim of the study is to comprehend teachers’ engagement of the Turkish Guide Book and so therefore the ontological position of this study is constructionist. The meaning of the Turkish Guide Book has been constructed through teachers’ understanding of it. The interpretation and the implementation of the Turkish Guide Book have been related through my participants’ unique understanding of teaching.

In this research, my ontological position should be able to answer the research questions in depth. In order to understand the phenomena, it is essential to understand teachers’ educational backgrounds, identities and the underlining issues of their choices. In this case, my ontological position only allows me ‘to interpret’ rather than seek for the ‘truth’. However, how one perceives ‘being’ depends on one’s understanding of the term (Grix, 2002).

It is not difficult to understand how different scholarly traditions embedded in fundamentally different cultural contexts can have diverging views of the world and differing assumptions underpinning their particular approaches to social inquiry. (Grix, 2002, p. 177)

Since ontology is about being, epistemology is about the study of being. Thus, epistemological and ontological issues merge together (Crotty, 1998). The various ontological and epistemological positions of several authors are displayed in Table 4.1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Ontology</th>
<th>Epistemology</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Crotty, 1998)</td>
<td>Realism</td>
<td>Constructionism, Objectivism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Marsh &amp; Furlong, 2002)</td>
<td>Anti-foundationalist, Social Construction</td>
<td>Scientific (positivisist), Hermeneutic (interpretivist)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Bryman &amp; Teevan, 2005)</td>
<td>Objectivism, Constructivism</td>
<td>Positivism, Realism, Interpretivism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Grix, 2002)</td>
<td>Objectivism, Constructivism</td>
<td>Positivism, Interpretivism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3.2 Epistemological

Grix (2002) defined epistemology as follows:

Derived from the Greek words *episteme* (knowledge) and *logos* (reason), epistemology focuses on the knowledge-gathering process and is concerned with developing new models or theories that are better than competing models and theories (Grix, 2002, p. 177).

Ontological and epistemological issues are related (Crotty, 1998). Questions of existence (ontological) lead to the epistemological questions: “How do we know that it exists?” (Huges, 1990). This epistemological question is extended thus: can an observer identify ‘real’ or ‘objective’ relations between social phenomena? and if so, how? According to this question, the researcher is looking for what is ‘real’ and ‘objective’ (Marsh & Furlong, 2002). However, anti-foundationalists would argue that there is no ‘real’ world, and that the world is actually an interpretation of the actors (Marsh & Furlong, 2002). These actors are not objective because their interpretations are constructed by social groups (Marsh & Furlong, 2002). In other words, what social actors call ‘objective’ has been determined by social groups. This is also called double hermeneutics: the world is interpreted by the actors (one hermeneutic level) and their interpretation is interpreted by the observer (a second hermeneutic level). This leads to the second question: How can the ‘real’ be observed? (Marsh & Furlong, 2002). This is the methodological aspect of epistemology (Marsh & Furlong, 2002). Questions such as ‘can this be simply observed or are there unobservable relationships?’ shape one’s epistemological positioning (Marsh & Furlong, 2002).

There are various epistemological positions: positivism, realism and interpretivism (Bryman & Teevan, 2005). The positivist paradigm applies Natural Science methods to Social Science (Bryman & Teevan, 2005). In a similar manner to positivists, realists are committed to ‘social reality’, and they also suggest that Natural Science research tools can be used in Social Science research (Bryman & Teevan, 2005). On the other hand, for interpretivists Social Science research should have different types of research tools since each individual is unique (Bryman & Teevan, 2005).

A researcher’s epistemological position formulates their way of finding the ‘reality’ (Grix, 2002). Epistemology concerns the scepticism of humankind. When humankind learns the world is not the way it is perceived, they look for an argument. The concern of epistemology
is to find arguments about sceptical doubts. There are beliefs which are ‘impossible to doubt’ set on the top of the hierarchical order (Grix, 2002). These beliefs are considered to be the ‘foundation of human knowledge’, which are the ‘reality’ (Grix, 2002).

This research focuses on teachers various interpretations of the Turkish Guide Book and the research aims and questions lead into interpretative research design. Since teachers’ various interpretations are the main concern of the study, interpretivism is the most suitable position. At this point, it is crucial to address issues regarding the reliability and validity of the research in detail (see p. 100). In addition to this, ethical theories and considerations are explained on p. 120.

Interpretivism is a term which opposes positivist epistemology (Bryman, 2004). According to interpretivism, social scientists should seize ‘the subjective meaning of social action’ (Bryman, 2004, p. 13). Since the study is seeking to understand the teachers’ interpretations of the Turkish Guide Book, it is interpretivist in nature.

This research deals with teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book from a constructionist position. In other words, the study is about teachers’ ‘meaning making’ of the Guide Book through their engagement with it. Teachers’ engagement with the Guide Book can only be understood through a constructionist perspective with interpretivist research tools.

**4.4 Preparation of the Research Design**

In this section, the aim is to describe and rationalise the choice of research design. In this research, the case study approach has been employed and is rationalised in this section in detail. In addition, generalisability concerns and various types of generalisation in naturalist research have been discussed. Moreover, validity and reliability issues were examined and discussed.
4.4.1 Case Study Design and Rationale

This study focused on teachers’ classroom practices; therefore, a case study approach was used in order to contextualise the teaching activities in a real classroom environment.

There are various definitions of case study design. Although the case study is the preferred approach among social scientists, there are some disagreements about the definitions of it. Berg (2007) described the case study method ‘as an attempt to systematically investigate an event or a set of related events (p. 283). Yin (2003a) defined the case study approach as a composite of ‘a phenomenon and its (temporal) context’. Stake (1995) used a case study with its characteristic of ‘particularistic complexity’ to explain the case of a pupil, or of a classroom environment, to understand activity and content. In a similar way, the case study allows the researcher to focus on people with uncontrolled real life situations; a focus on these people enables a greater understanding of genuine situations (Cohen et al., 2007). Moreover, the case study is believed to be ‘an examination of a specific phenomenon such as a program, an event, a person, a process, an institution, or a social group’ (Merriam, 1988, p. 7). The case study approach was also classified as a heavily qualitative method and described as the study of ‘naturalistic’, ‘cultural’ and ‘interactional’ phenomena (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995).

Bassey (1999), Cohen & Manion (2007) and Hitchcock & Hughes (1995) discuss various types of case study approaches which overlap. A summary of the different types of case study is provided in Table 4.2.
A case study is categorised according to ‘its choice’ (Stake, 1993). When the researcher has an inherent interest in a case, it is called an intrinsic case study (Stake, 1995). On the other hand, an instrumental case study is a random choice of a case that is used as a tool to understand a ‘puzzlement’ (Stake, 1995). Alternatively, Bassey (1999) categorized and identified his understanding of case studies by using other researchers’ ‘labels’. A ‘theory seeking case study’ is classified using Stake’s instrumental and Yin’s exploratory case study types. In addition, a ‘theory testing case study’ is associated with Yin’s exploratory type. Storytelling and picture drawing are identified with both Yin’s descriptive and Stake’s intrinsic case study approaches.

As the context is the genuine classroom environment and the phenomenon is teachers’ engagement with the Turkish Guide Book, a case study approach is the most applicable strategy for the research on teachers’ interpretations and the implementations of the Turkish Guide Book. When the research aims were considered, it was found that teachers’ various interpretations and the implementations of the Turkish Guide Book can only be understood by a particularistic study.

Gillham (2000) described the features of a case study as a unit of human activity embedded in the real world -

- Which can only be studied or understood in context;
- Which in here and now;
- That merges in with its context so that precise boundaries are difficult to draw (Gillham, 2000, p. 1).
One of the most important features of the case study is its particularistic nature (Stake, 1995). In this research, its intention is to understand the participants’ perceptions of factors influencing their interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book. It is hoped that this will allow the formulation of more profound and rich data, which can only be attained through a case study approach. The ‘richness of context’ can be obtainable through having more variables than data points; even though this makes research analysis more complicated, it might establish more prosperous, contextual and meaningful variables (Yin, 2003a).

An in-depth study would give information about teachers’ interpretations and implementations. The aim is to gather information about classroom practices in Turkey. The assertions from both the state and the private domains would be more manageable and genuine for in-depth analysis. A single case from two different domains would also enable a focus on the phenomena as part of a more naturalistic picture. A case from each domain would also be easier to manage. In particular, the organisation of the findings can be done in a more thorough way. As Merriam notes:

Investigators use a case study design in order to gain an in-depth understanding of the situation and its meaning for those involved. The interest is in process rather than outcome, in context rather than a specific variable, in discovery rather than confirmation (Merriam, 1988, p. xii).

A case study would offer a deeper rather than a wider approach to analysing the phenomena, since the aim is to identify the factors influencing teachers’ pedagogical choices (these factors may be related to teachers’ cultural values, religious beliefs and understanding of pedagogy). A case study approach (a school) with rich assertions would aid the researcher to focus closely on the factors influencing the teachers’ pedagogical choices, as full information is required to expose these factors like school ethos, pupils’ characteristics and teachers’ identities. In-depth analysis of all the variables of the case would aid the researcher to perceive and gain an understanding of teachers’ various teaching styles.

A case study approach is also considered to be a flexible approach in terms of adopting any research designs (Yin, 2003a). Therefore, case study design allows the researcher to employ various research tools according to the research questions. Employing various research tools creates ‘richness’ within the research context. Yin (1993) considered richness of research as dependent on the number of data collection methods. Merriam (1988) also established the
case study researchers’ motives to choose this approach; to gain insightful, descriptive interpretations of the data with multiple research tools.

Having more data gathering tools also aids the researcher to generate research into ‘methodological triangulation’ (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). Since this research is a qualitative case study, observations and interviews were used as research tools to gather contextualised variables.

One of the advantages of the case study approach is its accessibility. It allows the reader to obtain information about the places that they cannot visit (Donmoyer, 2000). It is also interesting for readers to be able to enter into different worlds from the researcher’s perspective (Donmoyer, 2000).

Exploratory case study methods were used for the first part of this study since the sampling size and research questions emerged from the research field (semi-grounded theory). Both Stake (1993) and Bassey (1999) referred to this type of case study as an instrumental case. The aim of this type of research is to comprehend the field more fully and to formalise the research design and research questions in depth.

The first part of the study is to test the research tools and to understand the field in greater detail. However, once in the field, the research strategy was altered according to the research sites. The study took place in two different schools in Turkey, and each site placed its own demands upon the research design, which had to then be reformulated accordingly. “In the end, designing and carrying out a project may depend as much on fortuity, politics, networks and personal assets as on theoretical and substantive interests” (Gerson & Horowitz, 2003, p. 208). Consequently, testing a research tool before conducting the research helped me a little; although during the research, research design had to be adjusted according to participants and gatekeepers’ wishes. This dilemma is discussed in more detail in section 8.3.1. (from pages 250-252).

A storytelling or picture drawing (descriptive) case study was also employed in order to represent the cases. As the purpose of the research was to give an authentic picture of the Turkish Private and the State Primary Schools’ classroom environments, a descriptive case study was appropriate for portraying the research environment.
4.4.2 Generalization in Case Studies

There are various types of generalizations discussed by researchers (Bassey, 1999; Merriam, 1988; Yin, 2003a, 2003b). Yin (1993) focused on generalization through sampling of surveys. This type of generalization does not have much depth of understanding regarding the correlation between the phenomenon and the context (scientific generalization) (Yin, 1993). Generalization is not an aim for naturalistic research (Merriam, 1988). On the other hand, Bassey (1999) referred to ‘fuzzy generalization’ which ‘accepts’ findings of a single case as representative of similar cases. Another generalization technique allocates variables to be interpreted through the researchers’ prior understanding of the phenomena. This is known as ‘petite generalization’ (Stake, 1993), and is also known to overlap with Yin’s (2003b).

Williams (2003) claimed that generalisation is both inevitable and necessary in interpretative research. Without generalisation, the interpretative research would be meaningless (Williams, 2003). Any denial or ignorance of generalisability in interpretative research could be related to a misunderstanding of the term. Williams (2003) determined a type of generalisation which arises from ‘the cultural consistency’ (p. 138). Moderatum generalisations related to ‘cultural consistency’ are the basis of ‘inductive reasoning’. In other words, a reality is a priori that allows generalisations. However, there is no need to conduct interpretative research, if there is no uncovered reality. William (2003) explained the role of the interpretative research design:

The interpretations one makes of any given situation have an ideographic character, a picture that has not only blurred edges, but also sharp features. It is these which we pick out, either as a result of striking characteristics we had not anticipated, or (more likely) as a result of some previous informal conceptual schema or more formally held theory (Williams, 2003, p. 139).

Williams (2003) also highlighted the weakness of interpretivism, which is related to the problem of inductive reasoning. Therefore interpretivist research design can only make hypotheses which can be tested by positivist research methods (Williams, 2003). However, this statement depends on what Williams (2003) understood from the term generalization. Donmoyer (2000) defines generalisation in various ways.
Generalizability in case study research was described using anecdotes by (Donmoyer, 2000). The first anecdote was reading Eggan’s (1974) long narrative study of Hopi education. Although the first anecdote did not apply to Donmoyer’s own culture, he took some benefits from the Hopi educational system. The second anecdote came from Arthur Miller’s *Death of a Salesman*. Donmoyer (2000) watched the play, and learned about himself. Although all the characters in *Death of a Salesman* were very different from him, those differences provoked him to generalise certain characteristics to which he could relate to personally. According to these anecdotes, Donmoyer (2000) argued that readers of unfamiliar cases would also benefit as long as they are stimulated by them. Thus, generalizability is a type of making meaning out of an unrelated case.

The researchers’ objectives should be to expand theories rather than sampling (Donmoyer, 2000). Every classroom is considered to be unique; thus, generalizing through a quantitative method is not appropriate to this research. Traditional Social Science research considers the universe to have certain ‘regularities’ which are influenced by cause and effect, so Science or Social Science tries to find generalizations out of these regularities (Donmoyer, 2000). Moreover, using large samples and statistical analysis does not mean that the research represents the population.

Donmoyer (2000) employed Piaget’s socio-cognitive theory in order to defend generalizability in single case studies. Although Piaget’s socio-cognitive theory is explained in the Literature Review chapter, further explanation within the context of generalization is required. Socio-cognitive theory relates to the construction of knowledge. In the process of constructing knowledge, adaptations of the new schema can be constructed by assimilating and accommodating them. According to Donmoyer’s (2000) theory of generalizability, constructing a single school case can lead to the assimilation of a more holistic understanding of schools in Turkey.

In this case study, single cases from both Private and State schools in Turkey cannot be considered to represent all Turkish schools. However, when the new information about this particular study is assimilated, it could inspire a new scheme of schooling. In other words, it helps readers to construct knowledge about primary schooling through a single case.
If this idea is extended, Piaget’s socio-cognitive conflict theory can also be applied to this type of generalization. When the case is introduced to an unfamiliar audience, disequilibrium occurs. Disequilibrium is essential for knowledge construction as well. Through disequilibrium, an audience questions its own schema and moulds new schema from an unfamiliar case.

4.4.3 Trustworthiness and Validity

As this research focuses on primary teachers’ interpretations and the implementations of the Turkish Guide Book, three types of resources were used to gather assertions. The first was the Turkish Guide Book itself, which gave the researcher a picture of the classroom activities. Observations of the lessons presented a teacher’s teaching style, which could then be compared to the Turkish Guide Book to distinguish the differences between teachers’ implementations and those suggested in the book. Turkish primary teachers’ interpretations of the Guide Book were revealed through interviewing them. Furthermore, interviews after classroom observations were used in order to validate observations with teachers. Interviews also enabled a deeper understanding of the individual lessons to be developed. In addition to internal validity, the transcriptions were shown to the participants for confirmation of their validity as transcriptions of these interviews.

Trustworthiness was divided into four criteria (Bryman & Teevan, 2005):

- Credibility, which parallels internal validity;
- Transferability, which parallels external validity;
- Dependability, which parallels reliability;
- Confirmability, which parallels objectivity (Bryman & Teevan, 2005, p.150)

It is important to understand these four criteria in order to achieve trustworthiness in research. Credibility is the first criteria which can be established through triangulation and respondent validation (member validation) (Bryman & Teevan, 2005). Respondent validation is used for validating the research findings (Bryman & Teevan, 2005). As explained above, respondent validation can take place after transcribing the interviews; showing participants the transcriptions can help to validate the data (Bryman & Teevan, 2005).

Triangulation is another way of ensuring credibility (internal validity) (Bryman & Teevan, 2005). In this research, methodological triangulation was used. There are three different measurements employed in order to create triangulation, which are observations, interviews
and documentary analysis, and these are used to obtain validity and reliability (Bryman & Teevan, 2005).

Classroom observations were employed for both triangulation reasons and as a data-gathering tool. As the interviews were about teachers’ interpretations, observations were aimed at triangulating the teachers’ interviews. Finally, interviewing pupils about teachers’ pedagogical choices acted as another method of triangulation regarding participants. In other words, teachers’ interviews are verified by pupils’ interviews. Although the transcripts of the pupil’s focus group interviews are not discussed in the analysis, it was helpful to understand the classroom environment from the pupils’ perspective.

Transferability is another criterion for trustworthiness. However, in this research, as a qualitative study, it is essential to transfer the data into a different context or time. When Donmoyer’s (2000) generalizability of scheme theory is considered, transferability of the data into a different context or time is constructed as a scheme (scheme theory having been explained previously). In other words, the data of this particular study would not fit into any other context or time. The data is very specific to its own context and time. In addition to this, data is also specific to its readers.

In order to maintain dependability, it is essential to keep a record of the data collection process. In this respect, research field notes from classroom observations, interview transcripts and a research diary were kept in order to validate the research data. Those documents prove whether the appropriate procedure has been followed (Bryman & Teevan, 2005).

Confirmability concerns objectivity (Bryman & Teevan, 2005). Objectivity means an ability to perceive things without personal feelings. As well as following techniques to maintain trustworthiness, research generally aims to be objective in its approach. On the other hand, as an interpretative study, it is up to researchers’ perceptions as to how the data is portrayed. Readers also construct their own understanding of the research. The subjectivity of this research is not really in jeopardy: as Donmoyer’s (2000) theory of generalizability of schemes makes clear, the objectivity of a case study is not really necessary to the construction of knowledge. Readers of this research would assimilate the data here to construct further knowledge.
The cause of invalidity, researchers argue, is biased. They define bias as ‘a systematic or persistent tendency to make errors in the same direction, that is, to overstate or understate the “true value” of an attribute’ (Lansing et al 1961, quoted in Cohen et al 2000, p. 120). As Cohen (2000) explained, in order to avoid this bias, the researcher compares the measure with a valid measure. ‘This kind of comparison is called convergent validity.’ It is not only important to measure things accurately but it is also important to interpret things correctly.

It is recommended by the Educational Testing Service that consequential validity is used. When consequential validity is applied to descriptive research, the researcher should consider the consequences of wrong interpretations.

In qualitative research, achieving valid and reliable research is based both on the interviewer and the interviewee. In qualitative research, interviewers and respondents should consciously avoid being biased, as they sometimes subconsciously have prejudices towards one another. If interviews are used as a research tool, then interviews should be highly structured. However, there are disadvantages of highly structured interviews, which can prevent the researcher from detecting the whole picture of the phenomena. Furthermore, the researcher may manipulate the real, authentic atmosphere. Thus in this research, semi-structured interviews are more applicable in order to maintain validity and reliability. At the same time semi-structured interviews may increase each respondent’s real understanding of the phenomena.

Cohen (2000) outlined four threads in observations:

i. The researcher, in exploring the present, may be unaware of important antecedent events;
ii. Informants may be unrepresentative of the sample of the study;
iii. The presence of the observer might bring about different behaviours (reactivity and ecological validity);
iv. The researcher might ‘go native’, becoming too attached to the group to see it sufficiently dispassionately (Cohen et al., 2000; 129).

In order to overcome the problem of validity and reliability in observations, methodological triangulation and investigator triangulation can be used. In this research, both observations
and interviews are used in order to collect data. By using methodological triangulation, observations are tested.

4.5 Sampling

According to Stake (1994) a “case study is not a sampling research” (p.4). The purpose of a case study is not to understand other cases; it is to understand that particular case. There are two types of sampling in a case study: probability and non-probability sampling (Merriam, 1988). Because probability sampling is constructed according to its representation of the population, it is used in quantitative research methods. In qualitative research, purposive or purposeful sampling is mainly used to select the participants. According to purposeful sampling, participants are chosen in relation to the needs of the study.

In this case study design, one school was selected from a private domain and another from a state domain. The rationale behind the decision of having a school as a case from each category is to be able to comprehend the characteristics of schools from different domains.

The characteristics of the schools were carefully examined, since the aim is to get comparable data, large Private Primary School from Ankara/Cankaya and a large State Primary School from Ankara/Sincan (Turkey) were picked. The schools are located in contrasting areas and they are financially supported and governed by different bodies (see Chapter 1).

Both the State and the Private primary schools are governed and controlled by the Ministry of National Education (MONE), as described in Chapter 1, 3 and 4. Although private schools are either independent or foundation schools, they are subject to legislation i.e. the Law on Institutions of Private Education in 1965 (Gok, 2006, p. 250). However, they still have a right to choose their teachers and head teachers (Cinoglu, 2006).

Understanding the schools’ traits would give the researcher a better background for appreciating teachers’ working environments. These individual institutional traits may also influence teachers’ pedagogical choices. Therefore, throughout the research process, characteristics of the schools were considered. It is especially important, when teachers are
implementing the Turkish Guide Book, to know how various school traits (private and state) influence teachers’ implementations of the prescribed curriculum.

I wanted this study to raise some awareness of the recent debate between Islam and secularity in Turkey. The State and the Private Schools used in this research are not only different from each other with governing styles but they are also located in ideologically opposed districts of Ankara. Thus, sampling was not all random. Moreover, the first part of the research took place in a State Primary School which led to the idea of a comparative study between state and private schools (theoretical sampling).

These schools were deliberately selected from very different parts of Ankara. As explained in Chapter 1, a State Primary School was selected from Sincan, a district considered to be the centre of Islam in Ankara. On the other hand, a Private Primary School was selected from Cankaya, a district considered to be the centre of the elite secular society.

Sincan is a newly founded district with a high migrant population from rural Turkey. Because of its easy access to the city centre by public transport, Sincan is a popular district among low paid workers. On the other hand, Cankaya has long been the centre of the capital city of Ankara, where all the embassies and ministries are situated. It is also considered to be a stylish place to live and enjoys trendy shopping centres and restaurants.

When I was designing this research, I deliberately chose these two different areas to present a nation trapped between Islam and secularity. Both share a National Curriculum, which has to be implemented in every part of the country. Therefore, I would like to establish how a ‘one system fits all’ national remedy works in relation to both Sincan and Cankaya.

In this research, the initial hypothesis was made before going into the field and the research design was naturally prepared in advance. However, throughout the conduct of the research, certain unexpected aspects of the field came to light and the research design was modified. Some of the changes to the research design were discussed earlier in this chapter and are also explained in Chapter 8. However, another distinctive aspect of my particular field was the discrepancy between my experiences of participants.
Teachers’ implementations of the guidelines are mainly related to teachers’ experiences. Experienced teachers do not rely on written plans as much as novice teachers do (John, 2006; Osam & Balbay, 2004). Therefore, initially the participants were divided into two categories according to their experience, with the aim of perceiving the differences in their interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book. Still shared qualities among participants were observed amongst Year 5 Turkish teachers.

Although the preliminary research aim was to focus on teachers’ experience and its relation to classroom practice, the State Primary School Y5 Turkish teachers experience level was not significant in this study. The second least experienced participant did entirely rely on the Guide Book. On the other hand, the most experienced teacher relied almost entirely upon the Guide Book. In addition to this, the findings from the Private Primary School also proved my sampling strategy wrong. Therefore I decided not to base my analysis on teachers’ experience levels.

I intended to have at least four participants from each school. There were four teachers from the State Primary School and six teachers from the Private Primary School and in total ten teachers’ classroom practices were observed and they were interviewed after the classroom observations. Although each teacher brings their own understanding of teaching into their classroom, common qualities among participants were investigated and discussed throughout this study. Therefore, I intended to have the opportunity to triangulate each teacher’s classroom practices by having at least four teachers as participants in the same school.

In order to comprehend the schools’ ethos about pedagogy, head teachers should also be interviewed. However, as it was explained before in the Private School, the Heads of Years 4, 5 and 6 were interviewed instead. Although in Turkey central government was attempting to standardize schooling and the implementation of the Guide Book, it was essential to understand head teachers’ perceptions about teachers’ classroom practices. On the other hand, private schools are governed by independent bodies, even though they have to follow the National Curriculum. Moreover, by interviewing the head teachers, the intention was to provide independent points of view about the teachers’ classroom practices. However, in this study, the transcriptions of the interviews from the head teachers and the Heads of Year 4, 5 and 6 were not required in order to form and present my findings.
4.5.1 Sampling of the Literature

The literature of the study was chosen according to the research questions. Some keywords were researched by using University of Leicester library catalogue and databases like the British Education Index (BEI), ERIC and the Australian Education Index (AEI). Relevant literature also led to related topics and resources through the references which helped me to build my EndNote library.

Throughout the study, EndNote X1 had been used in order to keep a record of the literature and referencing.

There were two phases of sampling relevant literature in this study. At first, the aim was to grasp the research context which was before conducting the research and therefore the keywords were related to Turkish educational system and teaching and learning in Turkey. This helped to develop my understanding of the context and to formalise my research design. However after conducting the research, new ideas started to emerge on the basis of interviews and classroom observations; these were themes on power control, spatiality and citizenship education.

Throughout conducting research for relevant literature, finding up-to-date resources on teaching activities proved difficult. Since the research is about teachers’ interpretations and the implementations of the teaching activities, it was essential to include a section about teaching activities. However the literature about teaching mainly dealt with theoretical aspects of teaching and learning rather than practical classroom teaching activities. Therefore, teacher training practical guides were useful references for teaching activities.

4.6 Data Collection Techniques

Since this study aims to understand Turkish primary teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book in both state and private sectors, in-depth analysis of the cases is important. A case study approach allows for the employment of various data collection tools. In this study, semi-structured interviews, classroom observations and documentary research were used to gather assertions. However, the initial
research design also employed focus group interviews and questionnaires, whereas at the Private Primary School the research design had to be altered according to gatekeeper’s wishes. In order to gain access to the Private Primary School in which I intended to conduct my research, it was crucial to explain my research design to the gatekeeper. However there was a significant power struggle between the gatekeeper and myself. The gatekeeper had the power to accept my accession, and in order to be able to accept, he suggested some changes to my initial research design. However, because the Private Primary School was the ideal place for my research I had to accept the gatekeepers’ demands (explained in page p.250).

Although the initial research design was conducted at the state school, the data from the focus group interviews and the questionnaires were not used for analysis. However, the data from the initial research design influenced the interpretations of the findings and my learning processes throughout the research. Therefore it is important to discuss and explain the focus group interviews and the questionnaires in this chapter.

In addition, a brief discussion explains the appropriateness of the use of semi-structured interviews and the classroom observations.

4.6.1 Observations

Observations were employed for two different reasons; to triangulate the answers of teachers and head teachers’ responses and to gather assertions about the teachers’ classroom practices and the structure of the schools. In this research, participant observations or unscheduled observations (field notes) were used. Observational field notes are presented in Appendix 2. Since I attempted to not manipulate the natural classroom flow, it was better to be part of the classroom environment and record observations as filed notes.

In this research observation techniques were used to compare the teachers’ interviews with observations. In other words, the use of observations aimed to investigate whether participants were actually doing what they said they were doing. Moreover, observations also helped the researcher to make a comparison between the Turkish Guide Book, and the actual lessons and the changes observed were the basis for the interview questions.

There are some advantages and disadvantages of using lesson observations. Some of the advantages are as follows:
1. Observation can give direct access to social interactions.
2. Observations can give permanent and systematic records of social interactions.
3. Observation can enrich and supplement data gathered by other techniques.
4. Observation techniques are extremely varied.
5. It can demand a variety of research skills.
6. It can be applied in a variety of contexts.
7. It can be used to address a variety of types of research questions (Simpson & Tuson, 1995; 16).

There are different ways of recording observational data: field notes, detailed records, rating scales, structured observation schedules and videotapes (Simpson & Tuson, 1995). In addition to these types, there are participant observations, non-participant observations and unstructured observations (Bryman & Teevan, 2005). Structured observations are formalised with systematic ways of recording observations (Bryman & Teevan, 2005). Observation schedules are used to record the data and this type of data is similar to questionnaire data. The only difference is that structured observations rely on the observers’ recordings rather than the subjects’ answers; therefore, observation data is considered to be more valid (Bryman & Teevan, 2005). The main advantage of structured observations is that they give reliable data about certain issues. In other words, the researcher can observe the situation directly (Bryman & Teevan, 2005).

In this research, although field notes were used to record the data, only certain issues were recorded. Teaching activities and their differences from the prescribed activities were the main objectives of the observations. In addition, I also tried to record various teaching activities which were not mentioned in the Guide Book. However, an observation schedule was not kept in order to not limit the observations. Therefore, the use of structured observations in this research was unnecessary. The main focus of the observations was the implementations of the Turkish Guide Book by the teachers, but pupils’ participations and responses to activities were also considered. Throughout classroom observations, the aim was to understand teachers’ classroom practices on the basis of their implementations of the Turkish Guide Book. Therefore teachers’ various class work and activities were recorded as field notes and these field notes were compared to the Turkish Guide book. Both the State and the Private Primary School classroom observation schedules (Table 6.1, 6.2) are displayed on pages 186-187.

Video recording can be used for recording observation data. However, in this research, the aim was to observe eighty lessons; video recording would be time consuming and like to
disrupt the classroom flow. When the Turkish context is considered, video recording can be the major attraction of the classroom, since qualitative research is a relatively new concept in the Turkish context. As a researcher, I aimed to not disrupt the classroom environment as much as possible in order to gather valid and reliable data.

There are two weaknesses of making observations (Tuson & Simpson, 1995); It is time and ‘effort and resource’ consuming and is subject to the observer’s bias. In order to avoid these hazards, piloting the study is the most appropriate way to test the research tools and their efficiency to answer the research questions (Tuson & Simpson, 1995). The aim of piloting is also to assist the researcher to estimate the results of actual research. Another way to overcome these problems is to share the interpretations of the observations with someone who was present during observations (Simpson & Tuson, 1995).

The first phase of the research took place in the State School. Forty-four classroom observations were made and they were kept as field notes. In the State Primary School, there were four teachers who were teaching Y5 Turkish lessons. Therefore, the intention was to observe four different teachers’ implementations of the Guide Book.

After I was introduced to the participants, their permission for the research to be carried out was requested. I was given a timetable of each teacher so I was able to make my own timetable according to theirs. In order to establish a rapport with the teachers, it was important to ask permission before each observation. When I entered each classroom, I was introduced to the class by the teacher. In some classrooms, I was given five minutes to explain what I was doing in their school.

During the classroom observations, the aim was to look for teachers’ choices of activities and how they implemented them. All the activities were explained in detail and significant events were also noted in the diary. The field notes were made in English, since it would then be easier to transfer the findings into my thesis. A couple of times, one of my participants wanted to know what I was writing and I had to explain to her why I was writing in English. Although it was not intended to hide anything from the participants, writing in English could infer some sort of secret or code. Hence, I had to tell my participants why I preferred keeping the notes in English.
Interviewing the teachers just after the lesson made the interpretations of the observations easier. Therefore, interviews were conducted directly after observations.

### 4.6.2 Interviews

Interviews are employed when:

1. Small numbers of people are involved
2. They are accessible
3. They are ‘key’ and you cannot afford to lose any.
4. Your questions (or the most significant ones) are mainly ‘open’ and require an extended response with prompts and probes from you to clarify the answers.
5. If the material is sensitive in character so that trust is involved: people will disclose things in a face to face interview that they will not disclose in an anonymous questionnaire. (Gillham, 2000, p. 62)

According to research in Turkish primary schools, qualitative interviewing is the most suitable data collection tool. Interviews also provide in-depth data about the classroom practices. The reason for using interviews was to explore teachers’ choices of certain activities in their classrooms and to reach a contextualised comprehension of the correlation between the Turkish Guide Book and the actual lesson. In order to understand teachers’ views on their teaching, Year 5 Turkish teachers and head teachers were interviewed. Teachers were interviewed just after observations were made in their lesson.

Interviews are commonly used in case study research, as they help the researcher explore the data in considerable depth (Verma & Mallick, 1999). An interview method is considered to be a conversation between two or more participants where one of the talkers records what has been said (Verma & Mallick, 1999). There are three types of interviews; structured, unstructured and semi-structured. For this research, to establish primary school teachers’ interpretations and the implementations of the Turkish Guide Book, semi-structured interviews were used.

Verma and Mallick (1999) compared semi-structured interviews to questionnaires. The similarity between semi-structured interviews and questionnaires is the interview schedule. However, the use of semi-structured interviews allows the researcher to have more flexibility by including open-ended questions, thus enabling the interviewees to have more freedom in their responses, which makes the research more conceptualised as well as structured.
In this research, semi-structured interviews were employed in order to give flexibility to teachers in their responses. Before the interviews, I explained to my participants the aims of the interviews; that they were about my participants’ implementation of the classroom activities which were also recorded as field notes. Therefore, the interviews were meant to be discussions of their teaching activities.

The main difference between questionnaires and interviews is the ‘adaptability’ (Duffy, 1999). An interviewer can also examine *between the lines* by observing the participants, and draw more accurate conclusions.

Some advantages and disadvantages of interviews were discussed by Edwards and Talbot (1999). The most important advantage of conducting interviews is that they provide ‘good rich data’. However, it is time-consuming to transcribe this data.

Almost always tape record the interview. You will not get good quality data unless you do. The short interviews that are used to inform attitude scales need not be tape recorded. But if you intend to analyse the interview, you must have it on tape (Edwards & Talbot, 1999, p. 103).

Although tape recording is the best way of obtaining reliable data, it might not be allowed by the interviewee. In those circumstances, all the details of the research are explained to the interviewee with a guarantee of confidentiality. If the situation still remains the same, note-taking can be considered.

Interview questions were very much dependant on the lesson observations. The data gathered from the classroom observations were the source for the interview questions. Interviews took place directly after the classroom observations and therefore both my participants and I discussed the weaknesses and the strengths of the classroom activities employed in relation to the Turkish Guide Book. The changes with teachers’ implementation of the Turkish Guide Book were recorded and the interview questions were formulated accordingly. Most of the questions were about teachers’ implementations of the activity from the Turkish Guide Book. On the other hand, there were set questions which all of the participants were asked:

1) What were your aims in this lesson?

2) Did you achieve what you aimed for?
3) What kind of teaching activities do you implement?
4) Why do you choose these activities?
5) What are the common pitfalls of a usual lesson?
6) Do you change set activities?
7) Why do you need to change them?
8) What are the common factors influencing the changes in set teaching activities?

Some of the questions were changed according to participants’ responses. With some participants, I did not need to prompt themas, they were keen to talk about the implementation of the Turkish Guide Book.

Interviewing is a flexible technique by which ideas emerge throughout the interviewing process and the interviewer should follow whatever direction seems right (Charmaz, 2003). In addition, the emphasis of the interview must be on the interviewees’ ‘issues and events’ and what they find important (Bryman, 2004). Therefore I did not interfere when the responses were leading to unexpected directions. Instead, I tried to adjust my questions accordingly and let the interview flow naturally which allowed me to gather the data about ‘the most important’ issues, events and themes which were determined by the interviewees.

Interviews with the Head teachers were about the ethos of the school and their involvement with teachers’ lesson arrangements. After asking about the school, the aim was to gather information about their role as a head teacher.

1) What is your role at the school?
2) Are you involved with Y5 teachers’ planning activities?
3) How do you support teachers’ teaching activities?

Another problem that occurred in the Private Primary School concerned replicating the research design which had already been conducted at the State School. Throughout my research at the Private School, the head teacher was off-sick and could not be interviewed. However, the Head of Years 4, 5 and 6 were interviewed instead which gave me some insight about their respective roles. Because of this inconsistency, I decided not to use the Head Teachers’ interviews in my thesis. However, I considered the experience as a useful learning process.
Although the transcripts of these interviews were not used in the analysis, they gave me ideas about teachers’ implementations and interpretations of the Turkish Guide Book.

Focus Group interviews with pupils were employed for two different reasons. The first reason was to gather assertions about teachers’ activities. The second reason was that interviews with pupils were used to triangulate teachers’ interviews.

4.6.2.1 Focus Group Interview at the State Primary School

The intention was to focus on two pupils from each of the Y5 classrooms I observed, making eight pupils in total. However, one of the State Primary School participants, Ms Nurse (Teacher 2), did not want their pupils to be interviewed because she felt they had not participated enough in the classroom. Therefore, she wanted to punish them by not sending them to be interviewed by me.

Although focus group interviews gave more flexibility to participants to discuss the research field, there are some limitations of this particular research tool (Bryman, 2004). Having less control over the proceedings of the interview is the main disadvantage of focus group interviews (Bryman, 2004). However this argument may also be considered as an advantage of this study, since pupils were able to express different perspectives of the classroom environment which I had not identified previously. Although some of the data was interesting, it was not related to the research questions. Hence it was necessary to eliminate the irrelevant data which was also time-consuming.

The purpose of a focus group interview is to be able to interview more pupils in less time. In addition to that, group interviews create a friendlier atmosphere for pupils to relax and answer the questions freely among friends. The focus group was also prepared in order to motivate pupils to participate more in the interviews.

I asked Y5 teachers to send me pupils according to their attainment levels. I was able to rely on their judgement since I was aware of the attainment of the pupils through classroom observations. There were six pupils whose grades were high on the classroom scale, and the other half were low achievers. Although they were from different classrooms, they also knew each other.
It was an experience for pupils to come and talk to the ‘stranger’ who had been coming to their classes and talking to their teachers. Consequently, I was the centre of their interest. It was not very difficult to persuade them to talk to me.

Before I started the interviews, I told them that I wanted to have an informal conversation about their school life which was going to be used in my homework, and I also asked them if they would let me use the voice recorder. They were happy about it. I chose to interview the group in the staff room. It was a convenient and safe place for both parties, since we were familiar with the atmosphere. I also wanted some members of staff to witness the interview in order not to cause any doubts about gathering together Y5 pupils.

To start off the interview, I asked questions which pupils were either reluctant to answer or would try to answer at the same time. Therefore, in order to avoid chaos, I chose to ask the same questions to each pupil in turn. If I thought that the pupil was struggling to answer the question, I gave them time to think about it, and if they were reluctant to answer the question, I did not insist on their answers.

The focus group interview in the State Primary School was like being in a classroom. Each pupil was standing up answering the question as they would in the classroom. In addition to that, they were also using formal discourse exchanges such as ‘ogretmenim’, an equivalent to ‘Miss’ or ‘Sir’ in English schools which actually means ‘my teacher’ when directly translated and shows respect. Since pupils had not been interviewed, it was difficult to gain their trust. However, they got used to seeing me in their classrooms, so eventually I was no longer a stranger to them.

Questions were prepared to gain some understanding of their classroom activities and how much they influenced classroom teaching. To start off with, I asked ‘warmer’ questions about their preferences regarding lessons just to let the pupils relax. Then I began asking questions to the ones whom I thought would respond positively to my questions.

1) What is your favourite lesson?
2) Why do you like this particular lesson?
3) What is your favourite activity in Turkish lessons?
4) Do you always follow the textbook?
5) Do you like the activities in the textbook?
6) If you do not like the activity, do you tell your teacher?
7) What kind of activities do you prefer?
8) What would you change at the school if you had the chance?

Pupils’ preferences for activities in Turkish lessons were discussed. It was difficult to follow the schedule of the research aims and I sometimes let them talk about different things about the school, since it would give them more courage to talk to me freely. The interview took fifty minutes; since I did not want to keep them away from their lessons too long; I had to release them after this time.

One of the pitfalls of the research was not being able to arrange focus group interviews with the private schools pupils. As it was mentioned in ‘the accession to schools’ section, the director of the Private Primary School did not allow me to interview the Private Primary School pupils.

4.6.3 Questionnaires

Although questionnaires were not employed to present in and form part of the analysis, they were included in the research design. In the first part of the research, I was able to deliver the questionnaires. However, the Private Primary School staffs were reluctant to fill in the questionnaires. Therefore, I had to disregard the data I gathered from the State School. This situation created a dilemma between using the data and denying it. I appreciated the State Primary School staff’s effort to fill in the questionnaires and therefore denying the data was a waste of information on my behalf, and yet if I were to use the data, it would create an inconsistency within the research design. Although I decided not to use the data, I still think it would be acceptable for me to describe and rationalise the choice of questionnaires in the first place.

This part of the research was prepared to gather information about teachers’ values and schools’ attitudes towards staff involvement in teaching. The questionnaire was also intended to acquire some ideas about each school’s ethos regarding teaching and learning.
The questionnaire was divided into four sections and each section questioned different aspects of the school. The first section was prepared so as to obtain general information about the school. The aim of the second section was to gather some information regarding staff-pupil relationships, especially focusing on teachers’ understandings of differentiation and how much they knew about their pupils. The third section focussed on understanding each school’s ethos about learning and teaching. Finally, the last section focused on teachers’ understandings of their professionalism.

Questionnaires were handed out before observations and interviews, since the idea of the questionnaire was to obtain some broad ideas about the schools. The intention was also to triangulate head teachers’ interviews.

Although I was not able to use the data I gathered from the questionnaires, I still considered them when I was forming the section, ‘Impressions of a State Primary School’, and I also used some of the open-ended questions which I thought would not affect the uniformity of the research.

4.6.4 Documentary Research

Documents are considered to be very useful data for researchers (Duffy, 1999, p. 150), and this is certainly the case in this study as the research investigates the major factors influencing teachers’ choices of teaching tasks. Duffy (1999) discussed two different kinds of approaches to documentary research: ‘source-oriented’ and ‘problem-oriented’. In this research, since the research questions are formalized by the source, a ‘source-oriented’ approach is employed.

In this research, the Turkish Guide Book is the major source and is also the starting point of the study. Furthermore, after the analysis of this text and the classroom observations, the findings were compared in order to identify the changes made in structured plans. These changes are the basis of the interview questions (such as: Why did you make this instant change in your plan? What made you choose this particular task instead of a planned activity?). Yildirim (2003) noted that:

The Turkish educational system is centralized with respect to a wide range of matters including policy decisions, curriculum, approval of textbooks and other instructional materials, governance and inspection of schools, appointment and in-service training of teachers (p. 528).
Educational policies and textbooks are the major factors influencing teachers’ planning structures. The centralised nature of the Turkish educational system was considered and examined, and the impact of the guidelines on teachers’ classroom practices formed the research questions of this study. Thus, the following sub-question aided the formulation of the research patterns, which also led to documentary analysis.

- How do State and Private Primary School teachers interpret the prescribed texts and activities and adopt them in their classroom teaching?

4.7 Analysing the Data

In this study, there were two different qualitative data analysis procedures employed. Constructivist grounded theory and social anthropological approach were employed to analyse the qualitative data (Charmaz, 2006). The grounded theory analysis was employed as theoretical sampling and it was also used for addressing the research questions. The social anthropological approach of analysis requires multiple sources of data (Berg, 2007, p. 305). In this study, field notes, interviews transcripts and the Turkish Guide Book are the multiple sources.

This research is about some Turkish teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book. Therefore, participants’ construction of meaning is the main concern of the study. For this reason, constructivist grounded theory is the most appropriate analysis procedure in this research. In addition, analysis procedure of this study is based on the experience between the participant and the researcher. In other words, the analysis has been constructed through the relationship between the participants and the researcher. Moreover, the data analysis reflects researcher’s thinking processes.

The grounded theory is for building theories rather than testing them (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). There are various types of grounded theory analysis such as constructivist analysis and objectivist analysis (Charmaz, 2003, p. 313). In addition, coding and categorising data were divided as realist and constructivist theories (Flick, 2007, p. 101).
A constructivist’s main concern is to make meaning of participants construction of a phenomena (Charmaz, 2003). Therefore, constructivist analysis is an experience between a researcher and a participant (Charmaz, 2003). This experience reflects the researchers’ thinking (Charmaz, 2003, p. 313). On the other hand, objectivist grounded theory analysis is about the ‘real data’ which exists in the world and the researcher’s role is to find it (Charmaz, 2003, p. 313).

The second type of analysis procedure used was the social anthropological approach (Berg, 2007). This type of analysis was used for demonstrating the State and the Private Primary School teachers’ classroom practices. According to the social anthropological analysis procedure, after a considerable time involving observations and many conversations at the state and the private schools, researchers should organise and interpret their field notes to form a narrative text (Berg, 2007). The reason for employing this orientation is to demonstrate the ‘behavioural regularities of everyday life’ (Berg, 2007, p. 305), in this case, the State and the Private Primary School teachers’ classroom teaching.

Qualitative data should be constructed by interpretations of the researchers (Denscombe, 1998). In qualitative data analysis, researchers collect data by interpreting what they see or hear from the participants (Denscombe, 1998). It is described as ‘iterative’ which means data collection and the analysis are interrelated (Bryman, 2004, p. 399). In other words, the implications of the analysis also lead to further data gathering. Therefore, qualitative data analysis (grounded theory and analytical induction) can also be considered as part of the data collection process (Bryman, 2004, p. 399). In addition, the qualitative data analysis is based on researchers’ interpretations.

Thematic network is a widely used procedure for ‘breaking up text’ and making themes out of these chunks of texts (Stirling, 2001). It is a way of analysing and organising raw data (Stirling, 2001). Thematic network focuses on ‘understanding of an issue or the signification of an idea rather than reconcile conflicting definitions of a problem’ (Stirling, 2001 p. 387). In addition, this procedure of qualitative analysis parallels grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

In this research, there are three types of textual data: interview transcripts, observation field notes and the Turkish Guide Book, see appendix 1, 2 and 3. In addition, grounded theory
offers guidelines for the systematic analysis of data (Charmaz, 2003). Therefore, grounded theory analytical procedure enables me to organise the transcripts. There are five stages of analysing data in grounded theory:

1) Coding data
2) Memo writing
3) Theoretical sampling
4) Integrating the literature
5) Sorting and theoretical outline (Rhine, 2009)


Coding data is a procedure of identifying related themes from interview transcripts by coding them (Charmaz, 2006). I also started colour coding the Interview transcripts by considering the research questions. This type of coding procedure is called selective coding (Charmaz, 2006). Interview transcripts were used for answering research questions. For each research question, I used a different colour. I used red for the question of ‘what factors influence teachers’ implementations of the Turkish Guide Book’, blue for the question of ‘what factors influence teachers’ choices of classroom activities’, green for the question of ‘what are the differences and similarities in teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Guide Book in both Private and State Primary schools’. After colour coding the interview transcripts, I gathered all the same coloured chunks of texts under the title of each research question. So, there were three different groups of selected texts from the interview transcripts, see appendix 3.

After reading the texts several times to find information to answer the research question of ‘what are the factors influencing teachers’ implementations of the Turkish Guide Book’, four different themes emerged from the interview transcripts. These themes were ‘teachers’ knowledge of content, teachers’ knowledge of pupils, teachers’ knowledge of teaching particular content topics, teachers’ knowledge about curriculum materials and programmes’. I colour coded each emerged theme with the same colours in order to identify emerging themes. According to the colours, I then gathered these texts under each emerged themes. In addition, I also noted the interview dates and the participants’ given names next to the text that I copied so that they were not mixed with other participants’ interview transcripts. Some
of the themes were mentioned various times by different participants which indicated that these themes were important to reconsider.

At the stage of gathering the main themes under each research questions, I discovered that ‘power control’ is the dominant factor which influences teachers’ pedagogical choices. In other words, according to the transcripts, my participants’ choices were determined by the prescriptive guidelines and inflexible symbolic architectural designs where they were teaching. Although power control was the main theme, I tried to figure out some sub themes from the chunks of texts that I gathered from the interviews. The subthemes were based on the factors influencing teachers’ implementations of Turkish Guide Book which were unsuitable hidden messages, sentimental exaggerations, Turkish Guide Book’s mismatch with the national examinations, mismatch with society’s needs, mismatch with pupils’ academic needs and issues about Turkish Guide Book activities.

Memo writing is the core stage of grounded analysis procedure. It is the first draft of the Analysis chapter which structures write up of ideas about selected codes (Charmaz, 2003). After colour coding the data, the aim was to write the first draft of the Analysis chapter. I reconsidered the research questions and reorganised the colour coded texts accordingly. Colour coded chunks of texts were organised to make coherent meaning according to emerged themes and the subthemes of each research question. I reread the colour coded texts and made meaningful tables that lead in to formalise the analysis. I interpreted the texts with the relevant literature and write notes about them. In addition to this, I compared the general overview of my cases (the state and the private schools) and participants teaching styles under the light of the Literature review. In some instances, I also needed to extend my literature review accordingly. In a way, this stage of the analysis was an outline of the analysis of the study.

Theoretical sampling leads researchers to find new research sites (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). In this study, theoretical sampling was employed to find the research site from private sector, explained in page 10 in detail. The first part of the research took place in a State Primary School which led to the idea of a comparative study between state and private schools. The idea of comparative study was emerged throughout the process of transcription of the interviews. Although I did not employ the theoretical sampling in analysis stage of this thesis, theoretical sampling was a tool for formalising research sites.
Integrating the literature is to combine relevant theoretical material with selected codes (Rhine, 2009). After memo writing, the researcher needs to put together all the information in an organised structure. In this stage, I gathered all the selected codes and compared with the relevant data. I also read additional theoretical literature when it is necessary.

Sorting and theoretical outlining is a stage of writing up the first draft of the analysis. In other words, in this stage, the aim is to conceptual sorting of the memos in an analytical structure. I discovered the weaknesses of the interview data. In these interviews, the participants were not actually talking about the influence of the state power-control over their pedagogical choices. My observations and field notes showed that participants’ concern was to implement the Turkish Guide Book without any consideration of its power-control features. They were conditioned by the structure of the highly centralised Turkish educational system. They considered the Turkish Guide Book as part of the organised system. However, power-control was evident in the classroom settings and architectural structures. Therefore, I had to use observation field notes to be able to display a clearer picture of the influence of power-control.

In addition, observation field notes were used in order to answer the research question; ‘how school and classroom spaces have an impact on Y5 Turkish teachers’ classroom behaviour’. In addition, observation field notes were also used for introducing the participants and formalising the research question of what are the factors influencing teachers’ choices of classroom activities. During the field work, observations were recorded mainly on the basis of the school and the classroom space-place organisations and the teaching activities. Therefore it was easier for me to eliminate the useful texts from the observation field notes. First of all, I chunked texts which were related to the use of place and space in the State and the Private Primary Schools. Then, I organised these chunked texts according to the literature review. When necessary, I also added some interview data in order to support the observations.
4.8 Researchers’ Bias

Researchers’ bias is one of the most important challenges of qualitative research. Analysing the participants’ interviews requires ontological positioning. However, for a researcher to avoid bias is, of course, entirely impossible.

Just after I had transcribed and translated the interviews, I was talking to my colleagues about the participants and how much I was impressed with their ideas of education. In the state school, there were four participants who were teaching Year 5 Turkish lessons. I did not notice that in fact I was constantly talking about one of my participants in particular. A colleague of mine noticed the weakness in my approach. I tried to justify myself by asserting that this participant was very eager to participate in my research. However, it was a clear case of researchers’ favouritism. At that point, I decided to try and discover what it was that had drawn me to this participant.

There were nine participants in total and there was only one male participant. When patriarchal Turkish society is considered, a woman’s role is to be a mother first. Initially, I thought Mr Utopia (Teacher 1) (male participant) was more cooperative than others. For example, he stayed after school and discussed his teaching strategies with me. On the other hand, the other participants did not have enough time for me to engage with them as much. They had to rush back home with excuses like having cooking the dinner, having to pick up the children and so on. I realised that female participants were mothers or housekeepers as well as teachers. As a researcher, I had to clearly analyse my own approaches as well.

Whatever I was told by my participants was valuable. However, it is up to the researcher how to portray them. Therefore, in order to conduct reliable research, it is important to balance participants’ ideas.

4.9 Accession into Schools

Since state schools are centralised by the Ministry of National Education (MONE), it was advisable to ask permission from the ministry before embarking upon my research. However, when I first asked the gatekeeper for authorization to conduct my research, he requested
details of my research design. Because the research included only one state school, he accepted my research proposal without MONE’s permission. On the other hand, I was asked to maintain confidentiality with regards to the name of the school and identities.

I specifically wanted to conduct my research in Ankara for both opportunistic and strategic reasons. Strategically, Ankara is the centre and the capital of Turkey. In addition, it is my home town, which made the research a lot easier. As explained in Chapter 1, Sincan is considered to symbolise the new Islamic class and therefore it was an ideal place for my research design. When I was searching for schools, my mother’s friend told me that he had gone to school with the head teacher of a Sincan primary school. Through his help, I was introduced to the head teacher. In Turkey, it makes it easier if you have a strong reference. In this case, my mother’s friend being a reference enabled me to get accession. When I visited the head teacher for the first time, he told me, “I will allow you to conduct your research here because of Nezir Bey’s (my mother’s friend) reference.”

In the second school, I did not have a reference to help me with the accession. Before getting into the school, I sought to find a reference to help me with accession. A friend of mine worked at the Private Primary School as a biology teacher, so I asked her advice first. She gave me some contact addresses. The Private Primary School is part of a reputable university, and, fortunately, I knew a lecturer at that university. He contacted the director of the school about my research. Subsequently, the director requested to see my research design and I therefore sent my proposal via e-mail. Although I the director did not respond for a long time, I was determined to conduct my research at this particular school.

I decided to contact the director of the school when I went to Ankara as I felt it would be easier to explain my research aims and design in person. Therefore, I asked my friend, the lecturer, to contact the director of the Private Primary School once more to arrange an appointment for me. Finally, I was able to get an answer about my accession.

When I met with the director, I explained my research design and described the research I had previously conducted at the state school. I also wanted to tell him about my background, as I thought it would be helpful for my accession. He finally agreed to my research. However, he placed conditions on my research design: he did not want me to interview either students or their parents, as explained above.
On both occasions, I was fortunate enough to get accession into the schools. However, having references helped me to approach these schools. On both occasions, I was asked how I was going to return their favour. Both of the gatekeepers seemed to consider their consent to my research as a favour. As an inexperienced researcher, I struggled to answer this particular question. For that reason, I answered the question by another question: how did they want me to pay them back?

While ethics has traditionally been seen as a set of general principles invariantly and validly applied to all situations, it will be argued that, on the contrary, ethical principles are mediated within different research practices and thus take on different significances in relation to those practices (Simons & Usher, 2000, p.1).

Researchers sometimes struggle to make decisions when they come across ethical dilemmas that are very specific to the research field (Simons & Usher, 2000). In other words, ethics can be studied in both theory and practice. In this part of the thesis, both of the ethical aspects are going to be discussed. It is important to know ethical theory to be able to conduct an ethical research environment. The British Educational Research Associations’ prescriptive and ‘one size fits all’ ethical guidelines for educational research (2004) are discussed in relation to their practicality in a Turkish research context. This section also deals with various ethical understandings of different cultural perspectives. Moreover, ethical dilemmas between the researcher and the participants are addressed in detail.

Ethics can be divided into two categories: ethical theory and practical or applied ethics. Ethical theory is about moral philosophy. However, practical ethics is the pragmatic aspect of ethics which can be applied to everyday situations (Bowie, 2004). The term ethics comes from the Greek word ‘ethikos’, meaning ‘character’. It may be translated as ‘custom’ or ‘usage’. It refers to the customary way to behave in society (Bowie, 2004, p. 5). According to this definition, ethics depends on the norms of a society. However, there are various understandings of ethics. There are three approaches to ethics: the normative approach, the descriptive approach and meta-ethics (Bowie, 2004).
Table 4.3 Ethical theory

Normative ethics is the conventional understanding of morals. The rules of normative ethics mainly emerge from philosophical, ideological or religious norms. It is also divided into three categories: deontological, virtue ethics and teleological ethics. Deontological ethics question if an action is right or wrong. Teleological ethics are concerned about the consequences of an action. In other words, the end result is more important than the action. Descriptive ethics compares different understandings of ethics. Meta-ethics questions good and bad - in other words, it is a philosophical understanding of ethics (Bowie, 2004).

An individual human being is the measure of all things.

Whatever in any city is regarded as just and admirable is just and admirable in that city for as long as it is thought to be so.

Protagoras (ca. 490–420 BCE)
According to Protagoras, there is no objective knowledge because objectivity depends on the perception of the researcher (Bowie, 2004). When applied to interpretative research, the researcher reflects the truth themselves. Thus, ‘seeking for the truth’ depends on how a person sees and interprets something. Utilitarianism considers ethics in relation to how it depends on the persons’ perspective, of how useful an act is and how to achieve the greatest good for the greatest number. Situation ethics are also relativistic since there are not fit rules for ethics. In situation ethics, whether something is ethical or not is relative to the situation (Bowie, 2004).

Situation ethics is about making moral decisions with reason. There are not any prescribed rules; every decision depends on the context (Bowie, 2004). When situation ethics is applied to an educational research context, the actual context should be the decision-making criteria that have to be taken into account in each individual situation. The researchers’ context should be the basis for deciding what constitutes ethical decisions.

What the examples also demonstrate is that making ethical decisions, in whatever situated context, is a process of creating, maintaining and justifying an ethical integrity that is more dependent on sensitivity to politics and people than it is on ethical principles and codes. (Simon & Usher, 2001, p. 11)

BERA guidelines prescribe what researchers should consider when conducting research. However, in this specific research environment, ethical considerations very much depend on the school, participants, Turkish policies and religion. The contexts in which educational research is carried out have an impact on the ways in which researchers engage with other participants. Such contexts include:

- The nature of the institutions within which research is carried out;
- The nature of the people with whom the research is carried out;
- The socio-political contexts within which the research is carried out (Busher, 2002, p. 3)

Therefore, the ethical considerations cannot be described in 13 pages with prescriptive guidelines. In addition, some ethical rules had already been set by participants when I went into the research field. As a researcher, I had to get into the research field and fit into these
rules. Furthermore, I had to use my intuition to make ethical decisions that would satisfy both ethical guidelines and the participants.

In the Private School, teachers are employed directly by the school so they are expected to do whatever they are asked by their heads of year. When I went to see the director of the private school, I was sent to see the Head of Years 4, 5 and 6. She introduced me to the Head of Year 5 and at this point Year 5 teachers were obliged to work with me. As a researcher, I wanted to get their genuine consent to let me into their classroom. When I asked the Head of Years 4, 5 and 6 about my doubts, she said, “Our teachers have nothing to worry about in their teaching, so they are happy to have you”. That was the end of the story for the management. However, I had to confirm with Year 5 teachers. Whilst I fulfilled my responsibility to follow the guidelines by requesting permission from the Year 5 teachers, the Year 5 teachers were obliged to cooperate as their Head of Year had already given me permission to conduct my research.

Informed consent is one of the most important criteria to avoid compromising ethical issues in research. Participants should be fully informed about the research. Necessary limitations of the information about the research should be given to participants (Cohen, 2007). Brief information was given to students as well as the teachers and the head teachers (since the head teacher is the gatekeeper) before the research. Furthermore, after each observation, the field notes were discussed with teachers in an interview style to avoid the misinterpretation of their activities.

When ecological validity of the research is necessary and the aim is to conduct naturalistic research, the natural environment should not be manipulated by the researcher. Therefore, it is better to observe without informing the participants (Oliver, 2003). However, because of ethical issues, the participants need to know that they are being observed.

Interviews are aimed at acquiring information from others. Consequently, the researcher, by interviewing, arbitrates with the ideas of others. Therefore, ethical issues in interviews may be very damaging to the participants’ privacy if sufficient care is not taken. There are three issues to highlight here: ‘informed consent’, ‘confidentiality’, and ‘the consequences of the interview’ (Cohen et al., 2007). In light of these issues, Cohen (2007) discussed some important considerations:
• How much information will be given to the participant?
• Will the participants see the research results?
• Does the research benefit the participants or damage them?
• What kind of strategy will be considered to avoid misinterpretation of what will be said?

All these questions were carefully considered before I went to the schools.

This research is aimed to build theories. I went to the schools to find out teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book, not to find out the various strengths and weaknesses of the teachers themselves. Consequently, the research does not damage teachers, but can benefit teachers by giving them a different perspective of their teaching style.

In some instances, with novice researchers, although they do not agree with their interviewees’ ideas, they may be keen to seem as though they share similar thoughts, which may also create an ethical dilemma among inexperienced researchers (Walford, 2001). As a researcher, I went to the schools to comprehend the ways teachers are implementing the prescriptive Turkish Guide Book. I did not have any idea about their implementation apart from the literature I had read. I only had some ideas about effective teaching which my participants were able to detect. When they asked my opinion, I told them what I really thought because I also felt I needed to assure them of my knowledge of the field. It is also important to consider the Hawthorn effect. The Hawthorn effect is the interviewees’ desire to say what they think the interviewer wants to hear. I was also aware of the possibility of the Hawthorn effect in my context so I made my aims clear.

As a researcher, it is important to know the research context. Before I went to the field I was aware of ethical considerations. However, I came across some unexpected issues and I had to use my own judgement to make ethical decisions. The main criterion was to make sure that participants were not damaged by my research. Therefore, I had to adopt the prescriptive guidelines into my own research.
4.10 Chapter Summary

In this research, naturalistic research tools were used to gather qualitative data. Observations, interviews and documentary analysis were the main research tools. Two cases were selected from each domain; a State Primary School and a Private Primary School. In order to triangulate the findings, several methodologies were used.

In the process of structuring the study, ethical issues, validity and reliability concerns and generalizability were examined. In this section, all of these plausible challenges have been examined and alternatives have been considered in order to avoid all the potential problems. In the process of this research, some inevitable challenges occurred regarding ethical considerations and sampling strategies. As a result, these challenges were discussed and the solutions were justified.
CHAPTER 5: TEACHERS’ VIEWS ON AND RESPONSES TO THE TURKISH NATIONAL CURRICULUM

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to focus on teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book and the factors which influence this process. This chapter is divided into three sections;

The first section gives a brief analysis of the Turkish Guide Book. The aim of the section is to briefly describe its construction and explain how it supports teaching and learning as well as promoting Turkish education policy.

The second section is about the participants of the study in which participants’ educational values and beliefs were briefly examined on the basis of the semi-structured interviews and the classroom observation field notes.

The third section is about the factors influencing teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book, such as teachers’ knowledge of the content of the Guide Book, the nature of the pupils, pedagogy and curriculum materials.

5.2 An Analysis of the Turkish Guide Book

The Ministry of National Education (MONE) decided to update the educational curriculum for primary schools in December 2004 (Aksit, 2006; Cayir, 2009). The new Teachers’ Guide Book was also part of the renewal process of the educational system (MONE, 2005a). The Teachers’ Guide book as well as the renewal process are manifestations of how the state exerts power over the teachers by constructing structures (Goren et al., 2005) and cultures to shape teachers’ classroom practices. In this section, the aim is to show how Year Five teachers and pupils are both, together and separately, constructed through the prescriptions of MONE as contained within the details of the Turkish Guide Book.
The Turkish Guide Book can be analysed through Foucault’s (1977) analogy of military disciplining techniques of drawing tables, prescribing movements, imposing exercises and combination of forces (p.167). Foucault (1977) uses the analogy of 18th Century military practices to demonstrate how the docile bodies are disciplined and controlled. Constituting troops requires allocation of places and spaces for the troops along with prescribing appropriate activities with set times (Foucault, 1977). In this part of the analysis Chapter, the Turkish Guide Book was analysed through the four regimental training techniques of drawing tables, prescribing movements, imposing exercises and combining forces (Foucault, 1977, p. 167). These techniques are also the ways of controlling, training, punishing and disciplining docile bodies (Foucault, 1977). The Turkish Guide Book is a tool for all these interrelated controlling techniques. The use of ‘spatial distribution’ in modern power is discussed on page 70 of this thesis.

“Foucault argued that if we wished to investigate power, we should not start at the macro-level, but at the micro-level of the constant subjugation of our minds and bodies to disciplinary techniques” (Lawson, 2004a, p. 85). The Turkish Guide Book practices power on an individual teacher’s mind and body through prescribing them certain teaching activities in order (Goren et al., 2005). For example, teachers are asked to discuss the meaning of given keywords in each text. The keywords are all selected and given by the Turkish Guide Book (Goren et al., 2005). All these instructions and regulations may be considered as ways of Foucault’s (1977) power-control strategies in order to ‘establish rhythms, impose particular occupations, and regulate the cycles of repetition’ (p. 149). One of the noticeable aims of these regulations and instructions is to manage the time effectively therefore the Turkish Guide Book prescribes datelines for each theme with set targets. Although datelines are strictly established, teachers have to organise the time for each set activity. For each unit, teachers have approximately one month of implementing all the prescribed activities (Goren et al., 2005). It may seem like teachers have some flexibility in implementing the given activities, however they have to finish each theme by a certain date which is a way of disciplining, controlling and punishing teachers’ classroom behaviour.

The Turkish Guide Book is prepared on the basis of constructivist, multiple intelligences personalised teaching and student-centred approaches (Goren et al., 2005, p. 11). These new teaching approaches can be considered as an example of Foucault’s (1977) modern punishment techniques which ‘demands an inner transformation, a conversion of the heart to
a new way of life’ (Gutting, 2005, p. 81). MONE (2004) suggests teachers employ various teaching approaches without training them to do so; teachers are obliged to implement the Turkish Guide Book rather than constructing their own classroom activities. Thus, teachers implement the prescriptive activities of the Turkish Guide Book step by step with an assumption that they are watched by the State. Therefore they police their actions accordingly.

The Turkish Guide Book focuses on five learning areas which are stated: listening, reading, speaking, writing and presentation skills (MONE, 2004a). For each learning area there are learning targets presented according to the constructivist framework which is based on pupils’ learning through research and questioning rather than knowledge based memorizing (MONE, 2004a, p. 11). This can be explained through Foucault’s (1977) analogy of panopticon prison model which is the detailed surveillance of teachers’ classroom behaviour through prescribing them with structures and procedures of standardised classroom teaching. When Foucault’s (1977) regimental training procedures are considered, MONE’s prescriptive structures and procedures of teaching can be an example of ways of disciplining and correcting teachers’ actions through surveillance apparatus. Surveillance in the Turkish educational context is mainly MONE’s prescriptive teaching texts and activities which lead to teachers’ self surveillance. The main aim is to correct, to train and to normalise docile bodies by giving them the assumption of being watched constantly (Foucault, 1977). As Internal Inspection Unit in Turkey is responsible for the effective implementation of the given policies, they visit schools without warning (MONE, 2007). This is a way of making the individuals have the assumption of being watched and therefore they correct their actions accordingly (Lawson, 2004a).

The teacher’s role is defined as being to activate pupils and employ multi-sensory activities according to pupils’ needs (MONE, 2004a). There is also a pupils’ textbook prepared in conjunction with the Teachers’ Guide Book (MONE, 2004a). The Turkish Guide Book has been prepared to guide teachers’ implementations of the pupils’ textbook, therefore the units and the texts are exactly the same in both of the books except that additional pedagogical guidance appears in The Turkish Guide Book.

In both books there are eight themes: four of them are compulsory and another four are optional between the pages 49 and 207. With each theme, a suggested time is fixed to cover
all the objectives (Goren et al., 2005). There are four compulsory themes; *Society and the Individual, Ataturk, Health and Environment* and *Our Values* (Goren et al., 2005). Optional themes are *Innovations and Improvements, Fine Arts, Natural Disasters* and *Games and Sports* (Goren et al., 2005). For each theme, there are five different objectives and related classroom activities also given according to teaching - learning processes (Goren et al., 2005). Year Five teachers in Turkey have to implement the Turkish Guide Book and therefore they have to use the texts given under the title of these themes which are all organised by the Turkish Guide Book. Thus Year Five Turkish teachers structure their lessons according to these themes.

The Turkish Guide Book has been prepared to guide teachers with their classroom teaching. There is a ready template for teachers’ daily and unit plans which may take away the burden of planning; however it does not give much opportunity for teachers to construct their own lesson plans according to classroom needs. Each unit takes approximately four weeks to finish and in each unit there are six different types of texts or poems with classroom activities (See Appendix 5). Most of the classroom activities are repetitive and subject-centred (Goren et al., 2005).

The Turkish Guide Book is divided into ten parts which are displayed in Table 5.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5.1: Contents of the Turkish Guide Book</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Table of Contents of the Turkish Guide Book</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Instructions for teachers about the use of Turkish Guide Book</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tables for the learning outcomes</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching and learning types and techniques</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Themes and activities | 49-207 | There are eight themes. Each theme has six different texts and appropriate activities. Suggested time was also set.  
1) Individual and Society (September-October)  
2) Ataturk (October-November)  
3) Health and Environment (November-December)  
4) Reforms and improvements (December-January)  
5) Fine arts (February-March)  
6) Our values (March-April)  
7) Natural disasters (April-May)  
8) Sports and games (May-June) |
| Guidance and interdisciplinary activities of the Turkish Guide Book | 207-221 | There are eleven inter-disciplinary activities:  
1) Maps  
2) Reasonable consumer  
3) My emotions  
4) Occupation  
5) Things we must do during earthquake  
6) History of sports  
7) Human Rights  
8) Billboard  
9) Our roles  
10) Our responsibilities  
11) Our newspapers |
| Special national or religious days and weeks (for example: Independence Day and Ramadan) | 221-231 | Texts (poems, essays) for the each special day and the week. |
| Reading files | 231-243 | Features for children books, reading observation form, reading self-observation form, student forms for their reading. |
| Forms and assessments | 243-258 | Assessment forms for students and teachers about students’ learning outcome. |
The map of Turkish states in the world 259

The Turkish Guide Book may be considered as a tool for modern power control techniques used for homogenising, defining and identifying the Turkish nation. When Foucault’s (1977) control techniques are used to analyse the Turkish Guide Book, there are clear examples of regimental disciplining and controlling techniques. In this section, the Turkish Guide Book has been divided into three of Foucault’s (1977) regimental training methods which are displayed in Table 5.2.

...it might be said that discipline creates out of the bodies it controls four types of individuality, or rather an individuality that is endowed with four characteristics: it is cellular (by the play of spatial distribution), it is organic (by the coding of activities), it is genetic (by the accumulation of time), it is combinatorial (by the composition of forces). And, in doing so, it operates four great techniques: it draws up tables; it prescribes movements; it imposes exercises; lastly, in order to obtain the combination of forces, it arranges tactics (Foucault, 1977, p. 167).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Combining forces/arranging tactics</th>
<th>Prescribing movements and imposing exercises</th>
<th>Drawing tables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Turkish anthem, Atatürk poster, Atatürk’s speech for Turkish Youth</td>
<td>Instructions for teachers about the use of Turkish Guide Book (p. 11-21)</td>
<td>Table of content, Organisation schemes. (p. 1-10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texts about ‘Turkishness’ Rising with Atatürk (p. 72) Morning Soldier (p. 75) Deeds of Atatürk (p. 79) Women’s right for being elected and voting (p. 83) Press and Atatürk (p. 86) The Voice of the Flag (p. 150)</td>
<td>Themes and activities (p. 49-207)</td>
<td>Tables for the learning outcomes (p. 21-31)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The map of Turkish states in the world (p. 259)</td>
<td>Guidance and interdisciplinary activities of the Turkish Guide Book (p. 207-221)</td>
<td>Reading files (p. 231-243)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.2.1 Drawing Tables

According to Foucault’s (1977) control strategies, ‘drawing tables’ is a way of disciplining docile bodies. In a similar structure, the Turkish Guide Book also organises activities through tables or time tables and therefore Foucault’s (1977) ‘drawing tables’ as a regimental strategy can identify MONE’s modern power control methods.

Timetables are a form of prescribing movements in a structured style which clarifies the movements with set times (Foucault, 1977, p. 167). The timetable has three great methods ‘establish rhythms, impose particular occupations, regulate the cycles of repetition...’ (Foucault, 1977, p. 148). According to these methods, timetables are used as tools for prescribing movements and imposing exercises. There are two types of tables presented in the Turkish Guide Book. At the beginning, there is an organisation chart displayed in order to explain how teachers should use the book. Titles and datelines of each theme are set in different colours; warm up questions and related pictures are also placed for teachers’ guidance (Goren et al., 2005). Throughout the datelines of each theme, there are also dates of special occasions (Independence Day, Turkish Republic Day, and Commemoration of Ataturk Day) in order to guide teachers to prepare their lessons according to the importance of these dates.

There are five different learning areas and their targeted learning objectives are presented with five different tables. These tables are prepared according to each learning target that teachers have to reach throughout the academic year. Each table is prepared for each learning target. Through timetables, time is organised and distributed in order that teachers do not waste any time. The Turkish Guide Book clarifies every single learning and teaching process through tables which is also a way of prescribing movements to teachers and pupils. As in Foucault’s (1977) analogy of military discipline, the idea is to maintain the quality of the time used through timetables (p.150).
Foucault defined the division of time in elementary schools in the early nineteenth century for ‘the improvement of schools’: “8.45 entrance of the monitor, 8.52 the monitor’s summons, 8.56 entrance of the children and the prayer, 9.00 the children go to their benches, 9.04 first slate, 9.08 end of dictation, 9.12 second slate, etc (Foucault, 1977, p. 150)”. The timetable in school is used to maintain effective use of school time. Therefore, the use of a timetable structures every minute of the school year. The Turkish Guide Book also focuses on the timetable in order to maintain effective use of time. A school year, a school term and a school day are divided into segments with different themes and each theme has to be studied along with set texts and activities in particular time period. Therefore Foucault’s division of time in elementary schools can be an example of the way the Turkish Guide Book organises ‘school time’ in Turkish primary schools.

These types of strict instructions may be explained by comparison with Foucault’s discussion of the Gobelins School in 1667. This is a school Foucault uses as an example to demonstrate how time is divided into segments. This is an example of how the state ‘...capitalises the time on individuals, accumulates it in each of them, in their bodies, in their forces or in abilities, in a way that is susceptible of use and control’ (Foucault, 1977, p. 157). The Turkish Guide Book instructs teachers about listening, reading and speaking in detail. This is a way of taking charge of ‘the time of individual existence’. Each teacher’s classroom actions are organised, segmented and timed in order to normalise and standardise teachers’ classroom behaviour.

A school year is divided with texts and teaching activities in order to avoid any waste of time. ‘Time measured and paid must also be a time without impurities or defects; a time of good quality, throughout which the body is constantly applied to its exercise’(Foucault, 1977, p. 150). In the Turkish Guide Book, there are eight themes which are organised to fill Year Five Turkish lessons for a whole school year. One of the compulsory themes in the Turkish Guide Book is ‘Ataturk’ which has five different types of texts and poems titled; ‘Rising with Ataturk’, ‘Hello Soldier’, Deeds of Ataturk’, ‘Women’s Rights of Voting and Being Elected’, ‘Press and Ataturk’. These texts are also accompanied with assessment at the end of the theme. The suggested time for the theme is for four weeks between the months of October and November and each text should be finished in sixteen hours along with eight hours of free reading activities. Throughout the unit, there are also important days and weeks which are highlighted. These are stated as being 29th October (Turkish Republic Day) and 10th
November (Commemoration of Ataturk Day) and world children’s book week which starts on the second Monday of November. This is an example of a month which defines a general framework of classroom activities along with supportive textual materials that teachers need to conduct in a certain time scale. As the time has been strictly organised, this timetable does not allow teachers to spend any time on other activities other than the activities in the Turkish Guide Book.

The Turkish Guide Book provides teachers with reading files in order for pupils to keep a record of their reading progress. Reading files are different from the timetables because they are procedures for checking if the set targets have been achieved. Although the specific datelines are not given for these files like timetables, all the learning targets are given in a table format which can be clearly followed and checked by teachers at the end of a unit. Therefore reading files can also be considered similar to Foucault’s (1977) controlling methods of drawing tables. In addition, there are features of children’s books identified in detail for teachers’ notes. Teachers are also reminded of the special nationalistic or religious days and weeks along with relevant texts. After each unit, teachers are given standard measurement and assessment for checking pupils’ learning outcome according to set learning processes so teachers do not need to prepare anything to assess pupils. There is also a self-assessment form that is given for pupils to assess their own academic achievement which may be considered as a way of self-surveillance strategy. By using the self-assessment forms, pupils actually need to control and police their own learning processes which is a way of disciplining pupils without architectural surveillance tools like the panopticon.

According to Foucault’s (1977) modern power control strategies, hierarchical observation is a fact that docile bodies can be controlled through observing them. Therefore for Foucault (1977), the ideal architectural design for observation is the panopticon prison model which applies in to any institution. According to this prison model, the idea is to give the effect ‘to induce in the inmate a state of consciousness and permanent visibility that assures the automatic functioning of power’ (Foucault, 1977, p. 201). Bentham’s panopticon prison model designed as a star where the guards can watch the prisoners from towers at the centre (Foucault, 1977; Gutting, 2005). In educational context, MONE watch teachers’ practices through prescriptive guidelines. MONE’s prescriptive guidelines are employed for both surveillance and disciplining purposes. The Turkish Guide Book is one of the tools used for prescribing classroom behaviour in Turkey. It is a way of exercising power on observed
docile bodies to control and to correct their own actions with the assumption of always being observed. Thus, the result of the surveillance apparatus is to maintain the assumption that docile bodies are being watched. So the actual surveillance action can be replaced by the other techniques like check lists, self assessment forms and so on. Docile bodies are systematically stimulated that they are being observed. This model can also apply to self assessment forms where pupils assess their own learning outcomes and accordingly correct and discipline their own learning with the consciousness of always being observed.

This strict model of power control is a way of surveillance which leads to self-surveillance. The division of time and strict time-controlled prescriptive texts are ways of surveillance which teachers have to follow with an assumption that they are watched. As a result of that they control and correct their actions (Lawson, 2004a). These strict timetables and prescriptive instructions lead teachers to police their actions ‘without necessarily knowing what they are doing’ (Lawson, 2004a, p. 83). Teachers actually control and discipline their actions by following guidelines without realising it. This effective power control system only requires teachers to follow these rigid timetables and instructions; therefore there is no need to employ any other power control strategies.

5.2.2 Prescribing Movements and Imposing Exercises

Although the differences and similarities between prescribing movements and imposing exercises are not clarified distinctively (Foucault, 1977, p. 167). They are strongly interrelated. In this part of the analysis, these two controlling techniques are combined. In this section, Foucault’s (1977) analogy of regimental practices is used to analyse MONE’s power control techniques over teachers and pupils. According to Foucault’s (1977) analogy of regimental practices, prescribing movements and imposing exercises is a way of correcting and normalising docile bodies through defining a framework of an activity (Foucault, 1977). For each of the compulsory and optional themes which are listed in table, teachers have to follow teaching - learning processes which are stated as preparation, comprehension, and comprehension through text, self expressing and assessment. There are also suitable teaching techniques and teaching activities presented for each teaching - learning process. As the Turkish Guide Book is prescribing teaching and learning techniques which are mental and interpersonal movements, it can be seen as analogous to Foucault’s model for physical movements. Foucault's (1977) regimental controlling and disciplining methods focus on
physical movements like marching troops and weapon training. However, Foucault’s (1977) archaeology of training troops for a fight may be applicable for the analysis of the Turkish Guide Book as an apparatus for correcting docile bodies.

The Turkish Guide Book also trains pupils in order to unite and protect the Turkish nation. Therefore it may be claimed that the role of the Turkish Guide Book is not different from that of physical training of troops as both of them serve for the same purpose of correcting and disciplining docile bodies. In addition to this argument, Foucault (1977) employs the analogy of regimental training in order to demonstrate effective use of time in activities.

Preparation is one of the teaching-learning processes. It is divided into two stages as pre-preparation and mental preparation. In each stage, the aim is to prepare the pupils for each text. In the pre-preparation stage, teachers have to make sure that pupils develop the habit of bringing necessary tools and equipment to each lesson, as appropriate (Goren et al., 2005). As a preparation activity for the text ‘The inventor’, teachers are told to ask their pupils ‘to bring pictures of telescopes and texts about telescopes and binoculars’ to the classroom (Goren et al., 2005, p. 108). This strict model of control through detailed activity also resembles Foucault’s definition of pupils’ handwriting position in Gobelin school below:

Hold their bodies erect, somewhat turned and free on the left side, slightly inclined, so that, with the elbow placed on the table, the chin can be rested upon the hand, unless this were to interfere with the view; the left leg must be somewhat more forward under the table than the right...The teacher will place the pupils in the posture that they should maintain when writing, and will correct it either by sign or otherwise, when they change the position (Foucault, 1977, p. 152).

According to Foucault’s description of good handwriting posture, there is the correlation between good handwriting and the body. This whole routine of handwriting posture is a way of controlling, disciplining and correcting docile bodies. Although the Turkish Guide Book does not prescribe physical movements in rigorous successions like the example of handwriting posture, it prescribes the texts and even related equipments which can be easily formalised by the teacher. In the text ‘Rising with Ataturk’, teachers are told to ask pupils to bring poems, essays and photos about Ataturk in order to prepare pupils for the lesson (Goren et al., 2005, p. 72). The Turkish Guide Book has been formalised in detail to instruct teachers’ every single action of their classroom teaching. In addition, the Turkish Guide Book even defines the way of silent reading; it is a way of reading without moving lips, it is also
important to silent read with consideration of punctuations (Goren et al., 2005, p. 32). This is a way of prescribing movements of the Turkish Guide Book.

The Turkish Guide Book controls teachers’ regular activities before, during and after the lessons, for instance; it repeatedly reminds teachers to warn pupils to bring their required equipments and tools before their lessons (Goren et al., 2005). This may seem like a cautious remark; however it is a way of controlling, disciplining and normalising teachers’ actions in detailed successions. “The act is broken down into its elements; the position of the body, limbs, articulations is defined; to each movement are assigned a direction, an aptitude, a duration; their order of succession is prescribed” (Foucault, 1977, p. 152). All the regulations and calculated teaching methods are ways of correcting, disciplining and normalising docile bodies and ‘the body is an object and target of power’ (Foucault, 1977, p.136).

Teachers may also change the seating arrangements according to the context of the texts and activities (Goren et al., 2005). The mental preparation stage is about stimulation of prior knowledge and groundwork for comprehension of the text through working with keywords, guessing and recognising the texts (Goren et al., 2005). Teachers need to ask questions to prompt pupils’ prior knowledge and also aid in warming up pupils for the texts. There are questions and activities set for teachers to ask but they are also permitted to add their own questions and activities (Goren et al., 2005). There are also some other preparation activities for teachers to employ like guessing the theme of a text from the title and working on given keywords (e.g. making a statement). As a keyword activity for the text ‘My School’, keywords of the school, work, love and knowledge are given in order for pupils to discuss the meaning for five minutes with their peers as a pair share activity (Goren et al., 2005, p. 54). Although the activity would be helpful for the teacher to construct effective classroom teaching, it gives place to ‘obligatory prescription’ (Foucault, 1977). As Foucault (1977) defines this type of obligation as a ‘contact between body and the object’ which leads into power through the ‘law of construction of the operation’ (p. 153). In other words, if the implementation of the Turkish Guide Book has been considered as a way of effective teaching, then teachers are obliged to rely on the strict use of it. Thus, there is no other way of eliminating one aspect from the others or making changes for teachers because each stage appears to have some other function that is strictly related to another.
Another learning process is stated as comprehension which consists of listening, reading, analysing the text and learning new vocabulary (Goren et al., 2005). According to the Turkish Guide Book, teachers are instructed to guide pupils to comprehend the texts through listening and reading (Goren et al., 2005). Reading and listening rules are given in detail and teachers need to make sure that pupils adhere to these rules. Some of the rules for listening are stated as;

- Prepare for reading
- set up your purpose for reading
- find a method according to your purpose
- focus on reading
- read audibly
- focus on your tone
- pronounce the words properly
- follow the punctuation marks properly
- be fluent in your reading
- care for your book (Goren et al., 2005, p. 14).

The Turkish Guide Book is not only prescribing the methods of listening, it is also prescribing a specific control of the body, since listening requires bodily functioning. The Turkish Guide Book breaks down the actions of listening in precise steps. The purpose is not only to teach pupils how to listen; it is also prescribing the way it was required to listen. It is ‘the micro-level of the constant subjugation of our minds and bodies to disciplinary techniques of micro management’ (Lawson, 2004a, p. 85). The aim is to produce docile bodies: the bodies, not only so that they may do what one wishes, but so that they may operate as one wishes, with the techniques, the speed and the efficiency that one determines (Foucault, 1977).

According to the Turkish Guide Book, texts should be analysed through mind-mapping, finding the adjectives in the text and answering some comprehension questions accordingly (Goren et al., 2005). This part also focuses on vocabulary improvement (Goren et al., 2005, p. 14). In the Turkish Guide Book, there are four ways of improving vocabulary: improving vocabulary through visuals, improving vocabulary through checking up dictionaries, improving vocabulary through using suffixes and prefixes and improving vocabulary through exercises based on the meaning of the vocabularies (Goren et al., 2005, p. 15). This can be considered as a systematic training of the Turkish Guide Book. It is controlling the action of
‘learning’ in detailed succession of precise steps. In other words, it is a way of ‘a calculated manipulation of its elements’ (Foucault, 1977, p. 138).

Learning through the text is also another teaching-learning process (Goren et al., 2005). In this stage of teaching and learning, teachers need to lead pupils to relate set texts to their own lives (Goren et al., 2005). There are some questions prepared for teachers; they are related to each given text. Teachers are also guided and instructed to inter-relate the given texts to the other lessons in detail. In this section, teachers are prescribed with eleven lesson plans for interdisciplinary teaching activities. In other words, set interdisciplinary teaching activities are also structured for teachers’ use does not allow teachers’ their own choices of relating the themes to other subjects. In these lesson plans, required outcome for the Turkish lesson and the interdisciplinary subject, aimed skills, equipment-tool-seating arrangement, learning and teaching processes, aim and objective of the lesson, and assessment form are given in detail. Therefore teachers only need to implement the prescribed lesson plans. In the text, ‘Rising with Ataturk’, teachers are asked to relate the text to the music lesson by organising pupils to listen to songs about Ataturk and the Turkish Republic (Goren et al., 2005, p. 74). According to this, teachers are instructed to teach the lesson in a way that the Turkish Guide Book requires them to teach. The aim is not only to normalise and train the docile bodies, but also train them in specific, precise steps.

5.2.3 Combining Forces (arranging tactics) Through ‘Turkishness’

According to Foucault’s (1977) analogy of military practices, military tactics are the key to regimental science. One of the tactics is to combine forces (Foucault, 1977) which is the first stage of Foucault’s regimental training strategies in order to construct an efficient army. In this part of the thesis, Foucault’s (1977) regimental idea of combining forces was applied into the analysis of the Turkish Guide Book’s various implications for indoctrination of Turkishness. The Turkish Guide Book is a tool for uniting the Turkish nation with the ideas of regimental masculinity and modernity. In other words, the aim of this part is to analyse the Turkish Guide Book’s techniques of gathering and placing the ‘Turkish’ nation. Since education is used as an essential instrument for establishing the Turkish nation (Cayir, 2009), the textbooks and guidelines are adorned with elements of ‘Turkishness’ (Kanci & Altinay, 2006). In this context ‘establishing Turkishness’ may be considered a power control
technique, since the ‘other’ native ethnic communities in Turkey are discriminated and normalised by the indoctrination of the book.

The Turkish flag is depicted on the first page of the Turkish Guide Book along with the lyrics to the Turkish national anthem. Ataturk’s portrait and Ataturk’s Speech for Turkish Youth follow on the second page. This may be interpreted as symbolic surveillance of the state and a way of normalising through drilling. Since Foucault’s (1977) controlling techniques are interrelated, the repetitive symbols of Ataturk and Turkishness may also be explained with ‘prescribing movements’. However in this part of the thesis, the aim is to analyse the Turkish Guide Book through its implications of Turkishness.

The Turkish Guide Book opens with a reminder of the Turkish State control system and is obvious through a Turkish flag and Ataturk portrait (Goren et al., 2005). The highly centralised Turkish educational system reminds Turkish teachers and pupils that they are part of the ‘Turkish’ apparatus within marginalised groups who are constantly corrected, normalised and disciplined through regimental drilling techniques.

One of the compulsory units in the Turkish Guide Book covers Ataturk and Ataturk’s reformations (Goren et al., 2005). In particular, Turkishness and militaristic indoctrination are still evident in these texts. Being a Turkish soldier was identified as a nationalistic duty; ‘Turkish soldiers are born to represent the Turkish nation’ (Goren et al., 2005, p. 34). One of the compulsory texts about Turkish military forces, ‘Hello Soldier’ praises Ataturk’s leadership skills and Turkish soldiers (Goren et al., 2005, p. 76). The text is about Ataturk’s visit to the town of Afyon in 1920 where a group of soldiers are waiting for Ataturk at the station. The soldiers’ eyes are identified with jewels which are shining and announcing the victory of the Turkish nation (Goren et al., 2005, p. 76). They are ready to fight for the independence of the Turkish nation (Goren et al., 2005, p. 76). This text may be seen as an example of Foucault’s analogy of military tactics which are represented explicitly through Ataturk’s speech. It serves as a tool to gather the soldiers together in order to prepare them for the fight and to encourage today’s children to protect their Turkish heritage. Therefore, this text passes on the same tactics to preserve the Turkish nation.

Foucault’s (1977) idea of combining forces requires categorising, distributing and placing individuals to particular places. The Turkish Guide Book is not only emphasizing being
Turkish but being male has also been categorized. In other words, being a soldier has been associated with being male (Kanci & Altinay, 2006). Although the Turkish Guide Book tries to establish the image of equality in gender relations (see page 206), it also praises being a soldier which has been identified with being male and therefore the role of representation of the nation was given to Turkish men (Kanci & Altinay, 2006). Since only men can join military service in Turkey, the security and defence of the nation depend on masculinity (Kanci & Altinay, 2006). In other words, the textbooks are adorned with patriarchal indoctrinations which label women as ‘reproductive and recreative’ beings (Kanci & Altinay, 2006, p. 57). Soldiers are considered to be male and females are seen as the mothers of these soldiers. Thus women are responsible for bringing up strong soldiers. However this gender inequality of the Turkish textbook is balanced with another text about ‘the rights of voting and selection of women’ (Goren et al., 2005, p. 83). In addition, the greatness of Ataturk and his deeds are praised in the text and the teaching activities are organised to compliment it. It is a way of normalising judgement through constantly reminding pupils and teachers of the state control and the founder of Turkish Republic. In addition, through constant reminding of the state control, the aim is to discipline, punish and normalise pupils and teachers.

Foucault’s (1977) idea of combining forces is also about defining a nation. In order to gather regimental troops, it is important to find men who has ‘strength, good bearing, natural courage, etc and then motivating them in a general way through pride and fear (Gutting, 2005, p. 81). In addition, these carefully selected groups of soldiers should be placed and trained systematically. These regimental tactics are like the ways of MONE’s strategy of training pupils to sustain Turkish nation. The Turkish Guide Book is also defining how the Turkish nation should exist in the contemporary world. Some of the texts also contain ‘paradoxical’ notions about modernisation which is possible through westernising and at the same time instilling a strong Turkish identity (Cayir, 2009, p. 46). Being western and being Turkish are portrayed as modern. Therefore the ‘traditional Islamic Ottoman Empire’ is blamed for its backwardness which was not identified with Turks (Cayir, 2009). Hence, the textbooks are refuting all traces of the Ottoman Empire.

The idea of ‘Turkishness’ is also highlighted at the end of the Turkish Guide Book. It displays the map of Turkish States in the world which does not have any relevance to the texts or poems on the Guide Book. It may be interpreted as a symbolic way of reminding teachers and pupils about the quantitative power of Turkish ethnicity. This may be a
manifestation of power over ‘other’ ethnic minorities. There were some courses which praised and promoted military power by discriminating against ‘other nations’ in Turkey (Kanci & Altinay, 2006). The ‘geopolitical significance of Turkey’ and ‘a dislike of a strong nation’ are repeatedly stated by the textbooks which attempted to indoctrinate pupils with the ideas of ‘internal and external threats’ and therefore justified strong military forces (Kanci & Altinay, 2006, p. 60).

The Turkish Guide Book may be analysed through Foucault’s (1977) analogy of regimental training techniques, however Foucault’s (1977) analysis mainly related to the mediation of body and object which was constructed through successive prescriptive physical movements and exercises. However, the Turkish Guide Book is a tool for prescribing classroom activities in successive order which are mainly related to cognitive training. Thus, the Turkish Guide Book does not fit Foucault’s (1977) analogy of regimental training entirely. Still, if regimental training and its techniques are considered as a metaphor for power control strategies of normalising, disciplining and correcting docile bodies, the Turkish Guide Book also serves for the same purpose. Therefore analysing the Turkish Guide Book through Foucault’s (1977) regimental training would be accurate.

5.2.4 Explicit View Regarding to the Constructivist Claims of the Turkish Guide Book

The Turkish Guide Book is claimed to be prepared on the basis of constructivist teaching methods (Goren et al., 2005). However constructivist teaching cannot be defined as a teaching method ‘because constructivism is a theory of learning, not a theory of teaching’ (Yang et al., 2008 p. 528). However, constructivist learning theory can be employed in order to create constructivist learning environments (Richardson, 2003). Therefore, constructivist teaching is actually a term which is used to describe ‘classroom environments, activities, and methods’ that are based on the theories of constructivist learning which is derived from the work of Vygotsky and Piaget (Richardson, 2003, p. 1626). In this section, the aim is to show explicit views regarding the constructivist claims of the Turkish Guide Book.

Social constructivist teaching methods are based on the general principles of social interaction (Adams, 2008), stimulating pupils’ prior knowledge (Richardson, 2003), teaching
as a guidance (Richardson, 2003), using tools for stimulating pupils’ learning (Bomer, 2003), student-centred teaching (Richardson, 2003). These features are employed in order to analyse one of the texts in the Turkish Guide Book from constructivist teaching perspectives.

In the Turkish Guide Book, there are fifty-four different texts with the same learning outcomes. Therefore similar learning activities are organised in a similarly successive order for each text. For this reason, the poem ‘Morning Children’ and its learning activities are selected in order to analyse the Turkish Guide Book’s constructivist nature (Goren et al., 2005, pp. 128-131).

### 5.2.4.1 Social Interaction Activities

According to constructivist teaching, social interaction is a major tool for pupils’ learning processes (Adams, 2006). In other words, learning is stimulated by social interaction (Adams, 2008). In a classroom environment, social interaction between teacher and pupils, as well as among pupils themselves, should be encouraged. Encouraging group dialogue is necessary for constructing knowledge.

However, in the Turkish Guide Book social interaction activities are not encouraged as much as individual activities (Goren et al., 2005). None the less, some group work activities are encouraged in the text ‘Morning Children’; there are two group work activities suggested (Goren et al., 2005, pp. 128-129). The first is one of the activating prior knowledge activities in which teachers are told to ask pupils to get together to discuss and find out the meaning of the given words: morning, colour, games, adults and nature (Goren et al., 2005, p. 128). Although the Turkish Guide Book recommends group discussions in order to discover the words, it is not challenging enough to raise some questions in pupils’ minds in order for cognitive development to take place. As in discussing the meaning of the words with peers the Turkish Guide Book could not lead pupils’ development of higher order thinking skills (Palincsar, 1998). Discussing the meaning of the words can be considered as factual questioning which do not help pupils’ development of understanding them (Petty, 2009).

The second group work activity, for the text ‘Morning Children’ teachers are asked to organise pupils to sing a Baris Manco (legendary Turkish folk singer) song called ‘today is a festival’ (Goren et al., 2005). In this activity, teachers are not asked to guide pupils to
construct new learning schemes. Singing songs as a group does not encourage pupils to engage in an activity as part of an active process with social experiences, it is rather gathered knowledge mechanically (Gergen, 2003). Therefore this activity does not stimulate pupils’ higher order thinking skills. Since, singing songs can be considered as an entertaining activity, it may not necessarily lead pupils in to deep meaningful reflection on the existence of the world. Words may simply be sung in a parrot-like fashion with no interest paid to how carefully crafted they are woven together or the evocative nature of his phrasing.

5.2.4.2 Stimulating Prior Knowledge Activities

Constructivist teaching should stimulate pupils’ prior knowledge in order to activate meaning making processes through new schemes (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). The Teachers’ role should be assessing pupils’ prior knowledge to facilitate learning (Richardson, 2003). In constructivist teaching, stimulating prior knowledge has been explained in page 58.

In the Turkish Guide Book, there are mental preparation activities for each text which consist of four different sections of successive questions (Goren et al., 2005). The purpose of these questions is to activate pupils’ meaning making processes about the type of the texts, the content of the texts and the uses of vocabulary. In the text ‘Morning Children’, teachers are told to ask questions: ‘what kinds of greetings do we use in a day?’; ‘When you arrive at school what kinds of greetings do you use?’; ‘do you know Baris Manco?’ (Goren et al., 2005, p. 128). Although these questions seem as though they are preparing pupils for the text, they are lower order questions which are not stimulating pupils’ higher order thinking skills. According to Kyriacou (2007) teachers should ask questions in order to ‘encourage thought and understanding of ideas, phenomena, procedures and values’ (p.38). However these questions are based on factual information which only require lower order thinking skills. As the answers of these questions are only based on pupils’ daily routines. Pupils are not challenged to construct new knowledge into their existing schemes (Marin et al., 2000). Therefore the claim can be made that these questions are not prepared according to constructivist teaching methods.

Another activity for the mental preparation is to guess the content of the poem through the picture on the Turkish Guide Book (Goren et al., 2005, p. 128). On the picture, Baris Manco is leaning on a red tree. There is a rainbow coming out of Baris Manco’s hand and children
can be seen sliding down a rainbow. According to the mental preparation activity, teachers are told to ask pupils to guess the content of the poem from the visuals. This activity is an effective way of starting a lesson. The picture may stimulate pupils’ understanding of symbolic meaning of the colours, However it is not prepared for pupils ‘to determine, challenge, change or add to existing beliefs and understandings through engagement in tasks’ (Richardson, 2003, p. 1626). The picture can be an effective tool for activating pupils’ existing knowledge about poetry and use of figurative speech in poetry. However, the given question is not challenging enough to lead into higher order discussions.

In the case of Baris Manco poem, the third activity for ‘stimulating prior knowledge’ is to scan the poem before studying it. In this activity teachers are told to ask pupils to read the last stanzas of the poem and to ask pupils ‘what do you think about it?’, ‘what do you remember about it?’ (Goren et al., 2005, p. 128). These questions are not specific enough to lead pupils into meaning making processes. The questioning style should stimulate pupils’ curiosity (Petty, 2009). ‘It is important to teach for understanding, rather than just knowing’ (Petty, 2009, p. 191). However, the question of ‘what do you remember from the poem’ is based on remembering the poem, rather than understanding it. If the question has been phrased as ‘why do you think children like to play’, it would be a higher order question. The idea of constructivist teaching is not about remembering words of a poem, it is actually about making meaning of the poem therefore asking pupils what they remember from the poem would be limiting pupils to use their interpretative skills. According to constructivist learning theory, pupils should be active explorers of the meaning of the external world and they should construct knowledge accordingly (Edwards, 2005, p. 38). This argument suggests pupils should actively involve with the external world, and discover meanings through interpretation of the external world (Edwards, 2005).

5.2.4.3 Teacher as a Guide

Teachers need to take on various roles to be able to ‘monitor and evaluate learning, and then constrain and structure learning environments to challenge’ (Richardson, 2003, p. 1626). In other words, teachers have various roles like to guide, to scaffold and to assess pupils’ learning processes. However the Turkish Guide Book is only prescribing texts and activities rather than leading teachers to construct their own role in order to create effective learning environments (Goren et al., 2005).
In the text ‘Morning Children’ teachers are told to ask pupils questions: ‘why are you listening to the poem?’, ‘what do you think you will gain from listening to the poem?’, ‘what is the content of the poem?’ (Goren et al., 2005, p. 129). These questions are prepared in order to improve pupils’ listening skills; however they are not allowing teachers to guide, to scaffold and to assess pupils’ listening skills.

Teachers are also told to ask pupils to find the main theme of the poem, different titles for the poem and teachers are suggested, asking pupils if they agree with the poet’s statement ‘adults also want to play games’ (Goren et al., 2005, p. 129). In the research section, teachers are told to ask pupils to gather some information about Baris Manco’s biography and write a report about it. This activity is also limited in its nature, as it requires nothing more than basic researching of factual data which does not expand pupils’ higher order thinking skills.

Constructivist teaching tasks should be meaningful and authentic which fit into real life situations (Richardson, 2003). There are also some ‘real life’ activities in the Turkish Guide Book which prompt teachers to ask questions such as: ‘how do people with unhappy facial expressions have an impact on you?’; ‘what is your favourite colour? Why’; ‘if there was no colour in the world how would our lives be?’ (Goren et al., 2005, p. 129). These questions are organised in order to ‘encourage open-ended exploration and expression’ (Osborne, 1997, p. 183). However teachers are only encouraged to ask these questions rather than teachers’ scaffolding pupils’ open-ended exploration and expression of their meaning making processes of the existing world. Therefore these questions cannot be claimed to be constructivist.

According to constructivist teaching, teachers need to be able to assess pupils’ ongoing processes of constructing knowledge (Adams, 2006). The main aim of assessing pupils is to gain understanding of their potential development so teachers guide pupils accordingly. Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is a type of aid from adults to pupils’ meaning making processes which can be considered as a form of apprenticeship (Adams, 2006). In the Turkish Guide Book, there is an assessment for the text ‘Morning Children’ that pupils need to fill-in the blanks of the statements starting: ‘I improved.....by reading this poem, by reading this poem, I feel that...’ (Goren et al., 2005). This type of assessment does not allow teachers to clearly identify pupils’ academic needs. In this assessment, pupils were given three different
statements which needed to be filled in by pupils. Pupils are determined to write something that they have improved through reading the poem so they are not left to construct their own original ideas.

5.2.4.4 Tools as Mediation for Stimulate Learning

In constructivist teaching, media or tools are used to stimulate learners’ thinking (Bomer, 2003, p. 225). According to Bomer (2003) there are various ways of teaching with tools. Tools can be used as a symbolic meaning of an object and an action in order to activate pupils’ learning (Bomer, 2003). Pupils construct meanings through the use of the tools or give symbolic meanings to a tool. In other words, metaphors as tools encourage critical thinking (Bomer, 2003). Put another way, pupils can also use tools without any symbolic meaning (Bomer, 2003, p. 236).

Although in the Turkish Guide Book, there are a few activities used tools as mediation for activating learning, they are not actually encouraging pupils’ construction of meaning making processes (Goren et al., 2005). In the text ‘Morning Children’ there are a couple of activities suggested for teachers’ use of tools (Goren et al., 2005, p. 128). One of the activities suggests teachers to ask pupils to bring Baris Manco’s CDs to the classroom before the lesson (Goren et al., 2005, p. 128). Baris Manco’s CD can be considered as a tool for mediation learning however, the Turkish Guide Book does not lead teachers to engage with any constructive discussion related to the Baris Manco’s CD. Although this activity may act as a warm-up exercise to prepare pupils for the text, it does not lead them into construction of higher order knowledge.

The second activity on the text ‘Morning Children’ is about using symbolic meaning of an object (Goren et al., 2005). In this activity, teachers are told to ask pupils to write down what they associate with the colours red, yellow, green and blue. (Goren et al., 2005, p. 129). Although it is a ‘mindful activity’ for stimulating pupils’ higher order thinking skills (Adams, 2006), it does not allow pupils to discuss these associations to colours. These types of activities should also encourage “communicative methods such as role-play, concept mapping, drawing and the use of artefacts” (Adams, 2006, p. 249). In addition, it is not only pupil-teacher but also pupil-pupil interaction that is necessary to build pupils’ independent learning skills (Adams, 2006, p. 249).
5.2.4.5 Student-centred Teaching Activities

Constructivist teachers should focus on ‘student-centred’ teaching activities (Richardson, 2003). Student-centred activities are about pupils’ active involvement of their learning processes (Richardson, 2003). According to this argument, teaching and learning activities should allow pupils’ meaning making processes through social interaction (Richardson, 2003). However, the Turkish Guide Book suggests more subject-centred rather than student-centred learning activities (Goren et al., 2005).

In the text ‘Morning Children’, teachers are told to ask pupils to write down the dialogue among their family members when they get up in the morning (Goren et al., 2005, p. 130). Although this activity requires pupils’ active involvement with their writing processes, the writing question is not challenging enough for pupils to add into their existing beliefs and understanding of their meaningful world schema (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). Higher order questions should allow pupils to give reasons, evaluate problems, and develop problem-solving and speculation hypothesis skills. Therefore with this activity pupils are only involved with the writing of their daily routines rather than questioning existing understanding of their routines. Thus this activity cannot be considered as a student-centred activity. It is not adding a new scheme to pupils’ existing knowledge and pupils, therefore, do not need to construct meaning towards their existing knowledge. For this reason, this activity cannot be considered as a constructivist teaching.

5.3 Participants of the Study

The study consists of observations made on four State Primary School teachers and six Private Primary School teachers. In total, the study covers ten participants with various academic backgrounds and educational practices. Although each participant had their own unique ways of teaching, their interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book were assessed in relation to the structure of the schools and to the centralised nature of the Turkish educational system. Each of the ten study participants is a Year Five classroom teacher, which means they are in charge of teaching Turkish and Social Science to Y5 pupils, and they are also responsible for the year group. In order to protect their identity, study participants were given fictional names. Moreover, because of ethical considerations, the
names of the schools were not used, however to be able to distinguish the schools, their status were used to name them.

In this study, I focused on participants’ choices of teaching activities in Turkish lessons. However, during the interviews my participants also recalled their experiences in both Turkish and Social Science lessons, therefore, I also observed their social science lessons in order to understand my participants’ teaching styles.

To be able to analyse the teachers’ choices, it is important to know the teachers as ‘people’. Teachers reflect their values, beliefs and gender in their teaching (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1994). In this case, it is important to have brief information about the participants’ biographical background as in Table 5.3.

Subsequent to summarising the biographical information of the participants, the structures of the State and Private Schools are identified based on the transcripts derived from the semi-structured interviews and the field notes of April 2007 and of December 2008.

Throughout the chapter, participants’ interview extracts were labelled with ‘I’ and the dates of interviews were referenced alongside participants’ fictional names. In addition, classroom observations were labelled with Research Diary as ‘RD’ and the participants’ numbers were given.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The State Primary School participants</th>
<th>The Private Primary School participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Table 5.3 Participants</strong></td>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr Utopia-1</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms Nurse-2</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrs Joy-3</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrs Love-4</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrs Reason-5</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms Young-6</td>
<td>24 (the youngest participant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrs Life-7</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms Fun-8</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrs Art-9</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrs Experience-10</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male (sole male participant)</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Previous Occupation</strong></td>
<td><strong>Previous Occupation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carpenter</td>
<td>Carpenter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurse</td>
<td>Nurse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural Engineer</td>
<td>Agricultural Engineer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She started as a teacher</td>
<td>She started as a teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She started as a teacher</td>
<td>She started as a teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She started as a teacher</td>
<td>She started as a teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She started as a teacher</td>
<td>She started as a teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She started as a teacher</td>
<td>She started as a teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Degree</strong></td>
<td><strong>Degree</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>Sociology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing, Classroom teaching MA on Special Educational Needs (ongoing)</td>
<td>Teaching Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture Engineering</td>
<td>Teaching Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Degree</td>
<td>Teaching Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Degree</td>
<td>Teaching Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Degree</td>
<td>Teaching Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Degree</td>
<td>Fine Arts and Teaching Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Degree</td>
<td>Fine Arts and Teaching Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching experience (years)</strong></td>
<td><strong>Teaching experience (years)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Role at the School</strong></td>
<td><strong>Role at the School</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y5 classroom teacher</td>
<td>Y5 classroom teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y5 classroom teacher, Head of Year</td>
<td>Y5 classroom teacher, Head of Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y5 classroom teacher</td>
<td>Y5 classroom teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y5 classroom teacher, Head of Year</td>
<td>Y5 classroom teacher, Head of Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y5 classroom teacher</td>
<td>Y5 classroom teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y5 classroom teacher</td>
<td>Y5 classroom teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital Status</strong></td>
<td><strong>Marital Status</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaged</td>
<td>Engaged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Single</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Children</strong></td>
<td><strong>Children</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 sons</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 daughter; she was also pregnant for 5 months.</td>
<td>Pregnant for 5 months.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pregnant for 5 months</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 son</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 son</td>
<td>1 son</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 sons</td>
<td>2 sons</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.3.1 The State Primary School Participants

5.3.1.1 Teacher 1: Mr Utopia

Mr Utopia is active in the teachers’ union (Egitim Sen) and he is the leader of Egitim Sen in the State School. The union is considered to be the leftist union for teachers in Turkey (Egitim-Sen, 2008). Mr Utopia’s active political involvement may be reflected in his teaching style. However, there is some conflict between the educational system and his idealistic views.

In his lessons, although he was asked to use ‘pragmatic’ constructivist teaching activities, he chooses to lead his pupils into various thought processes. Rather than implementing the given activities in the Turkish Guide Book, he chooses to question pupils. Through critical thinking, Mr Utopia believes his pupils can construct ‘real life’ knowledge. Nonetheless, this knowledge is not required by MONE. As a result, he is caught in a dilemma between his teaching style and the requirements of MONE.

Mr Utopia criticises the Turkish Guide Book for delivering capitalist messages. He wants his pupils to question the capitalist views of the text book, and therefore he elicits pupils’ ideas by questioning. Sometimes, in discussions, he allows his pupils to take the lead of the subject. However, they try to remain loyal to the textbook.

Mr Utopia thinks it is important to expand the curriculum requirements but at the same time he agrees with the consistency of teaching nationwide. He clearly believes that it is necessary to have a National Curriculum. Although Mr Utopia wants to teach critical thinking to his pupils, he finds it difficult to create time for it because of the demands of the public examinations.

He does not understand how the educational system allows him to teach in a primary school because he does not consider himself as a teacher.

*I was not educated to be a teacher. I try to understand why they made me a teacher here, and there are thousands of people who are educated to be teachers whom do not work as teachers. Personally, I cannot achieve proper lesson plans. This is something very serious for me, to be able to plan my lessons efficiently. However, I am not*
trained for that. I know the necessity to be able to do my own planning (Mr Utopia/I/10.04.2007).

In the extract above, Mr Utopia reveals his frustration over planning. In a way, Mr Utopia is being slightly sarcastic in his comments because he wants me to be aware of the teachers who are assigned to teach without teaching degrees. Like many of these teachers, Mr Utopia struggles to teach. He uses his intuition in his teaching - therefore it is clearly important to have a nationwide guidebook.

5.3.1.2 Teacher 2: Ms Nurse

Ms Nurse is aware of the weaknesses of the Turkish Guide Book. However, she doesn’t think she can do anything to change this. She follows the requirements of the Turkish Guide Book as much as she can. Occasionally, she brings support materials to the class to facilitate her pupils’ academic improvement. Although she says that she prefers learning-centred activities, in practice; she is a behaviourist in her choices. She considers knowledge construction as ‘making the pupils feel the meaning of something’. According to Ms Nurse, knowledge has to be transmitted therefore she sometimes brings different textbooks with definitions and she wants her pupils to write the definitions down on their notebooks.

When Ms Nurse’s nursing background is considered, her authoritative teaching style may be understood better (RD, 09/04/2007). As the health service cannot tolerate any mistakes, nurses have to be extra careful with their patients. In the classroom settings, teachers should create an environment where pupils are allowed to engage with social experiences. Therefore ‘critical discussions’ should not be considered as being ‘naughty’.

When I conducted focus group interviews with the Y5 pupils, Ms Nurse did not send her pupils and her excuse was that her pupils needed to be punished by not having an interview with me.

Q. Do you have a role model?
I don’t have a role model, but there is an ideal teacher model in my mind and I think I do achieve that model. A teacher should let pupils express themselves in comfort and also allow them to be themselves. I do not want them to be scared of me; I want them
to feel free to explain what they think without hesitation. What I mean is I want to have a student-centred system in which they can say openly if they have not done their homework (Ms Nurse/I/10.04.2007).

According to the extract above, Ms Nurse thinks that when pupils are not scared of her, this is a clear sign of learner-centred teaching. In other words, learning-centred teaching is about pupils’ feeling comfortable in the classroom. In fact, Ms Nurse’s main concern is to not lose classroom control. Her understanding of classroom management is to be authoritative.

According to the classroom observations, Ms Nurse is very authoritarian in her way of teaching. She is rigid in her approach and does not like doing anything that departs from her plan. As a result, she does not allow her pupils to enter a discussion without her control. As previous research on novice and experienced teachers suggests that novice teachers like to follow their plan more closely than experienced teachers (John, 1991, 1993, 2006; Kyriacou, 1998; Osam & Balbay, 2004), this may explain Ms Nurse’s focus on control.

5.3.1.3 Teacher 3: Mrs Joy

Mrs Joy is the Head of Y5 Turkish at the State School. She complains that every teacher in her department wants to work individually. Therefore she finds the Turkish Guide Book useful for standardising their teaching. After transcribing her interview, I realised that Mrs Joy often stated ‘we’ instead of ‘I’ when talking about her classroom experiences. I asked her what she really meant by ‘we’.

I am not aware of using ‘we’, I probably meant the department, and maybe I meant the MONE, because, as teachers, we all use the same curriculum (Mrs Joy/I/30.03.2007).

Mrs Joy likes the new National Curriculum and she thinks it is very useful for pupils’ knowledge construction. She follows all the requirements of the new curriculum. Mrs Joy does not want to lose classroom control but, if the pupils are learning, she lets them take control with her guidance. She explains the new Turkish Guide Book as in the extract below.
We want pupils to use various resources. According to the unit, according to the National Curriculum we are asked to motivate pupils to research. I do not give knowledge to them anymore, I guide them. I tell them that there is a question I want everyone to research, I do not want them to use only computers but also various resources like encyclopaedias, so called live recourses, our brothers, our aunties. We want their ideas as well and also local resources like official associations. And pupils bring us their prepared work as a report. We read it in the classroom and we discuss it, we do not only read the book and learn. Sometimes we have debates, and we reward them. (Mrs Joy/I 30.03.2007)

Mrs Joy tries to motivate pupils to research which she thinks is beneficial for pupils’ learning. Although Mrs Joy follows the Turkish Guide book as much as she can; she has concerns about teaching grammar. She sometimes needs to use the old textbook to ‘teach her pupils’ grammar because she thinks the new Turkish textbook does not cover enough material on grammar.

5.3.1.4 Teacher 4: Mrs Love

Mrs Love thinks that the Turkish Guide Book is helpful in her planning, as it was explained the extract below:

_Q: Do you think it is useful to have a ready template?_

_That is very good because I do not need to do any lesson plans, that is very good. The Teachers’ Guide Book took away all the burden of lesson planning. Of course, the level of the pupils and the school facilities are not equal across the country. However, you can adapt the activities according to your classroom (Mrs Love/I 10.04.07)._  

In her teaching, Mrs Love implements everything the way it was prescribed by the Turkish Guide Book. She finds some weaknesses with the new programme, although she still thinks there is a purpose for every activity. In addition, Mrs Love does not always implement the given activities because of limited time - then she considers’ pupils’ needs and makes her choices accordingly.

Throughout the research, although Mrs Love volunteered to be my participant, she was not cooperative with her explanations. Her answers were limited. This can perhaps be explained
by her attitude towards education and/or her pregnancy. In this case, her educational values are related to her loyalty to the MONE.

5.3.2. The Private Primary School Participants

5.3.2.1 Teacher 5: Mrs Reason

Mrs Reason uses similes to describe teachers as in the extract below:

*A teacher is like a fish in the aquarium; open to every cue and in front of everyone. The best thing about teaching is that pupils drag you to unplanned zones. If you have content knowledge and pedagogic knowledge you follow your pupils, of course the aim of the lesson should not be changed (Mrs Reason/I/ 28.12.2007).*

Mrs Reason is ready to be dragged to different academic zones by her pupils. However, she feels she needs to control her pupils by deciding what is discussed and when.

Mrs Reason has been educated both in Bulgaria and Turkey. She says it has been her privilege to observe and experience different teaching techniques in two different countries. Mrs Reason also compares and synthesizes these two different educational systems. She finds the Bulgarian education system is child-centred and she criticises the Turkish education system for being over-protective of pupils.

She is able to take risks in her classroom. She is a confident teacher with various teaching activities at her disposal. When she is choosing her teaching activities, she employs a range of sources like newspapers, photos, different textbooks, computers etc.

At the Private School, Mrs Reason’s classroom is considered to be the best behaved in the Y5 section. She thinks it may be related to her relationship with her pupils. Mrs Reason creates opportunities for her pupils to construct knowledge but at the same time she does not lose her authority over her pupils. Pupils are in charge of their learning. However, they still need to follow the rules.
Mrs Reason criticises the Turkish Guide Book. Although she does not follow the book entirely, she takes the book as a basis for organising her activities. Mrs Reason also uses some of the texts and analysis questions with her pupils.

Throughout my research, Mrs Reason was pregnant for five months. She did not complain about her pregnancy or the amount of work. She was happy to share the experience with her pupils. On some occasions, her pupils were excited about her pregnancy and the news about the approaching birth, and Mrs Reason did not mind having conversations about it.

Mrs Reason chooses contemporary topics to discuss with her pupils. During my observations, she chose subjects such as earthquakes, an eco-school project, global warming and some newspaper headings to supplement the requirements of the Turkish Guide Book.

5.3.2.2 Teacher 6: Ms Young

Ms Young is a newly trained teacher and therefore she is afraid of losing classroom control in her lessons. Ms Young tries to make her lessons exciting; therefore she uses various classroom activities. Her activities are mainly based on skill improvement like listening, understanding the instructions and so on. She thinks that when her pupils are not entertained in the lessons; they do not want to learn. Therefore she tries to engage them through exciting activities so that (she thinks) she can maintain classroom control.

Experience has taught me that it is good to keep a part of me as a child. If I do not feel the excitement, it becomes a boring routine (Ms Young/I/23.12.2007).

Although she conducts ‘exciting’ activities in order to draw pupils’ attention to a subject, she sometimes struggles to maintain classroom control. It is also clear from the interview extract that Ms Young feels the need to convince pupils to learn.

When you have an argument with them saying and reminding them, you are here to learn, then it would be a lot more difficult for us to teach. They resist more...I always approach them by reminding and motivating them by explaining how important it is for them to have this lesson. I encourage them ‘think carefully and you will find the
Since she is the least experienced teacher among Y5 teachers in the Private School and frequently asks her colleagues for advice on teaching activities. She says she learns about teaching from her colleagues. She believes departmental cooperation is essential for successful teaching and therefore tries to bring new ideas about teaching into their meetings.

5.3.2.3 Teacher 7: Mrs Life

Throughout my observations, Mrs Life was very much focused on the Private Primary School examinations, therefore during the observation period; she was giving revision lessons instead of normal classroom teaching. However, in the interviews, she told me about the activities she implements in her classes.

Her activities are very much related to creative writing. She doesn’t think her pupils are very good at writing, so she and one of her colleagues prepared some activities to tackle the problem. These activities consist of a whole unit. When she was preparing these Power Point activities, she chose the topics according to pupils’ interests. Mrs Life thinks when pupils are not scared of the topic; they find it easier to concentrate. Therefore, her primary concern is the pupils’ interests.

Mrs Life was also very busy with the administration side of the teaching. In light of this, I did not want to disturb her with my endless requests. Therefore, I was not able to observe her lessons as much as I observed the other Y5 teachers.

Throughout my observation of her lessons, Mrs Life was trying to elicit information from the pupils. She asks a question and allows those who raise their hand to respond. It is pupil-centred teaching but Mrs Life wants to remain in control nonetheless. She determines who will talk and what they will talk about. She decides if the answer is enough or not. Pupils give semi-formal answers. If the pupils get carried away, she also controls it. These classroom discussions are very much determined by Mrs Life.
5.3.2.4 Teacher 8: Ms Fun

Ms Fun helped Mrs Life to prepare the creative writing unit. Although the unit is full of pupil-centred activities, Ms Fun wants to control the classroom. Ms Fun’s priority is classroom management. Just after the breaks, she checks her pupils’ course materials and if pupils have not prepared well, she disciplines the pupils by telling them off or giving them detentions. She likes lecturing rather than letting her pupils explore knowledge. She does not want to lose control over her pupils’ and she also clearly wants to be “the boss” in the classroom.

I have tried to be myself as a teacher. Sometimes I get really aggressive and then get calm very easily. I try to be myself in the classroom again. I try to be genuine with my pupils. I therefore have loads of rules, sometimes I do not have enough tolerance (Ms Fun/I/ 26.12.2007).

She does not like using the Guide Book. She thinks the book repeats activities. She likes to prepare her own activities. She focuses on factual information rather than exploring her pupils’ minds with critical thinking. She wants her pupils to learn definitions, descriptions and facts by heart. Therefore Ms Fun tries to give very meaningful examples. In her examples, Ms Fun uses metaphors or similes to explain ‘abstract knowledge’.

Although the creative writing unit is based on pupils’ imaginative sense making abilities, all the activities are controlled by Ms Fun. In some parts of the unit, group work was employed but Ms Fun also tried to control the choices of each group.

5.3.2.5 Teacher 9: Mrs Art

Mrs Art has been teaching for 25 years. She used to teach in different parts of Turkey. In part of her life, she had to give up teaching for political reasons.

In the 80s, my early teaching years, during the civil war, I was into freedom and justice and things like that. I was teaching Year 4 in a very conservative village. I used to tell them about the strikes and all the stuff university students had experienced. We used to do group work and each group named themselves as a
Mrs Art complains about her pupils’ misbehaviour. She says she cannot cope with their behavioural problems. Sometimes she cannot conduct any of the activities that her colleagues do because of ‘discipline’ problems.

Although she has been teaching for 25 years, she finds it very difficult to cope with her new classroom. She does not know what classroom rules to create. When we discussed Mrs Art’s classroom management problems, she felt she needed more support from the management team. In other words, she cannot find a solution to problems in her classroom by herself.

Throughout the classroom observations, Mrs Art struggled to control her pupils. The classroom activities were mainly teacher-centred, and pupils amused themselves by watching the teacher struggle to control them. The more the teacher fought back against their attitude, the more pupils enjoyed themselves, which made the teacher even more desperate. The teacher was not sure how to break this vicious circle. She was not able to do any constructivist activities in which pupils have more authority over their learning. Mrs Art was scared of doing many activities in her classroom because of the pupils’ attitude.

Although Mrs Art does not consider activities in the Turkish Guide Book as interactive activities, she tries to implement them with her pupils nonetheless. However, most of the time, she cannot finish the syllabus and she uses ‘share time’ to finish the activities in the book.

5.3.2.6 Teacher 10: Mrs Experience

Mrs Experience is very flexible in her teaching. If she thinks her pupils will benefit from an activity outside the perimeters of her normal plan, she is happy to adapt work. For example, a day after the earthquake in Ankara, Mrs Experience wanted to talk about the earthquake and natural disasters in general because she wanted to make the lesson topical.
Mrs Experience’s attitude towards her pupils is very warm and caring. She actually treats them as if they are her own children. She cares for an individual child like a mother. At the same time, in the lessons, she creates an atmosphere where her pupils can discuss their opinions freely. Mrs Experience listens to them and then gives them feedback about their opinions.

Mrs Experience finds the Turkish Guide Book inappropriate for her classroom’s needs. Mrs Experience asserts her pupils have different interests from state primary school pupils. They travel the world and they can speak fluent English. Therefore they have different interests.

5.4 Brief Introduction to the State and the Private Primary Schools

The State Primary School is situated in rural Ankara where the new Islamic society is located. However, the Private Primary School is situated in the centre of secular elite. Although both of the schools have been subject to centralisation by MONE, the locations of the schools clearly impact on teachers’ practice. Of particular note were the approaches of the parents to education and their different expectations in terms of the academic achievement of pupils.

The first part of the study was conducted in a rural school in Sincan which is a large district extending to the east of Ankara. Because of its easy access to the capital by means of public transport, it is a popular location for labourers working in Ankara ("Sincan Kaymakamligi ", 2007). The State School is not a fee-paying institution and it is also preferred by locals because of its convenience.

The choice of a primary school in Sincan led to the choice of the other school for direct comparison. In order to understand the strategic choice of the school and its location, Sincan’s political background was thoroughly examined in Chapter 1, pages 5.

The Private Primary School is, of course, funded privately. It is considered to be a profit making agent. On the other hand, because of the reduction in educational expenditure and overpopulation, the State Primary School has suffered a decline in the quality of its educational provision. Crowded classrooms are the main problem. However, the State
Primary School examined in this study is not representative of the average State Primary School in terms of classroom population. The average size of a classroom in the State Primary School is 25 pupils, which can be considered a good number when compared to other state schools.

The Private Primary School catered for middle and upper class pupils. Teachers are employed by the Private Primary School and not the state, and are carefully chosen from a competitive field of applicants. The private school’s ability to offer better pay and working conditions than that which is found in the state sector, allows them to attract the best teachers. My Private Primary School participants all had a degree as a classroom teacher from reputable universities. On the other hand, the State Primary School teachers were considered to be civil servants. They were assigned to work at the State Primary School by MONE. The State Primary School teachers were not necessarily trained as teachers.

There is double shift system in place at the State Primary School. In order to use the facilities effectively, they have morning shifts and afternoon shifts for both pupils and teachers. The double shift system was organised in order to divide over-populated schools into morning and afternoon shifts. The morning group starts school at 7.45 and finishes at 12.45 and the afternoon group starts at 12.45 and finishes at 5.45. It is like two different schools in one body. There are 82 teachers and 1493 pupils. Although the school is over-populated, classrooms are not crowded. On average there are 30 pupils per class; this is not deemed to be overcrowded in Turkey.

The Private School is situated in a fashionable part of Ankara near to a number of new shopping malls. The school is popular among the rich ‘elite’ middle class since it is expensive to enrol at the Private School. Enrolment fee is around £5,000 for Year 5 pupils. Children from all over Ankara study at the school. Pupils have to sit entrance exams before getting being offered a place in the school.

The Private Primary School starts at 8.40 and finishes at 3.40. English is the medium language so pupils receive intensive English classes (10 hours per week). This is clearly in excess of what is provided in state schools. On the other hand, the number of Turkish lessons is the same as in any State School. There are 100 teachers in the Private Primary School. On average there are 14 pupils per class. There is a sufficient number of teachers for each subject.
group. For Turkish lessons, the class is split into two groups. Therefore, in each period a teacher has seven pupils in a classroom, which clearly makes it much easier for the teacher to tackle the individual problems of each pupil.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5.4 Populations of the State and the Private Primary School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>The State Primary School</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1493 pupils (in both morning and afternoon groups)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83 teachers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.5 Factors Influencing Teachers’ Implementations of the Turkish Guide Book

Since every teacher is unique in the way they teach, their decisions are influenced by various unique internal and external factors (Kyriacou, 2007). Although teachers need to follow the prescriptive guide books, they still need to develop their own teaching skills and ideas, instead of delivering the ideas from the teachers’ books (Merry, 2004).

According to the interviews, teachers’ decision making is very much determined by the Turkish Guide Book. Although my participants try to implement the book fully, they find some contradictions between the book and their classroom needs. Each one of my participants has different doubts about the Turkish Guide Book. Some of them try to implement the book the way it is prescribed, but there are nonetheless changes within their lessons according to particular classroom circumstances. In addition to this, some of my participants try to adapt the teaching activities for their unique teaching styles and classroom needs. In this section of the Analysis Chapter, the aim is to focus on what the teachers’ concerns are about the Turkish guide book on the basis of teachers’ knowledge (Kyriacou, 2007).

Teachers’ thinking is related to teachers’ knowledge (Kyriacou, 2007). Therefore this section of the analysis chapter uses the seven knowledge criteria of Kyriacou (2007):

- Knowledge about content
- Knowledge about broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organisation
• Knowledge about curriculum materials and programmes
• Knowledge about teaching of particular content topics
• Knowledge about pupils
• Knowledge about educational contexts, ranging from classroom groups to aspects of the community
• Knowledge about educational aims and values (Kyriacou, 2007, p. 3)

However, they are all inter-related. In this section, my participants’ doubts about the Turkish Guidebook are categorised with only four of the criteria. As each knowledge criteria overlaps, knowledge about educational contexts, ranging from classroom groups to aspects of the community, knowledge about educational aims and values, knowledge about broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organisation may be covered by the other four knowledge criteria. Therefore these four knowledge criteria were not used in this study. In addition, sub-criteria also emerged from the teachers’ interviews.

Table 5.5 Teachers' knowledge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ Knowledge of Content</th>
<th>Teachers’ Knowledge of Pupils</th>
<th>Teachers’ Knowledge of Teaching Particular Content Topics</th>
<th>Teachers’ Knowledge about Curriculum Materials and Programmes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unsuitable hidden political messages (Mr Utopia)</td>
<td>Mismatch with the national examinations (Mr Utopia, Ms Nurse)</td>
<td>Mismatch with pupils academic needs (Mrs Love, Ms Nurse, Mrs Joy, Mrs Life, Mrs Art, Ms Fun, Ms Young, Mrs Reason)</td>
<td>Activity issues (Mr Utopia, Mrs Joy, Mrs Experience, Mrs Reason, Ms Young, Ms Fun, Mrs Art)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentimental exaggerations (Mrs Reason)</td>
<td>Mismatch with society’s needs (Mr Utopia, Mrs Joy)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.5.1 Teachers’ Knowledge of Content

The Turkish Guide Book prescribes various ways of teaching. However, teachers’ teaching styles do not always reflect the Turkish Guide Book according to the classroom observations I have made. In a Turkish context, teachers are asked to use the Turkish Guide Book in their Turkish lessons. However, Mr Utopia (Teacher 1) is not convinced about certain aspects of
the book. Therefore he questions the book through observing his own children’s cognitive development. However, both the State and the Private Primary School Turkish Y5 teachers agree on the weaknesses of the content and the activity choice of the Turkish Guide Book for various reasons.

5.5.1.1 Unsuitable Hidden Political Messages

Mr Utopia (Teacher 1) was the only participant who mentioned the political messages of the textbook. Mr Utopia is interested in the political messages of the textbook rather than its set activities.

*There is this idea emphasized in the text that ‘everybody is paid equally these days’. That message is far beyond the idea of justice; the text says, ‘The person who digs the ground more, earns more; the person who digs the ground less, earns less’. It may sound fair. However, do we know the power of these people? Maybe the person, who is digging less, has more power. We do not judge the quality of the work; we judge the quantity of it. Now our pupils learn this as a phenomenal truth. That is what Capitalism wants us to believe. In the text, the guy says, ‘Mate, I worked harder, therefore I should get more money.’ This is what this text is trying to teach - it is nothing to do with Mimar Sinan’s beautiful architectures, the idea of justice or the sultan’s fair attitude to workers (Mr Utopia/I/04.03.2007).*

Mr Utopia studies the textbook in-depth and underlines the ‘set messages’. His instructional decision making is related to his knowledge about content and his ideological beliefs. In this particular case, Mr Utopia is also aware of teaching the curriculum and its specific purpose. However, his interpretation of the text undermines its implied objectives. Mr Utopia’s criticism may be influenced by his political background and also his active involvement with the leftist teacher union. He can pick up capitalist messages (as he calls them) in the text which may not have been intentionally created by MONE. However, according to the lesson observations, he drew pupils’ attention to the principles of ‘fair work’ rather than what the ‘set activities require of him as a teacher.’ Although the aims of the activities were related to famous Art works in Turkey (Goren et al., 2005, p. 77), Mr Utopia focused on the ‘hidden messages’. Moreover, he explicitly taught his pupils about these contradictory messages in the textbook.
In our classrooms, we have activities like looking at the positive and negative sides of advertisements. There are statements like, ‘I create it and then sell it.’ This is in the 5th year curriculum. We have to teach things like that. Is there anything like that in England? I am sure they do not have it because capitalism is more settled there. Our capitalism is different - it is dependent on foreign countries. Why don’t we use words like ‘communal, cooperative etc?’ (Mr Utopia/I/ 04.03.2007)

One could easily say that Mr Utopia has allowed his teaching style to be influenced by his ideologies. Thus, he analyzes the textbook from his ideological point of view. Since in a Turkish context curriculum objectives and targets are set by the policy makers (Karakaya, 2004), teachers are only left with the freedom of interpreting the texts from their own perspectives. In Mr Utopia’s case, it is his ideological beliefs that influence his teaching. This is also related to Petty’s (2009) fundamental values and beliefs categorisation of the item, psychological and philosophical beliefs of teachers.

Mr Utopia considers some of the hidden messages in the Turkish Guide Book as dangerous:

These hidden messages are the main dangers of the curriculum. I remember last term we had things like, ‘gender inequalities’. There is a picture in which a mum carries a tray full of tea glasses, a dad is reading his newspaper and the daughter is playing with her baby doll. This picture portrays unequal ways of spreading the roles of family members. You cannot tell the pupils to tell their mothers to stop being a slave, get your freedom from your husband. We do not have anything like that in the curriculum. Maybe they do not understand anything from the picture. Slowly you can influence the child by seating them together; a girl next to a boy, let them conduct their activities together and try to minimize the inequality between them. We have this flexibility. But in lessons, the law says this is the text and you can support this with any activity. Nobody can say anything about the activities we use. This is up to our own teaching skills. (Mr Utopia/I/ 04/03/2007)

Mr Utopia interprets and implements the textbook the way he understands it in the context of actually teaching it. Although the National Curriculum is meant to standardise teaching, teachers’ interpretations can differ (Kyriacou, 2007, 2009). Mr Utopia interprets the family
picture as an imposing message of a male dominant society where the mum is portrayed as a servant who is dominated by a patriarchal society.

5.5.1.2 Sentimental Exaggerations

In addition to Mr Utopia’s (Teacher 1) criticisms of the Turkish Guide Book, Mrs Reason (Teacher 5) pinpoints the exaggerated use of sentimental values in text books. Mrs Reason used a similar technique to stimulate pupils’ thinking. In a way, she tries to ‘encourage high-level cognition and problem solving’ in her class (Kerry & Wilding, 2004, p. 105)

For example, today we are going to read about earthquakes. They are all exaggerated, very sentimental stories for my pupils. I always say to them, ‘Let’s find the exaggerated terms used in the story’. I know there is not an activity like that in the text book. Or sometimes I ask them why they have such exaggerated terms in the text? What are the authors trying to do? I teach them to see the text from a different point of view. When they start thinking that there is also a message beyond what is written, they relax. They start enjoying it (the lesson) more. (Mrs Reason, /I/28.12.2007)

Mrs Reason employed questioning skills in order to encourage pupils to analyze, to reason and to evaluate the text. The question ‘why do you think the author used such exaggerated terms?’ is considered to be a higher-order task involving an open question (Kerry & Wilding, 2004, p. 106). These type of questions help pupils to improve their higher-order cognitive skills (Kerry & Wilding, 2004; Kyriacou, 1998, 2007).

On this occasion, both Mrs Reason and Mr Utopia found and analyzed the hidden massages underlined in the prescriptive texts. They make their decisions regarding their teaching in the light of the given texts and their bias. They are determined to use the given texts by MONE, but they actually use the text to make pupils question the hidden messages of the textbook. In other words, both Mr Utopia and Mrs Reason used the flexibility of the National Curriculum requirements in their understanding of the content. Mr Utopia makes his decisions on the basis of his ideologies and he wants to impose his own beliefs on his own pupils.
5.5.2 Knowledge of Pupils

5.5.2.1 Mismatch with the National Examinations

Mr Utopia (Teacher 1) mentioned the disparity between the ‘progressive teaching and the Turkish Educational System’. Mr Utopia gave an example from his family in order to explain his dilemma between his ideal teaching style and the requirements. Moreover, Mr Utopia thinks that his way is not the way to prepare pupils for the future. Although he does not agree with the National Examinations, he has to prepare his pupils for these examinations in order to ‘secure a good future’.

...my ideologies do not work in this system. My daughter, for example, has won a place in Bolu Science School. As a parent I had an attitude, which I do not agree with, I pushed her to do her best in the exams. This shows my acceptance of the system. We also became a tool of the system. Now she wants to have a place in Middle East Technical University. She needs to get into the same marathon for the university exams. We accept the situation without questioning the system. We bring up ‘racing horses’, running from dersanes (private classes) to exams. This acceptance also brought the idea of ‘kismet’. This is the defeatist attitude of the society. If you can recite ‘Amentu pary’ (one of the prayers in Koran), you are safe. It means you dedicate yourself to God and accept each situation the way it is without questioning it. This situation increased with the leadership of the Justice and Development party (AKP). (Mr Utopia/I/10.04.07)

This shows Mr Utopia’s acceptance of the competitive educational system in Turkey, where a pupil needs to take summative examinations in order to attend a good high school which also has a high pass rate in the exceptionally competitive university entrance examination. Thus, it is essential to be accepted into an exceptionally good high school. Therefore, if pupils are to access universities, teachers need to prepare their pupils for these knowledge based exams rather than teaching ideologies. Preparing pupils for the exams is not part of the National Curriculum. However, teachers feel they are obliged to prepare their pupils for the exams (Demir & Yapici, 2007). This is Mr Utopia’s dilemma; although he does not believe in the educational system, he knows this is the only way for his pupils to have a successful future.
5.5.2.2 Mismatch with Society’s Needs

Mrs Joy (Teacher 3) also points out parents’ lack of interest in education because of their religious acceptance.

There is not much support from the parents. They do not really support education. There are special improvement courses and private dershanes. They do not send their children to these courses. I tell them to send their children to overcome their test anxiety. There are performance projects. It used to be 3 written and 1 oral examination. Now, instead of this system, we have performance projects. When a pupil does homework, they have to use computers, but often they do not have computers or the pupils want to go to the internet cafe to do their work and parents do not let them. Sometimes, pupils need to do group work but again parents do not let them go to a place they do not know. They keep their traditions as priority. They are very religious around here; there are some religious pressures on them. I want to help the pupils, but parents do not see the necessity of improving their children academically. They think ‘my children receive enough religious education; they do not need anything more than that’. Therefore students are confused and pressurized by their parents. I really struggle to change their attitude but I cannot do much about it. (Mrs Joy/I/, 30.03.2007)

Mrs Joy sees parents’ attitude as a handicap for pupils’ academic performance. According to the new program, pupils need to work with their peers on their performance projects; therefore parents’ support of the new programme is necessary. However, parents do not agree with group projects where their children mix with other pupils. In addition, some parents’ primary concern is religious education. Both Mrs Joy and Mr Utopia see parents’ religious understanding as a problem for pupils’ academic future.

Parents’ views of religion lead them to accept their circumstances (kismet) - therefore they do not question their rights. This defeatist attitude of the parents clashes with the new program which aims to bring up pupils who are confident and analytical (MONE, 2005a).
As the Turkish Republic is based on secular grounds, religious education does not have an immense impact on the national examinations (MONE, 2004b). The Year 5 Social Science syllabus cover only a small part of religious culture and moral values subjects (MONE, 2004b). Parents’ expectations of the education system is clearly affected by religion and is not surprising when the ‘re-islamification’ of Turkish society is considered (Rankin & Aytac, 2008). However, both Mr Utopia and Mrs Joy see parents’ Islamic expectations as a threat to pupils’ futures. The extracts above reflect the conflict between ‘the new Islamic society and the elitist seculars’ in Turkey, which has already been discussed in the Introduction Chapter.

5.5.3 Knowledge about the Teaching of Particular Content Topics

5.5.3.1 Mismatch with Pupils’ Academic Needs

Mrs Art (Teacher 9), Ms Fun (Teacher 8) and Ms Nurse (Teacher 2) complain about their pupils’ writing level. Therefore they want to focus more on writing activities than speaking activities. Conversely, in the Turkish Guide Book, there are not enough writing activities. As a result, they feel the need to add some more writing activities into their teaching.

Mrs Art criticizes the time schedule of the Turkish Guide Book and claims that there is not enough time for writing. Consequently, Mrs Art has made some changes within her department.

> When we do certain activities, we do not have enough time for writing, because those activities fill up our lesson time. Our pupils are good at talking but when they come to writing they really struggle. Therefore, as a school, we do different things instead of MONE’s requirements. We try to eliminate some activities and focus more on the writing activities. This is what we do as a department. (Mrs Art/I/ 02.01.2008)

Ms Nurse also complains about the lack of instruction as regards to writing in the Turkish Guide Book. However, she doesn’t conduct extra activities to improve pupils’ writing.

> They are really good at expressing themselves orally. However, they are really weak in writing; they cannot express themselves in writing. There is’nt any knowledge of writing in the text book; we do not teach them how to write or any writing skills. In the curriculum they want them to write essays. However, they do not make any
provision for that. Therefore our pupils do not know how to write an essay. They do not know what a topic sentence or a thesis statement are. The curriculum says that pupils should write individualistic essays but pupils do not know any rules of writing. Sometimes they write something no longer than 2 lines and give them to me as essays. Some of the pupils tell me that they have completely expressed themselves in 2 lines. At the end of the day, an essay should be longer than 2 lines; there must be at least an introduction, main body and a conclusion. They do not know about that so I cannot blame them. We need to have at least a session about planning. Essay writing should be taught in detail. Okay we understand that pupils need to express themselves but how they express themselves is not given sufficient emphasis. (Ms Nurse/I/05.04.2007)

Ms Fun also complains about her pupils’ weaknesses in writing. Therefore she chooses to add extra activities to improve their writing skills.

We knew that our pupils have some difficulty in writing so our aim was to make sure that our pupils could overcome this fear. If we ask them to write an essay, they get really tense. They start negotiating with me, asking if 2 lines are enough, 3 lines and stuff like that. They really dislike writing. We need to make them write without them feeling the pressure. They both need to have fun and write at the same time. (Ms Fun/I/28.12.2007)

According to the interviews, Mrs Love (Teacher 4), Ms Nurse (Teacher 2), Ms Young (Teacher 6) and Mrs Joy (Teacher 3) compare the previous programmes with the new way of teaching grammar.

In previous years, we used to have grammar. We had activities about the meanings of adjectives; we used to work on these adjectives. Now the priority is to make pupils feel it. We can give adjectives but we do not use the target language, we do not have activities which are based on finding the adjectives - basically we do not get into details. This term we had only adjectives and punctuation marks. In future, they will have more grammar so that they will make up for their lack of knowledge. (Mrs Love/I/07.04.2007).
Mrs Love uses the term ‘make pupils feel it’ which she uses to refer to constructivist teaching methods. However, she is not satisfied with the new way of teaching because she does not feel like she is ‘giving knowledge’ (knowledge transmission).

Ms Nurse shares the same problem with Mrs Love:

\[
\text{However, as I have said before there, is not enough grammar knowledge. From grammatical perspectives, there is not enough knowledge. It aims to teach them (Pupils) in an abstract way. I like this way but it does not match with their (MONE’s) questioning style. Because questions in the tests are very much knowledge based. For example, we try to make them sense the meaning and use of adjectives and we explain it as ‘a word which defines the noun.’ But you never use the term adjective. However, in OKS examinations, they ask things like, “Which one of these words is an adjective?” Therefore we struggle between these two styles. I believe the new curriculum (textbook) is not enough for the children’s development and the examination system is wrong. It is not for me to decide what to change. I am the follower. When I compare things to the previous curriculum, it is better this way, however there are things in this curriculum that you cannot implement in the classroom. Some of it does not match with the reality of the classroom and I have to make some changes (Ms Nurse/I/05.04.2007).}
\]

According to Ms Nurse, teaching means knowledge transmission. She defines progressive teaching styles (constructivist teaching) as ‘an abstract way of teaching’. Although she likes this new style of teaching, she does not agree with the inconsistency between the public examinations and the prescribed teaching methods. The extract above is also related to the subtitle of ‘Mismatch with the National Examinations’. As the National Examinations consisted of knowledge based questions, in the Turkish section of the examination, grammar was the main concern for teachers.

Ms Young is not happy about lack of grammar ‘knowledge’ in the Turkish Guide Book. However, she tries to add some activities to build her pupils’ knowledge. Throughout my observations in the Private School, there were evaluation examinations within all of the branches of the school. The questions were summative multiple choice. All of my participants were preparing their pupils for the exams. For that reason they did not have any
doubts when teaching grammar because they were teaching grammar the way they wanted to teach it i.e. traditionally.

Ms Young briefly explains the problem as:

*The Turkish guide book is not enough, especially for grammar.* (Ms Young/I/24.12.2007)

Mrs Joy is also concerned about the grammar activities in the book. However, she tries to inform her pupils, as she explains below:

*I try to give them more grammar, especially sentence structures, punctuation etc. The Teachers’ Guide Book wants us to focus on particular subjects - for example, the exclamation mark, and the book does not want us to repeat it over and over again. But sometimes I have to warn pupils when we are writing something. I need to correct them, for example, I remind them that we start the sentence with a capital letter. They forget to do it. Of course, these types of corrections take time and that make us change the plan.* (Mrs Joy/I/30.03.2007)

Mrs Joy considers grammar as a whole. She tries to expand on the textbook when it is necessary.

Mrs Reason’s (Teacher 5) concern is about the selection of the texts in Turkish text book. She doesn’t think the texts were chosen according to the pupils’ level.

*There is a text taken from the novel called “Calikusu” by Resat Nuri Guntekin. It is a very good novel. However, they have abridged the novel which is very strange and there are also mistakes in the reduced text. In addition, as a novel, (Calikusu) it is not suitable for the level of my pupils. This is a novel that should be read in middle school without abridging it. When we do that text, I always tell them that they should read this novel when they are at the middle school from the original source rather than reading it in Year 5. I really do not like reduced texts used for TV dramas either. You lose the meaning when you change it from the original material. You can find some quite different messages in those original books…* (Mrs Reason/I/28.12.2007)
Mrs Reason thinks some of the given texts are not appropriate to the level of her pupils. This is related to knowledge about pupils’ academic level as well as knowledge about content. Mrs Reason knows the novel and, therefore, she can make the decision that it is not appropriate for her pupils’ level. However, she feels the need to follow the timetable of the Turkish Guide Book. As Mrs Reason mentions above, she chose to teach the given text. However, she warns her pupils to read the original version of the text when they are older.

Mrs Life (Teacher 7) finds it necessary to have some warm up activities in order to prepare her pupils for a unit. However, Mrs Life thinks, the Turkish Guide Book does not offer any support materials. Mrs Life explains this situation below:

**Q. What is missing in the book?**

*Again it is related to the limitations of the book. Before delivering a subject, it should prepare pupils for the subject. There can be some bits missing related to the subject. For example, we are going to teach Ataturk’s targets, but the pupils do not know anything about the war of independence, the Canakkale war, or we are going to introduce our region but they do not know where Turkey is in the world map and we really need to support this missing background knowledge first. (Mrs Life/I/04.01.2008)*

For Mrs Life it is important to recall pupils’ prior knowledge before starting a unit. However, Mrs Life thinks that the Turkish Guide Book does not support some of the chosen subjects with background knowledge. For that reason Mrs Life supplements a unit from different sources. Thus, Mrs Life begins with various warm up activities before starting a unit.

### 5.5.4 Knowledge about Curriculum Materials and Programmes

#### 5.5.4.1 Teachers’ Activity Issues

Although Mr Utopia (Teacher 1) does not like group work, the seating arrangement of his class was organized for group work activities. He explains this arrangement as an obligation of MONE. Mr Utopia reveals his reluctance to employ group work in his classroom. His concern is related to pupils’ future once again.
Q: **Why are you against group work?**

*Competitive Capitalism supports this. In this system people who can compete, can survive. This is Darwin’s theory of the survival of the fittest – a dog eat dog world. I am against this idea.*

*At the same time, group work is represented as team work. It is like ‘The Survivor’. [This is a TV reality program where teams work together but at the end of the week a member of the team is evicted by the rest of the team members]. This is not very inclusive - it always excludes the ‘bad one’. ‘A stronger being has a right to discard the weaker one’. ‘Survival of the fittest’ is a capitalist way of thinking. Mengelsen’s photo, ‘little fish around sharks’. The message is that you can survive without eating others. Social solidarity is better - I do not like groups competing. This competition is then accepted by the society. I have this dilemma that I know this is what waits for them (his pupils) in life so I believe I should also teach them rivalry. However, I do not believe it myself. (Mr Utopia/I/ 10.04.2007)*

Mr Utopia is in a dilemma between prescriptive teaching styles and his ideologies in this extract as well. He criticizes group work and he does not want to use these types of activities in his classroom because of his pedagogical beliefs. His analogy of group work as ‘capitalist competition’ is very striking, but at the same time he argues that it is important to prepare pupils for their competitive futures.

On the other hand, Mrs Joy (Teacher 3) uses group work and finds it useful.

**Q: How do you reward pupils?**

*Instead of giving expensive gifts, I try to reward them with grades. Recently, we had a debate about the pros and cons of technology. I told them that the losing team should cook for the winning team (they love eating together), and I added; ‘You are going to have 15 minutes of party and celebrate the success of the winning team.’ it was very good! Let’s do it again,’ the pupils said. We have had debates in the past but they were not as enthusiastic as this one.*

**Q: Was it the reward that made them enthusiastic?**
That's one of the reasons obviously, but I think doing something together as a team made them happy. Sharing something is their motivation and winning something at the end is very important. (Mrs Joy/I/30.03.2007)

Mrs Joy considers her pupils’ enthusiasm as very important when making pedagogical choices - her primary concern therefore is pupils’ motivation. She employs group work in order to motivate her pupils. Mrs Joy is aware of the fact that her pupils enjoy being rewarded. Thus, group work is used frequently and her pupils are regularly rewarded. For example, they have a party for 15 minutes after the group discussions. In her interview, Mrs Joy did not mention pupils’ construction of knowledge through interaction. However, pupils’ enthusiasm is clearly her principal consideration when choosing group work activities.

Mrs Art (Teacher 9) does not consider any activities in the Turkish Guide Book to be teaching activities. For Mrs Art, activities listed in the book are more suitably regarded as comprehension questions. Her definition of student-centred teaching is a lesson full of multi-sensory activities. Therefore, she prepares different interactive activities with her department. Although Mrs Art tries to implement the book, she also prepares different activities for her classroom. In the Private School, teaching activities are prepared within the department. Since Y5 Turkish teachers in the Private Primary School divide their tutor group into two sections, they are able to have more time to implement various activities in each classroom.

This programme is new; we have been conducting this programme for 3 years. Under the headlines of activities, what is provided are not actually activities. What I understand from the term teaching activity is a form of interactive teaching. In other words, pupils’ actively contribute to the lesson. However, in the book, it asks questions about the theme of the text or the topic of the text and they call this an activity. I think it is a problem of terminology. The book mainly focuses on the visuals of it, to comprehend the text through the pictures or understanding the text through words. Another thing is, we read the first paragraph and then guessing the second paragraph is the other question. This is what they call an activity (Mrs Art/I/02.01.2008).

Mrs Life (Teacher 7), Ms Young (Teacher 6), Mrs Experience (Teacher 10), Ms Fun (Teacher 8) and Mrs Reason (Teacher 5) do not want to implement the activities in the
Turkish Guide Book because they were asked to employ the same sort of activities in each unit. They think that repeating similar activities would not help them to keep pupils’ interest; therefore they have to renew the classroom activities. As a department, before each unit, they get together and discuss the activities. If they do not find a particular activity useful for the improvement of their pupils, then they prepare different activities.

**Q. Is there anything that you would delete from the book?**

In the Turkish guide book there are lots of parts we did not implement. This is because some of the activities are repeated a lot. They do not give anything to our pupils. (Mrs Life/I/04.01.2008)

According to Mrs Life, repeating the same sort of activities would not benefit her pupils academically. There should be various activities according to pupils’ needs.

Both Ms Young and Ms Fun reveal their doubts about pupils’ satisfaction. Their prior concern is related to pupils’ interests.

I can easily tell you that my pupils dislike the Turkish book. They analyzed the book at home. They came to me and said, “The activity in this page is the same as in the other page; they should have at least changed the colour of this page.” Activities are always about guessing the end of the story. We try to implement the book... We always do the reading part and I always try to finish the given activities. However, my pupils start complaining about the set activities in the book and they resist learning. Therefore, I continue the same topic with different activities. We research quality books for our pupils’ interests. It is actually very difficult to find a book for our pupils. They are not like pupils in State schools, and our pupils experience a lot - therefore it is difficult to find an activity to keep their attention. (Ms Young/I/24.12.2007)

Ms Young and her pupils dislike the repetition of the activities in the Turkish Guide Book. However, Ms Young keeps implementing the book as much as she can. She is also caught in a dilemma. She is torn between her pupils’ contentment and the Prescriptive Guide Book. She is scared of losing her pupil’s interest during her lessons and consequently she feels that she is obliged to conduct interesting activities.
Ms Fun shows her concern for pupils’ contentment as well.

**Q: Do you have any problems implementing the Turkish Guide Book?**

*Of course I have problems. When the topic is not interesting for the pupils, then I have problems with pupils.* (Ms Fun/I/28.12.2007)

Mrs Experience reveals her doubts about the organization of the Turkish Guide Book. The questions of ‘guessing the end of the story’ are situated just after the comprehension questions (Goren et al., 2005). In view of this, Mrs Experience does not find it necessary to implement all the activities.

**Q. Could you give me some examples of the activities which do not match the objectives?**

*Mainly in the Turkish classes we have some problems with the book. There are a lot of repetitions of the activities. Most of the activities are related to guessing: guessing the end of the story, guessing the meaning of the word and stuff like that. These repetitions are not necessary in our lessons. Trying to guess-the-topic of the text type of activities are situated after we have done all the comprehension questions so it does not make any sense. We read the text, do some comprehension questions and then there is an activity that asks pupils to guess the end of the story. We do not do these type of activities. We always skip them. I do not find it necessary to do them over and over again.* (Mrs Experience/I/03.01.2008)

Ms Fun also thinks that some of the activities are repeated in every unit and so she does not implement all of the given activities. In addition, she does not find the activities useful for her pupils; for that reason, she prepares different activities with her department.

**Q: Do you use the book?**

*Yeah, but the activities are really bad in the book. The texts are OK but activities are not enough. They repeat the same activity. To guess the end of the story, to guess the middle of the story - these activities are very out of fashion and in each unit they have the same activities, repeated one after another. We do not do the activities. If we think they are not suitable for us, if we think that they are not going to give anything to our
For Mrs Reason, the qualities of the activities are also very important. Although she acknowledges the repetition of the activities, she will implement them if she thinks they are beneficial for her class. In other words, she is interested in pupils’ academic improvement rather than their entertainment.

_Sometimes if I think my class has done enough on the topic, I skip the activities given in the book. I do not want to repeat the same sort of activities over and over again. But sometimes I prefer doing the activities. To be honest, it depends on the quality of the activity, quality is very important in education. It also depends on the needs of my classroom - if I think that my class needs to do these activities in the book, I do them. In terms of this point, I could easily criticise the book. Even my pupils criticise the book as well._ (Mrs Reason/I/ 28.12.2007)

5.6 Chapter Summary

The Chapter has been divided into four sections. The first section briefly analyzed the Turkish Guide Book, with reference to its structure. It was also demonstrated how the Guide Book promotes learning and teaching.

The second section discussed participants’ beliefs and values of teaching and learning and the section served as an introduction of the participants. The third section was about the State and the Private Primary Schools, giving a brief introduction to research context.

The fourth section looked at the factors which influence teachers’ interpretations and their implementations of the Turkish Guide Book. There are four overlapping knowledge criteria influencing teachers’ interpretations and the implementations of the Turkish Guide Book. Teachers’ knowledge of content, knowledge of pupils, knowledge about the teaching of particular content topics and knowledge about curriculum materials and programmes are the main criteria which influence participants’ interpretations and the implementations. Mr Utopia’s (Teacher 1) main concern is about the hidden political messages of the Turkish Guide Book, and he elicits and questions pupils accordingly. In addition, Mr Utopia and Mrs
Joy (Teacher 3) have a dilemma between the requirements of the Turkish Guide Book and the needs of the society. Mrs Art (Teacher 9) and Ms Fun (Teacher 8) complain about the weaknesses of writing and grammar activities in the Turkish Guide Book, for which they try to compensate through conducting additional activities obtained from different sources. However, Ms Nurse (Teacher 2) does not do much to change the set activities. Mrs Life (Teacher 7), Ms Young (Teacher 6), Mrs Experience (Teacher 10), Ms Fun (Teacher 8) and Mrs Reason (Teacher 5) show concern about the repetitiveness of the activities in the Turkish Guide Book.
CHAPTER 6: TEACHERS’ CHOICES OF CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES AND SPATIALITY IN SCHOOLS

6.1 Introduction

The first section of this chapter addresses the factors which influence teachers’ choices of the classroom activities. The second section focuses on the teachers’ classroom activities. The aim of the third section is to illustrate the ways in which Private and State Primary Schools’ use space to manifest power control in their teaching. This section examines the structure and the impact of the school and the classroom spaces on teachers’ classroom behaviour. In addition, there is a comparison of the Private and the State Schools, made according to their particular structural and architectural features. While focusing on the schools, Foucault’s (1977) ideas of ‘modern power and discipline’ are used to build the foundation of the analysis.

6.2 The factors influencing teachers’ choices of classroom activities

In this section I only include certain lessons which I consider to be typical examples. According to interview transcripts and the observation field notes; teachers’ regular classroom behaviour was identified and deemed to be typical of their teaching. In this section, the typical examples were presented to demonstrate teachers’ classroom activities. Table 6-1 provides details of the classes observed in the State School. During the observation period in the State School, teachers did not conduct any activities outside the Turkish Guide Book. On the other hand, the Private Primary School teachers conducted various activities along with preparing pupils for the multiple choice exams as in Table 6.2. The lessons which are analysed in this section are marked with a star (*) on both Tables 6.1 and 6.2.
10 lessons, Ms Nurse; 10 lessons, Mr Utopia; 12 lessons, Mrs Love; 10 lessons, Mrs Joy = 42 lessons in total

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.50-8.30</td>
<td>Ms Nurse “The Voice of the Flag”</td>
<td>Mrs Love “The Voice of the Flag”</td>
<td>Mr Utopia “Mimar Sinan Miniaturk”</td>
<td>Mr Utopia Mimar Sinan “Miniaturk”</td>
<td>Mr Utopia Mimar Sinan “Miniaturk”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.30-9.30</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.40-10.20</td>
<td>Ms Nurse “The Voice of the Flag”</td>
<td>Mrs Love “The Voice of the Flag”</td>
<td>Ms Nurse “The Voice of the Flag”</td>
<td>Mr Utopia “Mimar Sinan Miniaturk”</td>
<td>Mr Utopia Mimar Sinan “Miniaturk”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.30-11.10</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.20-12.00</td>
<td>Mrs Joy “The Voice of the Flag”</td>
<td>Mrs Love “The Voice of the Flag”</td>
<td>Mrs Joy “The Voice of the Flag”</td>
<td>Mrs Love “The Voice of the Flag”</td>
<td>Mrs Joy “The Voice of the Flag”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.10-12.50</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.00-13.40</td>
<td>Mrs Love “The Voice of the Flag”</td>
<td>Mrs Love “The Voice of the Flag”</td>
<td>Mrs Love “The Voice of the Flag”</td>
<td>Mrs Love “The Voice of the Flag”</td>
<td>Mrs Joy “The Voice of the Flag”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
<td>“Nasrettin Hoca’s Sunglasses”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.1: State Primary School Classroom Observation Schedule
### Table 6.2 Private Primary School Classroom Observation Schedule

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sharing</strong></td>
<td>Mrs Life</td>
<td>Ms Young</td>
<td>Ms fun</td>
<td>Mrs Reason</td>
<td>Mrs Experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>period</strong></td>
<td>Sharing period</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>8.45-09.05</strong></td>
<td>8.45-09.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Period 1</strong></td>
<td>Mrs Life Exam</td>
<td>Ms Young Exam</td>
<td>Ms fun Exam</td>
<td>Mrs Reason Exam</td>
<td>Mrs Experience Exam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>09.10-10.05</strong></td>
<td>preparation</td>
<td>writing activities</td>
<td>exam preparation</td>
<td>revision</td>
<td>preparations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Period 2</strong></td>
<td>Mrs Life Exam</td>
<td>Ms Young Exam</td>
<td>Ms fun Exam</td>
<td>Mrs Reason</td>
<td>Mrs Experience Exam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>10.05-10.45</strong></td>
<td>preparation</td>
<td>writing activities</td>
<td>exam preparation</td>
<td></td>
<td>preparations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Period 3</strong></td>
<td>Mrs Life Exam</td>
<td>Ms Young Exam</td>
<td>Ms fun Exam</td>
<td>Mrs Reason</td>
<td>Mrs Experience Exam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>10.55-11.35</strong></td>
<td>preparation</td>
<td>writing activities</td>
<td>exam preparation</td>
<td></td>
<td>preparations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Period 4</strong></td>
<td>Mrs Life Exam</td>
<td>Ms Young Exam</td>
<td>Ms fun Exam</td>
<td>Mrs Reason</td>
<td>Mrs Experience Exam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>12.25-13.05</strong></td>
<td>preparation</td>
<td>writing activities</td>
<td>exam preparation</td>
<td></td>
<td>preparations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td>Mrs Experience</td>
<td>Mrs Experience</td>
<td>Mrs Life</td>
<td>Mrs Reason</td>
<td>Mrs Reason</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td>Exam preparations</td>
<td>Exam preparations</td>
<td>Writing activity</td>
<td></td>
<td>Library club</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Period 6</strong></td>
<td>Mrs Experience</td>
<td>Mrs Experience</td>
<td>Mrs Life</td>
<td>Mrs Reason</td>
<td>Mrs Reason</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>14.10-14.50</strong></td>
<td>Exam preparations</td>
<td>Exam preparations</td>
<td>Writing activity</td>
<td></td>
<td>Library Club</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Period 7</strong></td>
<td>Mrs Experience</td>
<td>Mrs Experience</td>
<td>Mrs Life</td>
<td>Mrs Reason</td>
<td>Mrs Reason</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>15.00-15.40</strong></td>
<td>Exam preparations</td>
<td>Exam preparations</td>
<td>Writing activity</td>
<td></td>
<td>Library Club</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mrs Life, 8 lessons; Ms Fun, 9 lessons; Mrs Experience, 6 lessons; Ms Young 10 lessons; Mrs Art, 12 lessons; Mrs Reason, 12 lessons = 57 lessons in total
The aim of this section is to identify the factors which influence teachers’ choices of classroom activities. Although in both the State and the Private schools, Y5 teachers were prescribed the Turkish Guide Book to implement, there were a variety of factors which influenced teachers’ choices of classroom practices. According to the interview transcripts and the observation field notes, the main factors influencing teachers’ choices of classroom activities were the national exams, pupils’ academic needs and the textbook requirements. Table 6.3 presents the factors alongside teachers’ choices of classroom activities, which are also described and discussed in this section.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preparation of national exams</th>
<th>Pupils’ academic Needs</th>
<th>Turkish Guide Book requirements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Mrs Life, Ms Fun, Ms Young, Mrs Reason)</td>
<td>Improving writing skills (Mrs Art, Mrs Reason, Ms Young, Ms Fun)</td>
<td>Instruction based activities (Mrs Joy, Ms Nurse)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving pupils’ multiple intelligences (Mrs Life)</td>
<td>Improving pupils’ understanding of citizenship (Mr Utopia, Mrs Joy)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving listening comprehension skills (Mrs Reason)</td>
<td>Dramatisation (Mrs Love, Mr Utopia)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving understanding of real life situations (Mrs Experience)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There were many activities observed in the Private Primary School and the main objectives of the activities were to prepare pupils for examinations, to improve pupils’ writing skills, to improve pupils’ listening skills, to improve pupils’ multiple intelligences and to improve pupils’ understanding of real life situations. On the other hand, the State Primary School teachers do not prepare any other activities to compensate for the ‘weaknesses’ of the Turkish Guide Book. They try to make some changes to fit material to their specific classroom needs. Since there were no multi-sensory classroom activities to be observed (apart from dramatization), teachers’ knowledge transmission is categorised as ‘instructional activities’ in this study. Although the State Primary School teachers employed knowledge transmission as the main teaching strategy, this was divided into three categories according to their objectives.

6.2.1 Activities for Exam Preparations

Mrs Life’s (Teacher 7/RD/24/12/2007) lesson was teacher-centred knowledge transmission. Mrs Life chose one of the pupils to write down the multiple choice questions on the board. While the pupil was writing the question, the rest of the class copied it from the board. After writing the question, Mrs Life gave some time for pupils to write an answer and she picked one of the pupils to share their answer with the rest of the group. In one lesson period, they answered five questions. Occasionally, as a whole class they discussed the meaning of any unfamiliar words. The lesson was controlled and determined by the teacher. Mrs Life walked around the classroom while the pupils were writing and answering the questions.

Ms Fun (Teacher 8/RD/19.12.2007) conducted a teacher-centred exam revision session. In this lesson, Ms Fun wrote the multiple choice questions instead of pupils. When I asked her why she chose to write down the question herself, she told me that ‘it is less time consuming’. So, for her the most important thing was to solve as many questions as they could. While she was writing the questions, occasionally she asked the pupils to help her with the spellings, with the aim of revising pupils’ spelling. The pupils copied the questions from the board and after they finished writing, one of them answered the question to the whole class. Sometimes Ms Fun felt the need to explain the questions to the whole class.

Ms Young (Teacher 6/RD/25.12.2007) used a different technique in order to teach her pupils adjectives; this activity was also part of exam preparation. She first defined the term
‘adjective’ and wrote the definition on the board. She also asked her pupils to write the definition down in their notebooks. Although the Turkish Guide Book does not require teachers to define the target language, Ms Young did not hesitate to give definitions. This may be analysed in three ways: firstly, this is typical of the preparation of pupils for the examination style of private schools; secondly, the requirements of the school itself puts pressure upon teachers to adopt this particular style; thirdly, Ms Young’s beliefs as a teacher very much create a tendency to work in this way.

Ms Young also gave some examples of adjectives. These acted as verbal reminders for pupils, and after the lesson Ms Young told me that pupils already knew about adjectives. She also displayed some pictures on the board. These pictures were used as teaching materials so they were nicely trimmed and laminated. On one of the pictures there was a girl holding a kite. The teacher asked her pupils to describe the picture by using adjectives and whilst the pupils were using appropriate adjectives, the teacher reinforced this knowledge by writing the correct examples on the board. Through this activity Ms Young aims to guide her pupils to construct their knowledge of adjectives. Her teaching was whole class based and teacher-centred. While pupils were describing the adjectives, they were not interacting with one another.

Ms Young’s teaching style is, as I have already indicated, also determined by the requirements of the school. Her teaching in this specific lesson may be considered as knowledge transmission, which is inconsistent with her interview (Ms Young/I/24.12.2007). In her interview, she indicated that she preferred constructivist pupil-centred teaching activities. However, Ms Young did not let her pupils construct the meaning of the adjectives by scaffolding them and the knowledge was readily transferred to pupils (Adams, 2006). Although during the second half of the lesson (Teacher 6/RD/25.12.2007), Ms Young tried to support definitions with visual activities, it was only through factual response. Pupils described the pictures by using adjectives; however, they did not construct knowledge through social interaction.

Mrs Reason (Teacher 5/I/28.12.2007) also prefers constructivist teaching. However, her technique of preparing pupils for multiple-choice public examinations was not much different from Ms Young’s style. Mrs Reason (Teacher 5/RD/20.12.2007) employed an activity called ‘Knowledge Box’. She normally prefers to have the activity at the end of the lesson.
However, in this lesson Mrs Reason’s objective was to prepare her pupils for the examination.

Knowledge Box consists of a box full of envelopes. Multiple choice questions are written on both sides of the envelopes; the questions are mainly about grammar and are very much knowledge based.

The teacher chooses one of the pupils to play the game. The pupil selects an envelope and the question without looking and then the teacher reads the question. The pupil tries to answer the question. If they answer the question correctly, then the pupil is rewarded with some candy. That pupil gets to choose a friend to pick out the next envelope. If the pupil cannot answer the question, then the whole class has to answer the question together.

All the pupils were interested in playing this game. It was exciting for them because they could choose the questions from the box, and it involved an element of risk. The aim of the game was to let pupils practice for the public examinations as well as revising the grammar topics. Because it was a game for the pupils, they were also liberated from their anxiety over public examinations. Although the game has some advantages, it was very much a knowledge based activity whereby pupils pick the questions. It does not actually require higher-order thinking skills. If you know the answer, you get the point. In multiple-choice exams, it is also important to have enough speed to be able to answer all the questions in the allotted time. As a result, it is important to practice as much as possible. However, these types of games demonstrate how much this style of education depends on the knowledge based examination system in Turkey.

6.2.2 Pupils’ Academic Needs

One of the factors influencing teachers’ choices of classroom activities was related to pupils’ academic needs. Although all of my participants in their interviews stated that they prepared their lessons according to pupils’ academic needs, the State Primary School teachers only follow the Turkish Guide Book. However the Private Primary School participants prepare other activities for improving pupils’ academic skills.
6.2.2.1 Activities for Encouraging Pupils’ Writing

Although the Private and the State Primary School teachers’ primary concerns are about the Turkish Guide Book’s lack of writing activities, the State Primary School teachers did not conduct any other activities outside the Guide Book during the classroom observations. However, the Private Primary School teachers conducted various multi-sensory activities in their lessons. In this section, I only discuss a few selected activities from Mrs Art (Teacher 9), Ms Young (teacher 6) and Mrs Reason (Teacher 5). However, generalisation was made according to the field notes and the transcripts of the interviews.

As Mrs Art did not consider the Turkish Guide Book activities to be multi-sensory, she prepared different activities for her pupils. She tried to focus on writing activities. Her objective was to improve pupils’ writing in a fun way.

*Each pupil has a piece of paper in front of them and I tell them a topic related to the idioms we studied or it could be anything. Then they write a sentence related to that and the next person is able to read the first one and they add another sentence down on the sheet. We try to make sure that all the sentences make sense (Mrs Art/I/02.01.08).*

With this activity above, pupils need to construct an essay as a whole class without any verbal communications (Teacher 9/RD/25.12.2007). They need to make sense out of their friends’ sentences and each pupil needs to add one more sentence accordingly. This activity may improve pupils’ coherent writing skills. This activity can be also used as a warm-up activity to prepare pupils for writing. At the same time, it may not be enough to challenge pupils’ creative skills and so therefore this activity should be followed with activities that are provoking pupils’ constructive learning. In addition, the instructions of the activity should be clear for pupils’ understanding.

Mrs Art planned this activity because of pupils’ lack of interest in writing (Teacher 9/RD/25.12.2007). She began by arranging an activity to warm up pupils’ essay writing skills. According to Stenhouse’s (1986) ‘organic’ or ‘naturalistic’ model, teachers start...
planning with learning activities. In this case, Mrs Art focused on the teaching activity which would appeal to pupils’ interests.

Ms Young also started her instructional plan with an activity rather than a learning objective. Ms Young focused on improving pupils’ various skills. Ms Young explained the activity:

*I used origami in order to teach listening and understanding instructions. We started from basic origami models. It was very useful for pupils to improve their listening skills. By using our origami pieces, I told them to do some creative writing. They created stories with their creations. One of them was “the penguin and the mouse get together and have a conversation.” This is a very creative activity (Ms Young/I/24.12.07).*

There was a set of activities used in Ms Young’s (Teacher 6/RD/21.12.2007) lesson. She started by improving pupils’ ability to follow instructions and their listening skills. The aim of the lesson was based on improving pupils’ generic skills. In addition, Ms Young used origami as cues for pupils to write short stories. Pupils wrote their stories based on the origami characters. Although the activity was about pupils’ construction of the stories, there was not any social interaction among pupils. According to social constructivist teaching, pupils’ interaction with ‘able’ others is necessary for pupils’ improvement (S. Edwards, 2005). However, Ms Young’s pupils were working individually without any interaction.

This activity could be modified with pupils’ pair-share mind mapping. Before starting the writing activity, the teacher could seat the pupils in pairs and ask them to mind map their ideas about the short story. As an alternative, pupils should have been seated strategically according to their abilities before writing the short stories individually. This type of modification would allow pupils to share their ideas and at the same time to construct knowledge from their more able peers. However Ms Young is afraid of losing classroom control and therefore she finds pupils’ interaction challenging to control (Ms Young/I/24.12.2007). As she mentions in her interview: *They are in puberty so they can say I do not want it. Some of them are taller than me so…* (Ms Young/I/24.12.200). Ms Young clearly indicates that some pupils are physically bigger than her and therefore she does not have enough power over them. Hence she chooses to not to take any risks with her chosen activities.
Although Mrs Reason’s activity below is similar to Ms Young’s activity, there is one important difference: she borrowed ornaments instead of using pupils’ own work.

*Our high school pupils created some ornaments from the mud. I brought them to the classroom. They interpret these things and write a story about them. When they are doing this type of activity, I always play some music for them as well. I love the fact that they want to listen to music in every lesson. They sometimes bring the material; sometimes I collect things for them. When I bring something to the classroom, they feel important about themselves.* (Mrs Reason/I/ 28.12.2007)

Mrs Reason brought some materials to the classroom for creative writing activities (Teacher 5/RD/25.12.2007). She wanted her pupils to use their imagination and construct essays based on the mud ornaments. Mrs Reason overlapped and monitored the pupils' works and she intervened when she found it necessary. This type of scaffolding can help pupils achieve their potential but it is crucial for pupils to be guided by their teachers (Adams, 2006).

Mrs Reason also used song lyrics as a tool to stimulate pupils’ writing. Although Mrs Reason made careful planning, she was flexible in her implementation of her activities. Classroom demands sometimes require a change to the intended plans (Kyriacou, 2007); indeed, I observed that Mrs Reason could adopt modifications quite efficiently.

*Last time I played them Sezen Aksu’s (a famous Turkish singer) Kardelen song, my pupils could not understand the meaning of it. They did not get the message about education. I thought they would respond to the song differently. My plan did not work. So, I tried to lead them to understand but still... I asked them questions like; Did you watch the video clip of it? ... and so on. I have another Y5 Section class. I let them listen to the song, and their reaction was very different from the previous group. In each lesson, I had to use different strategies for the same material. In the last lesson, because they were not really interested in the activity, I had to cut it short. On the other hand, in the other class I conducted the intended activity. In this class, they wrote poems related to the song; some of them wrote short stories and some of them made caricatures. However, it only took 10 minutes with the first group. So I had to*
find something else to continue the lesson. It sometimes depends on the background of the group, as well. Their perspective into things can be different. My first group is not sentimental. However, the other group is very emotional. (Mrs Reason/I/28.12.2007)

In the Private School, each Turkish teacher has two different sections, and in order to standardise their teaching, they conduct the same activities in each section. However, each class could respond differently to an activity. Mrs Reason explains her problem of filling lesson time when her pupils respond unexpectedly. Thus, Mrs Reason had to be flexible about her plan.

Mrs Reason tried to balance the educational requirements with pragmatic, real-life teaching which produced a very effective lesson (Teacher 5/RD/27.12.2007). She employed an activity which aimed to enhance pupils’ writing skills, general knowledge and creativity. The activity involved four stages of pupils’ development: research, analysis, creating meaningful stories and writing. Social interaction is necessary for constructivist teaching (Adams, 2006). However, Mrs Reason scaffolded pupils and guided them to fulfil their potential (ZPD).

Although Mrs Reason feels the need to prepare her pupils for public exams, she thinks it is equally important for them to have general knowledge about world issues. She also conducted an activity in order to improve pupils’ general knowledge as well as writing skills (Teacher 5/RD/27.12.2007). In the previous lesson, she had told her pupils to collect some interesting pictures and headline cuttings from various newspapers. In the following lesson, pupils were asked to write an article about their chosen headlines and pictures. She then produced some A3 paper on which pupils were to complete their work. She also played instrumental music in the background. Although every pupil worked individually, they sometimes shared their ideas with each other. Moreover, the teacher walked around and overlapped. She corrected pupils’ writing if and when it was necessary. If she liked an article, she read it to the whole class as a good example. Then she asked some pupils to read out their articles; if she noticed any grammatical errors, she warned them. If she felt that the article did not match with the photos and the headlines, she would change them.

Ms Fun wanted to show me a PowerPoint presentation, the aim of which was to demonstrate how to teach creative writing to Y5 pupils, and there were also writing examples by pupils (Ms Fun/I/26.12.2007).
Ms Fun used a poem by Helen Buckley entitled, *A little Boy*, to explain how creativity should be taught to children. According to the poem, pupils’ creativity should not be controlled by the teachers. However, pupils should be given tools and be closely guided by the teacher.

*When she came to the little boy she said:*

*Don’t you want to make a picture?*

*Yes, said the little boy,*

*What are we going to make?*

*I don’t know until you make it, said the teacher.*

*How shall I make it? asked the little boy.*

*Why, anyway you like, said the teacher.*

*And any colour? asked the little boy.*

*Any colour, said the teacher.*

*If everyone made the same picture,*

*And used the same colours,*

*How would I know who made what?*

*And which was which?*

*I don’t know, said the little boy,*

*And he began to make a red flower with a green stem.*

When Ms Fun originally read the poem, she was impressed by it. Indeed, so impressed that she decided to use the poem as a basis for a PowerPoint classroom activity.

Ms Fun explained how she prepares activities (Teacher 8/I/26.12. 2007). Her activities were based on the message of the poem. She started by investigating pupils’ interests and, after eliminating some of the common interests; she decided to have a writing unit on dinosaurs. In our interview, Ms Fun also justified her activities and choices of topics. She thought that choosing dinosaurs as a topic would stimulate pupils’ imaginations and was therefore an ideal topic.

Pupils were asked to write a story using keywords related to dinosaurs. The teacher divided the pupils into groups of three (Teacher 8/RD/24.12.2007), each group were supposed to write a story together using these words; *tyrannosaurs rex, stegosaurus, raptor, plant-eater,*
meat-eater and Jurassic period. Ms Fun was trying to prepare a unit which used constructivist teaching activities;

*I also wanted them to learn about collaboration and sharing. I wanted them to know each other well. They created a storyline together and they wrote their story. After writing their story, I asked them to draw some pictures related to the story. In their stories, I was interested in coherency, grammar, use of vocabulary and punctuation. I also discussed ideas with them before they started their writing, as some of them were scared of writing before the activity; we try to motivate them by praising their work and encouraging them (Ms Fun/I/26.12.2007).*

Ms Fun’s objectives were related to pupils’ interactive skills. However, the outcome from the activities was not what she aimed for. She wanted her pupils to write creatively within a group, which required pupils’ active engagement with their team members. However, one of the problems she encountered related to the pupils working in groups. Ms Fun explains below.

*For example, when they were writing, some of the kids could not agree with one another. One of the pupils came to complain. ‘It is always his choice of characters and we always have to accept what he says.’ So when the other group finished their writing, this group could not even agree on the characters because they did not agree with one another. Even though there were only three people in the group, they still fought. (Ms Fun/I/ 26.12.2007)*

Ms Fun decided not to intervene in her pupils’ disagreement as she wanted her pupils to learn a lesson from their experience. Thus, she chose to ignore them. At the beginning, she warned the pupils about the consequences of their fight and then left them alone to make their own decisions. At the end of the activity, the group were not able to finish their story which was a punishment in itself. Group work can be used for social constructivist teaching. However, there are inevitably some problems when conducting social constructivist teaching methods (Hills, 2007). Ms Fun also struggled because of pupils’ individual differences (Hills, 2007). Nonetheless, on this occasion, she wanted them to be responsible for making their own decisions.
6.2.2.2 Activities for improving pupils’ listening comprehension

Mrs Reason (Teacher 5) was the only teacher who conducted an activity which aimed to improve pupils’ listening comprehension. Although Ms Young’s (Teacher 6) origami activity was based on improving pupils’ listening skills, the aim of the activity was to improve pupils’ ability to follow instructions; therefore the origami activity is not included in this part of the section (Teacher 6/RD/21.12.2007).

On Fridays, Mrs Reason has to teach Turkish in the last lesson of the week. Therefore she chooses to have a more flexible lesson because her pupils are very tired and agitated. As a result, she wants to do a different activity from her colleagues to keep the pupils quiet and calm. Therefore she reads them short stories.

Mrs Reason brought a children’s supplement from a newspaper (Teacher 5/RD/28.12.2007). While she was reading the story, she wanted her pupils to take notes. Subsequently, she asked them some comprehension questions related to the story. The questions were as follows. *Who is the main protagonist? What is the problem in this story? What is the main theme of the story? What do you think about the story?*

Mrs Reason chooses the stories from her own collection, which is not related to the curriculum texts. She wants to have a slow-paced lesson. Consequently, her pupils seem to focus better in this tricky last lesson of the week. With the activity, Mrs Reason tries to improve pupils’ listening and comprehension skills. However, the comprehension questions were simple and factual questions which were based on the plot of the story. She gave her pupils a chance to discuss the story so that they would be able to build their critical thinking skills. Mrs Reason is a very observant teacher who knows her pupils’ needs and so establishes strategies accordingly. In addition to this, she makes sure that her pupils also know the ground rules. She strikes a balance between fun and learning at the same time.

_In the last lesson of the calendar year, it has become something of a tradition for many school classes in Turkey to play “Secret Santa”, a practice whereby pupils buy presents for_
each other but give them anonymously. For this reason, Mrs Reason teacher prepared a draw for pupils to choose who would be each other’s secret Santa at the end of the lesson.

6.2.2.3 Activities for promoting pupils’ intelligences

Mrs Life (Teacher 7) was the only teacher to state the activities based on pupils’ intelligences. In these activities, the aim is to improve pupils’ specific intelligences through pupils’ various learning styles. However, since Private Primary School teachers worked as a team, the other teachers might have also used similar activities in their lessons.

Mrs Life was concerned about pupils’ learning styles:

Our main objective is to reach all of our pupils. We know our pupils’ personal differences and we try to make sure that all our pupils appreciate all our activities. First, we learn about our pupils’ individualistic differences and then prepare activities accordingly. We need to know how a pupil learns. Some of the pupils learn through seeing, some of them learn through doing so we make sure that our activities cover all those learning differences. Moreover, we decide these activities as a department. If a pupil is kinaesthetic, then we prepare activities accordingly (Mrs Life/I/04.01.2008).

Mrs Life prepared activities according to pupils’ learning styles, and bases them on Gardner’s multiple intelligences (Smith, 2008). Teachers should focus on pupils’ multiple intelligences when they are teaching (Smith, 2008). As Kyriacou (2007) stated, the most important teaching skill when preparing learning activities is to understand pupils’ needs and in respect of this, Mrs Life’s main concern is to understand pupils’ learning styles. Mrs Life told me about conducting various activities in her classroom:

There is this activity called ‘hopscotch’, for example. In this activity, in each square there is a question and the pupil needs to answer each question to be able to move on to the next level (Mrs Life/I/04.01.2008).
The activity above had been prepared for kinaesthetic pupils whose learning styles were based on physical learning activities (Smith, 2008). Although the pupils were able to exercise, it does not mean that pupils were constructing knowledge. Thus, Mrs Life’s use of multi-sensory learning activities led to pupils’ physical involvement rather than construction of knowledge. For effective teaching, interaction between teacher and pupil or pupil and able pupil would be ideal for stimulating pupils’ potential knowledge (Palincsar, 1998; Welsch & Jenlink, 1998). However, in this activity, the pupil is only hopping and answering questions. In the second activity, Mrs Life used the pupils’ musical skills to teach Ataturk reforms.

For example, a pupil composed music using Ataturk reforms. He used his musical intelligence to learn Ataturk reforms. There is a game called ‘Let Me Tell’. In this game, a pupil chooses a region and a plant that grows in that region and tries to describe that plant using good Turkish (Mrs Life/I/04.01.2008).

Every Turkish citizen has to be taught the Ataturk reforms as part of their Citizenship education (Cayir, 2009). Although this activity is related to improving pupils’ citizenship knowledge, it is not part of Turkish Guide Book. Therefore it was not included in the Turkish Guide Book activities section. Pupils need to learn the Ataturk reforms by heart. Therefore, teachers need to employ various strategies to transfer the prescriptive knowledge. Mrs Life was also trying to teach Ataturk reforms. However, because of the lesson objectives, it was not stimulating pupils for ‘meaning making’ rather it was guiding pupils to learn prescribed subjects. Nonetheless, teaching prescriptive subjects by using pupils’ specific interests may guarantee long term knowledge.

6.2.2.4 Activities for improving pupils’ understanding of real life situations

Of all the classroom observations made, Mrs Experience (Teacher 7) was the only teacher who utilised real life situations for improving pupils’ understanding of natural disasters.

The day after a sizeable earthquake in Ankara, I observed the first lesson of the day with Mrs Experience (Teacher 10/RD/28.12.2007). Before Mrs Experience started the lesson, pupils were excitedly chatting to each other about the tremors from the earthquake. They were all scared and nervous as experts had predicted further tremors. Mrs Experience had planned to continue with the poem which they had read in their previous lesson. However, she thought it
would be more appropriate to talk about the earthquake. Consequently, it made for a much more meaningful lesson. She called this type of teaching ‘opportunistic teaching’.

Mrs Experience related her experiences of the Izmit earthquake of 1999 (one of the biggest earthquakes of recent years in Turkey). In addition, she asked ‘Why do earthquakes turn into tragedies in Turkey?’ One of the pupils found a text in the textbook and he wanted to read it to the whole class. From this they started discussing the recommended procedures in the event of an earthquake and methods of self-preservation.

Although the lesson was developed very spontaneously, earthquakes and other natural disasters were in the syllabus in the following weeks. The practical ways of protecting oneself in the event of an earthquake were discussed; these did not require pupils’ higher order thinking skills. Pupils were mainly talking about what they had experienced at home and their parents’ reactions. Mrs Experience’s questions were not planned. However, she was experienced enough to follow her pupils’ mood. In addition, Mrs Experience allowed her pupils to lead the lesson and so therefore it was very much student-centred. Pupils were interested in the impact of the earthquakes and most of the pupils in the classroom had experienced earthquake. As earthquakes are relatively common occurrences in some regions of Turkey, the lesson was particularly meaningful. Although there was not a pragmatic and meaningful teaching task (Richardson, 2003), the lesson was constructivist because of pupils’ real life experiences.

6.2.3 The Turkish Guide Book Requirements

One of the factors influencing teachers’ choices of classroom activities was the Turkish Guide Book. Teachers’ classroom activities were dependent on the Turkish Guide Book. However, according to the observations and the interview transcripts, the Private Primary School teachers prepared activities in order to match the needs of their pupils. Therefore in this section, the State Primary School teachers’ various implementations of the Turkish Guide Book activities are analysed.

6.2.3.1 Instruction based activities

Instruction based activities are based on teacher-centred explaining, questioning, lecturing and instructing and are also called, “teacher talk” activities (Kyriacou, 2007). These types of
activities were employed by both the State and the Private Primary School teachers. Because the State Primary School teachers employ these activities most of the time, in this part of the section, I am going to focus on typical lessons by the State Primary School participants.

Mrs Joy’s (Teacher 3) concern regarded the pupils’ memory based knowledge. When she conducted her planned activities from the Turkish Guide Book, she checked her pupils’ prior knowledge. If she was not satisfied with her pupils’ knowledge, she felt the need to revisit previous subjects.

Mrs Joy:

*For example, the date 23rd April is our National Independence Festival. I asked the whole class for the date of National Independence Festival: a couple of pupils could not answer the question. That topic is something we have worked on in detail. If they cannot answer something that we have worked on a lot, I get upset. We had to talk about it again and again. I went back to the years of national challenges and I had to start all over again. We had to do the War of Independence, discuss the reasons of launching the Turkish Great Public Presidency.*

*The Guide Book does not tell us to ask the date of National Independence. However, I do feel the need for reviewing pupils’ knowledge on that particularly important subject, which took me 15/20 minutes. I had to finish the ‘expressing yourself’ part which is in the Guide Book but I could not. If I think that pupils do not know about the War of Independence, I have to revisit the subject again. At that particular moment, you have to forget about your plan. You start reminding them about the previous topic. At the end of the day, we do not have to follow the plan step by step. The guide book tells us to find the right things for your class and implement it according to your pupils’ needs (Mrs Joy/I/30.03.2007).*

Mrs Joy implemented the Turkish Guide Book and she did not feel the need to prepare other activities. When Mrs Joy realised that pupils’ prior knowledge needed to be revised, she revisited previous units in the guide book. Thus the change was still made within the remit of the set programme.
According to constructivist teaching, it is important to sustain a solid foundation of knowledge. In other words, prior knowledge is the foundation of ‘construction’. Therefore it is important to recall the previous knowledge (Adams, 2006). However, in this case, Mrs Joy is talking about memory based knowledge transmission.

Ms Nurse (Teacher 2) also employed an instruction based teaching activity. In this activity, Ms Nurse tried to instruct pupils about their assignment project. In addition, Ms Nurse examined the group project before assigning it and she made some changes according to the context. These changes were based on the project assignments and she gave an example of her previous experience in a village school.

There are things in this curriculum that you cannot implement in the classroom. There are things that do not match the reality of the classroom and I need to make some changes. Especially last year - I was in a village school. There were not enough computers at the school. The Guide Book wanted my pupils to do internet research, then get together as a group and gather all the information. In a village school, it is not possible for them to do any internet research. There are no computers, and the nearest city is too far for them. Therefore their research did not use the internet. I had to choose different activities. In a way, I was trying to reach the same objective with different activities. The objective is to improve pupils’ research skills. However, the way I improved their research skills was different. I told them to have interviews with local authorities instead. One of our objectives is to guide pupils to learn individually. In order to teach them individual learning styles, they should be ready to attempt whatever activity is proposed. In addition, the pupil should be activated. However, the pupils were not ready for individual research or anything like that. This was the first time that they had engaged with things like that so they really struggled to research. I try to motivate them or explain to them more fully what they should do (Ms Nurse/I/05.04.2007).

Ms Nurse had to make changes to the assignment projects because of a lack of technical equipment at the village school. When she considered the activities, she realised that the pupils were not able to conduct internet research. By using the same objectives as the Turkish Guide Book, Ms Nurse changed the research project but remained faithful to the Guide Book. Since the aim of the Turkish Guide Book was to improve pupils’ research skills, Ms Nurse
Ms Nurse was working with her class on *Nasrettin Hoca’s sunglasses* (Teacher 2/RD/11.04.2007). Nasrettin Hoca is famous for his philosophy and his didactic wit (Goren et al., 2005, p. 95). Therefore it is important to understand the underlying messages in his jokes. The text in the Turkish guide book is about Nasrettin Hoca’s jokes and their hidden messages (Goren et al., 2005).

This lesson was subject-centred. Therefore Ms Nurse only used the comprehension questions from the textbook. Since the pupils were asked to prepare before the lesson, they had already answered the comprehension question in their notebooks. Thus they read the answers from their notebooks.

Ms Nurse read the questions from the book, for example; *What is the reason for Nasrettin Hoca sitting backwards on the donkey?* In the Turkish Guide Book, teachers are encouraged to give an example of ‘sitting backwards in the bus’ (Goren et al., 2005). Therefore, Ms Nurse asked her pupils, *How would you feel if you were made to sit backwards on a bus?* None of the pupils were willing to answer the question so Ms Nurse answered it - “It must be very humiliating, don’t you think?”

Another question in the textbook was based on a picture of Nasrettin Hoca wearing a hat and a pair of sunglasses. Ms Nurse tried to make it meaningful by using examples from the textbook. *They did not have sunglasses at that time and also there was not any global warming.*

Ms Nurse did not add anything to the lesson herself. Her main concern was related to the discipline of the class. She did not allow pupils to talk in general and she chose which pupils were to be allowed to respond orally. If the pupils did not write the answers to the questions into their notebooks, she became unhappy and told those pupils off.
6.2.3.2 Improving pupils’ understanding of citizenship knowledge

Mr Utopia (Teacher 1) and Mrs Joy (Teacher 3) impose their own understanding of Turkish citizenship upon their pupils. Although Mrs Joy follows the Turkish Guide Book, Mr Utopia changed the messages of its texts.

*If there is a text which is full of dangerous messages, I ask the pupils, ‘What is the problem with the book?’ I question them, I try to elicit some thoughts, and I try to guide them to think objectively from various perspectives. I never use slogans like ‘friendship of nations’ and stuff like that - as you can imagine, they are forbidden terms. Therefore I lead pupils to find the messages themselves (Mr Utopia/I/05.04.2007).*

Mr Utopia did not use any activities from the Turkish Guide Book. His understanding of teaching in this context is to employ mainly teacher centred questioning.

Mr Utopia explains how he deals with dangerous messages. These types of messages are sometimes to be found in Turkish textbooks, especially the popular saying, ‘Turks have no friends but other Turks’ (Kanci & Altinay, 2006, p. 59). Moreover, the enemies were underlined in the textbook and strong militarization was justified (Kanci & Altinay, 2006).

*Greeks are not enemies with us. You can really tell this to the pupils directly. If you think about the official way of saying this - ‘During the war of independence, Greeks attacked us’ - this is an official way (in textbooks) of describing the situation. Greeks also describe the situation from a very different perspective. (Mr Utopia/I/05.04.2007)*

Hence Mr Utopia analysed the tacit messages of the Turkish Guide Book and stimulated his pupils to question these messages. Therefore his teaching was very much based on discussions and questioning.

Year Five Turkish Teachers in the State Primary School followed the Turkish Guide Book as much as possible. Mrs Joy had a lesson about a poem relating to the Turkish Flag (Teacher
3/RD/02.03.2007). Since it was my first lesson observation in that class, I was asked to introduce myself. After this brief introduction, the lesson started. Since they follow the Turkish Guide Book, the pupils knew what they were going to do in this lesson so they were already prepared.

According to the Turkish Guide Book, pupils need to talk about the picture of the Turkish Flag in the poem and try to guess what the poem is about before reading it (Goren et al., 2005). In the picture, there are five children stood around the flag (Goren et al., 2005). Pupils subsequently listen to each other’s interpretations of the picture. The teacher summarised their interpretations before telling them her own ideas.

“During the Ottoman Empire, girls were not able to attend schools. Therefore there are girls in this picture to show the equality of the Turkish Republic” (Teacher 3/RD/02.03.2007).

The poem and the picture have a message about the equality of the Turkish Republic. Consequently, Mrs Joy wanted to convey this message across to her pupils. Although the tone of the poem is mild, the poem is still full of nationalistic indoctrination. In addition, the Turkish Republic was portrayed as a country which brought gender equalities. Whilst the Turkish Republic was being praised, the Ottoman Empire was criticised.

For the teacher, there was only one ultimate ‘truth’ of the interpretation of the picture, and the teacher did not take pupils’ interpretations into account.

The objective of the lesson was to ‘teach’ pupils about the importance of the Turkish flag, which is a symbol of ‘Turkishness’. In the Turkish Year 5 syllabus, there are texts which are included so as to impose nationalistic ideas upon the pupils. The importance of the flag for the Turkish nation had already been underlined occasionally in past lessons. In addition, Mrs Joy is happy conducting whatever has been prescribed by MONE. Mrs Joy wanted to remind her pupils about the use of the Turkish flag. She highlighted the importance of the numerous national festivals and the use of the Turkish flag.

The lesson mainly involved the teacher lecturing. Sometimes Mrs Joy asked questions in order to attract pupils’ attention. Questions were factual which did not stimulate pupils’
critical thinking (Kyriacou, 2007). Mrs Joy asked the pupils, ‘What do you observe in the national festivals?’ Mrs Joy tried to stimulate the pupils to recall their prior knowledge about the use of the flag. After a brief discussion about it, Mrs Joy wrote some words on the board which were taken from the textbook;

_Bayrak (flag)_

_Yuce (serene)_

_Cesur (brave)_

_Temiz (clean)_

She wanted her pupils to make a sentence using the words above. Although those words are given by the Turkish Guide Book, it did not instruct pupils to make sentences using these words. Instead, the guide book suggested that pupils ought to look up the meaning of the words (Goren et al., 2005). However, Mrs Joy wanted her pupils to write a sentence by using the words. However, the idea of the sentence is already given. Pupils only needed to put the words into the right order to make a meaningful sentence and the message of the sentence was already there for pupils to learn. It was about the ‘glorious Turkish flag’ which is a way of disciplining or correcting the pupils by ‘normalising’ them. The aim of the poem may be to assimilate ‘marginal groups’ and fit them into mainstream society.

Mrs Joy started to read the poem in order to show her pupils how to read it. She wanted her pupils to learn the poem by heart and read it with appropriate body language. She said, ‘It is not narrative; therefore you need to use your body language to express the feelings of the poem.’

There is a SEN pupil in the class who has hearing problems and Mrs Joy wanted to guide him with his reading. When she was dealing with the pupil one to one, the rest of the class talked to each other, which disturbed the flow of the lesson.

Although Mr Utopia had to follow the syllabus, he made some changes to it. Instead of using the text on Nasrettin Hoca like in the other sections, Mr Utopia decided to skip some of the units and study a text about Mimar Sinan (Teacher 1/RD/04.04.2007).

Mimar Sinan was one of the most famous architects in the 16th Century and was, therefore, an influential figure in Ottoman history. The lesson started with pupils giving their
interpretations of the picture. According to the Turkish Guide Book, all lessons start with warm up activities which involve analysing pictures and guessing the subject of the texts (Goren et al., 2005).

In this particular picture, there were workers constructing a building, and Mimar Sinan was talking to the sultan of the time (Goren et al., 2005). While the pupils were interpreting the picture, Mr Utopia did not intervene (Teacher 1/RD/04.04.2007). Instead, he encouraged them to give their answers. Although he allowed his pupils to interact with each other, he was still the authority in the classroom (it was akin to traffic police organising a crossing). If the pupils did not agree with other answers, they were also allowed to make a counter argument. This gave me the impression that pupils were not only listening to the teacher but also carefully listening to each other, unlike many other lessons observed in the State School.

Pupils read the text before the lesson, so they were able to talk about the tone of the text. While pupils were talking about the themes of the text, Mr Utopia wrote the ideas on the board. Some of the themes were; fairness, conscience, equality, pride, art and creativity. This activity required pupils’ sound comprehension of the text, and therefore it was very effective. The teacher also wanted them to refer to the text when they were shouting out the themes. The teacher asked Ayse (one of the pupils) to read the part of the text which refers to ‘fairness’. He wanted everyone in the class to find the word ‘fair’ in the text and to underline it whenever they saw the word. Then they all discussed what it really meant according to the context (Teacher 1/RD/04.04.2007).

**Pupil:** Defence

**Mr Utopia:** What do you mean by that?

**Pupil:** Human rights defence; giving rights to everyone.

The themes that pupils suggested were:

- Labour of human rights
- Fair payment
- Financial difficulty of life
- Mimar Sinan’s designs
- Humiliation of authority
- The power of law

**Mr Utopia:** Are the main theme and the sub themes of the text given clearly?

**Is the message of the text clear?**
Is the text consistent with the message?

At the end of the lesson, Mr Utopia wanted his pupils to do an assignment which answered the question; ‘If you try to give the same message with a different story, what would the story be?’ Mr Utopia conducted a lesson which was very different from the requirements of the Turkish Guide Book. He encouraged his pupils to think critically about the text and to see beyond the underlined messages. Therefore he used an open-ended questioning technique in order to expand pupils’ thinking skills (Kyriacou, 2007). In addition, at the end of the lesson, he reviewed all the messages of the text. As Mr Utopia said himself:

*If you noticed, the assignment I have given was very different from the Guide Book. The assignment was to write a different story related to the message of the text. I want them to write from their own world, from their own reality. They (meaning MONE) give examples from Mimar Sinan; they know that Mimar Sinan was liked, so we will think if Mimar Sinan did things in this way, then it must be the right way; a good role model....and this idea will be accepted without question. I try to prevent that. My role is to find out the hidden messages in the text and teach my students’ accordingly. I should be the primary influence on their lives (Mr Utopia/I/ 04.04.2007).*

### 6.2.3.3 Dramatisation

During my observations, I witnessed several lessons which consisted of pupils’ dramatisations. As Mrs Love (Teacher 4) and Mr Utopia (Teacher 1) implemented the Turkish Guide Book, they sometimes allowed pupils to create dramatisations in order to give each pupil a chance to be involved in the classroom activities.

Mrs Love wanted to start the lesson with pupils’ dramatisation of Nasrettin Hoca jokes (Teacher 4/RD/11.04.2007). Although the Turkish Guide Book did not assign this activity (Goren et al., 2005), Mrs Love thought it would be the best way of starting the lesson. Mrs Love explains why she chose this type of activity below.

*I know they all want to tell the jokes. Some want to tell two jokes in one go - we do not have enough time. For example, I told them that they should create a dramatisation*
instead. They are going to do their dramatisations in groups so that in the next lesson all pupils can be involved. In one Nasrettin Hoca joke, there are at least two pupils, which gives everybody an equal chance to be involved. People who did not have the chance to tell a joke, will act out the joke instead. (Mrs Love/I/11.04.2007)

Each group had to dramatise a different joke. Some of the pupils dressed up as Nasrettin Hoca. One of the pupils introduced the joke, and after each dramatization, they explained its message.

Although there were four different jokes dramatised, I present only one of them below in order to show the style of Nasrettin Hoca jokes.

Nasrettin Hoca borrows a bucket from his friend. After a while, Nasrettin Hoca’s friend asks for his bucket back and Nasrettin Hoca says, “Your bucket gave birth to a bowl” and Nasrettin Hoca’s friend takes the bucket and the bowl back to his house. After sometime, Nasrettin Hoca borrows the bucket again and when his friend asks for the bucket back, Nasrettin Hoca says, “I am sorry to tell you but your bucket died”. His friend gets angry about the response and he does not accept it. Nasrettin Hoca says “You believed that your bucket gave birth but now you do not believe that the bucket has died”.

After the dramatization, Mrs Love summarised the meaning of the jokes and gave them some feedback about their performances. Then she started to read the given text from the Turkish Guide Book, ‘Nasrettin Hoca’nin Gozlugu’ - ‘Nasrettin Hoca’s sunglasses’ (Goren et al., 2005, p. 95). After her reading, Mrs Love started to ask the comprehension questions from the Turkish Guide Book.

What is the funniest thing in this text? Why do you think Nasrettin Hoca is sitting backwards on the donkey? What does the text tell you? What is the message of the text?

She tells one of the well-known Turkish idioms: ‘Do not make me angry otherwise I’ll make you sit backwards on the donkey. What is the link between Nasrettin Hoca and this idiom? (Teacher 4/RD/11.04.2007).
Although Mrs Love was using an open-ended questioning technique, she did not summarise the pupils’ ideas. Therefore, the pupils could not draw conclusions about the topic. In addition, the questions did not lead to discussions among the pupils. In other words, Mrs Love tried to hear each pupil’s answer. However, there was not any interaction between the teacher and the pupils. The lesson was based on the Turkish Guide Book which was meant to be constructivist, whereas the teacher did not create an environment for pupils to make meaning of the Nasrettin Hoca jokes. Although the pupils were able to understand the jokes, there was no stimulus for constructing meaning out of the Nasrettin Hoca jokes.

Although the lesson started with a dramatisation, it did not require pupils’ meaningful social interaction. It was only based on pupils’ imitation of Nasrettin Hoca. However, it may also be argued that ‘dramatisation’ would require pupils’ organisation skills.

Mr Utopia wanted his pupils to do a dramatisation (Teacher 1/RD/05.042007). The classroom was divided into three groups. The dramatisation was about a section from the Guide Book called ‘Express Yourself’ which was normally part of an oral presentation (Goren et al., 2005). However, Mr Utopia wanted his pupils’ to express themselves through dramatisation.

The dramatisation was based around the following scenario: a classroom setting where pupils are sitting an exam. One of the pupils starts cheating. Although the teacher notices this, he does not say anything during the exam. However, the teacher grades the paper as ‘F’ which is ‘fail’ (Teacher 1/RD/05.042007).

There were some stereotypical themes displayed in this dramatisation. For instance: poor, ugly and hardworking pupils versus rich, beautiful and lazy pupils. At the end of the dramatisation, the pupils were told the message of the dramatisation which was that ‘the cheaters would be punished’.

During and after the dramatisation, Mr Utopia did not intervene with the pupils’ performances; he did not even give feedback about them. Although Mr Utopia’s teaching technique is to question pupils in order to stimulate higher order thinking skills, he did not try to elicit pupils’ ideas. The constructive aspect of the activity was the pupils’ interaction (Teacher 1/RD/05.042007).
This was the only interactive lesson I observed in the State Primary School. Pupils clearly enjoyed being part of a little play. If the stereotypical elements had been questioned, it would have been a more effective lesson.

6.3 Impact of School and Classroom Space on Y5 Turkish Teachers’ Classroom Behaviour

The architectural design of schools and classrooms are considered to be important tools for teaching and learning (Bissell, 2004), school and classroom spaces also determine teachers’ choices of classroom activities. Spaces in schools also have various functions which keep individuals in their ‘places’ (McGregor, 2004). In both the State and the Private Primary schools, there are places and times for every activity, such as assemblies, teaching-learning and playing. In addition, the role of the space is used to maintain orderly rituals in place and in time, which is a way of controlling both the teachers and the pupils.

The data in this section is based on the observation field notes made in the State School between 2nd April 2007 and 13th April 2007 and in the Private School between 22nd December 2007 and 4th January 2008.

6.3.1 Use of Space in the State Primary School

The State Primary School building is a horseshoe shaped building, which is painted in baby pink, as in figure 5.1 (RD/03.04.2007). Although there is the natural softness created by this colour, it is not a friendly looking construction. By the entrance, there is a statue of Ataturk where assemblies take place every morning. This designated area symbolises the Republic and the nation and has two functions. The first function of the assembly area is that it provides surveillance, used for regulating pupils’ dress and attendance. Morning assemblies are the times when teachers have a chance to check pupils’ orderliness. The second function of the assembly area is to remind pupils of their ‘Turkishness’. It is also a way of normalizing ‘non-Turks’.

Two pupils are selected to recite the National Pledge to Allegiance which is a compulsory part of everyday school life for Turkish pupils, as stated in Article 12 (MONE, 2003).
The National Pledge to Allegiance is as follows:

*I am Turkish, I am honest, I am hard working, and my aim is to protect the young and to respect elders and to love my country and my nation more than my essence. My mission is to move up and go forward. Oh, great Ataturk, I make a vow to walk on the path you opened, towards the aim you directed, without any hesitation. My existence is the gift to the Turkish nation. How happy is the one who can say, “I am Turkish”.*

(MONE, 2003)

Additionally, on Monday mornings and Friday afternoons, pupils sing the Turkish National Anthem as part of the regulations of MONE. In general, this ritual is also followed in private schools. This pledge leaves pupils in no doubt about their identity and their ultimate function. Pupils are conditioned to consider sacrificing their existence as normal, something that is perhaps symptomatic of the militaristic nature of the education system in Turkey (Calislar, 2009; Karabat, 2009).

As the State Primary School is highly centralised by MONE, it has been adorned with nationalistic features such as Turkish flags and Ataturk portraits, as in any primary school in Turkey (Baban, 2005).
The school has been selected as one of the best State Primary School buildings in Turkey. However, it reminds me of a hospital. As disciplinary institutions (hospitals, schools and prisons) are organised in a particular way, the similarity between the State Primary School and a hospital should be meaningful. There are four floors and each floor has corridors opening to classrooms. The corridors are decorated with pupils’ pictures of nationalistic themes like pictures of Atatürk or Atatürk’s sayings; these were not updated during my visit. The marble stairs are new, shiny and the walls are also decorated with nationalistic pictures.

First, I visited the head teacher (or rather the “manager”, as it is in Turkish) (RD/02.04. 2007). In a big room, “the manager” sat behind a large desk and on the wall the Turkish Anthem, Atatürk’s speech for Turkish youth and the ubiquitous Atatürk portrait hang. There are also visions, missions and values of the school displayed on the wall. The manager is very proud of them; he indicates that they worked hard on each word together as a team to formulise them.
Our vision is to be a leading educational institution, with our sharing management philosophy and effective use of information technology, and to produce the best in teaching, sports, art and social activities.

We are here to educate people and promote their understanding and knowledge of global values, their respect for others’ rights and freedoms, their consideration for national values, their tolerance and generosity, their ability to develop responsibility, to be productive, to be problem solvers, to be environmentally friendly, and to be confident, trustworthy, sophisticated role models (copied from Head teachers’ wall).

In the State School, pupils sit in Victorian style rows which directs all their attention to the teacher (Demir, 2006). In addition, classrooms are organised for individual work rather than group work interactive activities (World Bank, 2005). This type of classroom organisation makes classroom control easier (World Bank, 2005). Because of the double shift system, there are two teachers sharing the same classroom. Consequently, they do not have the privilege of personalising their teaching space. There are usually 36 pupils in each class. Pupils are also required to share a desk with one another and therefore the desks were not suitable for moving around. This type of classroom arrangement also helps teachers to maintain order in the classroom. When the panopticon prison model is applied in the classroom context, teachers may be considered to be a warder in the central tower. Throughout the classroom observations in the State School, teachers were situated mainly in the centre of the classroom watching the pupils or transmitting knowledge, however pupils had to sit down in their allocated places at all times so teachers would have more control over pupils’ behaviour. This may be considered as the teachers’ power control strategy (McGregor, 2004). In this surveillance apparatus, the teachers’ role is to correct and train the docile bodies through prescriptive guidelines. In addition, ‘what young children quickly learn nowadays about their classrooms is that it is clearly not the place in which lively or indeed any physical activity is welcomed. Such behaviour is for elsewhere’ (Dixon, 2004, p. 21).

It is important to have multi-functional spaces for the improvement of children’s cognitive motor skills (Dixon, 2004). Although the State Primary School is newly built, the classrooms are not really structured to fit the needs of primary school pupils (RD/03.04. 2007). There is no play area or carpet area for pupils to sit and listen to teacher’s reading or to do other
activities. In the Private school, there are no special areas for the pupils either, but the school building is generally structured well enough to fit all the needs of the pupils.

In the State School, computers are considered to be a luxury item. Although there were second language lessons, some of the necessary tools and equipment for language teaching were absent. In addition to this, classrooms were unsuitable for interactive teaching, even though that is one of the requirements of MONE. According to one recent OFSTED report, in order to establish efficient classroom space, there should be a water supply for practical activities (Comber & Wall, 2001, p. 96). However, there were no wash basins in the classrooms, which showed that there were not any creative/craft activities going on in the lessons.

6.3.2 Use of Space in the Private Primary School

The Private Primary School is part of a highly prestigious high school (RD/28.12. 2007). The school is situated in the high school campus which is owned by a university. The severe surveillance technique is evident even before entering the school. When I arrived at the campus on the 22nd December 2007, I was asked to leave my identification card by the security guards and I was also asked to display my visitor’s card on my collar. When Foucault’s (1977) power control strategies are applied to the Private Primary School context, the security regulations at the entrance of the campus can be interpreted as a way of instilling disciplinary control.

There are four main buildings and one of them is the primary school building, which is more distinctive than others. The Private Primary School site consists of one large circular construction linked to three smaller, similarly shaped constructions; each building has been painted a different colour symbolising different year groups. The main building is orange and has a very friendly ambience. However, when you enter the building, you are welcomed by a symbolic Ataturk portrait which is centrally situated and framed with the Turkish flags, see figure 6.2.
The gigantic entrance leads to two main corridors and each corridor is divided into five different year groups. Pupils were divided and placed in different classrooms, which may be considered to be an example of distribution of docile bodies (Gore, 2001). Distribution is one of the ways of practicing modern power control (Foucault, 1977). In this case, the different spaces are identified through the use of different colour schemes, and pupils are placed in different corridors according to their year groups.

The year 5 section of one corridor was adorned with pupils’ works. During the period of my research, the boards were displayed with Christmas and the New Year poems, essays and decorations, see figure 6.3.
The head teacher of the Private Primary School was unfortunately unwell. Consequently, I was asked to meet the director of the entire institution (RD/22.12.2007), which consists of the primary school and the high school sections. During my visit to the director’s office, I noted that Ataturk’s portrait, Ataturk’s speech to Turkish youth and the Turkish Anthem were displayed on the walls.

The Private School classrooms are box shape classrooms without any character (RD/22.12.2007). However, the school has different classrooms for different activities, for example, computer labs, science labs, library, and play areas. If teachers need to use different rooms for their activities, they just book the rooms. Consequently, teachers have more opportunities to conduct different activities in the Private School.

In the Private School, classrooms are organised more practically so that teachers can make alterations to the seating arrangements. In addition, chairs are light enough to move around. Throughout the observations, Private Primary School teachers sometimes made some changes with the seating arrangements prior to lessons, see figure 6-4. Indeed, they frequently make changes to their classrooms. Since the teachers do not have to share their classrooms with any other teachers, they personalise it with pupils’ work. There are also meaningful examples of units of work displayed on the walls. Additionally, there is a television and DVD
player. Finally, there are lockers in the classrooms where pupils can put their belongings. Since the private schools are fee paid institutions, they are privileged to use their area more creatively and efficiently with far less pressure on space.

Another essential part of the space is the teacher’s desk, which is present in both the State and the Private School classrooms. According to Massey (1994), the meaning of the table has been constructed through a teacher’s engagement with it. The teacher uses the table as a tool to demonstrate power. McGregor (2004) identified the teacher’s table as the symbol of authority and surveillance. However, the role of the teachers’ table has been diminished in comparison to past models (Galton et al., 1999a). During the observation, in both the State and the Private School classrooms, the participants did not often use the teachers’ table; however it was used as a base to leave finished work, the registration book and other materials. In both of the schools, the teacher’s table was situated in the corner of the classroom. When pupils were engaged with individual work, teachers chose to sit at their
allocated places quietly and watch the pupils work. When the pupils finished their work, they left it on the teacher’s desk to be checked. The teacher’s desk was convenient for both pupils and teachers to identify classroom spaces. Pupils knew where to get stationary, textbooks, the registration book and other such items. Although the teachers were not using the table for transmitting knowledge, the desk was the symbol of power control since it was used to maintain order. However, during most of the lessons, teachers stood at the front of the classroom with the desk used as their base for collecting pupils work, organising grades, giving instructions and keeping the stationary.

School corridors and playgrounds are the only spaces where pupils can explore their physical environments (Dixon, 2004; McGregor, 2004). These spaces are also where pupils’ social hierarchies are often evident (Dixon, 2004). In other words, the pupils’ power struggle is more obvious where there is less adult control (Dixon, 2004). However, in both the State and the Private Primary schools, teachers’ control is present in corridors and the playground during breaks in order to try to prevent pupils from misbehaving. According to Foucault’s (1977) surveillance apparatus, the system can be watched by any member of the society. However in both the State and the Private School, pupils were watched at all times and they were not involved in this surveillance system.

Since MONE controls the budget of the state schools, schools do not have the entitlement to change the setting according to teachers’ teaching styles. One could say that the educational system does not encourage teachers to use the right equipment according to the needs of their pupils. On the other hand, the Private Primary School has its own budget supported by the expensive school fees.
Figure 6.5 State Primary School classroom layout

- Ataturk’s speech to the Turkish youth
- Ataturk’s picture
- Turkish anthem
- The Door
- Window
- Teachers’ desk
- Boy
- Girl
- Boy
- Girl
- Boy
- Girl
- Boy
- Girl
- Boy
- Girl
- Boy
- Girl
- Boy
- Girl
- Boy
- Writings of the National days and related posters
6.4 Chapter Summary

Y5 Turkish teachers in Private and State Schools follow the prescribed Turkish Guide Book. However, they were free in regards to their implementations of it.

In the Private School, Y5 Turkish teachers’ primary concern was pupils’ needs. Curriculum requirements, therefore, were not the overriding concern of the participants in the Private School (unless they were deemed useful for pupils’ academic improvement) (Cinoglu, 2006). In addition, teachers’ values have an impact on their teaching (Campbell et al., 2004). Thus, they were able to convey their teaching beliefs in their lessons and to conduct activities accordingly. Although my Private School participants regularly consulted their colleagues about their instructional choices, they were also allowed to make their own decisions according to their classroom needs. For example, Mrs Reason (Teacher 5) conducted various
teaching activities like ‘knowledge box’ and ‘article writing’ etc.. When she was making decisions about the teaching activities, she mainly considered the time of the lesson, pupils’ interests, and mutual decisions of the Y5 department and the requirements of the MONE. For instance, during the last lesson on Fridays, she chose to conduct low pace activities which would match pupils’ level of concentration better.

On the other hand, Ms Fun’s (Teacher 8) main concern was the pupils’ academic weaknesses. She prepared a unit which required pupils’ interactive skills. The aim of the unit was to improve pupils’ writing skills using fun activities. Ms Fun thought it was crucial to have activities which would appeal to her pupils’ interests. She started by planning the activities around her pupils’ interests, which is a common way of planning a lesson (John, 2006). Consequently, she decided on the topic of dinosaurs which appealed to her pupils.

The Private School teachers could also make individual decisions in their lessons. For example, Mrs Experience (Teacher 10) led her lesson according to the previous night’s earthquake, a practice which does not match Tyler’s rational model of planning (John, 2006). However, the classroom participation clearly demonstrated the success of the lesson. Mrs Experience’s classroom decisions were spontaneous and brave. Classroom decisions were related to the teacher’s practical knowledge which can be gained through experience (Kock et al., 2005). Since Mrs Experience has been teaching for 25 years, her classroom opportunistic decision making can be understood more readily – she has the confidence to improvise.

As Ms Young (Teacher 6) was the least experienced teacher in the Private School, she depended on her department for many of her classroom decisions.

*Because we work as a department, I cannot do anything different from the others. We are six members of the same department - we need to synchronise our plans. Therefore we do not really do anything other than the plan (Ms Young/I/24.21.2007).*

She was reluctant to make decisions according to the flow of the lesson, a reluctance that is certainly a symptom of Ms Young’s lack of teaching experience (Calderhead, 1984). Although she tried to employ multi-sensory activities in her classroom, her lesson was based on factual questioning. The aim of the lesson was to prepare pupils for the multiple-choice examinations. Ms Young’s choice of instruction is certainly understandable.
The State School teachers’ main concern was to fulfil the requirements of the Turkish Guide Book. Since the State School is centralised by MONE, the teachers are considered civil servants who need to follow set, prescriptive guidelines. Although my participants were implementing the Turkish Guide Book, there were slight differences in their implementations.

Mr Utopia’s (Teacher 1) interpretation was based on his political standpoint. Thus his implementation of the Turkish Guide Book was very much based on a desire to explore the hidden messages within it. This exploration of the Turkish Guide Book required higher-order thinking skills, therefore the lesson was based on constructive teaching methods. Through questioning, Mr Utopia guided his pupils to think using various approaches. However, his questioning technique led pupils into socio-cognitive conflict theory. In this type of reasoning, pupils were caught between the ideas of Mr Utopia and those of the Turkish Guide Book. As socio-cognitive conflict theory is an essential tool for learning, Mr Utopia’s pupils’ make meaning from the text.

On the other hand, Mrs Joy (Teacher 3) implemented the Turkish Guide Book without adding anything herself. Since the objective of the lesson was to impose nationalistic ideas upon pupils, Mrs Joy was trying to provoke pupils’ feelings about ‘Turkishness and the Turkish flag’. The idea of unifying the Turkish Nation under the same flag was highlighted in the lesson. These type of nationalistic precepts were repeated in the textbook (Kanci & Altinay, 2006). This may also be interpreted as a modern punishment apparatus which renders uniform and corrects marginalised groups.

In addition, Mrs Joy’s teaching style was based upon lecturing. She involved the pupils through asking them questions from the Turkish Guide Book, but apart from that, she did not apply techniques for expanding pupils’ critical thinking skills.

Both Ms Nurse (Teacher 2) and Mrs Love (Teacher 4) were on the same topic in the Turkish Guide Book. However, there were some differences between their implementations. Ms Nurse was not flexible in the way she implemented the Turkish Guide Book. All the set activities were prepared by the pupils before the lesson. In the lesson, Ms Nurse wanted to
hear her pupils answer the questions. On the other hand, Ms Love was more interested in pupils’ participation, as she allowed them to dramatise the jokes.

According to the lesson observations and the interviews, the main difference among my participants’ implementations of the Turkish Guide Book was the nature of their schools. The Private School teachers’ concern was that their pupils’ learnt and that they learnt in a suitable learning environment. Thus, they prepared various multi-sensory activities to compensate for the weaknesses of the Turkish Guide Book. Nevertheless, they were still part of the surveillance apparatus through the National Examinations. On the other hand, the State School teachers’ priority is to implement the Guide Book. As the State School is a part of a highly centralised educational system, conducting standardised teaching is a typical target. Therefore, my participants tried to implement the book with only a few adaptations.

The purpose of the third section was to develop an understanding of school and classroom space and its impact on teachers’ classroom practices. It has been only natural to examine some of the common features evident in each establishment. The centralised nature of the Turkish educational system is the main point of commonality which influences teachers’ classroom behaviour. Since the meaning of the space has been constructed by power relations (McGregor, 2004), teachers’ classroom practices can be understood through their use of space. However, the Private Primary School teachers are more flexible in their implementation of the Guide Book which allows teachers to create more effective learning environments according to their pupils’ needs. On the other hand, teachers in the State Primary School feel obliged to follow the Guide Book. However, each teacher has been analysed in respect of their unique way of using space.
Chapter 7: Discussion

7.1 Introduction
Since the establishment of the Turkish Republic in 1923, education has been considered as a tool for maintaining Turkish national unity. In addition, education was also an effective instrument to indoctrinate ‘Turkishness’ to pupils. To maintain Turkish identity, it was crucial to militarise the education system. Therefore the Turkish educational system was strictly centralised. Education became controlled and regulated by the Ministry of National Education. Accordingly, centralising education meant controlling the curriculum subjects and prescribing teaching content and teachers’ pedagogy.

After the reformations in 2004, the textbooks were renewed and the constructivist teaching strategies were introduced. As a result, teachers’ had to follow and mould these top-down changes into their classroom environment. This study has therefore focused on the teachers’ interpretations and their implementations of the newly prescribed guidelines.

This study has also provided a comparison of teachers’ academic attitudes from State and Private Primary School domains. There were six participants from the Private Primary School and four participants from the State Primary School. Since a case study approach has been employed, it has been crucial to examine both of the cases from two different domains in Turkey using the same objective criteria where possible.

The major aim of this chapter is to discuss the findings of the study. The chapter is divided into three sections according to the research questions. Each section discusses the findings related teach research question and compares the differences and similarities between the schools using the literature reviewed in Chapter 2.

7.2 The Factors Influencing Teachers’ Interpretations and Implementations
The impact of the centralised nature of schooling in Turkey was more apparent in the State Primary School. According to the observations made, Y5 Turkish teachers in the State
Primary School tried to implement the Turkish Guide Book as much as they could. Although they had some doubts about the new curricular reforms, they did not do much to modify them as discussed on page 172. Mr Utopia (Teacher 1) was the only participant who made some modifications in order to adopt the Turkish Guide Book according to his ideological beliefs *(Mr Utopia/I/ 04.03.2007)*. His changes related to the ‘hidden messages’ of the Guide Book. Mr Utopia applied the questioning technique to lead his pupils’ to discover hidden messages.

His questions led pupils into higher-order thinking. However, Mr Utopia wanted to impose his ideologies onto his pupils. Mr Utopia’s ‘value assumption’ (Campbell et al., 2004) is reflected in his teaching. His analytical approach reveals his teaching style. Although Demir (2006) found that teachers in Turkey wanted to bring up ‘good citizens’, teachers’ values and beliefs play a crucial role; indeed, teachers’ understanding of ‘good citizenship’ may be particularly varied. Therefore Mr Utopia questions the textbook’s militaristic and discriminatory indoctrination. He thinks that the textbook is one sided and that it imposes its nationalistic ideas upon pupils. Therefore, Mr Utopia pinpoints these discriminatory messages in his lessons.

On the other hand, Year 5 Turkish teachers in the Private Primary School used various activities in their lessons. In the Private Primary School, Y5 Turkish teachers worked as a department and made decisions as a team. They eliminated some of the activities from the Guide Book and prepared their own activities.

There are four overlapping types of teachers’ knowledge that influence teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book. These are; teachers’ knowledge of content, knowledge of pupil, knowledge of teaching a particular topic and knowledge about curriculum materials and programmes (Kyriacou, 2007). Although Kyriacou’s (2007) knowledge criteria were used to formulate teachers’ interviews, several sub-criteria also emerged from teachers’ interviews. Mr Utopia’s and Mrs Reason’s (Teacher 1, Private School) knowledge of the Guide Book’s content influenced them greatly. In addition, Mr Utopia clearly had some doubts about the hidden political massages of the Guide Book, whereas, Mrs Reason mentioned her concerns regarding the exaggerated sentiments of the book.
Teachers’ knowledge about the pupils influenced Mr Utopia and Mrs Joy (Teacher 2). Both Mr Utopia and Mrs Joy found the new textbook and the Teachers’ Guide Book unsuitable for preparing pupils for the national examinations. Constructivist teaching was not the right technique for knowledge based multiple-choice national examinations.

It should, of course, be noted that in 2004, after the change of the National Curriculum, MONE decided to change the middle school transference system (MONE, 2004b). The transference system was based on three different ways of scoring; attitude score, cumulative score of the last three years and standard attainment tests (MONE, 2004b). However, this new transference system was not in use at the time of my interviews in both state and the private primary schools. Therefore, the traditional examination system remained an issue for my participants.

Mr Utopia was trapped between his ideologies and the requirements of the ‘system’. Although he did not believe in the standard way of training pupils, he knew that in order to provide his pupils with equal opportunities, he had to prepare them for the National Examinations (Mr Utopia/I/10.04.07). Although the new curriculum requirements do not consider the summative national examinations, parents want their children to succeed in the National Examinations. Pupils can only access ‘relatively few quality educational institutions at high school level and tertiary level’ through the National Examinations in Turkey (Aksit, 2006, p. 135). Teachers struggle to decide whether effective teaching or teaching for the National Examinations should be prioritised (Adams, 2006). In addition to this, parents send their children to private ‘coaching establishments’ called ‘dersane’ so that their children receive adequate support for the National Examinations.

Mr Utopia’s dilemma can be analysed as a symptom of the control of the educational system where even though Mr Utopia is free to choose not to implement the prescribed Turkish Guide Book, he nonetheless feels trapped by his conscience and his own values as a teacher. He tries to balance his teaching with his ideas but he knows that he is part of the power apparatus. The system, on the face of it, does not ask him to prepare his pupils for the exams. Indeed, his knowledge and belief about teaching would encourage him to refrain from slavishly teaching towards the entrance exams. He wants to guide his pupils to question the system, something which he considers to be part of their education, but, in reality, the examination system in Turkey requires him to focus on factual testing.
Mr Utopia’s dilemma may be considered as self-surveillance. Although Foucault’s (1977) surveillance system may allow everyone to be involved into the apparatus, it also has contradictory potential. In other words, Mr Utopia has been given a choice between implementing the Turkish Guide Book and preparing the pupils for their exams, however his pedagogical ideologies are very much different from the current educational system. Therefore Mr Utopia’s educational choices were actually disregarded through modern governance techniques (Lawson, 2004b). This apparatus ‘has the effect of producing acquiescent teachers’ (Lawson, 2004b, p. 8). His dilemma between the ‘apparent’ choices leads him into self-surveillance of his classroom practices.

Mr Utopia’s conflict between his ideologies and the educational system is part of the power control system which works in two different ways. Teachers are caught in a dilemma between teaching the Turkish Guide Book or teaching towards the entrance examinations. Although teachers are recommended to teach in a constructivist style, the exam requires the behaviourist teaching approach. The exams consist of factual, multiple choice questions; therefore pupils need to spend extra time on memorising facts for the exams. The teachers’ dilemma is between following the curriculum requirements and guiding pupils for the National Examinations.

In addition, both Mr Utopia and Ms Nurse (Teacher 3, State School) were concerned that the Turkish Guide Book was not appropriate for the needs of society. Both Ms Nurse and Mr Utopia were aware of the fact that parents’ religious attitude did not match the structure of the new curriculum requirements. However, my participants at the Private Primary School did not mention any doubts relating to pupils’ religious needs.

Teachers’ knowledge about teaching particular topics influenced them in their interpretations and the implementations of the Turkish Guide Book. Mrs Love (Teacher 4, State School), Mrs Life, Ms Nurse (Teacher 3: State School), Mrs Art (Teacher 5, Private School) and Ms Fun (Teacher 4, Private School) complained about their pupils’ weaknesses in writing. However, the Guide Book does not present any writing activities to improve pupils’ writing skills. Both Mrs Art and Ms Fun prepared various writing activities to develop pupils’ writing skills. On the other hand, Ms Nurse did not do anything other than conduct the activities in the Guide Book.
Ms Young (Teacher 2, Private School), Mrs Love, Ms Nurse and Mrs Joy noted the weaknesses of the Guide Book in grammar teaching. The new educational approach of the Turkish Guide Book stipulated constructivist teaching which offered only pragmatic grammar activities. Therefore, Ms Young needed to add some activities to enable her to support the pupils’ grammar. On the other hand, although the State Primary School teachers spoke about the weaknesses of the Guide Book, they did not prepare any other activities.

With the new National Curriculum, teachers were introduced to a new way of teaching. In this way, teachers need to extend pupils’ understanding of the sentence structures and ‘construction of the language, meaningful language groups and the links’ (Demir & Yapici, 2007, p. 184) rather than knowledge based on the memorizing of grammar rules. However, in the past, primary teachers in Turkey taught for the examination of EMS (examinations for middle schools). Teachers focused on teaching grammar rules rather than comprehension of the language (Demir & Yapici, 2007).

The curriculum reform changed the approach to teaching from subject-centred to learner-centred which meant pupils became the centre of the learning process (Babadogan & Olkun, 2007, p. 2). This top-down shift on teachers’ role was immensely difficult to adopt (Babadogan & Olkun, 2007). Teachers in Turkey were used to teaching through knowledge transmission (the conventional way of teaching) (Babadogan & Olkun, 2007). However, teaching in constructivism is very much based on ‘transmitting meaning through symbols’ (Yilmaz, 2008 p. 38). As a result, with the new teaching style, teachers do not feel like teaching ‘knowledge’ - in other words they do not consider ‘meaning making’ as real teaching, especially when teaching grammar.

According to the interviews, Mrs Love (Teacher 4) and Ms Nurse (Teacher 2) did not consider constructivist teaching as knowledge transmission and therefore they did not regard constructivist teaching as ‘real teaching’. Mrs Love defined the new way of teaching as ‘making the pupils feel it’ (Mrs Love/I/ 07.04.2007) and Ms Nurse considers constructivist teaching as an abstract way of teaching (Ms Nurse/I/05.04.2007). In addition, Ms Young (Teacher 6) and Mrs Joy (Teacher 3) were not convinced with the new way of teaching, either. However, unlike the State Primary School teachers, the Private Primary School teachers try to use various teaching activities in order to teach grammar.
When Mrs Joy was conducting the writing exercises from the Turkish Guide Book, she felt the need to warn her pupils to be careful with capital letters. This type of knowledge is called ‘Personal Practical Knowledge’ (Jenkins & 2003) or ‘Attention Based Knowledge’ (Ainley et al., 2004). This type of knowledge requires teachers’ pedagogical and content knowledge. Although Mrs Joy has not been trained as a teacher, she tries to implement the Turkish Guide Book with her practical knowledge. Although teachers need to implement the Turkish Guide Book, they still need to expand their teaching skills and to adopt them into their classroom environments (Merry, 2004).

Both teachers from the State Primary School (Mr Utopia, Mrs Joy) and the Private Primary School (Mrs Experience, Mrs Reason, Ms Young, Ms Fun and Mrs Art) stated their discontentment with the set activities prescribed by the Turkish Guide Book. Mr Utopia’s doubts were related to his political view and he criticised the group work activities because he felt that they encouraged pupils to compete. On the other hand, Mrs Joy thought group work activities motivated pupils.

Mr Utopia is not aware of social constructivist teaching techniques because group work is meant to be used for scaffolding rather than competing. Group work can be used for constructing pupils’ zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Adams, 2006). According to ZPD, pupils can achieve their potential development through the guidance of their ‘able’ peers or adults (Gillen, 2000). Therefore, if group work is arranged carefully, it may help pupils’ academic development (Adams, 2006). According to the classroom observations, Mr Utopia prefers lecturing and questioning for classroom teaching. Although he uses questioning to elicit information from the pupils, most of the time, he tries to impose his own ideologies.

The Private Primary School teachers’ concern was related to the structure of the activities in the Turkish Guide Book. They thought that they were repetitive and boring. Therefore they prepared different activities for their pupils.

According to the semi-structured interviews and the classroom observations, Private Primary School teachers’ main accountability was to pupils and parents. In addition, since the National Examinations were set as the main criteria of academic success in Turkey, at every
opportunity, Private Primary School teachers prepared their pupils for those examinations using various activities. Although the Private Primary School teachers were more flexible when implementing the Guide Book, they were still strictly ‘controlled and trained’ by the National Examinations.

However, the State Primary School teachers were concerned about the implementations of the Guide Book. They accepted the weaknesses of the Guide Book and, without many changes, they implemented its contents.

According to the Turkish Guide Book, teachers were asked to guide pupils to find out the meaning of the sentences and the role of the words rather than defining the target language (MONE, 2004a). This top-down reform of 2004 required the training of teachers. However, there has not much attention given to such training (Yilmaz, 2008 p. 6). The only material offered to teachers on constructivist teaching is the Turkish Guide Book (MONE, 2005a).

7.3 The factors Influencing Teachers’ Choices of Classroom Activities

According to the semi-structured interviews and the classroom observations, the main factors influencing teachers’ choices of classroom activities were the National Examinations, pupils’ academic needs and Turkish Guide Book requirements.

Although both of the schools are part of the same educational system, teachers’ teaching approaches are different because of teachers’ accountabilities. As teachers in the private system are employed by the private foundation which is funded by the middle and upper class parents, teachers are accountable for the pupils in order to maintain their jobs. Conversely, State Primary School teachers are employed by the ministry and considered to be civil servants and are accountable to the head teacher and the Ministry of National Education. Therefore they try to implement the Turkish Guide Book as required.

The 2004 educational reformations introduced constructivist teaching. However, State Primary School teachers’ common teaching approach was teacher-centred knowledge transmission. Although there were some activities for activating pupils’ creativity and critical thinking in the Turkish Guide Book, the implementations of the activities were not effective.
This was related to teachers’ lack of pedagogical knowledge, the unsuitability of the school and the classroom environment and the lack of explanation of the learning outcomes by the Guide Book.

Both Mr Utopia and Ms Nurse voiced their concerns for pupils’ futures. As the State Primary School is located in a working class area, pupils who enrol in the State Primary School are from working class backgrounds. Therefore, pupils’ future is the central concern for the State Primary School teachers. However, the prescribed curriculum does not complement the National Examinations. Consequently, teachers are faced with a conflict regarding their priorities in the classroom.

On the other hand, teachers from the Private Primary School did not mention any concerns about pupils’ future. As the Private Primary School is a fee paid institution, the pupils who attend the Private Primary School are from affluent backgrounds (Cinoglu, 2006). For this reason, parents can afford extra support for their children outside the school (Gok, 2006). At the same time, teachers at the Private Primary School can find spare time to prepare their pupils for the exams.

During my observation period in the Private School, Year 5 Turkish teachers were preparing the pupils for their general exams, as were numerous other schools. It was important, therefore, for my participants’ reputation that their pupils excelled in these examinations. Lessons were very much tailored to the examination subjects. However, in the State School, my participants were not required to prepare their pupils for the National Exams. They were only responsible for implementing the Turkish Guide Book and assessing their pupils accordingly.

Although the Private Primary School examination is not a national one, both teachers and pupils were taking it very seriously. The idea of the exam was to assess the level of all the branches of the Private Schools and to prepare them for the National Examinations. Therefore the model of the exam was taken from the National Examinations. In addition, both teachers and pupils were competing with one another in order to be ranked. It is not only about assessing pupils’ knowledge, but also ranking pupils and teachers. Moreover, the Private Schools were also competing with each other.
This is a way of controlling and disciplining a society by normalising judgement, and this is also combined with examinations (Gutting, 2005). Both ‘examinations’ and ‘normalising judgement’ are the ways of modern power control (Foucault, 1977; Gutting, 2005). Examinations and normalising judgement are inter-linked; through examinations, both teachers and pupils are categorised, ranked and judged, which are the ways of normalising judgement. In the Private School, examinations are used for ranking and power-knowledge. In other words, examinations served for ‘normalising judgement’. In this case, teachers are both the tool and the subject of the controlling apparatus (Foucault, 1977). The Private School teachers were required to prepare the exams and at the same time, their professional competency is judged through those examinations. Although Private Primary School teachers’ primary concern is to prepare the pupils for the exams, participants also tried to conduct lessons with a variety of teaching activities in order to avoid a monotonous pedagogy.

According to the classroom observations, teachers in the Private Primary School mainly used lecturing style knowledge transmission teaching techniques when they were preparing their pupils for the examinations because the content of the examinations can be transmitted easily and assessment can be more accurate (Isikoglu et al., 2009, p. 355). Since the examinations set multiple-choice and factual questions, teachers chose to give their pupils some examples from previous papers. In each classroom (six classrooms), I observed that each teacher chose to write the questions on the board and answer the questions together with the pupils. After each question, if there was any problem in understanding on the part of the pupils, teachers also explained the answers in detail. This was whole class teaching and there was not much interaction among pupils in the classrooms. Pupils were asked to respond orally when they answered the multiple-choice questions. Apart from that, it was mainly the teachers who were active - writing the questions and explaining the answers.

On the other hand, teachers at the Private Primary School prepared various activities. Some of the activities were described and discussed in page 190. Since Private Primary School teachers’ main accountability is to their pupils and parents, they tried to implement various activities in order to hold pupils’ attention. They also allow pupils to create and make things. However, they are concerned about losing classroom control and therefore the activities do not include much pupil interaction as the risk of disorder is greater in these activities.
There are various differences between the State and the Private Primary School Y5 Turkish teachers’ choices of classroom activities. One of the most obvious differences is the Private Primary School teachers’ concern for pupils’ contentment. Since the Private Primary School is fee paid, teachers are accountable to parents; otherwise parents may withdraw their children from the school (Cinoglu, 2006). During the interviews and the conversations with Private Primary School teachers, Ms Fun, Ms Young, Mrs Experience, Mrs Art and Mrs Life all referred to the lack of “fun” elements in the set activities. This demonstrates that the Private School primary teachers care for their pupils’ entertainment whilst learning. Although teachers from the State Primary School mentioned the weaknesses of the Turkish Guide Book, they did not refer to the degree of entertainment provided by the activities. This attitude of Private Primary School teachers can be interpreted as being a direct result of the nature of the Private School. Since the Private School is fee paid, teachers make sure that Pupils have a good time while learning. It is important to make pupils happy at the same time as educating them. Thus, Private Primary School teachers prefer to have both educative and entertaining activities in their lessons.

Although Private Primary School teachers complained about the repetition of the classroom activities, for example, guessing the theme of the story from the picture, making sentences by using the key words and so on, they try to alter and to add different activities into their syllabuses. However, the State Primary School teachers try to implement the activities as they are asked to do. They do not make changes in their teaching. The Private Primary School teachers decide on the activities as a department. There is a unity among the members of the Turkish department. However, their teaching objectives are based on the learning outcomes. Thus they create various activities from various different sources. On the other hand, the State Primary School teachers’ concern is to standardise their teaching through using the Turkish Guide Book. As the Turkish Guide Book is the only reference for the State Primary School teachers, it is a powerful way of controlling State Primary School teachers’ subject choice and teaching.

Since the Private Primary School teachers teach small groups of pupils, they have more time to conduct various activities. Therefore they are able to finish the required curriculum and to add different activities. On the other hand, the State Primary School teachers are only able to finish the required curriculum.
Both the State and the Private Primary School teachers mentioned the lack of writing activities in the Turkish Guide Book. However, some of the Private Primary School teachers prepare various activities to fill this gap (some of the writing activities are mentioned in 191. On the other hand, although the State Primary School teachers are aware of the lack of writing activities, they do not do anything about it.

The Private Primary School teachers are more flexible in their teaching. However, they share their ideas about their teaching activities in weekly meetings. As the Private Primary School teachers can spend more time with each pupil, they understand their pupils’ academic weaknesses particularly well. Therefore they adapt their activities according to their classroom needs. According to the field notes recorded in one of the departmental weekly meetings on 27/12/2007, the SEN teacher, who is charge of Y5, attended the meeting to support teachers in their attempts to deal with pupils’ academic and behavioural problems. In addition, the SEN teachers support pupils outside the classroom environment.

On the other hand, the State Primary School has a double shift system which does not allow the teachers to spend enough time with their pupils. Therefore, they find it difficult to identify their pupils’ problems. In addition, some of the teachers do not feel that they are given the support to deal with students with special educational needs. As an example Mrs Joy (Teacher 3/RD/02.03.2007) struggles to balance the needs of the SEN pupils with the needs of the rest of the class. Since she needs to devote extra time to the SEN pupils, she finds it very difficult to balance whole class teaching and tutoring the SEN pupil. Mr Utopia does not feel he is qualified enough to teach this pupil and he does not receive extra support for SEN provision. Therefore, Mr Utopia conducts his lessons without considering this pupil’s specific SEN requirements.

In addition to this, the State Primary School Y5 Turkish teachers do not make decisions together as a department. The afternoon teachers and the morning teachers cannot even see each other at school. Therefore, each State Primary School Y5 teacher conducts the Turkish Guide Book the way he/she understands it.

Although both the State and the Private Primary School Y5 teachers implement the Turkish Guide Book, there are some differences with their interpretations and implementations. The Private Primary School teachers try to use as many multi-sensory activities as they can and
they prepare them together as a department. On the other hand, the State Primary School Y5 teachers implement the Turkish Guide Book in the way they were asked to do it without additional activities. This may be interpreted as a facet of the centralised nature of the State School.

### 7.4 Power Control in Centralised Turkish Education

With the foundation of the Turkish Republic in 1924, education became a tool for building a strong Turkish nation (Cayir & Gurkaynak, 2008). Thus, the main objective of Turkish education is to impose ‘Turkishness’ upon pupils. Although Turkey is considered to be multicultural, every citizen has to be a proud Turk. Therefore a highly regimented education was the main objective. This power control was part of Foucault’s (1977) ‘Normalising Judgement’, which identifies the ‘abnormal’ or ‘marginal’ and tries to normalise ‘them’.

Drawing upon the theoretical framework of Foucault’s (1977) *Discipline and Punish: the Birth of the Prison*, this study shows that the structure of the State and the Private schools were similar to Bentham’s panopticon prison. In addition, severe surveillance was evident from the reminders to teachers and pupils of state control in every corner of the schools. Although in the Private Primary School state control was not as apparent as in the state school, the daily rituals were nonetheless practiced and the pupils were trained and categorized through the National Examinations.

#### 7.4.1 Power Control through the Turkish Guide Book and the Textbook

After the educational reforms of 2004, there were some fundamental changes in the educational system. The tone of the textbooks was slightly changed, reducing the degree of militaristic indoctrination (Cayir, 2009).

The role of women may be interpreted differently by various teachers. Mr Utopia (*I/ 04/03/2007*) talked about a picture in the textbook in page 170. Mr Utopia considers these types of pictures as ‘dangerous’ because they may impose an unequal spread of roles in a Turkish family. In a way, Mr Utopia considers the picture as a method by which MONE tries to impose a model of a family upon pupils through the textbook. Some of the curriculum subjects form the power structures at the society (Paechter, 2001a). Mr Utopia recognises the discriminatory indoctrination of the picture and tries to eliminate the confusion and expands
pupils’ thoughts about it. On the other hand Mrs Joy (Teacher 3/RD/02.03.2007), in her lesson about the Turkish flag, suggests that the Ottoman Empire is to blame for gender inequality in page and the Turkish Republic brought gender equality. There is a picture of children looking at the Turkish flag (Goren et al., 2004) and the message of the picture is that these girls and boys are given equal opportunities by the Turkish Republic. In other words, while being a Turkish soldier has been praised, gender equality has been guaranteed through the Turkish Republic. The unity of Turkish republic can only be maintained by Turkish soldiers (men) and this argument may contradict the idea of gender equality in the Turkish textbook.

Mrs Joy was trying to pass on the same message to her pupils (Teacher 3/RD/02.03.2007). In a way, she is indoctrinating her pupils with messages without any questioning of the efficacy of such ideas. Mrs Joy is a victim and a tool in the power control apparatus. First of all Mrs Joy is a victim because she believes in the discriminatory indoctrination of the Turkish Guide Book and at the same time, she passes the messages on to the pupils without questioning them.

Although textbooks were in some measure demilitarised, the educational system is still highly centralised and the schools still need to justify every decision to MONE. This power control also has an impact on teachers’ instructional decisions. When implementing the Turkish Guide Book, State Primary School participants remained loyal to the requirements of MONE. In other words, they have been loyal citizens.

On the other hand, the Private Primary School teachers feel more accountable to the parents and the pupils (Cinoglu, 2006). Hence, the power control in the Private Primary School shifts to the parents and the pupils instead of MONE. Since the parents pay fees, the teachers’ primary aim is to fulfil the needs of the pupils and their parents.

7.4.2 Power Control through Examinations

The Private Schools’ mission is to produce successful individuals who ‘succeed in the National Examinations’. Children still have to pass the National Examinations in order to guarantee a successful future. Consequently, public examinations are also the criteria for being successful and the reputation of the Private Primary School is related to it. The
participants in the Private Primary School prepare their pupils for these examinations; therefore, they are more flexible with militaristic implications in the prescribed texts. However, the Private School aims (shown in table 7.1 below) prove that there is, evidently, severe power control in their understanding of schooling. For this reason, it is crucial to analyse the Private School aims in this section. (The Private Primary School aims were copied from the schools’ website; however the website reference is not given here for ethical purposes).

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Mentally and physically balanced, tolerant and self-disciplined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Think critically, has good social skills and can communicate well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Follows Ataturk reforms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Aware of the responsibilities placed upon them by society and acts accordingly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Use Turkish effectively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Has advanced English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Values scientific works</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Use Information Technology effectively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Can access higher education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Aims at higher education and who can achieve lifelong education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The school’s aims may be interpreted using Foucault’s (1977) idea of power control and discipline. When Foucault’s (1977) correct training techniques were considered, items 1,3,4,9 and 10 can especially fit into disciplining methods. The Private School wants to ‘produce’ pupils who are mentally and physically balanced, which is a way of punishing docile bodies. Pupils were trained to be ‘balanced’ or ‘normalised’ to be fit enough to serve the needs of society. So it is also important to be aware of the responsibilities of society which were set by the people who are at the top of the surveillance apparatus.

According to item 3, the Private school also want to train pupils to follow Ataturk reforms. Ataturk, the founder of Turkish Republic has been the key figure in the Turkish educational system. He is also the symbol of unity of the Turkish nation. However, repetitive reminders of the ‘deeds of Ataturk’ were used for severe surveillance and normalising judgement.

Getting into higher education is possible through examinations. Therefore, the last two items are related to Foucault’s (1977) normalising judgement and examinations. It is part of
normalising judgement because pupils are categorised, classified and manipulated to be part of the ‘elite’ society, in a way they are normalised. In addition, in order to be part of that society, they need to pass exams. In conclusion, the private school aims are the summary of their educational practices.

Although teachers in each case feel accountable to different things, MONE is the centre of the ‘power control’ in both of the cases. According to the filed notes, Private Primary School teachers are responsible for their pupils; however their principle concern is their pupils’ success in the National Examinations as it was mentioned in items 9 and 10. Since the National Examination board is part of MONE, Private Primary School teachers have to teach according to the requirements of MONE. This indirect power control still has an impact on Private Primary School teachers’ lessons. Although they try to prepare various activities, the objective of the lessons is to prepare pupils for the examinations.

On the other hand, the State Primary School teachers feel accountable to MONE directly. Their actual concern is to fulfil the requirements of MONE. Although they are aware of the National Examinations, preparation for the examinations is not one of the requirements. Hence teachers’ primary role is to implement the Turkish Guide Book as much as possible.

Although changes to the examination system were made after the interviews, the new middle school transference system does not seem more relevant to the constructivist teaching methods (MONE, 2004b). The only change seems to be the empowering of teachers over pupils in the middle school transmission which gives teachers more authority but at the same time burdens them with ‘self-surveillance’ (Lawson, 2004b). Teachers are asked to grade pupils according to their participation and attitude. Therefore teachers were assigned more power over pupils’ education (Lawson, 2004b). However, empowering teachers with more responsibilities paradoxically can also limit their powers in the classroom. In addition, the grading of attitude is supposed to be ‘objective’. Pupils’ main teachers were asked to provide a score for each pupil (MONE, 2004b). Moreover, this collaborative grading system may sustain ‘objectivity’, but at the same time it may be considered as ‘self-surveillance’. In other words, teachers were asked to check their colleagues’ grades in order to maintain ‘objectivity’.
7.4.3 Power Control through Spatiality

School and classroom space is a concrete manifestation of power control which also displays particular ideologies of education and pedagogy (McGregor, 2004, p. 13). Therefore understanding the school spatiality is fundamental for analysing teachers’ choices of classroom activities. The meaning of school and classroom space is constructed by power relations within its physical boundaries (McGregor, 2004). Therefore teachers’ classroom practices are determined by its surroundings and at the same time the space is used for teachers’ classroom practices. In other words, in this section, school and classroom space will be analysed through its double functionality as a teaching tool and also as a product of power relations.

In addition, school spatiality is evidence of Foucault’s power control techniques of ‘surveillance, normalization, exclusion, distribution and so on’ (Gore, 2001, p. 174). Thus, in this section, the aim is to analyse Private and State Primary School spaces according to Foucault’s (1977) power control techniques, as power control is the key factor for classroom teaching and learning in Turkey.

The panopticon prison model underlines the ideas of ‘analytical arrangement of space and systematic surveillance’ (Foucault, 1977, p. 203). Both the State and the Private Primary Schools are organised according to the permanent visibility concept; although the classrooms are closed with doors, there are glass windows to secure their visibility. According to Foucault (1977), modern architecture serves for the needs of institutions and at the same time, it makes easier for the teachers to watch pupils. In classrooms, pupils are watched by the teachers and they are trained and kept ‘well-behaved’. There are obvious justifications for watching pupils in classrooms for assessment purposes, as assessment is a necessary tool for effective teaching. During the breaks, teachers who are on duty, watch the pupils playing in the playground. There are also teachers on duty in every corner of the school to help protect children from ‘danger’.

Although the shape of the State Primary School is not like a panopticon prison, it is not friendly or welcoming either. Thus, the school seems like any other Turkish bureaucratic institution with many of reminders of its centralised nature. At first glance, marble stairs and box-like classrooms remind me of a hospital rather than a primary school. When the analogy
of a panopticon is applied to the analysis of the State Primary School building, some of the distinctive features of the building and severe surveillance is evident.

One of the most distinctive surveillance features that I encountered in the State School were the displays of Ataturk. At the entrance to the school, a massive Ataturk statue welcomes pupils and teachers alike. In addition, classrooms are adorned with Ataturk posters and displays of nationalistic paintings. The reminder of the state control is on every corner of the State School.

In each school, as observed earlier, corridors were adorned with displays of children’s works. In the State School, Ataturk portraits and nationalistic pictures covered the majority of the displays. Although it is compulsory to have an Ataturk corner in each school (MONE, 2003), in the State School, Ataturk is everywhere watching ‘the Turkish youth’. Thus, the idea of symbolic surveillance is also evident in every corner of the State Primary School. On the other hand, in the Private School, teachers make sure that the display boards were renewed according to the theme of the week or the month.

Although there were some apparent state influences at the Private School, the building was more child-friendly. The shape of the building was circular and the walls had been painted with different colours. The corridors were adorned with pupils’ work and seasonal themes instead. However, as soon as I entered the Private School campus, I came across security guards who wanted to see my identity card. Although the act can be justified as being for security purposes, it is an apparatus for disciplining ‘docile bodies’ (Foucault, 1977, p. 172). In other words, the boundaries of the Private Primary School had been set through guards, so ‘places and spaces’ were identified, allocated and divided with borders.

In addition, stationing security guards at the entrance of the campus is a way of locking the schools from the outside world (Horne, 2004). This physical boundary alienates the Private Primary School from the outside world. Although the Private Primary School aims to produce pupils who are aware of societal needs, pupils were kept away from the society by security guards.

In both the State and the Private Schools, the classrooms were separated from the rest of the school with a door and were ‘box like’. According to the ORACLE study, ‘box like’ or ‘shoe
box’ shaped classrooms were not sufficient enough for effective teaching activities (Comber & Wall, 2001). This does not allow pupils to interact effectively, but it does provide teachers with more control over the classes (Comber & Wall, 2001).

In each school, the teacher’s table is the dominant feature of the classroom. My participants used the table for various reasons, like checking homework, registration and giving instructions. The teacher’s table may be associated with authority as it is bigger than the pupils’ desks. As places and furniture are identified with people and their roles, the teacher’s table may be associated with the perception of the teachers’ role. In the state school, the teacher’s table was situated in the middle of the classroom. However, in the private school, teacher’s table was placed in the corner of the classrooms. In addition, the use of shared desks in the State Primary School suggested that each pupil is the same, whereas the use of individual desks in the Private Primary School suggests an approach more focussed on individuality. Even the teaching style in the State Primary School is standardised to ‘produce’ similar pupils.

7.4.4 Power Control through Repetitive Rituals and the Pledge to Turkish Youth

‘The time-table is an old inheritance’ (Foucault, 1977, p. 149). Both in the State and the Private Schools, there are types of power control rituals, especially lesson periods, lunch breaks, assemblies and study periods. For each activity, there is place and time organised by the schools. At certain times pupils have to be in specific places, controlled by the school bell. Every ritual is announced by an electronic bell, or rather music, for instance, pupils and teachers go to and leave classrooms upon the sound of the music. This is another way of disciplining the pupils and the teachers. The militaristic designs of the schools suggest top-down educational activities (Margolis & Fram, 2007). Although electronic bells are used in both State and Private Schools, the choice of music for the bells is slightly different. In the State School, nationalistic songs were used which may be used as a reminder of the state control. However, in the Private School, the music is picked from a selection of international children’s songs. This may only be a coincidence. However, it may also tell us something about the different schools’ characteristics.
Although some educational changes took place in 2004, it was a top-down process (Aksit, 2006). One of the aims of these changes was to demilitarise the textbooks and sustain ethnic equality (Cayir, 2009). Although the militaristic discriminatory tone was partially diminished in the textbooks, the routine of the schools was not altered by policy makers (Cayir, 2009). Every school morning, pupils and teachers from both the State and the Private Primary Schools still queue in front of the Ataturk statue and they are reminded of ‘how happy they are to be Turkish’.

After the war of independence in 1923, to be able to maintain the unity of the nation, schools were centralised by the Turkish government (the state of the Turkish education system in 1924 has been explained in the Literature Chapter). According to Dewey’s reports in 1924, ‘uniformity’ was the biggest danger for the educational system. The Vow to Turkish Youth may also be considered as a ‘tool’ for ‘standardising’ the society. This can also be presented as a tool of military discipline. Moreover, ‘marginal groups’ or ‘docile bodies’ are corrected and put into the ‘social mainstream’ of ‘Turkishness’ (Gutting, 2005, p. 90). In addition, ‘Turkishness’ is portrayed as the ultimate way to happiness. In other words, being Turkish is presented as being ‘happy’.

In the State and in the Private Schools, morning rituals are the same. The day starts with the ‘pupils’ vow to Turkish youth in front of an Ataturk statue. In this vow, both pupils and teachers are reminded of their ‘Turkishness’. This is a way of disciplining or controlling the pupils by repetition of the activities. In other words, this is a way of assimilating marginal groups like “homosexuals, members of non-standard religions, immigrants from non-Western cultures” (Gutting, 2005, p. 88). However, in this context marginal groups are non-Turkish people. By making the primary school pupils repeat the ‘Pledge to Turkish Youth’, ‘marginal groups’ interact with the rest of society and are normalised (Foucault, 1977). The pledge is also a way of reminding both pupils and their teachers of ‘surveillance’. This compulsory ritual is meant to establish national unity.

7.5 Chapter Summary

Drawing upon the theoretical framework of Foucault’s (1977) modern power control strategies, the major factor influencing teachers’ classroom practices is power control.
Foucault’s (1977) framework of modern power control strategies are hierarchical observation, normalising judgement and examinations are evident in this study. In both of the schools, hierarchical observation is present through architectural designs. In addition, through Atatürk portraits, nationalistic pictures and the Turkish flag, those within the schools are reminded of the state control. In normalising judgement, pupils are ranked, judged and normalised through their acts, achievements and ethnicity which has also a direct impact on teachers’ reputations. In other words, teachers are accountable to pupils’ normalising judgement. Examinations are inter-linked to normalising judgement which ranks and gathers knowledge about pupils (Gutting, 2005). So in each case, examinations are employed to set barriers on pupils to normalise and to get a full membership of this power control apparatus.

This study focuses on the factors influencing teachers’ interpretations and the implementations of the Turkish Guide Book. The centralised nature of the Turkish educational system was the major factor influencing teachers’ interpretations of the Turkish Guide Book in the State Primary School. As State Primary School teachers are considered akin to civil servants, their responsibility was to follow the prescribed guidelines. On the other hand, the Private School teachers implemented the Turkish Guide Book according to pupils’ academic and personal needs. When it is necessary, teachers also used different sources in order to compliment the Turkish Guide Book.

This study also focuses on the factors influencing teachers’ choices of classroom activities. Although teachers were considered to be flexible with their choices of the classroom activities, they were controlled by the Turkish Guide Book. It was more obvious in the State School because of its nature. However, the Private School teachers conducted multiple classroom activities for various learning outcomes.

Since this study is about Y5 teacher’s interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book, the impact of Foucault’s (1977) power-control in teachers’ interpretations and implementations is the main concern of the study; ‘…individuals operate in a conceptual environment that determines and limits them in ways of which they cannot be aware’ (Gutting, 2005, p. 33). Thus, my participants have not revealed the impact of power-control explicitly. However, the observation field notes were sufficient to analyse the impact of power-control.
CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION

This final chapter aims to draw together the threads of this study and comprises of five sections; a summary of the study, addressing the gap in literature on Turkish Education, the demands of the gatekeeper and the participants, participants’ doubts about my identity and ethical considerations, as well as what I have learned as a researcher from undertaking this study.

Section One summarises the study. Section Two focuses on the key contributions of the study and how it fills a gap in Research Literature concerning the Turkish Educational System. Section Three discusses the limitations of the study, in particular the demands of the gatekeeper and the participants. Section Four discusses in detail recommendations for future research. Finally, the last section focuses on what I have learned as a researcher.

8.1 Summary of the Study

During the course of this study, I have learned that power-control may be considered as the main factor influencing teachers’ classroom behaviour. Although there are various differences in teachers’ classroom practices, the centralised nature of the Turkish educational system disciplines, punishes and controls ‘docile bodies’ (Foucault, 1977).

This study focuses on the State and the Private Primary School teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book. Turkey’s candidacy for accession to the European Union led to some reformations in education in 2004 (Aksit, 2006). One of the aims of the 2004 reforms was to introduce new teaching styles along with renewed textbooks and teachers’ guide books. However, throughout these reformation movements, there has been little attention given to teachers’ training. Although the Turkish Guide Book meant to standardise teaching nationwide, it was also meant to transform primary schooling in Turkey.

The 2004 reforms converted teaching from a behaviourist to a constructivist approach. In addition, student-centred teaching was accepted as the main strategy of the teaching.
However, the organization of the State Primary School was not appropriate for the pupil’s active learning. Some of the Guide Book activities required equipment like musical instruments, costumes for dramatisation and so on. However, at the state school, the right equipment was not provided.

On the other hand, the Private Primary School is considered to be a profit making institution. The school is affluent enough to be able to provide the necessary equipment for pupils’ academic improvement. The school is organised according to multi-sensory teaching activities. Although the classrooms were not much different from the State Primary School classrooms, the school was well equipped with a library, sports hall, computer room and so on.

Drawing upon the theoretical framework of Foucault’s (1977) modern power control strategies, a major factor influencing teachers’ classroom practices both in the State and the Private Primary Schools emerged. A highly centralised Turkish educational system has a major influence on teachers’ classroom practices. However the State School participants’ attitude towards teaching and learning was different from the Private School participants. The State School participants had doubts about the new Turkish Guide Book; however they did not make any changes with their implementations of it. However, teachers from the Private School adopted various activities into their teaching. The difference among teachers’ classroom behaviour may be explained through the structure of the schools. Although both of the schools are controlled and inspected by MONE, MONE’s influence over the State Primary School is more evident.

The State Primary School teachers are considered to be equivalent to civil servants working for MONE. They are employed and paid by MONE. In other words, they are part of the surveillance apparatus. In this surveillance system, the State School teachers’ role is to follow the Turkish Guide Book. Although the State School teachers were deemed to be flexible with their adaptation of the Turkish Guide Book, they were not trained before the curriculum was changed; therefore they were not familiar with constructivist teaching techniques. Hence, they were left without any other option but to implement the Guide Book.

The Turkish Guide Book serves as a tool for severe surveillance. Primary School teachers in Turkey are prescribed with some set texts and classroom activities which may be interpreted
in two different ways. First, teachers are controlled to teach certain texts; therefore power control limits their teaching nationwide. It is a way of standardising schooling in Turkey. The second interpretation may be related to the content of the texts. These texts also serve as a tool for a modern power control. In these texts there are nationalistic and discriminatory messages (Cayir, 2009) which are meant to remind pupils of the surveillance and to indoctrinate Turkishness to the pupils. Although militaristic and nationalistic indoctrination in the textbooks has been slightly diminished, there are texts which glorify the Turkish nation (Goren et al., 2005). When the multi-ethnic nature of the Turkish Republic is considered, the textbooks with nationalistic features would serve as a way of assimilating different ethnic groups and normalising them, in other words making the marginal groups ‘Turks’.

Although both the State and the Private Primary School teachers have to follow the Turkish Guide Book, the Private School participants are more flexible with their implementation of it, they try to add various activities according to the needs of the pupils as demonstrated on page 190. However the National Examinations, in this case, work as a tool for power control strategy. Since the Private Primary School’s reputation was based on the success rate in the National Examination, teachers’ main concern is to prepare pupils for these knowledge based exams. All teachers are required to teach through definite pedagogical approaches and certain subjects which are unsuitable for preparing pupils to the National Examinations. The State Primary School teachers were, however, also aware of the significant impact of National Examinations on pupils’ academic future. This created a dilemma for them between teaching according to the National Examinations and following the Turkish Guide Book. This can be considered as modern punishment by MONE.

The national pledge of allegiance may also be considered as a ‘tool’ for ‘standardising’ the society. This can also be presented as a tool of military discipline. Moreover, ‘marginal groups’ or ‘docile bodies’ are corrected and put into the ‘social mainstream’ of ‘Turkishness’ (Gutting, 2005, p. 90). In addition, ‘Turkishness’ is portrayed as the ultimate way to happiness. In other words, being Turkish is presented as being ‘happy’.

Spatiality can also be considered to be a mode of modern power control (Massey, 1994). Therefore the structure of space in both the State and the Private Primary Schools is a form of surveillance apparatus. In particular, Ataturk portraits and Turkish flags were prominently displayed in every corner of the State School, which acted as a reminder of the state control
and ‘Turkishness’. On the other hand, in the Private Primary School state control was not as apparent; however, the structure of the school was organised according to permanent visibility, as explained in page 216.

The reformations of 2004 may be considered as a major step forward towards the modernisation of education in Turkey. However, the restructuring was a top-down reform process. In addition, the 2004 reformation was a short term change process that did not consider the foundations of the schools or teacher training. Moreover, the centralised nature of the education system was kept the same. Hence, state control is evident through surveillance, examinations and discipline. The reformers were clearly very optimistic to think that these changes would produce the intended results.

Throughout this journey, as a researcher I have learned about various types of power control and how they are applied in an educational environment in Turkey. Before conducting this research, I was aware of the centralised nature of the Turkish educational system; however, I did not realise how much power control strategies can influence a teacher’s classroom practices. Before conducting the research, I thought it was only teachers’ educational background and teachers’ understanding of teaching and learning which influenced teachers’ classroom practices. However, teachers’ classroom practice was controlled through centralised state control in various ways. Teachers were even conditioned to think in certain state approved ways which confirmed the concepts of national identity and pride. In addition, I have learnt a lot about myself, as a Turk, and my “Turkishness”. This study has made me analyse my own formative background and reflect, in particular, upon my primary school experiences; the militaristic regime of everyday life, the discriminatory discipline system and control regulations that were key aspects of my schooling seemed to be ‘normal’ procedures. I was accustomed to severe surveillance, normalising judgement and examinations as part of everyday life rituals and practices. In addition, I was convinced that it was necessary for the unity and the harmony of the nation. However this study has made me question what I think ‘normal’ is. Furthermore, through this study it is evident that the educational system in Turkey is in process of improvement, nonetheless, further reformation will need to be structured into the national framework so as to bring Turkish education into the 21st century.
8.2 Addressing the Gap in Literature on Turkish Education

This study addresses the gap in literature regarding the state and the Private Primary School teachers’ interpretations and the implementations of the Turkish Guide Book in two ways: it offers a new perspective to centralised education in Turkey and provides a comparison of the state and private primary schools in Turkey.

Previous studies about the Turkish education system (Cayir & Gurkaynak, 2008; Cennet Demir & Paykoc, 2006; Kanci & Altinay, 2006) dealt with the impacts of the strict centralisation on schooling. However, Foucault’s (1977) theory of modern punishment was not applied.

The Turkish educational system was formed as a tool for keeping Turkish unity. Therefore in every primary school in Turkey, there is some evidence of indoctrination and the militarisation. When Foucault’s (1977) Discipline and Punish: the Birth of the Prison is applied to the education system, the structure of it can be more meaningfully understood.

This study also offers a comparison of the state and the private schooling which has not been investigated by previous researchers. Although there are studies about teachers’ accountability, classroom misbehaviour and comparative studies between Turkish and English educational systems, there has not been a comparative study of State and Private Primary School teachers’ classroom practices.

8.3 Limitations of the Study

This section highlights three possible limitations of the study, which include the demands of the gatekeepers and the participants, participants’ doubts about my identity and ethical considerations of the study.

8.3.1 The Demands of the Gatekeeper and the Participants

Although the aim was to conduct the same research design in both of the state and the private schools, there were some difficulties in both cases. It was not easy to follow the same research structure. It was partly governed by participants, gatekeepers and others. Since they
were letting me into their school, which was already a great favour, both schools naturally wondered what kind of a favour I was going to give them in return. From the start, the ground rules were set by the gatekeepers, so I did not have much right to trespass from those set boundaries.

The aim of the study was to conduct research into both the state and the private schools. Therefore I intended to replicate the same research design in both the state and the private schools. Before gaining access into schools, the research design had been prepared. The semi-structured interviews with teachers, the head teacher, parents and pupils, focus groups, classroom observations and questionnaires were the main research tools. The first phase of the study took place in the State Primary School where I did not have difficulty conducting the research. However, when I went to ask permission from the gatekeeper of the Private Primary School (director of the school), I was told not to talk to pupils and the parents about my research. Although, I intended to replicate the same research design by using comparable methods in each school, I had to keep to the regulations. I did not have any opportunity to negotiate.

The Private Primary School was the ideal context for this particular research. Therefore, I had to accept the gatekeeper’s demands. As a researcher, I was looking for ways to justify the research without interviewing the pupils and parents. Clearly, the comparison of the research would not be valid if I could not interview parents and pupils as I had in the state school. However, if I interviewed some of the teachers’ children at the school, it would not be considered unethical. Therefore, I interviewed a teacher who has a son at the school and she also gave me the right to interview her son.

Although this interview was organised without gatekeepers’ permission, the teacher suggested that I could interview her son. Since the ethical guidelines did not mention specific situations like this, I had to make my own decision as a researcher. I interviewed the teachers’ son in order to gain understanding of the pupils’ perceptions in general. However, I did not use the transcriptions in this study. In addition to this, I needed to gain access to a focus group for the Private Primary School as this also had formed a part of the research in the state school. This was not possible and, consequently, the data from the focus group interview at the State Primary School was not used in this study. However, the transcriptions certainly influenced my perception of the school.

250
Initially, questionnaires were also one of the research tools. The aim of the questionnaire was to gather information about the structure of the schools and it was prepared for the school employees. Although I was able to conduct the questionnaire at the state school, the Private Primary School participants were reluctant to fill in my questionnaire. On some occasions, they told me that they were bored of filling in questionnaires and did not want to fill in any more. After these reactions from the participants, I decided not use the questionnaires. Nonetheless, I did not waste the information I had gathered from the State Primary School questionnaire but only used the answers to the open-ended questions. However, since I did not have sufficient data to make a direct comparison between the state and the private schools, the numerical data from the State Primary School has not been used.

Another similar problem occurred in relation to the head teacher interviews. Throughout my research in the private school, interviewing the head teacher was not possible because of her continued absence. However, the Heads of Years 4, 5 and 6 were interviewed instead. Consequently, the questions were slightly different from the interview questions I had prepared for the head teacher. However, this also gave me a better idea about teachers’ choice of activities and Year Head responsibilities.

8.3.2 Participants’ Doubts about my Identity and Ethical Considerations

Throughout the research period at the state school, I came across some of the participants’ reactions towards my research design.

After asking permission from the Year 5 teachers to observe their Turkish lessons, one teacher seemed reluctant to give me their timetable, although he had initially agreed to help me with my research during a meeting in the Head teacher’s office. On another occasion, I asked for his timetable but I was totally ignored. Later, after having had a meeting with the Head Teacher, I noticed the teacher previously mentioned waiting for me just outside the Head’s office. This time he had his timetable in his hand. I realised that he might have thought that I had gone to complain about him. At that point, I felt that it was not a good idea to observe his lessons due to his initial reticence. He gave the excuse that he had been off school because his father had been ill. In view of this, I felt it was prudent not to observe his lessons nonetheless.
Initially, I thought my participants were content with my presence as a researcher in their classrooms, but this might not have been the case. It was also important to read certain signs which are very much based on researchers’ instincts. Although, I received participants’ consent, I saw some particular participants were discontented about my observations. According to the British Educational Research Association (BERA) (2004):

The Association takes voluntary informed consent to be the condition in which participants understand and agree to their participation without any duress, prior to the research getting underway. (p.5)

BERA does not mention anything about instincts or human behaviour (Revised Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research, 2004).

In addition to this, there were significant power struggles between participants and it was important to understand these relationships. In the state school, before I conducted the focus group interview with pupils, I asked for teachers’ opinions about pupils’ attainment. After selecting the pupils whom I was going to interview, I asked teachers how to contact pupils’ parents for permission. One teacher commented, “I have given you permission to interview these pupils; you do not need to ask them anything or else you will spoil them. Then they would start to interfere in our business”. The teacher wanted to have control of the pupils. By asking permission from the parents, it would give them a chance to meddle with the teachers’ professional world. Teachers want to make decisions in the school for pupils as their parents (loco parentis). Considering that we are in a Turkish context, let us reflect upon a Turkish saying - ‘The meat is yours and the bones are mine’. Teachers are responsible for the pupils when they are in school and they can do anything with their education. I knew that I needed to ask permission of the parents before interviewing pupils, yet at the same time I did not want to offend the teachers. Therefore, I told the teachers that I also needed to interview the parents of those children whom I wanted to interview. In this way, I had a chance to ask for the parents’ consent.

Although pupils were told that I was there to observe their teachers, pupils and their parents were very difficult to convince about my research aims - they had some doubts. At the end of one lesson, the teacher told me that they thought I was there to inspect the teacher. It was difficult for both pupils and parents to understand what I was doing.
The most important thing is that they have doubts about your identity. You knew that anyway. You tried to explain yourself and what you are doing but it did not help for some of us to ease their curiosity. One of my parents asked me if you were a secret agent - they came to ask me. The father is in the army, it means he is obsessed with these things. He would not listen to anyone; they would only vomit their own thoughts (Mr Utopia).

Although I was convinced that everybody knew what I was doing, the prejudice about my identity caused confusion among parents. To parents, it seemed like I was conducting research in an unconventional way because I was using tools to gather information which were unheard of in this particular context. I was at the school conducting interviews and observing lessons but they were not used to giving interviews. Previously, researchers had sent questionnaires to the school without visiting the school. Therefore, it was difficult for some of these parents, pupils and teachers to understand why I was there. They had doubts about my aims and it was difficult to convince them that I was only interested in teachers’ pedagogical choices.

A teacher: Another researcher came from a Turkish University - nobody filled in her questionnaires. Nobody was even interested in talking to her.

He also gave me one but I threw his questionnaire away. On the other hand, I did not treat our friend, that way. The reason is that we spend some time together; we share the time together, we live the moment together. When somebody sends their questionnaires, I do not like it. Why would I answer their questionnaire? Who is he? What is he doing? I would like to know. Our friend tried her best to spend time with us in our ‘gas room’ [smoking room], but there is not enough warmth from other members of staff. We need to question that. The reason is related to you, and your identity and where you come from. (Mr Utopia/I/ 10.04.2007)

In this research, I recognised the problems which were created by the participants’ doubts about my research aims and my identity. I thought it would be better to gain participants’ trust and, therefore, I was eager to spend time with them and learn from them. As one of my participants pointed out, it was clear to them that I was conducting professional research
because I didn’t just send them questionnaires to fill in; I was genuinely interested in what they were doing as a teacher. Ethical dilemmas concerning my participants and I eventually became less of an issue.

Although I thought I had considered every potential problem that could occur in the field before beginning my research, the reality was, of course, different. I had to deal with problems that I had not previously considered - it was crucial to be able to make immediate decisions which would not violate participants’ rights or have a negative impact on the research. Therefore it was clearly appropriate to have a flexible research design which could be moulded according to participants’ needs.

8.4 Directions and Recommendations for Future Research

This study cannot be considered to be the end of the research in this particular field. Undoubtedly, it is only a start and the research could be expanded upon in various ways. Firstly, it is suggested that future research should also include pupils’ perceptions of the teaching activities. Since pupils are the centre of the learning, their interpretations and the implementations of the Turkish textbook will also be constructive for understanding schooling in Turkey. In addition, pupils’ comprehension of the set activities could also be compared to teachers’ objectives. Such investigation could bring issues and problems to the attention of the policy makers and curriculum developers, and help to design more effective textbooks.

The second recommendation relates to the research design; research could be conducted in more primary schools in Turkey. When the gaps in terms of school attainment, socio-economic and educational achievement are considered within a geographical context, their effect upon teachers’ interpretations and the implementations of the Guide Book could be explored. Such research would bring more depth and variety to the study. This recommendation also highlights a limitation of this study which only focused on two different primary schools in Ankara. Therefore, this study can be considered to be a stimulus for the further studies of primary education in Turkey.
The third recommendation is related to investigating teachers’ interpretations of texts which have militaristic themes in primary school Turkish textbooks. This study has offered a different dimension to research regarding Turkish teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Guide Book, and it has also touched on the Guide Book’ militaristic themes. However, the focus was not on the texts. Considering this recommendation, another limitation of the study can be noted in that it focuses principally on the activities in the Turkish Guide Book. The significance of the indoctrination of patriotic and militaristic themes through the textbooks was only discerned after the study commenced. However, by noting this as a limitation of the present study, the possibility of researching the militaristic themes in future research is brought to the fore.

8.5 What I have learnt as a researcher from undertaking this study

There have been three phases of the study; before conducting the research, during the research and after the research. In each phase, as a researcher, I have learnt various things about my role, the research field and the research phenomena.

Before conducting the research, literature about the field prepared me in terms of the concept and the field of ‘the research’. However, the actual research field and concept were very much different from the initial perception. First of all, the formulised research procedures did not fit into the ‘actual’ research context. In particular, participants’ various demands were not considered before conducting the research. In addition, the way I presented myself as a researcher was a challenge especially in the State School. Although before conducting the research, I was confident enough to think that I could fit in any Turkish micro society, I was not accepted easily. Even I, a Turk, was considered to be a threat in some instances. I was not able to foresee how people would perceive my presence which made me question my role as a researcher rather than as a Turk.

After analysing the research, I have learnt that there is no ‘fact’ about a social phenoMONEn. Each participant has a different understanding of teaching and learning and, therefore, whatever I thought that I knew about teaching was not particularly relevant to my participants’ understandings of the phenomena. I could only try to perceive my participants’ ‘meaning making’ procedures rather than classifying or categorising them as ‘truths’. In addition, this relative truth of phenomena is dependable and changeable according to realities
of one’s construction of the object. However my unique experience may expand and stimulate readers’ construction of the phenomena and therefore this study is valuable.
REFERENCES


257


The Battle for Turkey's Soul. (2007). The Economist


Calislar, O. (2009). Every Morning, 'I am Turk, I am honest'. Radikal


Gok, F. (2006). The History and Development of Turkish Education In M. Carlson, A. Rabo & F. Gok (Eds.), *Education in 'Multicultural' Societies Turkish and Swedish Perspectives* (Vol. 18). Istanbul: Swedish Research Institute.


Grix, J. (2002). Introducing Students to the Generic Terminology of Social Research *Politics* 22(2), 175-186


Kanci, T., & Altinay, A. G. (2006). Educating Little Soldier and Little Ayses: Militarised and Gendered Citizenship in Turkish Textbooks In M. Carlson, A. Rabo & F. Gok (Eds.), *Education in 'Multicultural' Societies* Istanbul Swedish Research Institute
Karaagac, K., & Threlfall, J. (2004). The Tension Between Teacher Beliefs and Teacher Practice: The Impact of the Work Setting Group For the Psychology of Mathematics Education 3(10), 137-144.


Massey, D. (1994). A Global Sense of Place In Space, Place and Gender Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press


MONE. (2001b). The Turkish Education System and Developments in Education: Republic of Turkey Ministry of National Education.


A Qualitative Assessment of the Quality of Turkish Elementary Schools. (2005). (No. 32450): Human Development Sector Unit Europe and Central Asia Region


Richardson, V. (2003). Constructivist Pedagogy Teachers College Record 105(9), 1623 - 1640.


Stirling, J. A.-. (2001 ). Thematic Networks: An Analytic Tool For Qualitative Research *Qualitative Research* 1(3), 385-403


Appendix 1: A sample transcript
Mr Utopia’s first interview: 04/03/2007 (translated from Turkish)

When we do not implement the curriculum, MENO can send inspectors. Actually I do not do everything MENO requires me to do. I want them to suspend me. If they have suspended me about anything, this would raise public attention. In previous years, there was a thing called intellectuals’ letter, intellectuals wanted to be suspended therefore over 100 of intellectuals have sent letters to the court to ask to be trialled. Of course nobody was inspected, because there were a lot of people volunteering to be suspended. If there are a lot them they cannot do anything. My aim is all about that actually. They asked us to write a report about our system but they did not consider our thoughts. That time they made very academic explanations as well how learning occurs in order to manipulate us. One of them was ‘eyes can only comprehend detailed pieces then makes the meaning out of that details’ type of things. They could not persuade me. What is your source? There is someone from the University of Ankara, a lady called Prof Dr Fatma Gunes who claims that eyes can comprehend only little parts and then understands the whole picture. I have not learned anything like that. I know from my children’s cognitive development. I have 2 children; I observed their development in my own terms. When my daughter was 3, she was not at the school but she was able to recognize Sutas (milk brand) van. She used to have sutas milk; she started to recognise the van whenever she saw it. Or she knew Algida ice cream which is the one she enjoyed eating. Although she was not able to read she was able to recognize the symbols and make sense out of it. That means children learn as a whole. Is that the same in England? You learn as a whole, as a chunk?

He shows me an example of a text which is misspelled but the same letters were used, I can still read it so he makes the assumption that we learn as a whole and little pieces are not really important.

Some of our friends are very narrow minded they think that if AK party brings something new into the system because they are religious, which means that renovation has to be religious. That is not a true argument. They also want to help their system. And we discuss it, we defend the previous program. By the way previous program was not that good either. Of course we have ideal programs in our minds but we are not clear therefore we approach to things from a very prejudiced view. To reject something because of our prejudice is not right.
And I do not reject it as a whole however I add things into the curriculum from myself. This is how I approach to things. To be honest the biggest difficulty with the new program is nothing to do with its structure, but the way they brought it in other words the transmission period was the actual problem. We did not receive enough training. Didn’t they have enough trainers?? They have, but I do not know why they did not train us. I believe it is because of Turkish political approach that is ‘dropping from the high’ (prescriptive approach) without questioning. It is an attitude like ‘I want it to happen and it will happen and make it happen’ I do honestly struggle to apply something that I do not believe 100 per cent.

I do make changes with the program as if I do not think it is not convincing, I do change it and I make these changes by learning about my class. A teacher should know the whole class and the needs’ of the class. If the teacher is not lazy, he would know students. I know what my students’ needs and I always focus on these needs try to correct their mistakes. If you remember I try to make a link between topics. I know that their ability to evaluating the knowledge is very weak which is very important for learning process and I also contact with parents about their children just to get some idea about them but we do not have enough parents’ support. They do not listen to their children. They should try to listen to their children’s daily lives. They should let the child to recharge for an hour. Let the child express themselves. I try to do the same to my own children. That is missing with our parents; they do not listen to their children. Turkish society has this mentality that brief talking is valued but misunderstood. We think answering a question with only yes or no is brief talking. We think we can express ourselves by saying only yes or no we think this is communication. If you noticed, when students make a statement, they really struggle. Actually today they were really good. Your existence motivated them. Sometimes they do not even bother to say ‘no’ they just nod.

A. According to my observations you lead them to think more abstract terms, do you plan this before the lesson?
I did not do anything special. Understanding abstract forms in children development is expended. They taught us that age of 11 is the age pupils have abstract understandings. Actually these stages are not interested by the examiners. However they ask us to teach from concrete to abstract.

A. and this is how you did...
Yes that’s right. Abstract notions should be discussed. Especially Maths is very abstract subject to teach. Although the use of maths in real life situations is highly, the way that is taught is not very concrete. When you think about the mathematical symbols, they all were taken from abstract notions, however by giving symbols they are made concrete. By teaching children in an imaginary world which we have created, we push them to visualise. However they do struggle with visualising. Therefore I believe that I am obliged to teach them through thinking skills which I believe abstract thinking is the key for it. To be able to think abstract shows cognitive development. When I am teaching, I do not really think that I should question them in abstract notions. I always do it subconsciously; it must be related to my own personality. I always estimate what the author is trying to say just after I see the title. I suppose I studied sociology that helps me, too. I want children to be able to think broad as well.

A. the text you had today was about Mimar Sinan, but you try to emphasise different ways of interpreting it...

There is this idea emphasised in the text that ‘everybody paid equally in these days’. That massage is far beyond the idea of justice the text says ‘the person who is digging the ground more earns more, the person who is digging the ground less earns less’. It may sound fair; however do we know the power of these people. Maybe the person who is digging less has more power. We do not judge quality of the work; we judge the quantity of it. Now our pupils learn this as a phenomenal truth that is what capitalism wants us to believe. In the text, the guy says ‘mate, I worked harder therefore I should get more money.’ This is what this text trying to teach, it is nothing to do with Mimar Sinan’s beautiful architectures, the idea of justice or the sultan’s fair attitude to workers.

If they think that learning happens from near too far, why did they give something very far? Who knows about Mimar Sinan in my classroom? Why do they choose Mimar Sinan as topic, if they want to teach the idea of Justice, why didn’t they choose something more meaningful. These are all political. We want all these to be eliminated from the curriculum. Therefore I add from myself as much as I can. I have to use these texts because it is in the program. However I try to find different text related to the same topic. If you noticed, the assignment I have given them was very different from the guide book. The assignment was to
write a different story related to the massage of the text. I want them to write from their own world, from their own reality. ‘They’ give examples from Mimar Sinan, they know that Mimar Sinan was liked, so we will think if Mimar Sinan did Things in this way then it must be the right way, a good role model... And this idea will be accepted without questioning. I try to prevent them. My role is to find out the hidden massages in the text and teach my students’ accordingly. I should be the primary influence on their lives.

A. Why did you arrange the classroom in groups?

I do actually think that group work do not match with the requirements of the Curriculum. I have been using this curriculum for three years whereas I do not have group works in the classroom. If anyone comes to inspect my classroom, then at least it seems like I have been doing group works. Pupils also asked me to make some changes in the classroom; we wanted to try this way.

A. why are you against group works?

Competitive capitalism supports this. In this system people who can compete can survive. This is Darwin’s theory of natural circle, Dog it dog world. I am against this idea, at the same time group work is imposed as a team work. It is like ‘survivor’. (It is a TV reality program where teams work together but at the end of the week a member of the team should be evicted by the team members). This is not very inclusive, it always excludes ‘bad one’. A stronger being has a right to discard the weaker one’. It is like being vegetarians, if you can survive without eating meat, do not eat. Natural circle is a capitalist thinking. Mengelsen’s photo, ‘little fish around sharks’. The massage is that you can survive without eating others. Social solidarity, I do not like groups computing. This competition then accepted by the society. I have this dilemma that I know this is what waits for them in life so I believe I should also teach them rivalry however I do not believe it myself.

Is there a government? Whether we like it or not like it? These people created a new program. Where are they going to use this program? In a school and students are the main subjects of this program. In the previous program, families did not involve, but now we also involve parents as well. A program can be considered a good program as long as this program
supports the pupils. If this program does not support students, it does not work. If we go back to the idea of ‘village institutions’ that time nation had this idea of development, everybody was trying something to improve, however now nobody cares. Teachers are not believers of Ataturk anymore. When you come to our classroom you can see at least 10 Ataturk posters. However nobody really follows his road. Even children do not believe his thoughts. When we talk about short term objectives, last year a student to my wife showed a cheque signed to his name, and he was saying that ‘his pocket money is more than her monthly salary.’ Think about that particular teacher’s feelings, can she really focus on her short term objectives or can she really think about her long term objective. How can this teacher sympathize that particular student and make lesson plans?

I find it cheap to criticize the government. Does it really matter if the government is right or wrong; the most important thing is where do you stand? It gives you some freedom or flexibility, how much can you extend it? You do not have money therefore you cannot buy books, individual laziness but if you come to classroom without adding anything to the given thing.

In the new curriculum, it suggests us to use technology and computers as if there is a ready recipe to educate students who have ethical values and have a skill to improve them. In this respect the most important thing is student, parent and teacher triangle. That is my measure for my lessons.

There is not any inspection. Last year inspectors were not happy with the new program therefore the inspector who supposed to come every month, has not come yet. According to the new system, inspector comes and guides teachers and then comes to inspect to see if their guidance works or not. The youngest inspector is 45 years old so therefore that was considered to be a revolt against new.

He is first person discussed about educational philosophy. He received a degree in abroad. Is education served for a reason? Can education be injected to the nation? No I cannot. Parents want me to tolerate students’ capricious behaviour. Parents ‘At home I treat my child this way, and you should also use the same way at school’. Does it mean they want me to continue what they have at home? No, this is not really education. School should be a place
where new ideas are created however we cannot do it. Why we cannot do it? Everybody has their own reasons.

A. What is yours?
Because my way does not work. My daughter has won a place in Bolu Science School, as a parent we had this attitude that I do not prove. She became a ‘racing horse’ in dersanes, run from one exam to another. Now she wants to have a place in ODTU, physics engineering. In Turkey there is not job opportunity for the people finishes this subject. May be in abroad, if she can find a bursary from the institution, from the government or etc. even I as being an opponent to the system thinking in this way, then think the way ordinary people think...my son goes to military service then gets married or finds a job before military service...types of doubts people have. Do know Amentu pray, this is our defeatist approach to life? If we know amentu, which means you let yourself to god and accepts everything. With Ak party that is also supported more.

A. Does it also reflect into classroom?
Let’s think about what Ak party tries to do. Where do they want to take Turkey? Where is the place they want t take Education? Alorko holding is the best holding which looks after labourers; this would be the top point of our country can reach. Think about countries like Sweden, Norway, Finland, when we think about the committing suicide rates, there are the most suicides in those countries. When we consider criminal records which are sexual, ethical crimes are more common in capitalist countries. This is totally related to immoral way of capitalism. Values finishes here...in capitalism... We also try to be capitalist therefore our education is limited.

A. How is that related to fatalism?
They can use it very well. They are controlling all the systems. Since we cannot refuse what they ask us to do, our fatalist people accept it as it is and they call fatalist and they cannot think of alternative for it.
One of my friends’ reactions was like that ‘how many people think like you, there are a few left from your generation.’ He cannot comprehend the fact that this is an alternative idea. In his limited mind cannot accept that there are people who are able to use their minds freely. The system is from top down, although it is written that ‘a person who is able to question and recreate himself with open mind’, as long as our schools do not have the foundation, as long as teacher training programs do not allow people with free thinking skills then we, teachers cannot educate children with open minds. Are these people stupid? Last year Servet Ozdemir
and Ziya Selcuk in teachers’ house found with women. (Means they were caught inappropriately)

A person who question with a capability can use opportunities to learn is a person from Kayseri. I can easily understand the meaning of Opportunity here, our culture very much influenced by trade. In our classrooms we have activities like positive and negative sides of the advertisements. There are statements like, ‘I create it and then sell it.’ This is in the 5th year curriculum. We have to teach things like that. Is there anything like that in England? I am sure they do not have it because capitalism is settled there more. Our capitalism is different it is dependent on abroad. Why don’t we use words like ‘communal, cooperative and etc?’
Appendix 2: Observation Field Notes
Mrs Reason: Teacher 5 (Private School)
26.12.2007

There are 12 pupils. This classroom the same as other classrooms I have observed in this school. The only difference is the seating plan. This class is very quiet. At the same time this class has a reputation of being the best behaved class. As soon as I entre the classroom, pupils stand up to show respect to me.

Teacher: What is immigration?
A student defines it
Teacher: she gives some examples from herself; she has emigrated from Bulgaria. Why do they leave their country?
What are the essential needs?
She is listing, health, education.

This is a teacher centred classroom. She is questioning the pupils.

Why do people live in gecekondu?
After she gets the answer she summarises them.
Which cities are the most populated?
Why Istanbul and Izmir are more populated than Ankara?
She talks about Istanbul and then she wants her pupils to talk about Izmir and Ankara.
Although the questions are very much factual, this lesson can be called as Socratic dialog type because of the questions. She also gives meaningful lessons.
Why do we have environmental advertisements?
When your notebook comes to an end how you do feel? Anxious? How about the Universe? How do we feel about the universe? She uses Dubai as an example. Because the fuel is finishing in Dubai, people are getting worried about the income. Shall we write it down?
Before she dictates them she wants to read a poem for them. This is from a different textbook. They talk about the poem and she reminds them of Eco school project in Turkey and the private school was the first school to launch the idea of eco school project.
The teacher is dictating the text and the pupils are writing them down. When she dictating, she is also overlapping and monitoring their writing and she corrects them. At the same time,
when she is dictating for pupils’ she asks and reminds them about the spelling of the certain words ‘ya da’. And she is also telling them, if we finish this topic, we are going to play ‘knowledge box’ therefore the pupils get excited to finish their writing.

**Knowledge Box**

In a box, there are envelops with questions in both sides. The teachers’ choices one of the pupils to play the game. The pupils chooses one side of the envelop and the teacher reads the question. And the questions are about grammar and they are very much knowledge based. The elected pupil tries to answer the question, if the pupil answers the question correctly then she is rewarded by a candy and she has a right to choose a friend of hers to pick an envelope. If the pupil cannot answer the question then the whole class has to answer the question.

In the previous lesson she told her pupils to collect some pictures and headlines form the newspapers. In this lesson she wants them to write an article related to these pictures and headlines. She also brought them some A3 papers to write down their newspaper article. In the background, she plays an instrumental music for pupils to relax. Although every pupil works individually, they sometimes share some ideas with each other. And the teacher is walking around and reading their articles. She is correcting their writing sometimes telling them to expend their article. If she likes the article she reads them to the whole class as an example. Then she also asks some pupils to read their article, if she notices any grammar mistakes she warns them. Or if she thinks the article is not matching with the photos of the headlines she also warns them to make a change.

**28.12.2007**

This is the last lesson of the week therefore she finds her pupils very tired and agitated. As a result she wants to do a different activity to keep them quiet and calm. She brought a newspaper’s children supplement. On Friday’s she reads them short stories, she says. She reads to story and she wants her pupils to take notes when she reading it. And then she asks them questions.

Who is the protagonist?
What is the problem in this story?
What is the main theme of the story?
What do you think about the story?
When pupils answer these questions she summarises the answers and then praises them. Just after they finish these questions they have secret santa. This is the last lesson of the year.

One of my observations in 23 December 2007, Ms Young used a different technique in order to teach her pupils adjectives. She first defined the term ‘adjective’ and wrote the definition on the board. She also wanted her pupils to write the definition down on their notebooks. Although the Turkish Guide Book does not require teachers to define the target language, Ms Young did not hesitate to give definitions. This can be analysed in two ways, first the Private School was preparing the examinations on the basis of factual knowledge for that reason; Ms Young had to teach her pupils according to the requirements of the school second, this is what Ms Young understand from teaching. According to the interviews with her, Ms Young chooses to teach her pupils in a social constructivist way.

Ms Young gave some examples of adjectives, they were verbal reminders for pupils, and (after the lesson Ms Young told me that they have already known about adjectives). She also displayed some pictures on the board, those pictures were used as teaching materials therefore they were nicely trimmed and laminated. On one of the pictures, there was a girl holding a kite. The teacher asked her pupils to define the picture by using adjectives and while the pupils were using appropriate adjectives, the teacher took pupils’ notice of the adjectives by writing them on the board. With the activity, Ms Young aims to guide her pupils to construct knowledge of ‘adjectives’ however her teaching was whole class, she was only asking her pupils’ to define pictures by using adjectives. While pupils were describing the adjectives, they were not interacting with one another.

Ms Young is also determined by the requirements of the school. Her teaching on this specific lesson may be considered as knowledge transmission which does not match with her interviews. The teacher does not let her pupils to construct the meaning of the adjective by scaffolding them however the knowledge was transferred to pupils readily. Although at the second half of the lesson, the teacher tried to support the definition with visual activities, it was also factual responds of the pupils which were noted on the board.

Mrs Experience

27.12.1008

A day after the earthquake, it is the first lesson of the day.
The teacher says, let’s have something spontaneous...
Before she started the lesson, every pupil was talking to each other about the earthquake. They also asked the teacher what was her experience and she told about her experience. And each pupil wanted to share their own experiences. Some of the pupils told the teacher that they did not feel it. Some of them were telling the teacher how much they were scared.
The teacher was telling her experience of Izmit earthquake in 1999. And she asks, why the earthquakes turn into tragedies in Turkey?
One of the pupils finds a text in the book and he wants to read it. And later on they start discussing the protection from the earthquakes.
And other pupils also read different natural disasters.

02.04.2007
Mrs Joy
There are 17 pupils, 8 female and 9 male
There are rows of desks.
As soon as I enter the classroom I was asked to introduce myself.
Teacher is lecturing about flags and importance of the flags in Turkish nation. (This argument can be supported by looking around the classroom walls, as they are decorated with nationalistic pictures.)
They are also talking about the 23 April, national children festival.
Teacher asks- what do you observe in those days?
The questions are very factual; she is not really letting pupils to think critically. The teacher actually reminds them of the use of the flags in the national days.
She follows the textbook in front of her. She is standing when she is teaching.
She starts to write some words on the board.
Bayrak – flag
Yuce – serene
Cesur – brave
Temiz- clean
She wants her pupils to make a sentence using those words. When the words are considered, three of them are adjectives which should be describing the subject and that are the flag (the Turkish flag). Although those words are given by the Turkish Guide Book, it was not asked to make a sentence by using the words. It was asked to write down what these words refer to. However Mrs Joy wanted her pupils to write a sentence by using the words. This activity
seems like pupils are creating or structuring a sentence but the idea of the sentence is already given.

The teacher wants other pupils to talk as well.
Why are we reading this poem?
Pupils- I am curious
In order to improve myself about the flags.
She is reading the poem.
She tells them to learn the poem by heart. (Traditional teaching)
They start talking about the picture of the unit. What do you think about the picture?
They start discussing the picture. On this picture there is a Turkish flag waving on the air. There are 5 children looking at the flag. 3 of the children are female and 2 of them are male. After listening to various answers of the interpretation of the picture, the teacher summarises it, During Ottoman Empire girls were not able to attend schools therefore there are girls in this picture to show the equality that Turkish republic brought and the flag is the symbol of this equality.

They start talking about the poetry. She is telling them to learn the poem by heart and read it with body language. She says ‘it is not narrative; therefore you need to use your body’

A pupil is reading the poem and the teacher is guiding the pupil to read properly. The rest of the class is talking to each other. The pupil who is reading first the special educational needs student, he has hearing problems therefore the teacher is giving extra attention.

04.04.2007
Mr Utopia
Mimar Sinan
They are talking about the pictures of the text
The teacher, I do not know anything please tell me what you think about the pictures?
Does the picture suitable for the text?
Pupils are criticising each others’ comments.
Teacher asks - what is the feeling of the text?
He is also brain storming, teacher is writing down the comments.
Fairness, conscious, equality, pride, art, creativity
Teacher: Ayse, why did you say ‘fairness’. Could you please find, fairness refer to here, in this text?

Ayse reads the text to show that the text is related to fairness.

He wants everyone to find the word, fair in the text and underline the text. They find it then they all discuss what it really means.

Then the teacher conscious, you said that why did you say it?

What it really means in this context?

Defense, what do you mean with it?

Human rights defence, giving rights to everyone.

Labour of human rights

Fair payment of the labour

Financial difficulty of life

Mirmar sinan’s creations

Humiliation of the pride

The power of law

Are the main theme and the sub themes of the text given clearly?

Is the message of the text clear?

Is the text enough for the message?

If we try to give the same message with a different story how the story would be?

Mrs Love

11.04.2007

There is so much excitement in the classroom because they are going to do some dramatisation, pupils are going to dramatise one of the Nasrettin Hoca jokes. There are 15 students and each group selected by them.

One of the pupils dressed up as Nasrettin Hoca, she is also helping other pupils to dress. One of the pupils tell the title of the joke, one of the pupils filled her cardigan with cotton wools to be able to look fat like nasrettin hoca. She has bread too. After each dramatisation, they also tell the message of the joke. this joke goes, nasrettin hoca borrows a bowl from a friend, after a while this friend goes to ask for his bowl back and nasrettin hoca say your bowl gave birth to a small bowl, and the friend leaves the nasrettin hoca’s place with two bowls and later on nasrettin hoca borrows the bowl again and when the friend comes to ask for the bowl
nasrettin hoca says, your bowl died. The friend gets really angry saying, how could a bowl die and the nasrettin says, you believed that the bowl gave birth why don’t you believe that the bowl died.

Although in the Turkish Guide Book there is not a dramatisation activity, Mrs Love decided to do it because her pupils were really enthusiastic about telling Nasrettin Hoca jokes, in order to involve all the pupils and save time, Mrs Love thought it would be better to do dramatisation.

Mrs Love starts reading the given text, ‘Nasrettin Hoca’nin Gozlugu’. They also start doing the activities from the book. What is the funniest thing in this text?

A pupil tries to answer it but Mrs Love does not take it seriously because it was not coherent enough. She does not comment on the answers. Mrs Love also notices one of the pupils is writing down something and Mrs Love warns him not to write anything and join the discussion.

Why do you think Nasrettin Hoca is sitting on the donkey backwards? There are some answers. What does the text tell you about? What is the message?

She tells one of the idioms ‘do not make me angry otherwise I’ll make you sit on the donkey backwards. What is the link between Nasrettin Hoca and this idiom? She explains the question in more detail Pupils are answering; it might be a joke, threatening someone, scaring someone... Mrs Love says let’s hear the joke again try to understand the link with the idiom.

Ms Nurse
11.04.2007
Ms Nurse is doing the same lesson. Since they are all following the same program, all of my participants (excluding Mr Utopia) are doing the same unit. Nasrettin Hoca’s jokes.
Ms Nurse is repeating the question from the book, what is the reason of Nasrettin Hoca sitting on the donkey backwards?

She gets angry that, when pupils are talking, they are not fluent and they use so much ‘my teacher’. And she says, do not only talk to me talk to your class mates as well.

Nasrettin Hoca is also wearing a head and sunglasses. They did not have sunglasses at that time and also there is not any global warming.

Ms Nurse wants her pupils to do the activities before the lesson and then she asks them if they wrote anything about the question.

(Ms Nurse wants her pupils to write the answers after the lesson)
Ms Nurse also summarises everything just after pupils talk. Her questions are rhetorical; they are not based on pupils’ critical thinking. They are not leading questions that make the pupils to expand their thinking abilities.

Can we say that Nasrettin Hoca is a national person?
We know him nationally because of his jokes. He is famous with his wit.
When you sit in a bus backward, sometimes you need to sit in a bus like that, who do you feel?
One of the students cannot answer the question, she asks some of the pupils who did not talk.
She asks the girl who could not answer. Think, when we wear something backwards it may also irritate us. She starts warning to pupils ‘when I am talking do not raise your hand, let’s do not waste time, could you please write down your answers home. We have discussed here and I want you to write them down at home. Listen without writing. She is defining the word, when we use this word in a sentence, the letter dropped, and she gives example (in English it is angry and anger)

Could you please tell some words like this?
Pupils did not understand it well. Ms Nurse is very angry with them; they are more excited about the Nasrettin Hoca jokes.
How would you end this text?
Appendix 3: Colour coded texts for the question ‘what are the factors influencing teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Turkish Guide Book’.

Red: ‘what factors influence teachers’ implementations of the Turkish Guide Book?’
Blue: ‘what factors influence teachers’ choices of classroom activities’
Green: ‘what are the differences and similarities in teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Guide Book in both Private and State Primary Schools?’

Emerging themes and texts from interview transcripts

Teachers’ Knowledge of Content

There is this idea emphasized in the text that ‘everybody is paid equally these days’. That message is far beyond the idea of justice; the text says, ‘The person who digs the ground more, earns more; the person who digs the ground less, earns less’. It may sound fair. However, do we know the power of these people? Maybe the person, who is digging less, has more power. We do not judge the quality of the work; we judge the quantity of it. Now our pupils learn this as a phenomenal truth. That is what Capitalism wants us to believe. In the text, the guy says, ‘Mate, I worked harder, therefore I should get more money.’ This is what this text is trying to teach - it is nothing to do with Mimar Sinan’s beautiful architectures, the idea of justice or the sultan’s fair attitude to workers (Mr Utopia/I/ 04.03.2007).

In our classrooms, we have activities like looking at the positive and negative sides of advertisements. There are statements like, ‘I create it and then sell it.’ This is in the 5th year curriculum. We have to teach things like that. Is there anything like that in England? I am sure they do not have it because capitalism is more settled there. Our capitalism is different - it is dependent on foreign countries. Why don’t we use words like ‘communal, cooperative etc.? (Mr Utopia/I/ 04.03.2007)

These hidden messages are the main dangers of the curriculum. I remember last term we had things like, ‘gender inequalities’. There is a picture in which a mum carries a tray full of tea glasses, a dad is reading his newspaper and the daughter is playing
with her baby doll. This picture portrays unequal ways of spreading the roles of family members. You cannot tell the pupils to tell their mothers to stop being a slave, get your freedom from your husband. We do not have anything like that in the curriculum. Maybe they do not understand anything from the picture. Slowly you can influence the child by seating them together; a girl next to a boy, let them conduct their activities together and try to minimize the inequality between them. We have this flexibility. But in lessons, the law says this is the text and you can support this with any activity. Nobody can say anything about the activities we use. This is up to our own teaching skills. (Mr Utopia/I/04/03/2007)

**Sentimental Exaggerations**

For example, today we are going to read about earthquakes. They are all exaggerated, very sentimental stories for my pupils. I always say to them, ‘Let’s find the exaggerated terms used in the story’. I know there is not an activity like that in the textbook. Or sometimes I ask them why they have such exaggerated terms in the text? What are the authors trying to do? I teach them to see the text from a different point of view. When they start thinking that there is also a message beyond what is written, they relax. They start enjoying it (the lesson) more. (Mrs Reason, /I/28.12.2007)

**Knowledge of Pupils**

**Mismatch with the National Examinations**

... my ideologies do not work in this system. My daughter, for example, has won a place in Bolu Science School. As a parent I had an attitude, which I do not agree with, I pushed her to do her best in the exams. This shows my acceptance of the system. We also became a tool of the system. Now she wants to have a place in Middle East Technical University. She needs to get into the same marathon for the university exams. We accept the situation without questioning the system. We bring up ‘racing horses’, running from dersanes (private classes) to exams. This acceptance also brought the idea of ‘kismet’. This is the defeatist attitude of the society. If you can recite ‘Amentu pary’ (one of the prayers in Koran), you are safe. It means you dedicate yourself to God and accept each situation the way it is without questioning it. This situation increased with the leadership of the Justice and Development party (AKP). (Mr Utopia/I/10.04.07)

**Mismatch with Society’s Needs**
There is not much support from the parents. They do not really support education. There are special improvement courses and private dershanes. They do not send their children to these courses. I tell them to send their children to overcome their test anxiety. There are performance projects. It used to be 3 written and 1 oral examination. Now, instead of this system, we have performance projects. When a pupil does homework, they have to use computers, but often they do not have computers or the pupils want to go to the internet cafe to do their work and parents do not let them. Sometimes, pupils need to do group work but again parents do not let them go to a place they do not know. They keep their traditions as priority. They are very religious around here; there are some religious pressures on them. I want to help the pupils, but parents do not see the necessity of improving their children academically. They think ‘my children receive enough religious education; they do not need anything more than that’. Therefore students are confused and pressurized by their parents. I really struggle to change their attitude but I cannot do much about it. (Mrs Joy/I/, 30.03.2007)

Knowledge about the Teaching of Particular Content Topics

Mismatch with Pupils’ Academic Needs
When we do certain activities, we do not have enough time for writing, because those activities fill up our lesson time. Our pupils are good at talking but when they come to writing they really struggle. Therefore, as a school, we do different things instead of MONE’s requirements. We try to eliminate some activities and focus more on the writing activities. This is what we do as a department. (Mrs Art/I/ 02.01.2008)

They are really good at expressing themselves orally. However, they are really weak in writing; they cannot express themselves in writing. There is’n’t any knowledge of writing in the text book; we do not teach them how to write or any writing skills. In the curriculum they want them to write essays. However, they do not make any provision for that. Therefore our pupils do not know how to write an essay. They do not know what a topic sentence or a thesis statement are. The curriculum says that pupils should write individualistic essays but pupils do not know any rules of writing. Sometimes they write something no longer than 2 lines and give them to me as essays. Some of the pupils tell me that they have completely expressed themselves in 2 lines. At the end of the day, an essay should be longer than 2 lines; there must be at least an introduction, main body and a conclusion. They do not know about that so I cannot blame them. We need to have at least a session about planning. Essay writing should
be taught in detail. Okay we understand that pupils need to express themselves but how they express themselves is not given sufficient emphasis. (Ms Nurse/I/05.04.2007)

We knew that our pupils have some difficulty in writing so our aim was to make sure that our pupils could overcome this fear. If we ask them to write an essay, they get really tense. They start negotiating with me, asking if 2 lines are enough, 3 lines and stuff like that. They really dislike writing. We need to make them write without them feeling the pressure. They both need to have fun and write at the same time. (Ms Fun/I/28.12.2007)

In previous years, we used to have grammar. We had activities about the meanings of adjectives; we used to work on these adjectives. Now the priority is to make pupils feel it. We can give adjectives but we do not use the target language, we do not have activities which are based on finding the adjectives - basically we do not get into details. This term we had only adjectives and punctuation marks. In future, they will have more grammar so that they will make up for their lack of knowledge. (Mrs Love/I/07.04.2007).

However, as I have said before there, is not enough grammar knowledge. From grammatical perspectives, there is not enough knowledge. It aims to teach them (Pupils) in an abstract way. I like this way but it does not match with their (MONE’s) questioning style. Because questions in the tests are very much knowledge based. For example, we try to make them sense the meaning and use of adjectives and we explain it as ‘a word which defines the noun.’ But you never use the term adjective. However, in OKS examinations, they ask things like, “Which one of these words is an adjective?” Therefore we struggle between these two styles. I believe the new curriculum (textbook) is not enough for the children’s development and the examination system is wrong. It is not for me to decide what to change. I am the follower. When I compare things to the previous curriculum, it is better this way, however there are things in this curriculum that you cannot implement in the classroom. Some of it does not match with the reality of the classroom and I have to make some changes (Ms Nurse/I/05.04.2007).

I try to give them more grammar, especially sentence structures, punctuation etc. The Teachers’ Guide Book wants us to focus on particular subjects - for example, the exclamation mark, and the book does not want us to repeat it over and over again.
But sometimes I have to warn pupils when we are writing something. I need to correct them, for example, I remind them that we start the sentence with a capital letter. They forget to do it. Of course, these types of corrections take time and that make us change the plan. (Mrs Joy/I/30.03.2007)
Dear

I am writing to request your permission to gain access to........ in order to conduct research as part of my PhD thesis study at the University of Leicester, in December ’07. My thesis aims to investigate Y5 teachers’ interpretations and implementations of the Turkish guide book. My research takes place both in a state and a private classrooms of Turkish primary schools. My proposed research consists of interviews, classroom observations and questionnaires which are aimed to finish in 4 weeks. These semi-structured interviews are designed to be very brief and would take place as soon as reasonably possible after the classroom observations.

My research tools are stated below.

• Interviews with Y5 Turkish teachers.
• Interviews with head teacher and deputy head teacher.
• Focus group interviews with Y5 pupils.
• Informal interviews with some pupils’ parents.
• Interview with SEN coordinator.
• Y5 Turkish and Social Studies classroom observations.
• Whole staff questionnaires.
Ethically, any data or recordings made will be kept strictly confidential and would be used in my thesis only. I would also value the opportunity to support teachers in any way as they may deem beneficial to the learning environment.

I hope very much that you are able to consider my request and I look forward to hearing from you at your soonest convenience. Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any query regarding my proposed research.

Thank you for your consideration.

Yours faithfully,

Alca Dokuzoğlu Ottewell
5. tema
GÜZEL SANATLAR
Şubat - mart

GÜNAYDIN ÇOCUKLAR
GÜNAYDIN ÇOCUKLAR
Șifir

MİMAR SİNAN
MİMAR SİNAN
Oyküleyici Metin

MİNIATÜRK
MİNIATÜRK
Bilgilendirici Metin

PANDOMİMA VE BEDEN DİLİ
PANDOMİMA VE BEDEN DİLİ
Bilgilendirici Metin

DOKUMACI USTA
DOKUMACI USTA
Dinleme Metni

ÖLCME VE DEĞERLENDİRME
ÖLCME VE DEĞERLENDİRME

Bu Temadaki Metinlerimiz
1. Güneydın Çocuklar
2. Mimar Sinan
3. Miniaturk
4. Pandomima ve Beden Dili

Bu açıdan öncelikli olan hareketleri:
1. Oyuncu yapısındaki hareketi
2. Eserin belirtimi
3. Oyuncu ve sesin belirtilmesi
4. Oyuncu ve sesin belirtilmesi
5. Oyuncu ve sesin belirtilmesi

GÖSTERİ
Öğrencilere sunumlarını yapınızı ve kendileri değerlandırmalarınızı sağlayın.
GÜNAYDIN ÇOCUKLAR

I. HAZIRLIK

1. Ön Hazırlık
  Öğrencilerinizi, metni işlerken kullanılanları için renk kataloglarını, Barış Manço kasetleri getirmelerini isteyiniz.

2. Zihinsel Hazırlık
  a. Ön Bilgileri Harekete Geçirme
     Öğrencilerinize ön bilgilerini harekete geçirmeleri için aşağıdaki soruları sorabilirsiniz:
     1. Bir gün içinde selâmlarla ifadelerinin hangilerini kullanıyorunuz?
     2. Okula geldiğinize kimlerle, nasıl selâmlaşıyorsunuz?
     3. Barış Manço'yu tanıyar musunuz?

  b. Anahtar Kelimeleri Çalışma
     - günaydın
     - renk
     - çocuklar
     - oyun
     - büyükler
     - doğa

Öğrencilerinizin anahtar kelimelerin anlaşmalarını arkadaşlarıyla konuşarak bulmalarını paylaşınız. Sınıf gruplara ayırınız ve anahtar kelimeleri kullanarak şiir yazmalarını isteyiniz (1. Etkinlik).

3. Tahmin Etme
  Öğrencilerinizin kitaplarını açmalarını, şiirde yer alan görsellerden ve şiirin başlığında yararlanarak şiirin içeriğini tahmin edip tahlimlerini not etmelerini isteyiniz (2. Etkinlik).

4. Metni Tanuma
  Öğrencilerinizin içerikle ilgili bilgi edinmeleri amacıyla anahtar kelimeleri, son dörtluğu gezdiren geçmişe geçirmelerini isteyiniz. "Şiirde neler dikkatini çekti? Aklınıza neler geldi?" sorularını sorunuz.

Öğrencilerin dikkatini yoğunlaştırarak amacıyla farklı çalışmalar da yapabilirsiniz.

II. ANLAMA

A. Dinleme, Okuma ve Görsel Okuma
1. Dinleme
   a. Öğrencilerinize dinleme amacı belirlemeleri için aşağıdaki soruları sorabilirsiniz:
Bu şiir niçin dinleyecek misiniz?
Bu şiir dinlemek size ne kazandırabilir?
B. Belirtilen amaç ve yöntem uygun olarak şiir okumaya başlayınız. Öğrencilerinize şiirde en çok tekrar edilen kelimeleri not etmelerini isteyiniz (3. Etkinlik).
C. Öğrencilerinizden dinledikleri şiirin konusuna belirlemelerini isteyiniz.
2. Okuma
c. Öğrencilerin, belirtelen amaç, yöntem ve tekniklere göre okumalarını sağlayıniz (bk.3.Açıklama).
3. GörSEL OkuMa
"Bu şiir size nasıl bir resim çizerdiniz?" sorusunu sorup şiirin resmini yapmalarını isteyiniz (5. Etkinlik).
B. Metni inceleme
Öğrencilerinize aşağıdaki çalışmaları yaptrınız:
- Şiirin ana dengesini bulunuz.
- Şiirin dönümlerini bulunuz.
- Şiirin “Oyun ister büyükler” ifadelerine katılmadığınız sorunuz.
C. Söz Vариğını Geliştirme
Öğrencilerinizin şiir dizisi yazılı çevirmelerini sağlayınız (7. Etkinlik).
III. METİN ARACILİĞİYLE ÖĞRENE
A. GÜNLUK HAYATA İLİŞKINDEN
Öğrencilerinize aşağıdaki soruları sorabilirsiniz:
3. Renklerin yapay zihniyeti önemli nedir?
4. Dünyamızda renkler olmadıysa hayatımıza ne gibi efsaneler olurdu?
B. Diğer Derslerle Bağlantı Kurma
Müzik: Öğrencilerinize Barış Mânço’nun “Buğün Bayram” şarkısını bireysel veya gruplar halinde söyletebilirsiniz.

IV. KENDİNİ İFADE ETME
A. Zihinsel Hazırlık
Bu Bilgileri Hareketle Geçirme, Teknik, Tür, Konu, Amacı Belirlemek
a. Öğrencilerinize konuşma, yazma ve görüşSEL sunun konularını belirleyiniz. Belirtilen konuları tahta ya zıniniz.
Bu konuları öğrencilerinizin de defterlerine yazmalarını isteyiniz.
Örnek konular:
• İnsanlar birbirleriyile selâmelaşmazsa neler olur?
• Selâmelaşma ifadelerinin bulunduğu drama çalışması.
• Selâmelaşmaya ifadelerinin bulunduğu bir masal anlatma çalışması.
b. Öğrencilerinizi sevdiğiniz konuyu hangi türde (gür, öykü vb.) hazırlayacaklarını ve nasıl sunacaklarını belirlemelerini isteyiniz. (bk.4 Açıklama)

B. Konuşma, Yazma ve Görsel Sunu
1. Konuşma
a. Öğrencilerinize konuşma anmaçınızı ve ne konuşacağını belirleyiniz.
b. Öğrencilerden belirledikleri konu, amaç, yöntem ve tekniklere uygun olarak kendilerini sözlü ifade etmelerini isteyiniz.
c. Öğrencilerden sözleri sunumlarında 5. Açıklamada verilenlerle dikkat etmelerini isteyiniz.
c. Öğrencilerinizin konuşmalarını dikkate aliyor, açıklarını örneklere vermelerini isteyiniz.
2. Yazma
a. Öğrencilerine "Yazma amacınızı nedir?" sorusunu yerel olarak yazma amacını öğrencilerinize birlikte belirleyiniz.
b. Öğrencilerinizin sabah kalktıkları zaman aile bireyleriley aralarında geçen konuşmaları yazmalarını isteyiniz. (9. Etkinlik)
c. Öğrencilerinizden belirledikleri konu, amaç, yöntem ve tekniklere uygun olarak kendilerini yazılı ifade etmelerini isteyiniz.
c. Öğrencilerinizin yazmalarını dikkat etmelerini söyleyiniz. Öğrencilerinizden, izlenim ve dersimlerine dayalı yazı yazmalarını isteyiniz.
3. Görsel Sunu
Öğrencilerinizin sabah kalktıkları ile aile bireyleriley aralarında geçen konuşmaları sınıfta canlandırırmalarını isteyiniz.

C. Söz Verilinm Kullanımı
Çocuklar beni bikmadan dinlersiniz. Beni hep gür yerle karşılarlar.
Tarih birimlerinin birine hızlı zikri yaparlar. Öğrencilerinizle örnek cümlelerdeki söylemleri nitelendiren (köy yazılı) kelimelerin kullanılğını inceleyiniz. Aşağıdaki boşluklara parantez içindeki kelimelerden uygun olanları seçerek boşlukları doldurmalarını isteyiniz. (10. Etkinlik)

Etiketin en özgün şekli aşağıdaki gibidir. (zvkkll - hayecan - akin akin - gürkemiyile - yüksekten)
Ağrı Dağı karışımda gürkemiyile duruyordu.
Miniatür'de akin akin tireteti geliyor.
Bu gezi bize hayecan veriyor.
Antakabir, Ankara'ya yüksekten bakıyor.
İstanbul Boğaz'ında yilaları zvkkll seyrediyoruz.

V. ÖLCME VE DEĞERLENDİRME
a. Bu şiir okumakla duygularını geliştiri.

Notlarımız, Görüşlerim