THE IMPACT OF PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION AND CHILD-REARING PRACTICES ON COGNITIVE STYLES AND AUTONOMY OF FIVE YEAR OLD TURKISH CHILDREN



by

Özlem Ergün

B.A., Boğaziçi Üniversitesi, 1982

Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Social Psychology

Department of Psychology, Institute of Social Sciences



Boğaziçi University



This thesis, submitted by Özlem Ergün to the Institute of Social Sciences of Boğaziçi University in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the Degree of Master of Arts is approved.

Dr.Diane Sunar

Doc. Dr. Güler Fişek

Doç.Dr.Hamit Fişek

Thesis advisor

Committee member

Committee member

4.7.1984 Date:

CONTRATO

Page |

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	I
LIST OF TABLES	II
LIST OF APPENDICESI	II
ABSTRACT	1
INTRODUCTION	3
Theoretical Background	5
The Cognitive Style and Differentiation Theory	5
The Assessment Tools	6
Development of Autonomy	7
Sex Differences	10
Antecedents of Cognitive Style	12
Effects of Preschool Education	18 🛶
METHOD	25
Subjects	25
Selection of Centers	26
Materials	28
Interviews	2 8
The Children's Embedded Figures Test (CEFT)	30
The Wechsler Analytic Triad (WAT)	31
Procedure	32
Analyses	34
RESULTS	35
DISCUSSION	41
REFERENCES	48
APPENDICES	54

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank all the children, their mothers and staff members. teachers in the preschool centers.

I would like to express my gratitude to Prof. Dr. Çiğdem Kâğıtçıbaşı for her help during the initial stages of development of this thesis.

I would like to thank Dr. Diane Sunar, my advisor for her guidance, support and valuable criticisms throughout this study.

I would express my deepest thanks to Doc. Dr. Güler Fişek for her help during the conception of this study, especially for providing me with many references I would not otherwise have been able to find in Turkey.

I would also like to thank Dog. Dr. Hamit Figek for his contributions.

I would also lise to express my deepest feelings of gratitude to Dr. Sevda Bekman and all the researchers who have taken part in the researc

And last, I would like to thankmy patient, considerate, supportive husband, Şükrü Ergün after all the troubles.

LIST OF TABLES

		LIST OF TABLES	
			Page
Table	1-	Distribution of Children According to Sex	25
		and the Centers	
Table	2-	Means and Standard Deviations of CEFT and	35
		WAT Scores For All Children	
Table	3-	Children's Cognitive Styles and Mothers'	36
		Discipline Styles	
Table	4-	Effects of Mothers' Rewarding Behavior	37
		on Children's Cognitive Styles	
Table	5-	Mothers' Concepts of a "Good Child" and	38
		Children*s Cognitive Styles	
Table	6-	Context of Socialization and Children's	38
		Cognitive Styles in terms of CEFT scores	
Table	7-	Context of Socialization and Children's	39
		Cognitive Styles in terms of WAT scores	
Table	8-	Sex Differences With Regard to Cognitive	40

.

Styles

II

LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX	A-	Observation Sheet of the Preschool Centers	54
APPENDIX 1	в-	Interview Sheet For the Headmasters of the	61
		Preschool Centers	
APPENDIX	C-	Child Interview (with the Mothers)	64
APPENDIX 1	D-	Mother Interview	69
APPENDIX	E-	Instructions and Score Sheet for CEFT	70
APPENDIX	F-	Instructions and Score Sheet for Block Design	74
APPENDIX	G-	Instructions and Score Sheet for Object Assembly	80
APPENDIX	H-	Instructions and Score Sheet for Angele Street for Angele Street	,
		Picture Arrangement	84

.

.

.

_! · · ·

page

ABSTRACT

The present study was conducted to investigate the relationship between mother's child-rearing attitudes plus the type of preschool attended (the context of socializing environment) and children's cognitive styles and autonomous behavior.

Mothers' child-rearing practices were reflected in variables such as discipline styles (power assertive versus inductive), behavior rewarded (obedience versus independence), concept of a "good child" (defined in terms of obedience versus independence). The context of socialization was divided into three categories; educational preschools, custodial preschools, home-reared.

One of the dependent variables, cognitive style, was measured by the Children's Embedded Figures Test (CEFT), and the Wechsler A_nalytic Triad (WAT). The other dependent variable was autonomy which had 7 subdimensions: project initiative, independent activity, social initiative, self care, persistence, assertion of rights, dependence on adults.

The sample was composed of 136 five-year-old low SES preschool children (78 males, 58 females) and their mothers.

Data relevant to mothers' child-rearing attitudes and practices, and children's autonomous behavior were collected through interviews with the mothers. Cognitive style was measured by the CEFT and the WAT.

Hypotheses expected that children, whose mothers used power assertive discipline, rewarded obedience, defined "a good child" in terms of obedience, would have less differentiated cognitive style and would be less autonomous than children, whose mothers used inductive techniques, rewarded independence, defined "a good child" in terms of independence.

It was also hypothesized that children going to educational preschool

L

centers who are reared at home.

Sex differences were hypothesized not to exist for this age group. Results did not support the relationship between mothers' child-rearing attitudes and children's cognitive styles, and autonomous behavior. Hawever an extra-family context of socialization, the preschool institution, did affect the children's cognitive styles. Children attending educational preschools had more differentiated cognitive styles and more autonomous behavior than the rest. Finally the hypothesis concerning no sex differences among five year olds was supported.

The results were affected by methodological and cultural factors. Probably, the mother child interaction was not so important in affecting the child's cognitive style and autonomy. Other socializing agents could have considerable impact on the child such as the preschool institution.

NUCCAN

INTRODUCTION

A child's earliest development in all realms, social, emotional and cognitive, takes place in the context of his family. The family is the first social group the child encounters. Therefore the family teaches the child the norms of the society, socially acceptable behaviors, and slowly the child becomes a member of the society he lives in.

In the early years, the child's most important relationship is the one established with the mother. Even though the father is typically an authoritative figure, the mother-child interaction is widely considered to be the primary agent in influencing the child's personal, social and cognitive development. During this interaction the mother may either be overprotective. or foster independent development in the child. She may hamper the child's autonomous functioning or encourage his/her independence in personal and family matters. As a consequence of the mother's child-rearing practices, the child may remain dependent on the mother or on others, or may begin to stand on his own feet. Cumulatively these interactions form part of the basis for the child to discriminate "self" from "non-self" and thus take his first steps towards differentiation. The boundaries separating him from the outer world become clearer and stronger. As a result of this mother-child interaction the child develops either towards more autonomous behavior and greater cognitive differentiation or towards more dependent behavior and less cognitive differentiation. Just as the child learns a great deal in the context of his family, in the same way he or she learns much more in social settings outside the home. One of these social contexts, a very important one in early childhood, is the type of preschool education the child receives. This context helps form the

basis for later schooling, and more important, affects many aspects of child's social, emotional and personal development. Preschool centers may have a variety of orientations, which may be roughly classified as educational or custodial. Preschools with an educational aim attempt to stimulate and promote the child's cognitive, emotional and social development. In this kind of preschools children have been found to acquire more socially complex behaviors, more autonomy and initiative, and more facilitaty in establishing social interactions, (Bekman, 1982), On the other hand, preschool centers which aim primarily to provide with maintenance/custody services tend to inhibit rather than stimulate the child's development. In this type of of preschool the teachers typically initiate the activities in a highly structured atmosphere, and required to respond in unsifermly, as a group, with no expression of individuality or initiative. Also, since most of the activities initiated by teachers are related to physical care of the children (dressing, undressing, toileting, handwashing, meals and snacks, naptimes), a good deal of the time the children are left relatively unsupervised. Social interactions in such preschools tend to be fewer and less complex than in the educationally-oriented preschools, (Bekman, 1982).

The aim of this study is to explore the effects of the mother's childrearing practices and the type of preschool education the child receives on the preschool child's cognitive style and autonomous functioning, since very little research has been conducted in this area.

Theoretical Background

The "Cognitive Style" Concept and Differentiation Theory: "Cognitive Style" is a global concept which refers to an individual's level of perceptual, cognitive and social differentiation. It is reflected in the way the individual perceives the world, in problem solving, in social interactions, and in organizing information. Witkin and his colleagues first developed the theory of psychological differentiation, one of the main components of which is the concept of field-dependence-independence, or cognitive style.

Differentiation refers to the "Complexity of structure of a psychological system and the nature of its relation to its environment or surround" (Goodenough and Within, 1978). It is hypothesized that people differ in their ability to differentiate, in other words to extract an item from its context or "field" (Werner, 1979).

Greater differentiation in the perceptual domain is reflected in extracting the parts of the field as separate from the whole, rather than experiencing them as global, which indicates less differentiation (Werner, 1979). At one extreme parception is dominated by the whole, and this perceptual style is labeled as "field dependence"; at the other extreme the parts are experienced as separate, which is labeled as "field-independence" (Within et al., 1971). Thus a field-independent cognitive style is marked by greater differentiation and therefore greater complexity of structure, while a field-dependent style is marked by less differentiation and presumably simpler structure.

The development of differentiation is an organism-wide process. Therefore it manifests itself in various domains of development, such as perceptual, cognitive, personal and social.

In the perceptual and cognitive domains, the field-dependent cognitive style is characterized by placing greater reliance on external referents and the field-independent cognitive style by placing emphasis on internal referents in information processing.

In the development of self-concept, differentiation is reflected in the formation of boundaries between self and the world outside, particularly other people. With increasing self-nonself discrimination internal referents become increasingly important compared with external referents in guiding behavior. Less self-nonself segregation encourages greater reliance on external referents (Goodenough and Within, 1978). Greater differentiation refers to a separate identity which the person has developed including inner referents which guide perception, thinking, acting and feeling. They rely on these internal frames of reference which are distinct from others. There is considerable evidence that relatively field-dependent persons are more likely to rely on what is provided by the social surround. For example, in a study by Bell (1955), subjects who where field dependent relied on the authority's standards whereas field-independent subjects relied more on inner sources (the EFT Manual, 1971).

In the social domain, field-dependent people are found to be more attentive to social cues (Ruble and Nakamura,1972; cited in Goodenough and Witkin, 1978). They prefer to be with people and even prefer to be physically close to them (Holley, 1972; Justice, 1969; as cited in Witkin, 1976).

The Assessment Tools:

Cognitive differentiation or field dependence-independence has been assessed with a variety of procedures and instruments. Witkin and his colleagues used two spatial orientation tests, the Rod and Frame Test and the Body Adjustment test in their original investigations. Later

the Embedded Figures Test and the Wechsler Analytic Triad (a group of three subtests from W_{ech}ler's Intelligence Scales) come into use as measures of cognitive differentiation.

In the Rod and Frame Test (RFT), the subject is seated in a completely dark room and is asked to adjust to the upright, a tilted, luminous rod, within a tilted, luminous, square frame; while in the case of field independence, the subject brings the rod close to the upright without attending to the surrounding frame (Witkin et al., 1972). In the Body Adjustment Test (BAT) subject is seated in a tilted chair, in a small tilted room, and is asked to adjust his body to the upright. Some subjects tend to align their bodies with the tilted room (rield dependence), whereas others bring their bodies close to the actual uprig regardless of the tilt of the room (field independence). The Embedded Figures Test (EFT) requires the subject to find a simple figure (such as a triangle) which has previously seen in a complex design which has been organized to hide the simple design (Witkin et al. 1972). Significant correlations between scores on the EFT. RFT and BAT were found in numerous studies (Gardner, 1957, 1961; Jackson, 1955, 1958; Newbigging, 1954; Perez, 1955; as cited in Witkin et al., 1971). Intellectual differentiation is assessed by means of three subtests of the Wechsler Intelligence Scales. These tests collectively are called the Wechsler Analytic Triad (WAT) and they include the Block

Design, Object Assembly and Picture Arrangement subtests. Like the EFT, these tests require disembedding, which makes them suitable for use as a measure of cognitive differentiation.

Development of Autonomy in the Preschool Years: The psychosocial developmental theory of Erik Erikson(1963), emphasizes the importance of the child's social environment in development. Erikson describes human development in eight consecutive stages, the first

7

-91,

three of which include infoncy, and early childhood. Each stage involves a "nuclear conflict" which the individual must resolve. The nuclear confli of infancy and early childhood are trust versus mistrust; autonomy versus shame and doubt; and initiative versus guilt. Within the framework of this paper it is the second and third stages which are crucial for the develope of autonomy.

The second stage approximately corresponds to a chronological age of $1 \frac{1}{2} - 3$ years. The conflict here has to do with the assertion of will or submission to control by others (usually parents). During this time childr begin to acquire more complex skills in dealing with the world around them (such as language, walking etc.) They also begin to see themselves as capable of manipulating some things, as executors of some of the behaviors they intend. Gradually they develops sense of autonomy. However, shame and doubt alsoexist. They arise from the child's rem ining dependence and on f ar of going beyond one's capacities. Toilet training reflects the conflicts of this stage, where shame and doubt result from failure to meet parental expectations and an inability to be assertive, whereas a sense of autonomy is the outcome of self control and assertion.

By the age of four or five, children have resolved the crises of autonomy and have discovered that they are somebody (Lefrancois, 1977)). Erikson calls the crisis of this stage initiative versus guilt. The environment of three to five year olds now invites them to assume some responsibility and master new tasks such as establishing peer relations, imitating adult language. The child must initiate actions in different spheres. After all, they are not only autonomous but they are responsible for initiating behavior.

As discussed at some length above, the child's development obviously takes place in a social environment dominated by the parents. Schaefer

(1958) emphasizes two dimensions of parental behavior which are important in their roles as socializers: acceptance - rejection and permissiveness - restrictiveness.

Acceptance and rejection refer to the respect and love (or their lack) that parents show to their children. Accepting parents parents show warmth, love, affection, understanding and approval. In terms of disciplinary methods, they use praise and encouragement and little physical punishment. Rejecting parents behave in a cold, distant, hostile, or disapproving manner towards, their children and tend to use harsh punishment with them.

Permissiveness-restrictiveness refers to the degree to which parents exercise control over their children's actions. Permissive parents are liberal in their attitudes towards their children, and they allow them freedom in decision making and in carrying out these decisions. They do not exert much control or enforce rigid rules on their children . However, Baumrund (1967) and Coppersmith (1967) have suggasted that extreme permissiveness does not produce a well-socialized child. A very permissive, rejecting parent is perhaps better described as neglecting. Even when the parent is warm, the absence of at least moderate control is likely to be associated with low impulse control in the child and low levels of achievement (Maccoby, 1968). The most positive outcome in child behavior is believed to appear as

a consequence of accepting and moderately permissive parental behavior, where the child tends to be independent, autonomous, out-going, creative and active (Liebert and Wicks-Nelson, 1981).

Considerable differences in autonomy / dependence may be observed in children of preschool age. The dependent child seeks for help frequently, stays close or next to adults and his initiative in actions is directed towards adults rather than peers. When there is no adult

near, he reacts in a passive and shy way. The autonomous child, in contrast, relates to peers as well as adults; he can play alone; when faced with a problem he tries to solve it himself first and he seeks help from others only if he cannot; he asserts himself and his opinions (Maccoby et al., 1968).

In Turkey, the general igned is toward a controlling-authoritarian parental attitude towards children. Children are most treated as babies until they are three years old, therefore they are treated more understandingly and not so authoritatively as they are treated later. Girls, especially, are trained to be dependent, passive and obedient (Özgediz et al., 1979, Käğıtçıbaşı, 1982).

Turkish socialization processes emphasize obedience to authority beginning in early childhood. The family structure hinders independence in the cognitive and social behavior of Turkish children (Köknel, 1970; Öztürk, 1969)). ^Parents want their children to obey them, the structure them, to turn to them for guidance, in other words to be dependent on them. In schools and other social media this theme of obedience to authority inhibits the development autonomy and discrimination between self and other. Thus social and cognitive development suffer from such a cultural norm.

Sex Differences:

Though small in magnitude, in Western Societies there is a difference between the sexes in cognitive style, with females tending to be more field dependent than males. The reason is probably greater emphasis on self-nonself segregation in the raising of boys than of girls. These differences do not become regular or significant until around early adolescence (Within, 1975; as cited in Djaz-Guerrero and Holtzman, 1978).

a studies of Non-Western societies, sex differences tend not to be and in samples from migratory, hunting societies; where significant

sex differences do appear, they are largely in samples from sedentary, agricultural societies (Clausen, 1968).

In migratory or hunting economies, social pressure is loose, and socialization practices value independence, self-reliance and achievement. In these societies the level of differentiation is quite high and members are relatively field independent because of greater tolerance of autonomy. Females are relatively more independent and valued in the economic life of the family. In these groups, there is little or no sex difference on field dependence-independence (Berry, 1975). Among Eskimos, no sex differences were found (Berry, 1967). Among Australian Aboriginals, a migratory community, minimal sex differences were encountered (Berry, 1975).

Sex differences seem to appear most strongly in sedentary, agriculturalist cultures where there is tight social pressure and where socialization practices require responsibility and obedience to authority figures. The family dynamics are characterized by stress on conformity to parental authority. Females are generally expected to behave more dependently and under the control. These cultures tend to have a low differentiation because of emphasis on obedience, dependence and authority.

Both sexes tend to be less field-independent in these cultures, but socialization pressures are even stronger on females than males therefore producing greater field dependence in females.

Among African agricultural and pastoral cultures and Jamaican children, greater sex differences were found (Berry, 1967; Okonji, 1969; cited in Werner, 1979). Holtzman and his colleagues (1975) found sex differences among mexican girls and boys, where the girls had more household duties than boys and the parents' expectations were higher for boys than girls. This case is similar to that of Turkey, where females are

raised to obey authority thus turning at to be more field dependent (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982).

Antecedents of Cognitive Style:

Cross-cultural studies in Non-Western samples have focused on four major categories of antecedents of cognitive style.

- 1) Child-Rearing practices
- 2) Socialization practices within the larger social context
- 3) Ecological factors

う

4) Biological (hormonal) determinants

1) Effects of Child Rearing Practices Within the Family:

Variations in modes of child-rearing may be seen in different societies. These practices foster or hamper the development of differentiation in cognitive style. Children who are encouraged to function separately , autonomously, with initiative and gradual separation from family control seem to have greater field independence. In contrast, child-rearing practices which encourage continued reliance on parental authority, severe socialization pressures and strong identification with the mother are likely to make for less differentiation and a more field-dependent cognitive style (Busse, 1969).

In an early study by Dyk and Witkin (1965) mothers of field dependent and independent boys handled separation issues in opposite ways. Mothers of field dependent boys were likely to encourage continued connections between mother and son (limiting child's activities, emphasizing conformity, discouraging assertive and aggressive behavior, not stimulating the child for responsibility taking). They also tended to use severe discipline as a means of controlling the behavior of their children.

Finally, less differentiated mothers tended to have less differentiated children.

Seder (1957; cited in Maloney, 1974) also found differences in child rearing among mothers of field dependent and independent 10-year-old boys and girls. The findings showed that mothers of field independent children were permissive, democratic, encouraging of independent behavior and tended to allow their children to set their own standards. On the contrary, mothers of field dependent children were authoritarian in administering punishment and coercive in their methods of childrearing.

In an early study by Dawson (1967; cited in Sinha, 1981), the Mende and Temme groups of Sierra Leone were studied. The Temme parents were found to stress authority more, to use more physical punishment and be less consistent in their child rearing methods. As predicted, the Temme were found to be more field dependent than the Mende. In a similar study by Berry (1966; cited in Sinha, 1981)), he compared the Temmes and the Eskimos. The Temme children, who were severely disciplined and physically punished, were more field dependent than the Eskimo children, who had much more freedom, received punishment rarely and were encourage to have responsibilities early in life.

Busse (1969) worked on child rearing antecedents of flexible thinking. In conducting his research he worked with mothers and fathers from a lower-class Negro community. Flexible thinking was defined as the ability to consider alternative means to an end. Conditions which limit flexible thinking were found to be over-controlling mothers, severe punishment, lack of controversy and argument at home (where impulses are denied expressions), and father absence leading to maternal domination. Results showed that flexible thinking is related to parental child rearing practices is the predicted way.

In a study of mothers, Hess and Shipman (1965) compared lower and middle SES mothers and children, they compared mothers' teaching strategies and their effects on children's learning styles and information strategies. Lower SES mothers were found to control their children more strictly and were more authoritarian than middle or high SES mothers. As a result, their children were more passive. dependent and compliant in their modes of engagement whereas middle or high SES children were more assertive and initiating. L_{aosa} (1978) hypothesized that children whose mothers use maternal teaching strategies which encourage autonomous functioning and cognitive restructuring will develop a relatively field independent cognitive style, and that children whose mothers use teaching strategies which encourage the child to rely on external referents as sources of information and stress strict, dominant control, conformity to authority and harsh punishment will develop a relatively field dependent cognitive style. The results supported the hypotheses. Claeys and De Boeck (1976) worked with $5-t_0-7$ year old children. They studied the influence of parental characteristics on children's primary mental abilities and field independence. Their results also showed a relation between children's field independence and parental emphasis on independence and achievement.

There are also a few studies which have failed to find relationships between parental attitudes and behavior and children's cognitive style. Domash and Bolter (1976) found no significant relationship between mother's authoritarianism and child's psychological differentiation. They also found no sex difference with regard to psychological differentiation among these preschool children.

14

Ribback (1957), in an early study, found no relationship between mater nal attitudes and cognitive functioning. She suggested that certain variables such as age and sex which were not controlled in her study might have obscured the relationship (Ribback, 1957; cited in Maloney 1974).

i) Child Rearing practices and cognitive styles in Turkey

There have been a number of studies conducted on the relationship bet ween child-rearing methods and cognitive styles of children in Turkey The findings, however, do not indicate a definite trend. Öztürk (1969) and Köknel (1970) reported that the conservative and inhibitive nature of the Turkish family hampers the development of independence in Turkish children.

Le Compte and Le Compte (1978) worked with mothers representing lower middle and upper SES in Ankara, Turkey. Lower SES mothers were found to be more overprotective and less democratic in their relations with their children.

Gürkaynak (1979) found that lower SES children received harsh punishment and more control from their parents than middle SES children. As a result they were more dependent, aggressive and had less power with regard to family issues.

Korkmazlar (1980) found that children of overprotective parents tended to be more field dependent than children of less overprotective parent It was also found that parental educational-occupational levels influenced children's cognitive styles. Children of university educated parents were more field-independent than children of elementary school educated parents.

Erer (1983) hypothesized that in Turkey dependence is praised. She found that the tendency to raise dependent children decreases as the educational level of the parent increases.

In terms of sex differences, there were no significant differences in field articulation or dependent behavior found either in Korkmazlar's study (1980) or in Erer's study (1983).

Çanborgil (1973), on the other hand, found that village mothers' attitudes did not affect their children's success on Piaget's cognitiv performance tasks.

Okman's (1979) findings were rather opposing. She dealt with the relationships between parental child-rearing attitudes and field articulation of their 13 year old children. Children who perceived their parents as fostering autonomy were more field-dependent than those who perceived their parents as fostering conformity and dependence. This finding was not consistent either with Okman's expectations or previous research results.

2) Socialization Practices within larger social context

Socialization can be regarded as a process which focuses upon the development of the individual as a social being and as a member of a society. As the structure of the society varies, the norms inherent in the culture and socialization patterns also vary. Where family structure has changed from an extended family structure to a nuclear family structure, child-rearing practices have also changed (Clausen, 1968). Dominant interactions and influences in these two different types of families are very different. Joint families are large groups with members belonging to three or more generations, whereas nuclear families are small groups with members from only two generations. These two family types present entirely two different kinds of social environment to the child. An extended family structure provides an atmosphere where the child has less freedom to develop his self identity and individuality because af an authoritarian structure. In the nuclear family, the child has more independence and distinctive self development. Therefore children in these two types of families will differ in their psychological differentiation (Clausen, 1968).

3) Ecological Factors:

Ecology here refers to the density of population in the home and surrounding areas; the form and arrangement of houses in the community; and the type of space available to the individual and his family. Ecological patterns may be hypothesized to affect the nature of an individual's self conception, his ability to develop a sharpl differentiated impression of himself. (Berry, 1976). Members of mobil groups (hunting, fishing, migrating communities) seem to be more fie independent, with developed spatial abilities, analytical skills and self reliance. In agricultural groups (pastoralists, sedentary communities) social conformity, control over individuals are valued which in turn leads to field-dependent styles (Berry, 1967). In Turkey there are three main family types. The nuclear family is predominant, but is different from the Western nuclear family. Nucwith lear families tend to be structurally nuclear but function closeknit ties with their families of origin, kin and neighbors (Olson. 1981; Duben, 1982; ottatat Kagitçibaşı, 1982). The extended famili are divided into two; patriarchally extended (the oldest man, the fa is the head of household), and transient extended (the married son i. the household head and this family is on the way to becoming nuclear (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982).

4) Biological Factors:

Some researchers have suggested that field dependence independence and autonomy may be influenced by sex hormone levels. They have suggested that the androgen/estrogen ratio plays an important role in determining cognitive style. For example, Dawson (1972; cited in Goodenough and Witkin, 1977) suggested that a high androgen/estrogen ratio during a critical prenatal period may result in a field independent cognitive style.

Another sex based line of research suggests that cognitive style is affected by the rate of maturation. There is evidence, although not consistent, that within each sex, individuals who reach puberty relatively late, tend to score higher on the MFT, Block Design and other differentiation tests (Waber, 1976; cited in Goodenough and Within, 1977).

In shaping one's cognitive style all of these factors tend to work together instead of being "the antecedent". It is quite clear, however, that environmental variables play a very important role in the development of psychological differentiation. In examining cognitive style in young children, it would be helpful to consider ⁱⁿ detail the effects on children of another environmental variable namely, P_{re} school Education.

) Effects of Preschool Education:

2

It may be said that all of a child*s experiences from birth to school age comprise his preschool education. Life is the curriculum and the child is the learner at the center of the process. However, our concern here is with formal, or institutional preschool education, the main concern of this education is to promote some curiosity in the child about the world around him so that he develops competence

from his experiences. Obviously educational aims are somewhat different for younger and older children, for talented or less gifted children, and for advantaged or deprived children. It may be helpful to turn to understand how to evaluate these educational programs.

The earliest attempts to evaluate the effects of early education utilized the measurement of changes following nursery school attendance. The measurement devices were intelligence tests (Jensen, 1963; cited in Clarke and Clarke, 1976). The assessment methods ranged from testing by quantitative methods to observational ones (Le Francois, 1972).

Preschool education is desirable for all children, but it is a necessity for the disadvantaged. What is meant by the term "diadvantaged"? Children coming from low SES families are disadvantaged from birth. They come from economically poor families which are caught up in a cycle of poverty and failure. The jobs the poor hold are undesirable and low in salaries. As a group they are less successful in school, therefore they have a low education level. The picture is that the disadvantaged individual, in this case the adult, is poor, undereducated, and under - or - unemployed. Children coming from these families typically obtain lower IQ scores, and perform more poorly in school than their advantaged peers. On the other hand, their advantaged peers coming from higher SES groups have received adequate nutrition, stimulation, parental support from an adequate, enriched environment (Liebert and Wicks-Nelson, 1981). The disadvantaged children's academic difficulties increase over the years, and they are more likely to drop out of school at an early age. Then they face a life of marginal jobs or unemployment. To break this cycle, compensatory education programs are needed.

What is compensatory education? What are the main goals? It is apparent

that disadvantaged children are those who are in greatest need of compensatory education. Therefore the main goal of compensatory programs is to provide children from various socioeconomic back grounds with equal opportunities for education. Proponents of preschool education conclude that compensatory programs must be carefully focused to make up for what the home environment lacks, and that compensatory preschool education must be followed by a compensatory school program. Also, improving the home environment may be an essential link in compensatory educational programs (Clarke and Clarke, 1976).

were designed Early programs beginning in the 1960's, to promote the intellectual and physical growth of the children by providing an enriched environment. Among these programs, the following were wall known. 1)Early Training Project (Gray and Claus, 1965, 1968; cited in Mussen, Conger and Kagan, 1975): This study was carried out with deprived preschool children. Intervention caused a sharp increase in measured intelligence. However, this trend leveled off by the end of fourth grade and then began to decline. The reason was that without massive the changes in life situation of the child, home circumstances will continue their adversive effect upon the child even though the preschool environment has been enriched (Leffrancosis, 1977).

2)The Ypsilanti Project (Weikart and Schweinhart, 1981): This program combined a daily-clasroom component with a weekly home-teaching visit. At the age of 15, the experimental group still maintained relative success in school achievement and social relations. Therefore the Ypsilanti Project brings forward the very important hypothesis that programs are more successful if they involve both the mother and the child.

3)Project Head Start: This program was designed to help disadvantaged children by providing an intensive preschool education program for a short period of time. Results showed an increase in performance which declined rapidly after the termination of the project. The failure might be due to the use of short programs, offering little education, treating the child out of his home environment, and failing to reinforce gains (Clarke and Clarke, 1976).

4)Parent Education Project: Ira Gordon (1969; cited in Lefrancobid), 1977) developed a program in which impoverished children were not removed from their homes. Parent-educators were trained to go into homes to orient parents. The children appeared to benefit from this prolonged program.

An ideal preschool center with a comprehensive approach, incorporates the child's social environment and constitutes a supportive environment for the overall development of the child can be analyzed in terms of four main headings (Özgediz et al., 1979):

1) Development of self: Development of trust, self-control, independence. positive self evaluation. sex role learning.

2) Cognitive Development: Development of creativity, problem solving, productivity, language development, differentiated thinking ability.

3) Physical Development: Learning the body, bodily hygiene, muscle development.

4) Social-emotional Development: Developing positive interpersonal relationships, love, social responsibilities, learning cultural and humanitarian values, and learning the environment.

These categories must be the primary concerns of a preschool center. However differences are expected to appear between centers with educational aims and custodial aims.

Educational centers aim to foster the overall development of the child. Staff behavior, in line with the aim, is more stimulating and promoting the development of the children. They show more positive control, suggestions, instructions. They share the activity with the children and carry on in organized group activities and teaching sessions. Staff working at centers with custodial aims show low quality of relation with children and negative control (depending on strict discipline and punishment). They accepted their job only to mind the children. The cognitive content of their behavior was very poor or nonexistent (Bekman, 1982). They did little or nothing to instruct or stimulate cognitive development in the children. Keeping the orientation of the center and the staff behavior in mind, children attending custodial centers may be expected to be less creative in their activities and less imaginative. The nature of the custodial center (no variety in facilities and materials, highly structured atmosphere) may be expected to inhibit the child's cognitive development.

Social development is also expected to be hindered in the centers with custodial aims. The children's individuality is ignored. Selfexpression, initiative behavior are denied. They are expected to display complete obedience and behave in accordance with the wishes of the staff (Bekman, 1982). Therefore, with regard to autonomy, children attending custodial centers may be expected to behave less autonomously than children attending educational centers. Now let us take a look at the studies carried out in Turkey on the effects of preschool education. In a study by Bekman (1982), the effects of the orientation (aim) of the preschool center on the children's behavior was studied. Results showed that the aim of the center affected the child's level of social participation and type and complexity of activity that he engaged in. In centers with a maintenance/custodial aim, the children's behavior was at a lower level of complexity in terms of social interaction and the type of the activity than the children's behavior at centers with educational aims.

Purpose of the Study:

This study is part of an overall project, the Comprehensive Preschool Education Project, which aims to investigate the impact of different types of preschool environments, in combination with a program of home intervention, on the cognitive, personality, and social development of working-class children in İstanbul.

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the impact of the mother's child-rearing practices and attitudes, and the type of the preschool attended on the child's cognitive style (field dependence -independence)) and on the child's autonomous or dependent behavior.

Hypotheses:

According to Busse (1969), Dyk and Within (1965), Hess and Shipman (1965), Laosa (1978), Erer (1983) and Korkmazlar (1980), it has been found that mother's child-rearing methods affect the child's cognitive and social development. Children of overprotective, authoritative, coercive mothers who emphasize obedience, dependence, powerassertion, conformity and control, have been found to be less autonomous and more field-dependent. Therefore it may be hypothesized that;

1)Children whose mothers use power-assertive discipline will have less differentiated cognitive styles than children whose mothers use inductive discipline.

2)Children whose mothers use power-assertive discipline will be less autonomous than children whose mothers use inductive discipline.

3)Children whose mothers reward obedience will have less differen-

tiated cognitive styles than children whose mothers reward independence.

24

4) Children whose mothers define a "good child" in terms of dependence and obedience will have less differentiated cognitive styles than children whose mothers define a "good child" in terms of autonomy. Another line of research, on the effects of preschool education on child"s cognitive and social development, has concluded that preschool education affects the child"s behavior and that preschool programs with different methods and aims have differing impacts on child development (Clarke and Clarke,(1976); Gray and Claus,(1968); Weikart and Schweinhart,(1981); Gordon,(1969); Öney,(1981); Bekman,(1982);). Therefore it was hypothesized that;

5)Children who attend educational preschool centers will have more differentiated cognitive styles than children who attend custodial centers or who are reared in deprived at homes with no formal preschool education.

6) Children who attend educational preschools will show more autonomous behavior than children who attend custodial centers or who are reared at home.

Among the studies of cognitive styles, sex differences do not seem to be significant until adolescent years. According to many researchers (Berry, 1975; Korkmazlar, 1980; Within, 1976; Clausen, 1968),), sex differences do not appear in children. Therefore it was hypothesized that;

7) There will be no sex differences with regard to cognitive styles among five-year-old Turkish boys and girls.

METHOD

SUBJECTS

Subjects were 136, five-year-old children (born between May, 1977 and May, 1978) coming from intact families and their mothers. Forty of the children were home-reared, did not attend nursery schools. Of those attending pre-school centers, 40 attended centers with educational aims and 56 attended centers with custodial/maintenance aims. Seventy-eight of the subjects were boys and 58 were girls.

Table 1

Distribution of Children According To Sex

And The Center Attended

Educational Centers

Custodial Centers

Home-Reared

G I R L S	20	19	19
B O Y S	20	35	22
N=	41	54	41

Children who went to preschool centers were randomly chosen from a list obtained from the headmasters, according to age and unbroken family background. Information on family's background and birthdate was obtained from the children's files at the centers. Since the length of attendance at the center might affect the child's behavior, only children who attended the center more than three months were included in the sample. The mean length of nursery attendance was 1.5 years.

25

BOBALICI ÜNIVERSITESI KÜTÜPAMAA

The home-reared group were selected from a group of home reared children (satisfying the age and family background criteria) who lived in the same neighborhoods as the nursery school children. They were located by referrals from the mothers of the nursery school children.

SELECTION OF CENTERS

All subjects in the preschool sample were chosen from children attending preschool centers in İstanbul, which serve children of parents of low socio-economic-status (SES). Low SES is operationally defined as a combination of lack of education, low income, unskilled or semi-skilled poor worker status, and residence in one of the shanty town or other quality h&using areas.

The preschools were classified as educational or custodial in aim accordi to the results from (1) a questionnaire directed to the headmaster of the center (2) an observation sheet which was filled out by an observer after visiting the center for five days. Both the questionnaire and the observation sheet consisted of items about the materials present at the center, physical setting of the center in detail and daily activities Copies may be found in Appendices A and B.

Six preschool centers, three of them custodial and three educational, were selected for the study. Two of the educational centers are run by private sector factories, for children of their workers and one is run by Union For Children's Welfare (an institution of the Red Crescent). All of the custodial centers serve the children of workers in cigarette factories run by the Turkish State Monopolies. The centers with educational aims had a favorable staff ratio, with an average of 15-20 children per teacher. They had a daily, organized activity program aimed at comprehensive education of the children. The children were free in their choice of activity during the beginning hours. Later they were

asked to clear and tidy and then to form a group in which they had singing or story telling and were given simple information about the world. After that the children worked on a creative activity if they wished. The settings (indoor or outdoor) and play materials available to the children were attractive and stimulating.

The centers with custody/maintenance aims had a staff ratio with an average of 25-30 children per teacher. The daily program was primarily directed to the physical needs of the children such as eating, dressing and toileting. Equipment was limited and toys consisted of only plastic toys and a few dolls. The children could not act freely. Their activitie were mostly teacher initiated. They spent most of their time sitting aimlessly. Outdoor facilities were better than indoors but again equipment and supervision were minimal.

MATERIALS

INTERVIEW SCHEDULES:

Child Interview:

The mother of the xheek child in the sample was interviewed during a home visit by one of a group of eight investigators about their children behavior. The schedule for this "child interview" contained 55 closedended questions, 25 of which concerned autonomy. These items were pretested in a pilot study, and in some cases were revised. Seven subcategories of behavior were included in the autonomy dimension. 1. Project Initiative: Coded when the child was reported to initiate a play activity or the use of the play material without direction or suggestion from an adult or another child. This category does not include self-stimulation, i.e., thumb-sucking.

2. Independent Activity: This category was coded when the child was reported to carry out an organized, purposeful activity with minimal

or no supervision by an adult. This activity might have been initiated by the child himself or might have been suggested by an adult or by another child, but in either case the child was reported to carry out the activity independently.

3. Social Initiative: This category was coded when the child was reported to initiate social interaction with another child, such as an invitation to play, asking to join a game and the like.

4. Self-Care: In this category, the child was reported to carry out some kind of self-caring activity independently.

5. Persistence: When the child was reported to persist in an activity despite its difficulties or frustrations, this category was coded. 6. Assertion of Rights: This category included instances in which the child was reported to defend his interests against children and adults. He might have resisted interferences, directions, interruptions in a reasonable manner; without tautrums and aggression.

Dependence 7.-Dependence 7.-Dependence of autonomy. If the category was coded; the child was reported to lack autonomy; showing orientation toward the mother by clinging on, asking for constant help from the mother or complaining about his brothers and sisters. A copy of the schedule may be found in Appendix C.

Mother Interview:

A second interview; the mother interview, conducted by five interviewe was also carried out in a separate home visit. This interview involve a total of 76 questions including closed and open-ended questions. This interview was designed to assess mothers" child-rearing practices and attitudes. Again, this interview was also pre-tested in a pilot study and modified where necessary.

From the items in this interview, question 9 showed the type of behav rewarded by the mother. Question 14 was an indicator of the mother's

style of punishment. Question 43 was the indicator of the mother's definition of the concept of a "good child". The relevant portion of the interview schedule is reproduced in Appendix D.

THE CHILDREN'S EMBEDDED FIGURES TEST:

This test was administered by four experimenters, to test the child's field-dependence or independence (cognitive style). The Children's Embedded Figures Test (CEFT) was developed to measure cognitive style, by Karp and Konstadt (1971). This test is the children's version of the EFT (Embedded Figures Test). The CEFT is applicable to children between the ages 5-to-12. Although the CEFT has not been standardized for Turkey, it has been applied in Turkey by Korkmazlar (1980). The CEFT is a visual discrimination test, involving two simple forms hidden in pictures of varying complexity. Each form is presented in four series. The first three series are designed to familiarize the child with the materials and discrimination problem, while the fourth series is a test series. These series are as follows: 1. Discrimination Series: Eight cards including one exact copy of each of the forms and three false copies on each card. 2. Demonstration Series: Two cards having three consecutive pictures on which one of the original forms is embedded in a more complex figure.

3. Practice Series: Three complex pictures allow the child to practice finding embedded figures.

4. Test Series: A total of 25 cards, 11 with one of the forms and 14 with the other form embedded in more complex figures. Each figure accurately pointed out by the child receives a score of one. The stimulus materials and instructions from the CEFT are reproduced in Appendix E.

THE WECHSLER ANALYTIC TRIAD (WAT):

The WAT administered by four experimenters consists of three subtests of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Revised Form (WISC-R); Block Design (BD), Object Assembly (OA), and Picture Arrangement (PA) tests. These tests are used as measures of analytical thinking and also as supportive tests for the CEFT. The Block Design (BD) especially has been found to correlate highly with the CEFT (Sinha, 1981; Werner, 1979). The CEFT scores also correlated significantly (.32 -.49) with the WAT scores in several studies (Goodenough and Karp, 1961; Elitcher, 1967; Pascual and Leone, 1969; all cited in the CEFT Manual, 1971). The WAT has a composite score, derived from averages of the three subtests. A stop-watch is used for timing all three tests.

1. Block Design: This test requires six flat blocks with one red and one white side; eight flat blocks painted red on one side and one-half red and one-half white on the other; and three cards with printed designs of blocks, bound into a booklet.

2. Object Assembly: The test material contains five separate boxes, each containing cardboard shapes which can be assembled to produce a representation of an object familiar to the child, such as an apple, a girl, a horse, a car, and a face. The first object (apple) is used for demonstration purposes. A paper on which to lay out the pieces; and an original sheet to locate the pieces according to a standard format were also used during the administration of the test. 3. Picture Arrangement: This test includes 13 sets of cards with pictures and a box container. On the back of the cards, numbers indicate the correct order from the child's left to right. Standardization of the WISC tests in Turkey was done by Semin et al. 1967-1970 (Semin, 1978).

A copy of instructions and score sheets for each has been reproduced in Appendix F.
PROCEDURE

The Interviews

The mother and the child interviews were conducted during home visits. When possible, the interviews with the mothers were conducted alone to avoid the influence of other family members on the answers. In some cases this proved impossible because of the limited number of rooms and large number of family members present in the home. <u>The CEFT</u>

To develop proficiency in application of the CEFT, the investigator and three assistants applied the test to 20 children who were randomly chosen from the Boğaziçi University Preschool Center. These children came from the families of university professors, as well as those of administrative personnel, and workers at the University. In other words it included children from various SES.

In administering the CEFT, each child was tested alone. Where possible the test was administered in a quiet and comfortable room at the center or in a separate room in the homes.

During the administration of the test, the researcher and the child sat side by side. The numbers on the cards were kept in the upper right. The procedure begins with showing the child the simple forms (a tent shape and a house shape). Then the Discrimination Series is presented. The child is then asked to find the exact replica of the originals in four items in the Discrimination-geries. If the child cannot choose correctly twice consecutively, the test is discontinued at that point. If he does make two consecutive correct choices the test continues with the Demonstration-series.

The Demonstration series requires the child to locate the tent-form in simple pictures.

The Practice series requires the child to practice disembedding. The

researcher paints out the pictures are getting more complex. Actual scoring starts with the Test series. First there is a series using the tent (T) form, which the child must locate in each picture. If the child fails all the trials between T7-T11, the test is discontinued. If at least one success is scored between T7-T11, the test continues with the House (H) series.

Before applying the House-test-cards, the child is first shown additional Demonstration and Practice cards with exactly the same procedure. Then he goes on to the test cards from H1-H14. Testing is stopped when the child fails in five consecutive trials in the H-series. The possible maximum score is 25.

The Wechsler Analytic Triad (WAT)

To gain facility with the procedures, the researcher applied the three tests to five children randomly chosen from the Boğaziçi University preschool center. Actual testing took place at the centers, in a separate room, or in a separate room in the child's home. Block Design:

The child is given a block model for the designs 1 to 7, presented on the Record Form and the designs 8 to 10, on separate cards bound to a booklet, with the tops of designs facing the child. The child has 30 seconds for each trial, starting after the last word of the instructions. The child has a chance of two trials. Each design receives a score of 0, 1 or 2. If reproduced on the first trial, the design receives a two; one for the second trial; zero if both trials are failed. Reproductions in rotated forms only for Designs 1 to 4 are counted as correct. Each design presented must be prearranged behind a screen. Trials with gaps between the blocks are scored as failures. The test is discontinued after two consecutive failures, beginning with Design 3. The maximum score is 20.

that

Object Assembly:

In this test, the examiner and the child sit facing each other. The examiner first puts the pieces into a standard position while hiding it with a sheet of paper. After exposing the array, the instructions are given. Timing starts when the last word of the directions is given. The sample item is not scored. Each item has a different time limit, varying from 120 to 180 minutes. Points are given for partial arrangements, and bonus points are given for quick arrangements. Completed before the time limit. The entire test is given to all children regardless of scores on earlier items. The maximum score is 33 points.

Picture Arrangement:

In this test, the examiner sits facing the child. For each item, the child is presented with a series of pictures in a mixed-up order, and is asked to arrange them in an order which tells a story. The order in which the child arranges the items and the time it takes him to complete the job are recorded. Each item has a time limit which begins with the last word of the instructions.

For items 5 to 12 bonus points are given for fast and perfect performances. The child has two trials for each set of pictures. If he has three consecutive failures (failing on both trials) the test is discontinued. There are varying time limits for the different items. There is one sample item for practice purposes. The possible maximum score is 48 points.

ANALYSES

Responses to the Mother Interview were used to classify mothers with regard to their disciplinary styles (power assertive or inductive), their concept of the "good child" (obedient or independent), and the

Ĵ

type of behavior that they typically reward in their children (obedient or independent). In each case the children of each group of mothers were compared with regard to their CEFT and WAT scores; their behaviors as reported on the Child Interview (autonomous or dependent) were also compared. In addition, children were grouped according to their preschool settings (educational preschool, custodial preschool, and home care) and their CEFT and WAT scores were compared across groups. Their reported autonomous / dependent behaviors were also compared across groups.

RESULTS

Means and standard deviations for all children's WAT and CEFT scores were computed. A summary of mean scores and standard deviation by context of socialization is presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations of CEFT and WAT Scores For All Children

		CEFT	WAT		
Context of socialization	N	x	S.D.	x	S.D.
Educational Preschools	40	9.5	3.9	7.3	4.4
Custodial Preschools	56	5.3	2.97	5.9	2.7
Home-Reared	40	5.6	3.9	4.9	2.9
Total Sample	136	6.8	3.6	6.1	3.3

In order to test the first hypothesis on the relationship between the mothers' disciplinary methods and the children's cognitive styles, the mothers were categorized as "power assertive" (using physical punishments, withdrawal of love, threats and other punishments involving power assertion), or "inductive" (explaining the outcomes, having the child pay back for what he has done, telling the child not to repeat the misbehavior and making the child apologize), according to their responses to the items corresponding to the mothers" disciplinary methods. The children of these two groups of mothers were compared with regard to cognitive style, as measured by the CEFT and the WAT as can be seen from Table 3.

Table 3

Children's Cognitive Styles and Mothers'

Disciplinary Styles

		Ceft		WAT.			
Power Assertive Mothers	N X 84 6.02	SD t 4.5 .84	p X 5.45 .4 (N.S.)	SD t p 4.14 .47 .6 (n.s.)			
Inductive Mothers	52 5.4	4.1	5.76	3.2			

There is no significant difference between children of power assertive mothers and children of mothers who use induction, either in terms of CEFT scores (t=.84, pooled variance estimate; df=134; p=.4, l-tailed), or the WAT scores (t=.47; separate variance estimate, df=134, p=.6, l-tailed).

The second hypothesis was that the children of power-assertive mothers would behave less autonomously than children of mothers who use induction. The Kolmogorov - Smirnov Two-Sample Nonparametric Test was used to test the differences between the groups on each subcategory of the autonomy dimension. Since direction was predicted, a chi-square approximation was adequate for analysis. However the hypothesis was not supported. There were four items to be analyzed for the subcategory "project initiative", four for "independent activity", three for "social initiative", four for "self-care", two for "persistence", three for "assertion of rights", and four for "dependence on adults". There were no significant differences on any of those items. Data relevant to the third hypothesis, concerning the relation between behaviors rewarded by the mothers and cognitive styles of their children were also analyzed by a two-sample t-test, as can be seen from Table 4.

Table 4

Effects of Mothers' Rewarding Behavior on Children's Cognitive Styles

			CEFT				WAT		
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	N	X	S.D.	t	р	x	S.D.	t	р
Mothers Rewarding Obedince	43	4.95	3.8			4.6	2.6		
				•5	•6			1.83	•07
				(N _• S)					(n.s.)
Mothers Rewarding	11	5.64	5.2			6.4	3.5		
Independence									

Independence

Total 54

There was no significant difference between children whose mothers reward obedience and children whose mothers reward independence in terms of either CEFT scores (t: .5, pooled variance estimate;df : 52; P:.6, 1-tailed), or "AF scores (t:1.83, pooled variance estimate; df: 52; p:.07,1-tailed). According to thes results, the second hypothesis was not supported even though according to the "AF scores the difference came very close to conventional significance.

For hypothesis 4, again applicaton of the t-test was appropriate. It was hypothesized that children whose mothers defined a "good child" in terms of cognitive style than children whose mothers defined the "good child" in terms of sutonomy. The results are summarized in Table 5.

Mothers' Concept of a "Good Child" Affecting Children's Cognitive Styles CEFT WAT x x N SD SD t t р D Defined in terms 5.6 84 4.3 5.6 3.7 of Obedience .6 .53 .6 •47° (n.s.) (n.s.) Defined in terms of Independence 5.2 4.0 5.96 4.2 34 Total 118

Table 5

Again, there is no significant difference between the groups. The hypothesis was not supported either with regard to CEFT scores (t=.53, pooled variance estimate; df=ll6; p=.6, l-tailed) or WAT scores (t=.47, pooled variance estimate; df=ll6, p=.6, l-tailed). One-Way Analysis of Variance was utilized to test the results of the fifth hypothesis concerning comparisons among children going to educational preschool centers, custodial preschool centers and homereared children in terms of cognitive styles (see Table 6 and 7).

Table 6

Context of Socialization and Children's

CEFT scores

	Sums of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	P	р
Total SS	2523.4	135	18.7		
Between SS	408 .7 ′	2	204.4	12.9	.001
Within SS	2114.7	133	15.9		

Table 7

Context of Socialization and Children*s WAT scores

S	ims of	Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F	р
Total SS	1943.	. <i>T</i>	135	14.4		
Between SS	150.	6	2	75.3	5.6	.005
Within SS	1793.	.1	133	13.5		

The results indicated significant differences among the groups in terms of both CEFT scores ($\frac{P}{CEFT}$ =12.9, df=2.133, p=.001)), and WAT scores ($\frac{F}{WAT}$ =5.6, df=2.133, p=.005). Therefore the hypothesis was supported.

Data relevant to Hypothesis 6, concerning the relation between context of socialization and children's autonomous behavior were analyzed by Kolmogorov - Smirnov Test. The number of autonomy items per subcategory were the same as in Hypothesis 2.

Results indicated that there was no significant difference between the educational preschool group versus the custodial group or the educational group versus the home-reared group in terms of autonomous behavior.

There was only one item of independent activity where the difference between the educational preschool group and custodial preschool group was significant ($X^2=6.7$, df=2, p=.05, l-tailed). Therefore, the hypothesis was not supported.

The last hypothesis was that there would be no sex difference among children on either CEFT or WAT scores (see Table 8).

Sex Differences With Regard to Cognitive Styles

			CE	FT				WAT	
Males	N 77	x 5.6	SD 3.8	t	р	<u>x</u> 5•7	SD 3.6	t	р
				• 47	.6 (n.s.)) [,]		• 49	.6 (n.s.)
Females	57	5.9	5.1			5•4	4.1		
Total	134								

As can be seen in Table 8, results indicated that there was no significant difference between males and females either in CEFT scores (t=.47 ; separate variance estimate, df=132 , p=.6 , 1-tailed) , or WAT scores (t=.49 ; pooled variance estimate , df=132 , p=.6 , 1-tailed). Therefore the hypothesis that there would be no sex differences was supported.

DISCUSSION

The aim of this research was to investigate the relationship between mothers' child rearing attitudes and practices, and preschool education and children's cognitive style and autonomous or dependent behavior. Mothers' disciplinary styles (power assertive versus inductive) the behavior they reward in the child (autonomous versus dependent), their concept of a "good child" (obedient versus autonomous), and the type of preschool education (educational, custodial, or no preschool) were hypothesized to be the variables affecting the children's cognitive styles (field dependent versus field independent) and autonomous behavior Sex differences in cognitive style were hypothesized not to exist in this group o five-year-old, low SES, preschool children. In general, no significant relationship was found between maternal child rearing strategies and children's cognitive styles and autonomous behavior. The other variable, the type of preschool education, showed a significant relationship with the children's cognitive styles but not with the autonomy variable.

The hypothesis concerning the lack of sex differences in cognitive style was supported.

Four hypothes dealing with the effects of mothers' child-rearing attitudes and practices on the child's cognitive style and autonomous behavior were not supported.

One general explanation can be that these variables were not related. However there are a number of studies showing that mothers' child rearing attitudes and practices and child's cognitive and social development are closely related (Seder, 1957; Berry, 1966; Laosa, 1978; Korkmazlar, 1980).

The first specific hypothesis stated that children whose mothers use

power assertive techniques of discipline would have less differentiated (more field dependent) cognitive styles than children whose mothers use inductive discipline. Comparing power assertive mothers (N=84)) with inductive mothers (N=52), the results showed no significant effect on children's cognitive styles. The children's scores on the CEFT and the WAT were quite similar. It is possible that if the mothers were given more concrete and realistic items rather than hypothetical ones, they might reveal a more power assertive itelds approach to punishments; that is possible that the mothers are more homogeneous in their actual disciplinary practices than the responses to the interview indicate.

The second hypothesis compared children whose mothers used power assertive discipline to children whose mothers used inductive discipline with regard to their autonomous behavior. The results were not significant. Here again mothers' responses differing according to the hypothetical versus real cases may be an artifact. The third hypothesis was that children whose mothers reward obedience would have less differentiated cognitive styles than children whose mothers reward independence. The findings failed to support this expectation. A majority of mothers (N=43) reported that they rewarded obedience, where only eleven mothers reported that they rewarded independence. However there was a near-significant result on the WAT scores (p=.07). The majority of mothers in the sample would not be included in the analysis because they either did not answer this item or they rewarded both obedienc and independence. Perhaps the mothers' value system and actual behavior are not parallel to each other. Variations in mothers' actual behaviors in child rearing seem to cause differences in the child's cognitive style with regard to the WAT scores. (We may also say that the WAT test is a more reliable

measurefor a Turkish sample because it has been standardized). The fourth hypothesis was that children whose mothers define a "good child" in terms of dependence and obedience would have a less differentiated cognitive style than children whose mothers define a "good child" in terms of autonomy. The relation was not found to be significant. A majority of mothers (N=84) favored obedience. where only 34 mothers favored autonomy but the children of these two groups did not differ significantly in cognitive styles. All of these four hypotheses were based on the importence of mother -child interactions in shaping the child's cognitive and social development. The results failed to support this relation. The reason may be that perhaps the mother child interaction is less important than hypothesized in determining the socialization patterns and the cognitive development. Other socializing agents, inside or outside the home, such as the father, older brothers or sisters , peers, grand parents, neighbours etc. may be very important in the child's socialization practices and cognitive development. For example, even if the mother values autonomy, these persons may value and require obedience.

The fifth hypothesis dealt with the affects of preschool education on children's cognitive styles. Results showed that children attending educational preschool centers scored significantly higher on both the CEFT and the WAT. Therefore it is possible to claim that the children going to educational preschools have more differentiated cognitive styles than the children who attend custodial preschools or who are reared at home; that is, they are more field independent. In this case an agent outside the home, the preschool educational institution, was found to affect the children's cognitive styles more strongly than their mothers' attitudes or disciplinary styles.

43

 $\sqrt{}$

Centers with educational aims seemed to promote the cognitive development of the children.

The sixth hypothesis predicted greater autonomy in children attending educational preschools than for those attending custodial preschools or those attending no preschool. The results did not support this expectation. In this case the institution did not seem to affect the children's social development. We may speculate that even in educational centers (where the children are allowed to behave more independently than the rest) children are expected to follow the cultural norm and be obedient. Therefore their autonomous behavior might not always be allowed. However these results are based on answers to the interviews. Utilizing the data from observations of autonomous behavior of the children in the nursery schools might give different results. In fact. in another part of the Comprehensive Preschool Education Program results of observation indicate that preschool centers with educational aims showed more project initiative and social initiative than the children going to preschool centers with custodial aims (Kağıtcibasi, Sunar and Bekman, in Progress).

The last hypothesis was that there would be no significant difference between the cognitive styles of 5 year old boys and girls as measured by their CEFT and WAT scores. The findings supported the hypothesis. It was found that there were no significant sex differences on either the CEFT or the WAT. This is consistent with the results of previous studies, which indicate that significant sex differences do not typically appear until early adolescence (Korkmazlar, 1980). When methodological factors are analyzed, standardization of the instruments used in the study seems to be a problem. The WAT test has been standardized by Ugurel-Şemin (1978) but the CEFT has not

been standardized for Turkish samples although it has been used in previous research (Korkmazlar, 1980).

44

· 1.

All of the data concerning the mothers were gathered by means of interviews. These answers definitely involve subjective judgments in the part of the mothers. For further implications, relying more on observational data rather than interviews would be more meaningful.

Because of time limitations, it proved necessary to use versions of the CEFT which differed in color (a disembedding factor). However, no systematic differences in performance were found between the two versions.

Another factor is that the age of the children may be too young for some of the tests (particularly the CEFT) to yield valid results. Age 5 is the earliest age at which the CEFT can ordinarily be used; therefore the entire sample in this study was at the lower age limit for testing.

The CEFT may involve some culture bias even though many studies have been conducted in various cultures. The pictures if standardized for Turkish culture, might affect the results. For further studies, interviews with the children themselves and perhaps with the fathers may add new explanations. To generalize the results, much more research is needed . Children from various ages and socio-economic backgrounds would provide more extensive data for generalizability.

In the framework of this study it was assumed that cultural norms and values would affect mother's child-rearing attitudes and practices. Since the child's socialization starts within the family via his / her interactions with the mother. Therefore differences in child-rearing attitudes and practices would lead to differences in the child's cognitive style and autonomous behavior. However, the results did not show any significant differences.

All of these children and their mothers come from low SES families. Most of these families have migrated to Istanbul from rural parts of Turkey, therefore the family structure and dynamics are still similar to those of traditional families where authority and obedience are highly valued. Typical discipline styles are based on powerassertion and external control. The good child is expected to obey the rules and do what the grown ups say. The family into which a child is born is one of the media for the child to acquire the social norms of the society. The family's social class determines many things. For example, the child's status in the society, the first role models. the type of education he will receive are determined by his social class. Moreover, it orients the child to the larger society (Sinha. 1981). Each social class may be considered as a subculture which is oriented to different values. In this case the sample is from the working class or low SES group. Compared to middle class parents . low SES parents have been found to focus more on immediate compliance and obedience and less on long range character development of their children (Kohn, 1959). Since the families maintain a rather traditional orientation, in which age and sex roles are highly differentiated , inter-dependence and obedience to authority are valued, and autonomy and independence are devalued (Kagitçibaşı, 1981), the children are expected to be obedient and compliant, and thus may be expected to be more field-dependent. In studies by Erer (1983) and Korkmazlar (1980), child-rearing practices and attitudes were found to be inversely related to mothers' educational backgrounds. As the level of education increased, children were raised more autonomously and were more field independent.

In this group of low SES families, other socializing agents and persons around the child also occupy a rather traditional role.

They have their traditional attitudes, values, expectations and behaviors. Since they also play an important role in determining the child's socialization patterns, their traditional value systems and behaviors; praising obedience, affect the child in turn. As we look at the CEFT and the WAT scores, the overall means are quite low. The average score on the CEFT was 6.8 out of 25 and 6.1 out of 34 for the WAT.

Comparing the results with middle class families would be meaningful. Differences or similarities between the two SES groups in terms of mothers' child-rearing attitudes and practices, the aims of the preschool centers, children's cognitive styles and autonomous behavior are important for generalizability. As we have said different social classes form subcultural groups. Therefore results in that case will be very helpful to explain the differences or similarities between groups.

Comparisons within the middle class (power assertive mothers versus inductive mothers, the types of preschool and their implications) are also important in understanding the general trends in that class with regard to mother's child-rearing attitudes, practices and aims of different preschools in determining the child's cognitive style and autonomy.

The results clearly show the importance of an institution, the preschool center, in the development of working class children with respect to cognitive and social development. It can be argued that the preschool education was even more important in determining the child's cognitive style and autonomous behavior than mother's childrearing attitudes and practices.

Bekman, S. <u>Preschool Education in Turkey: A Study of the</u> <u>Relations Between Children's Behavior, the Aims</u> <u>of the Programme and the Sex and Social Class</u> <u>of the Child</u>, unpublished, Doctor Dissertation, University of London, 1982.

- Biehler, R.F. <u>Child Development: An Introduction</u>, Houghton, Mifflin Company, Boston, 1976.
- Berry, J.W. Independence and Conformity in Subsistence Level Societies, <u>Journal of Personality and Social</u> <u>Psychology</u>, 1967, <u>74</u>, 415-418.
- Berry, J.W. <u>Human Ecology and Cognitive Style: Comparative</u> <u>Studies in Cultural and Psychological Adaptation</u>, John Wiley, New York, 1976.
- Busse, T.V. Child-Rearing Antecedents of Flexible Thinking, <u>Developmental Psychology</u>, 1969, Vol. 1 (5), 585-591.
- Can, M. <u>Cumhuriyetin 50. Yılında Türk Milli Eğitimi</u>, M.E.B. Plânlama, Araştırma ve Koordinasyon Dairesi, İstatistik Bölümü, Yayın 131, Ankara, 1973, pp. 2-3.
- Claeys, W. and De Boeck, P. The Influences of Some Parental Characteristics on Children's Primary Abilities and Field-Independence: A Study of Adopted Children, <u>Child Development</u>, 1976, <u>47</u>, 842-845.

- Clarke, A.M. and Clarke, A.D.B. <u>Early Experience: Myth and Evidence</u>, Open Books Publishing Company, London, 1976.
- Duben, A. The Significance of Family and Kinship in Urban Turkey, In Kağıtçıbaşı Ç.(ed), <u>Sex Roles Family</u> <u>and Community in Turkey</u>, Indiana University, Turkish Studies, 1982.
- Clausen, J.A. (ed.) <u>Socialization And Society, Little, Brown</u> and Company, Boston, 1968.
- Dyk, R.B. and Within, H.A. Family Experiences Related to the Development of Differentiation in Children, <u>Child Deve-</u> <u>lopment</u>, 1965, <u>36</u>, 21-55.
- Domash, L. and Balter, L. Sex and Psychological Differentiation in Preschools, <u>The Journal of Genetic Psychology</u>, 1976, 128, 77-84.
- Erer, Ş. The Relationship Between Maternal Child Rearing Attitudes and Dependency Behaviors in Preschool Children, Master Thesis, Boğaziçi University, 1983.
- Evans, E.D. <u>Contemporary Influences in Early Childhood Education</u>, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., printed in USA, 1971 / 1975.
- Goodenough, D.R. and Within, H.A. Origins of the Field-Dependent and Independent Cognitive Styles, <u>Research Bulletin</u>, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, 1977.
- Gordon, I.J. <u>Human Development</u>, Scott, Foresman and Company, Illinois, 1965.

- Gürkaynak, İ.S. <u>Sosyo-Ekonomik Düzey ve Çoçuk</u>, Kelaynak Yayınevi, Ankara, 1979.
- Hess, R.D. and Shipman, V.C. Early Experience and the Socialization of Cognitive Modes in Children, <u>Child Develop-</u> <u>ment</u>, 1965, 12, 869-886.
- Hoffman, M. In P. Mussen (ed.), Carmichael's Manual of Child Psychology, Volume 2, John Wiley and Sons, Inc. New'York, 1970, pp. 261-361.
- Kağıtçıbaşı, Ç. <u>Çocuğun Değeri: Türkiye'de Değerler ve Doğurgan-</u> <u>lık</u>, Boğaziçi Üniversitesi, Gözlem Matbaacılık Koll. Şti., İstanbul, 1981.
- Kağıtçıbaşı, Ç. Early Childhood Education and Preschool Intervention; Experiences of Early Childhood Development and Education Project of Turkey. Paper for UNESCO and UNICEF, 1981.
- Kağıtçıbaşı, Ç., Sunar, D.^G., Bekman, S. Comprehensive Preschool Education Project, Boğaziçi University, 1981-1985.
- Korkmazlar, Ü. <u>Relationship Between Parental Child Rearing Attitudes</u> and the Cognitive Styles of 5-to-6 year old Turkish <u>Preschoolers</u>, Master Thesis, Boğaziçi University,1980.
- Köknel, Ö. <u>Türk Toplumunda Bugünün Gencliği</u>, Bozok Yayınevi, İstanbul, 1970.
- L_{aosa}, M.L. Maternal Teaching Strategies and Field-Dependent-Independent Cognitive Styles in Chicano Families, <u>Research Bulletin</u>, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, 1978.

- Lavatelli, C.S. and Stendler, F. <u>Reading in Child Behavior and</u> <u>Development</u>, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., New York, 1972.
- Le Compte, G., Le Compte, W.A., Özer, S. Üç Sosyo-Ekonomik Düzeyde Ankara'lı Annelerin Çocuk Yetiştirme Tutumları: Bir Ölçek Uyarlaması, <u>Psikoloji Dergisi</u>, Mart, 1978, 1, 5-8.
- Le Francois, G.R. <u>Of Children</u>, Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., Belmont, California, 1977.
- Liebert, R.M. and Wicks-Nelson, R. <u>Developmental Psychology</u>, Prentice-Hall, Inc. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1981.
- Maloney, P. <u>Perceived Parental Child-Rearing Patterns. Field</u> <u>Articulation and Reading Achievement in Eight Grade</u> <u>Girls</u>, unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Fordham University, New York, 1974.
- Mc Fie, J. The Effect of Education on African Performance on a Group of Intellectual Tests, <u>British Journal of</u> <u>Educational Psychology</u>, 1961, <u>31</u>, 232-240.
- Mussen, P.H., Conger, J.J. and Kagan, J. <u>Basic and Contemporary</u> <u>Issues in Developmental Psychology</u>, Harper and Row Publishers, New York, 1965 / 1975.
- Mussen, P., Langer, J., and Covington, M. (ed.): <u>Trends and Issues</u> <u>in Developmental Psychology</u>, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., USA., 1969, pp. 38-65.
- Okman, G. <u>Bilissel Stili Belirleyen Etkenler: Ergenler Üzerine</u> <u>Bir İnceleme</u>, Yayınlanmamış Doçentlik Tezi, Boğaziçi University, İstanbul, 1979.

- Olson, E.A. Duofocal Family Structure and an Alternative Model of Husband-Wife Relationship, In Ç. Kağıtçıbaşı (ed.) <u>Sex Role, Family and Community in Turkey</u>, Indiana University, Turkish Studies, 1982.
- Özgediz, S. (ed.)) <u>Çoçuk Gelişiminin El Kitabı</u>, Boğaziçi Üniversitesi, İdari Bilimler Araştırma ve Uygulama Enstitüsü, İstanbul, 1979.
- Öztürk, O. <u>Anadolu Toplumunda Özerklik ve Girişme Duygularının</u> Kısıtlanışı, Birinci Milli Nöro-Psikiyatri Kongresi, 1969.
- Schaefer, E.S. A Circumlex: Model for Maternal Behavior, <u>Journal</u> of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1958, <u>59</u>,226-235.
- Sinha, D. (ed.) Socialization of the Indian Child, Concept Publishing Company, New Delhi, 1981.
- Weikart, D.P. and Schweinhart, L. Lasting Effects of Preschool Training on Children from Low Income American Families, Paper presented at the International Seminar in Bogota, 1981.
- Werner, E.E. <u>Cross-Cultural Child Development</u>, Brooks and Cole Comp., California, 1979, pp. 173-191.
- Within, H.A. and Berry, J.W. Psychological Differentiation in Cross-Cultural Perspective, <u>Journal of Cross-Cultural</u> Psychology, vol 6(1), 1975, 4-87.

- Within, H.A., Lewis H.B., Hertzman, M., Machover, K., Meissner, P.B., and Wagner, S. <u>Personality Through Perception</u>, Greenwood Press, Conn., 1972.
- Within, H.A., Oltman, P.K., Raskin, E. and Karp, S.A. <u>A Manual For</u> <u>The Embedded Figures Tests</u>, Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc., Palo Alto, California, 1971.
- Within, H.A., Moore, C., Goodenough, D.R. and Cox, A. <u>Field-Dependent</u> and Field Independent Cognitive Styles and Their <u>Educational Implications</u>, City Publishers, New York, 1975.
- Within, H.A. Socialization and Ecology in the Development of Cross-Cultural and Sex Differences in Cognitive Style, in Diaz-Guerrero, R. and Holtzman, W. (ed.) <u>Contributions to Human Development</u>, City Publishers, New York, 1978.

APPENDIX A OBSERVATION SHEET OF THE PRSCHOOL CENTERS

GÖZLEM FORMUX

A. <u>FİZİKSEL NİTELİKLER</u>

1. Okul binası kaç katlı?

2. Gruplar bağımsız mi?

3. Çocukların kullandıkları eşyeler onların boyutlarında mı?

Sandalye

Masa

Tuvaletler vs.

4. Bu eşyalar çocuk sayısı ile orantılı mı?

5. Çocukların özel eşyalarını koyacak bölümler var mı?

6. Bahçe var m1?

7. Gruplardan bahçeye çıkış var mı/veya?

^xGözlem süresi içinde gözlenmeyenler sorulabilir.

8. Bahçeye ulaşmak çocuklar için kolay mı?

9. Isinma nasil oluyor?

10. Yapay ve doğal aydınlatma yeterli mi?

B. YUVADA KULLANILDIĞI GÖZLENEN ARAÇ-GEREÇ LİSTESİ

I. "Yaratıcı Sanat Etkinlikleri" İçin Kullanılan Araç ve Gereçler

-Resim sehpası

-Pazen kaplı tahta

-Kukla için taşınabilen oyun sehpası

-Boya :

sulu

toz

krayon

kuru

-makas

-boya firçası

_kağıt, çeşitli

-kil

-yoğurma maddeleri

-diğerleri-artık materyaller

II. "Müzik Etkinlikleri" İçin Aullanılan Araç ve Gereçler

Davullar

Ziller

Kaşıklar

Uçgenler

Marakas

Flüt

Tefler

Tahta

Armonika

Dümbelek

Radyo

Теур

Pikap

III. BLOK KÖŞESİ

Bloklar, çeşitli :

Büyük	Küçük	Silindir		
Üçgen	Tam çubuk	Yarım çubuk		
Dörtt e bir çubuk	X .Y. biç imi nde sopalar	eğimli blok		

Çatı blokları

IV. EVCILİK KÖŞESİ VE TEMSİLİ OYUN KÖŞESİ

bebekler		bebek	yatakları	jte og t
bebek arab ası		battan	iyeler, ş	ilteler ve yastıklar
evcilik oyunu için eski	plastik	eşya		
ufak masa ve sandalyeler		d	olap	
tahta oyuncak	fırın		oyuncak	telefon

mutfak araçları temizlik araçları
çeşitli erkek/kadın giysileri silifonlar
çeşitli meslekleri simgeleyen giysiler:
 Dr. çantası ve giysileri
 hemşire başlıkları itfaiyeci
 kaptan, subay şapkaları
değişik zorluk seviyesinde tahta bilmeceler
resimli eleştirmeli oyunlar
ufak blok takımları
renkli tahtadan sayma boncuklar
marangoz aletleri

SU OYUNLARINDA KULLANILAN ARAÇ VE GEREÇLER

ufak testiler	süzgeçli kovalar	
çeşitli bo yutlarda	taslar, leğenler	
plastik şişeler	kepçəler kam	ışlar
ilaç damlalıkları	şampu an şişe leri	huniler
süzgeçler	yumurta çırpıcısı	fırçalar
hortumlar	sabun (kalıp veya toz)	

AÇIKHAVA ETKİNLİKLURİNDE KULLANILAN ARAÇ VE GEREÇLER

Çeşitli boyda toplar	çemberler
ip atlamak için kalın	ipler kum havuzu
kovalar kap	lar kaşıklar
ufak tabak-çanak	tırmanma merdivenleri
ip ya da tahta merdiv	en bisiklet
ip ve bahçe hortumu	otomobil tekerlekleri
denge tahtası	atlaca beygiri/tırmanma beygiri
salıncaklar	ta htara valli
kaydırak	oyun sandıkları

DOĞA VE FEN BİLGİSİ VERMEK İÇİN KULLANILAN ARAÇ VE GEREÇLERMıknatıslarBüyüteçlerB. boy bahçe ve oda termometresiCetvellerÖlçü aletleriEl aynalarıMakaralar, dişliler, vidalar, somunlar, kancalarHayvan köşesi

<u>KİTAP KÖŞESİ</u>

Çeşitli hikaye kitapları Mecmualar

C. YUVADA GÖZLENILEN ETKINLIKLERIN LISTESI

I. YARATICI ANLATIM VE SANAT ETKİNLİKLERİ Bloklar ve küplerle yapılan faaliyetler Kil ve diğer yoğurma faaliyetleri 👘 Evcilik köşesi faaliyetleri kum oyunu su oyunu tahta işleri boyama ve başka resim etkinlikleri: **s**ulu boya parmak boyası cikartma boyasi sabun boyası mum boya, tebeşir, boya kalemi ruloya sarilmis ip baski kumaşa boya damlatma simetrik desen çıkartma kesme yapıştırma işleri

II. TEMSILI OYUNLAR

evcilik köşesindeki oyunlar

dramatize edilen hikayeler ve oyunlar

kukla oynatımı

sembolik oyunlar

III. MUZIK ETKINLIKLERI

Müzikli-müziksiz hareket çalgı çalma etkinliği müzik dinlemek sarkı söylemek

IV. DOĞA VE FEN BİLİMLERİ ETKİNLİKLERİ

Fizik çevreyle ve konularla ilgili örnekler: Taşıtlar Tabiat hareketleri İletişim araçları Denge tartı Hava durumları Duyusal dereceler

CANLILARLA İLGİLİ DOĞA BİLGİSİ ÖRNEKLERİ : 🧹

hayvanlar insanlar bitkiler yiyecekler

V. <u>BEDENSEL ETKİNLİKLER (açıkhava ve oyun odasında)</u> top oyunları engelli oyun uygulaması çizginin üzerinde yürüme karenin ortasına basma oyun alanını, bahçeyi temizlemek canbazlık yada cimnastik minderi hareketleri kolay cimnastik uygulamaları - bedeni çalıştırma oyunları

açıkhavada organize olmuş oyunlar oynanması

VI. DIL GELISTIRME ETKINLIKLERI

kitap okuma kitap hazırlama masal öykü anlatma öyküleri canlandırma kukla oynatma parmak oyunları pazen kaplı tahtada öykü anlatma resimli anlatma bilmeceler tekerlemeler şiir

VII. GEZİLER TERTİPLİYOR MUSUNUZ? (sorulabilir) hayvanlarla ilgili gezi yerleri insanlar ve çevreleri

doğaya ve mevsimlere göre canlıların, bitkilerin gelişmesini, büyümesini izlemek

taşıtlar ve makinalar konuk çağrımı

D. I. Çocuklar yeni bir etkinliğe grup halinde mi başlıyorlar/ bir diğer etkinliğe grup halinde mi geçiyorlar

yoksa birbirlerini beklemeden etkinlik değiştirebiliyorlar veya başlayabiliyorlar mı?

II.Oğretmenler çocukları kesin tavırlara yöneltiyorlar mı, yoksa çocuğu kendi seçimini yapmakta serbest bırakıp gerektiğinde mi önerilerde bulunuyorlar APPENDIX B INTERVIEW SHEET FOR THE HEADMASTERS

MULAKAT FORMU

1. OKUL ADI

2. ÇALIŞMA SAATLERİ

3. HANGİ YAŞ GRUPLARINA SERVİS VERİYOR?

4. ÇOCUK SAYISI

5. ÖĞRETMEN SAYISI

6. YARDIMCI SAYISI VE NİTELİĞİ

7. GRUP SAYISI

8. GRUPLARDAKİ ÇOCUK SAYISI

9. GRUPLARDAKÍ ÇOCUK - ÖĞRETMEN ORANI

10. COCUKLAR UNIFORMA GIVIYORLAR MI?

11. VELILER NERDEN (FABRIKA İŞÇİLERİ, ÇEVREDEN)

12. GUNLUK PROGRAMINIZ NEDIR?

13. EGITSEL FAALIYETLERINIZ NELERDIR?

14. SERBEST OYUN SAATLERINDE ÇOCUKLAR NE TÜR ETKINLİKLER YAPARLAR?

15. BU SAATLERDE ÇOCUKLARA NE TÜR ARAÇ GEREÇLER VERİLİR?

16.GRUP FAALİYETLERİ NELERDİR? NE SIKLIKTA? (Her söylenen faaliyet için sorulur.)

17. ÇEVREYE GEZİLER DÜZENLİYOR MUSUNUZ? NE GİBİ? NE SIKLIKTA?

18. ÇOCUKLARA ÇEŞİTLİ MESLEK GRUPLARINI TANITMAYA ÇALIŞIYOR MUSUNUZ? ÖĞRETMEN HEMŞİRE POLİS V.S.

19. ÇOCUKLAR, UYGULANAN FAALİYETLERE KATILIP KATILMAYACAKLARINA KENDİLERİ Mİ KARAR VERİYORLAR ÖĞRETMEN Mİ?

20. ÇOCUKLAR MEVCUT OYUNCAK, ARAÇ, GEREÇLERDEN HANGİLERİNİ İSTEDİKLERİ ZAMAN KULLANIRLAR, HANGİLERİNİ ÖĞRETMEN DAĞITIR?

21. ÇOCUKLARA BİREYSEL OLARAK MI YOKSA GRUP HALİNDE Mİ YAKLAŞIYORSUNUZ?

-Bütün çocukların aynı etkinlikte aynı anda yer almasını istiyor musunuz?

-Bir etkinlikten diğer bir etkinliğe geçişte çocuklar birbirlerini bekler mi?

22. UYGULADIĞINIZ/BENİMSEDİĞİNİZ DİSİPLİN YÖNTEMLERİ NELERDİR? NE GİBİ DURUMLARDA UYGULARSINIZ?

23. ÖĞRETMENLERİNİMİN BU PROGRAMDAKİ ROLÜ NEDİR?

a) Programın planlanması

b) Yöneltilmesi

c) Uygulamada çocuklarla eş düzeyde paylaştıkları etkinlikler oluyor mu ? Neler ?

d) Çocuklar öğretmenlere nasıl hitap eder?

24. AILELERLE NASIL ILİŞKİNİZ VAR?

NE GİBİ DURUMLARDA ANNELER SİZE GELİR?

NE GİBİ DURUMLARDA SİZ ONLARI ÇAĞIRIRSINIZ?

APPENDIX C Child Interview (with the Mothers) 30. Kimse..... ile ilgilenmediği zaman kendini oyalayıp eğlendirecek bir şeyler bulur mu? 3 ----- sik sik 2 ---- bazen 1 ----- başkasından bekler (başkasının onu oyulaması gerekir) 9 ----- DK/NA 31. emzik veya parmak emer mi? 4 ---- hiç emmez 3 ----- nadiren 2 ---- arada sırada 9 ---- DK/NA 1 ---- sik sik 32. resim yapar mi, veya boya boyar mi? 3 ---- sik sik 2 ----- bazen 1 ---- hic O ----- not applicable (kalemi, kağıdı yok; anne izin vermez vb.) 9 ----- DK/NA (32 de "SIK SIK" VEYA "BAZEN" CEVABI GELÎRSE) 33. Peki böyle resim yaparken size veya bir başkasına "Ne resmi yapayım?" diye sorar ml? 3 ----- kendi karar verir 2 ----- bazen sorar, bazen kendi karar verir 9 ---- DK/NA 1 ----- genellikle sorar 34. 'e "Kapıyı kapat", "gazeteyi getir" gibi birşey yapmasını söylerseniz, bu söylediğinizi kendi kendine

yerine getirir mi? 3 ----- genellikle 2 ---- bazen 1 ----- nadiren / hiç 9 ----- DK/NA 35. bakkaldan ufak tefek şeyler satın alır mı? 3 ----- sik sik 2 ----- bazen 1 ----- hemen hemen hiç almaz 9 ----- DK/NA 36. İyi havada dışarıda oynar mı? 3 ----- genellikle kimsenin bakmasına lüzum kalmadan 2 ---- bazen kimsenin bakmasına lüzüm kalmadan 1 ----- sadece birisi gözkulak olursa 9 ----- DK/NA 37. Evde basit işlere yardım eder mi ? (Oyuncaklarını, eşyalarını toplar mi?) 3 ----- çoğu zaman 2 ---- bazen 1 ----- hiçbir zaman 9 ---- DK/NA 38. Komşularınızdan birine giderken 3 ----- kimse arkasından bakmadan tek başına gidebilir mi? 2 ____ sadece arkasından biri bakarsa mı gidebilir? 9 ---- DK/NA 1 ----- yoksa hiç gitmez mi 39. oyun oynamak için eve arkadaş getirir mi? 3 ----- sik sik 2 ---- bazen 9 ----- DK/NA 1 ----- hiç getirmez 40. yeni bir çocukla karşılaşınca ne yapar? 4 ----- önce kendi mi konuşur? 3 ----- bazen kendi konuşup bazen öbürünün konuşmasını mı bekler?

2 ----- öbür çocuğun konuşmasını mi bekler? 1 ----- çocuktan uzak durmaya mı çalışır? 9----- DK/NA 41. çevredeki çocullara gidip onlarla oyun oynamak istediğini hiç söyler mi ? 3 ----- sik sik 2 ----- arada sırada 1 ----- pek söylemez 9 ---- DK/NA 42. *..... yüznumaraya gidince 4 ---- hiç yardımsız kendi tendine halledebilir mi ? 3 ----- bazen yardım ister bazen yardımsız mi halleder? 2 ----- biraz yardım etmeniz yeter mi? 1 ----- tamamen sizin yardımınız mı gerekir? 9 -----DK/NA 43.ellerini 3 ----- çoğu zamen kendi kendine mi yıkar? 2 ----- bazen yardım mı ister? 9 ----DK/NA 1 ----- çoğu zaman yardım mi ister ? 44. kendi kendine giyinir mi? 3 ---- evet, çoğu zaman 2 ---- bazen yardımla giyinir 1 ----- çoğu zaman başkası onu giydirir 9 ----DK/NA 45. yemeğini 3 ---- çoğu zaman kendisi mi yer? 2 ----- bazen yardımla mi yer? 1 ----- çoğu zaman başkası mı ona yedirir? 9 ----- DK/NA 46. Soba , elektrik prizi gibi tehlikeli şeylerden kendiliğinden hatırlatılmadan uzak durur mu? 3 ---- evet, çoğu zaman 2 ---- bazen 1 ----- nadiren (hatırlatılmak ister) 9 ----- DK/NA

47. birşey yapmaya başladığı zaman -resim yapmak, ayakkabilarını giymek gibi-3 ----- genellikle bu başladığı işi bitirir mi? 2 ----- bazen bitirir, bazen baska seyle mi ilgilenir? 1 ----- genellikle bu işi bitirmeden başka bir şeye mi dalar? 9 ----- DK/NA 48. biryeş yaparken zorluk çekerse meselâ paltosunu iliklerken veya iskemlenir arkasına düşmüş olan bir oyuncağını oradan almaya çalışırken, böyle bir zorluk durumunda 3 ----- çoğu zaman uğraşır mı? 2 ----- bazen mi uğrasır? 1 ----- uğraşmaktan hemen vazgeçer mi? 9----DK/NA 49. yaştaki başka bir şeyi aynı yaştaki başka bir cocuk elinden almaya kalkarsa, elindekini vermemeye calışır mı? 3 ---- çoğu zaman 2 ----- bazen 9 ----DK/NA 1 ----- nadiren/hig 50. Çocuklar sırayla bir oyunu oynarlarken, bir çocuk'nın sırasını almaya çalışırsa, sırasını korumaya çalışır mı? 3 ---- çoğu zaman 2 ---- bazen 9 ---- DK/NA 1 ----- nadiren /hiç 51. Bir oyunun veya işin ortasındayken,yi çağırsanız, oyununu bitirmek için biraz daha izin ister mi? 3 ---- çoğu zaman 2 ----- bazen 9----DK/NA 1 ---- nadiren /hiç
çekmeye çalışır mı? 3 ----- sik sik 2 ---- bazen 1 ----- nadiren 9 ---- DK/NA 53. Hergün birçok şey için küçük çocuklar annelerinden yardım ister. Sizce..... sizden 3 ----- az mi yardım ister? 2 ----- orta karar mi yardım ister? 9 ---- DK/NA 1 ----- yoksa çok mu yardım ister 54. Siz evde iş yaparken, sizin yanınızda dolaşır mı2 3 ----- nadiren 2 ----- bazen 9 ----- DK/NA 1 ---- çoğu zaman 55. şikayet eder mi 3 ---- nadiren 2 ----- bazen 9 ----- DK/NA 1 ----- sik sik

APPENDIX D Mother Interview

ÇOK YÖNLÜ OKUL ÖNCESİ EĞİTİMİ, ÇOCUK GELİŞİMİ VE ANNE EĞİTİMİ ARAŞTIRMA PROJESİ

-ANNE MULAKAT-

9 -Bugün veya son birkaç gün içinde sizin çok hoşunuza giden, sizi memnun eden birşey yaptı mı?

14. Siz ne yaptınız? (Ne yaparsınız?) (CEVAP " onunla konuştum/ konuşurum" İSE , "Ne dediniz/dersiniz" DİYE SORUN. UYGUN OLANI/ OLANLARI İŞARETLEYİN)

---l. dövdü, kulağını çekti , v.s. (fiziksel ceza)

---2. bağırdı, söylendi, sözlü kötüledi (sözlü ceza)

---3. başka ceza (odaya kapamak, oyun oynamasını yasaklamak, harçlığını kesmek, vs.)

---4. küstü, onu sevmediğini söyledi (sevgiyi esirgemek) ---5. tehdit etti , ("bir daha yaptığını görmeyeyim", "bir daha yaparsan döverim, küserim" gibi)

---6. nasihat etti , konuştu: "bir daha yapma" dedi (içeriksiz) ---7. yaptığının kötü birşey olduğunu anlattı (çocuğun pişman olmasını sağlamak için) (ikna ederek pişmanlık duyurmak) ---8. telafi ettirdi (özür dilettirdi, yaptığı zararı ödettirdi, vs.) ---9. başka. Belirtin:

43. "İyi bir çocuk" denince siz bundan ne anlıyorsunuz? Yani sizce "iyi çocuk" nasıldır? (SORUŞTURUN) APPENDIX E Instructions and score sheet for the CEFT

Materyal

- 1) Kartondan bir ÇADIR ve bir EV şekli
- 2) <u>D1-D8</u>: 8 tane kart (her yüz 1 doğru 3 yanlış ÇADIR / EV resmini içerir) 4 ü ÇADIR, 4 ü EV serisi için.
- 3) <u>El-E2:</u> 2 kart üzerindeki 3 karışık figür ve her birinde ÇADIR saklı (Ev için benzer seri yoktur)
- 4) <u>Pl-P3</u>: Çocuğa alışma yapmasını sağlayacak 3 resim . 2 sinde
 (Pl-2) ÇADIR, P3 te EV gizli
- 5) <u>T1-T11</u>: ÇADIR'ın gizli olduğu 11 kart (Test serisi) <u>H1-H14</u>: EV in gizli olduğu 14 kart (Test serisi)

^xResimler gösterilirken resim no. su <u>sağ üst köşede</u> olmalıdır!!
6) Çocuğun bulduğu şekli işaret etmesi için uçsuz bir kalem.(parmağıyla şekli çizmesi de yeterli)

YÜNERGE (ALIŞTIRMALAR İÇİN)

1) <u>Dl-D4 için yönerge</u>: İlk önce çocuğa karton ÇADIR figürünü gösterin ve "Bu bir çadıra benziyor, değil mi? Alttaki bu siyah çizgi çadırımızın yere değdiği kısım, bakalım sen burada bizim çadıra benzer bir çadır bulabilecek misin?" Bu sırada Dl kartını gösterin. Çocuğun her işaret ettiği şekille orijinal karton çadırı karşılaştırın (gerekirse orijinali çocu un gösterdiği şeklin üzerine koyun) ilk denemelerde doğruyu bulsa bile yanlışların neden yanlış olduğunun üzerinden gidin. "Bu bizim çadırımıza benzemiyor çünkü çok küçük veya ters duruyor vs" diye açıklayabilirsiniz. Ayrıca şeklin, büyüklüğün ve sayfada düz duruşun önemini vurgulayın. Mesela "Saklı çadırda bizim çadırla aynı boyda, aynı büyüklükte, aynı şekilde olmalı ve sayfada düz durmalı, siyah çizgisi altta olmalı" denebilir. Sonra sırayla 2. karta (D2' geçilir)ve diğerlerine geçilir. <u>Cocuk arka arkaya 2 doğruyu yapana dek devam edilir</u>. Eger çocuk 11k denemenin sonunda arka arkaya 2 doğru standardına erişmemişse (4 kartta) tekrar D1 den başlanılır. Tüm seri 3 kere tekrar edilebilir. 3. tekrarın sonunda hala arka arkaya 2 doğru standardına erişmemişse test bırakılır.

2) D4 kartından sonra (eğer çocuk arka arkaya 2 doğru yapmışsa) çocuğa orijinal karton ÇADIR verilir ve sırayla El ve E2 kartlarında "Burada bizim ÇADIR ı bul bakalım" denir. Eğer çocuk bulamazsa testi veren çadırın yerini göstermelidir. Bu arada "Bak bu çadır bizimkinin aynısı, üzerinden bir çizgi geçse bile, başka renkte olsa bile, şekil, büyüklük olarak aynısı"denmelidir.

3) <u>P1-P2</u>: "Burada bizim çadırın aynısı saklı. Şimdi oyunumuzun kuralı bu çadırı bulmak. Bana çadırın nerede olduğunu gösterir misin" Çocuk orijinal karton formları elinde tutabilir ve Pl ile karşılaştırabilir. Doğruyu bulunca "Bakalım bizim çadırla karşılaştıralım" deyin ve çocuğa yardın ederek orijinali saklı çadırın üzerine koymasına yardım edin. Eğer çocuk doğruyu bulamazsa uygulaycı ona cadırın yerini göstermeli ve çocuğa "Şimdi bana gösterir misin?" demelidir. Ayrıca şekillerin gittikçe dana zorlaştığı (P1-P2) vurgulanmalıdır. Uygulayıcı sonra P2 yi çocuğa gösterir ama önce orijinali cocuktan almalıdır. Burada uygulayıcı "Bu resim neye benziyor?" diye sormalı, gerekirse cevaplamaya yardımcı olmalıdır. Onemli olan cocumun artık yarım şekillerle değil, resimler içersinde orijinalleri bulacağıdır. Sonra "Şimdi daha önce yaptığın çadırımızı bul ve bana göster" denmeli ve doğru cevaplar gibi orijinalle karşılaştırılıp kanıtlanmalıdır. Uygulayıcı gerekli

gördüğü yerde yardım edebilir, gerekirse çadırın yerini gösterebilir. Çocuk yine de bulamazsa uygulayıcı çadırın etrafında parmağıyla şekli belirleyerek bunu orijinal çadırla aynı olduğunu belirtmelidir. "Bak bu bizim çadırımızın aynısı ama 2 renkli ve üzerinden bir çizgi geçiyor, zararı yok. Hadi bakalım şimdi de sen göster" denir. Testin verilmesi : Tl ile başlayın. Her kartta "Bu resimde çadırımızın aynısını bul bakalım" diyerek başlayın. Çocuk T7-11 arasında hiç doğru yapamazsa test bırakılır. Eğer bir doğru bile yapabilirse EV serisine gecilir. Önce D5-8 serisi verilir(D1-4teki yönergenin aynısı) sonra pratik için P3 gösterilir. (P1-2 yönergesinin aynısı) Sonra da Hl ile teste başlanır. Birbiri ardına 5 hata yapana dek teste devam edilir. Her seride ilk üç kartı gösterirken "Bu(nlar) sence neye benziyor"deyip çocuk doğru cevabı verince "Peki bu resim içinde saklı ÇADIRIMIZI/EVİMİZİ bul ve bana göster" deyin. Kart verilirken orijinaller cocuğun görmeyeceği bir yerde olmalıdır. Uvgulayıcı cocuğa test verilirken yardım edip doğruy, gösterebilir ama bunlar doğru sayılmaz. (Bu yardım çocuk çadır veya evin yerini belirttikten sonra olmalıdır.)

Her serideki 3. karttan so ra, eğer çocuk özellikle görmeyi istemezse , orijinaller saklanmalıdır.

Ayrıca her test serisinin ilk 3 şeklinin ne olduğunu "Bu neye benziyor?" diye sorun, doğru cevap alırsanız "Şimdi burada saklı çadırımızı (evimizi) bulur misin " deyin.

Doğru isimlendiremezse siz şeklin doğru adını söyleyip sonra orijinal şekilleri aramasını söyleyin.

<u>Puanlama</u>: Doğruları **1, yanlışları** O puan sayın. Çocuk orijinali görmeden doğruyu bulursa 1 - bulamazsa O.

Test sirasi:

D1-D4 (3. denemede hala ardarda 2 doğru yapamazsa test bırakılır) E1-E2 Pl - P2

T1 - T11 (7-11 arası hep "O" sa test bırakılır)

.

.

.*

D5 - D8

P3

)RE SHEET FOR

	NAME	
HILDREN'S	CLASS	
IMBEDDED	BIRTH DATE	SEX: MF
	DATEEXAMINER	

۰

NT	DESCRIPTION	SCORE	HOUSE	DESCRIPTION	SCORE
² 1			P3		
°2			H ₁		
1			H ₂		
2			H ₃		
3			Н ₄		•
4			H ₅		
5			н ₆		
6	•		H ₇		
7			H ₈		
8			Н ₉		
9			H ₁₀		
10			H ₁₁		
11			H ₁₂		
			^H 13		
			H ₁₄		

Total Score TENT

Total Score HOUSE

TOTAL TEST SCORE

CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGISTS PRESS, INC. 577 College Avenue, Palo Alto, California 94306

APPENDIX F Instructions and Score Sheet for the Block Design

KUPLERLE ŞEKİL

MATERYAL: 6 adet bir yüzü kırmızı, bir yüzü beyaz blok 8 adet bir yüzü kırmızı, bir yüzü beyaz ve kırmızı blok

3 adet şekilli küp resmi.

<u>YÖNERGE</u>:

Çocuğa son üç şekil hariç olmak üzere her şekil için model verilir. 1 den 7 ye kadar olan sekiller değerlendirme formundadır. Sekildeki koyu kısımlar kırmızıyı gösterir. 8 den 10 a kadar olan şekiller ise ayrı olarak resimle gösterilmiştir. Çocuğa bu resimler gösterilir. Modelleri yaparken yaptığınız şeklin hangi kenarının çocuğa hangi ke narının size dönük olacağına özellikle dikkat edin. Değerlendirme formundaki şekil l de gösterildiği gibi "Ç" yazan kenar çocuğa "A" yazan kenar ise size dönük olmalıdır. Bu 1 den 7 ye kadar olan sekiller için yapılacak tüm modeller için geçerlidir. 8 den 10 a kadar olan sekiller için ise model olarak resimler telli olmayan kısımları cocuga dönük olarak kullanılır. Örnek yapılması gereken sekillerde örnegi yaparken a astırmacı "bak buraya bir kırmızı küp koydum ya da , bir tane daha kırmızı küp koydum; burda da yarısı kırmızı, yarısı beyaz küp kullanmak lazım" gibi cümlelerle örnekleme açıklamalıdır. Her şekil için zaman süresi yönergenin hemen bitiminde başlar. Çocuğun her şekil için iki deneme hakkı vardır. Çocuk e er birinci denemede başarılı ise ondan sonraki şekle geçilir: basarısızsa çocuğa ikinci bir deneme hakkı verilir. Çocuk 1 den 4 e kadar olan şekillerde küpler arasında belirgin aralıklar bırakır sa "bu doğru mu oldu?" diye araştırmacı sormalıdır. Eğer çocuk bu aralıkları kapamazsa şekil başarısız olarak değerlendirilir. Yine

74

de araştırmacı ondan sonraki şekle geçmeden, küpleri birbirine yaklaştırarak doğru şekli göstermelidir.

ŞEKLİN TERSTEN YAPILMASI^X

l den 4 e kadar olan şekillerde gösterilen modelin tersten yapılması başarılı olarak değerlendirilir. Tersten yapılmaya renklerin tersten kullanımı girmez.

Örneğin: 4. şealin aşağıda gösterilen hali tersten yapılmış sayılmaz ve başarısız olarak değerlendirilir.

l den 4 e kadar olan şekillerdeki tersten yapılan şekiller yönlendirme açısından gerekli olduğundan araştırmacı tarafından düzeltilmelidir. Araştırmacının, blokları düzeltip "Fakat görüyor musun bu tarafa doğru duruyor" demesi gerekir. 5 den 10 a kadar olan şekillerde ise şeklin tersten yapılması başarısız olarak değerlendirilir. İlk denemede çocuk şekli tersten yaparsa, araştırmacı çocuğun dikkatini çekmelidir ve "ama görüyor musun bu tarafa doğru duruyor" demelidir. Bu ikazdan sonra küpler karıştırılır ve çocuğa ikinci deneme yaptırılır.

NEREDE BAŞLANACAK NE ZAMAN BIRAKILACAK

6 yaşından küçük çocuklarda Şekil 1 le başlanır. Çocuk bu şekilde başarılı da, başarısız da olsa şekil 2 ye geçilir. Eğer çocuk hem şekil 1 hem de şekil 2 de başarısız ise test bırakılır. Hem şekil 1, hem de şekil 2 de başarılı ise Şekil 3 e geçilir (Çocuğun bir şekilde başarısız sayılması için her iki denemede de başarısız olması gereklidir).

75

^XŞeklin tersten yapılması, şekilde küplerin yanlış yöne doğru çevrilmiş olmasıdır.

<u>Şekil 1 ve Şekil 2 için bir yüzü kırmızı, bir yüzü beyaz 6</u> blok kullanılır.

<u>Sekil 1</u>

Çocuğun görmeyeceği bir şekilde (bir kitabın arkasında) değerlendirme formunda gösterilen Şekil l i yaptıktan sonra çocuğa modeli gösterin. Modeli bozmadan diğer üç küpü çocuğun önüne koyun (küpler bir sıra halinde değil de; karışık olarak ve birinin yüzü kırmızı ikisininki beyaz olarak konur).

Çocuğa "bu küpleri görüyorsun. Bir yüzleri beyaz, bir yüzleri kırmız deyin. Elinizde küpleri çevirerek değişik yüzlerini gösterin. Sonra da modeli göstererek "küplerle burdaki şeklin aynısını yapıyorumş beni izle" deyin. Çocuğun küplerini kullanarak modeldeki aynı şekli herbirinin konumunu açıklayarak bir kere daha yapın.

Çocuğun bu şekli izlemesi için bir süre bıraktıktan sonra şekli bozun. Küpleri çocuğun önüne evvelden belirtildiği gimi bir kırmızı, iki beyaz yüz görünecek şekilde tekrar koyun. İlk yaptığınız modeli bozmadan onun küplerini toplayın "Hayır bak böyle olacak" deyin ve doğru olarak şekli tekrar yapın. "onradan bu ikinci defa yaptığınız şekli bozun, küpleri gene evvelce belirtildiği şekilde çocuğun önüne koyun ve "şimdi sen kendi başına yap, hadi başla" deyin. Zaman süresi: Her deneme için 30 saniyedir.

<u>Şekil 2</u>

Çocuk şekil l de başarılı da, başarısız da olsa , şekil 2 için gerekli modeli (şekil l de belirtildiği gibi) çocuk görmeden yapın. Diğer üç bloğu çocuğun önüne koyun (Şekil l de belirtildiği gibi bir kırmızı iki beyaz olmak üzere). Modeli göstererek "Şimdi bunun aynını bana yap. Hadi başla" deyin. Yocuk başarısızsa "Hayır bu böyle olacak" diyerek , çocuğun yanlış yaptığı şekli her bir konumu açıklayarak düzeltin. Sonra bu şekli bozup, küpleri ilk başta olduğu gibi koyun. "Şimdi sen yap" deyin . Çocuğa ikinci denemeyi yaptırın.

Zaman süresi: Her deneme iç n 30 saniyedir.

<u>3 den 7 ye kadar olan şekiller için 8 adet bir tarafı kırmızı, bir</u> tarafı kırmızı-beyaz küpleri kullanın.

<u>Şekil 3,4</u>

Şekillerden 2 sini alın ve çocuğun göremeyeceği bir şekilde modelir yapın sonra da çocuğa gösterin. Diğer iki küpü alarak "burada iki küp var, herbirinin bir yüzü kırmızı diğer yüzü kırmızı-beyaz. Bu küpleri bir araya koyarak bu modele benzer bir şekil yapacagim." Modeli işaret ederek "şimdi beni izle" deyin. Küpleri bir araya getirirken , "bu sefer bloklar yukarı çıkıyor ve aşağıya iniyor" deyin, yaparken de açıklayın (Modeli ve yaptığınızı göstererek) "Bak şimdi aynı oldular" deyin. Sonra da yine modeli göstererek "Ş: di sen buna benzer bir tane yap"deyin. Eğer çocuk başarısızsa "beni tekrar izle" deyin ve şekli yeniden yapın. Sonradan şekli bozun, küpleri çocuza verin ve modeli göstererek "şimdi buna benze bir tane yap" deyin. Yocu a ikinci denemeyi yaptırın. Çocuk Şekil 3 de başarılı veya başarısız da olsa Şekil 4 e devam edin. Şekil 3 de yaptıklarınızı aynen tekrarla in yalnız bu kez "küpler bu defa yukarı çıkıyor ve aşağıya iniyor " cümlesini kullanmayın. Zaman süresi: Her deneme için 30 saniyedir.

Şekil 5

Dört küp kullanarak, çocuğun görmeyeceği bir şekilde vekil 5 in bir modelini yapın. ^Dunu çocuğa gösterin. Geri kalan dört küpü karıştırın, belirgin bir şekilde değil fakat hepsinin yüzleri ayn: renk olmayacak şekilde çocuğun önüne koyun. "Şimdi burda gene bir tarafı kırmızı, bir tarafı kırmızı-beyaz küpler var" modeli göstererek, "bu küpleri bu modelin aynını yapmak için bir araya koyuyorum, beni izle" deyin. Yaparken de çocuğa izan edin. Bitirdikten sonra yaptığınız şekli bozun ve küçleri çocuğun önüne koyun ve modeli göstererek "şimdi den sen bana buna benzer bir tane yap, hadi başla" deyin. Çocuk başarısız olursa , bir şekil daha yapın ve çocuğa ikinci bir deneme daha yaptırın. Zaman süresi : Her deneme için 45 saniyedir.

<u>Sekil 6</u>

Çocuğun görmeyeceği bir şekille Vekil 6 için bir model yapın ve geri kalan küpleri karışık bir şekilde çocuğun önüne bırakın. Bu kez örnek şekil yapmadan modeli göstererek çocuğa "şimdi bana bunun gibi bir şekil yap, he**pš**ini kendin yapacaksın, hadi başla" deyin. Eğer çocuk başarısız olursa bu kez açıklayarak şekli siz yapın. Gösterdikten sonra örnek şekli bozarak küpleri çocuğun önünde karıştırın ve "Şimdi tekrar dene" deyin.

Zaman süresi : Her dene için 45 saniyedir.

<u>Şekil 7</u>

Şekil 6 da olduğu gibi modeli yapın, örnek şekli yapmadan modeli göstererek "şimdi bunun gibi bir tane yap" deyin. Eğer çocuk başarısız olursa şekil 6 da olduğu gib açıklayarak şekli yapın ve çocuğa ikinci denemesini yaptırın.

"aman süresi: Her deneme için 60 saniyedir.

<u>8 den 10 a kadar olan şekiller için elinizdeki resimleri model</u> <u>Əlarak kullanın. Bu şekiller için de bir evvelki şekilde kulla</u>nılan dört küp kullanılır.

<u>Sekil 8</u>

Şekil 8 i gösteren resmin telsiz tarafı çocuğa dönük olarak konur. Çocuğa""şimdi bu küplerle resimdeki şeklin aynını yapacağım, beni izle" deyin. Küplerleresimdeki şeklin aynısını yapın ve yaparken söz ve hareketlerinizle resmi kopye ettiğinizi belirtin. Örnek şekli yapmayı bitirdikten sonra, küpleri karıştırın ve çocuğa resmi göstererek "Hadi bunun aynısını yap" deyin. Çocuk başarısız olursa, örnek şekli tekrar yapın ve çocuğa ikinci bir deneme yaptırın. Zaman süresi: Her deneme için 60 saniyedir.

Sekil 9 ve 10

Örnek şekli yapmadan, resmi ve küpleri çocuğun önüne koyun ve resmi göstererek "küplerle bu şeklin aynısını yap" deyin. Çocuk başarısız olursa "örnek şekli yapın, çocuğa izlettirdikten sonra bunu bozun ve çocuğa ikinci denemeyi yaptırın. Zaman süresi : Her deneme için 75 saniyedir.

PUANLAMA

Her sekil 2, 1 veya 0 puan alabilir.

Zaman süresi içinde ve l. denemede doğru yapılan Şekil 2 puan, Zaman süresi içinde ve 2. denemede doğru yapılan Şekil l puan, Her iki denemede de başarısız yapılan şekil O puan.

l den 4 e kadar olan şekiller için ters olarak yapılanlar başarılı, 5 den 10 a kadar olan için ters yapılanlar ise başarısız olarak değerlendirilir.

Değerlendirme formundaki "geçti/kaldı" kolonuna çocuk kabul olunan bir şekil yaptığı zaman G, başarısız olduğu zaman K yazılır. Puan kolonunda, eğer çocuk 1. den mede başarılı ise "2" yi 2. denemede başarılı ise"l"i, her iki denemede de başarısız ise "0"ı işaretleyin. Yocuğun toplam puanını elde etmek için bütün puanlar toplanır. Pir çocuk en fazla 20 puan alabilir. LERLE DESEN

Testi bırakma : 3. Desenden başlayarak arka arkaya

Desen	Deneme [*] Süresi	Başarılı- Başarısıs	Puan	Desen	Deneme Süresi	Başarılı- Başarısız	Pu
C A	1 30" G		2 0 i	6.	1 45" 2 45" G		0 i
	1 30" 2 30" G		2 0 i	7.	1 60" 2 60" G		01
sti bırak Şarısızlı	ma : l. ktan so	ve 2. Desen nra	lerde	8. Bakın	1 60" G 2 60" G		0 1
yaş ve so	onrası :	Burdan b aş l	ayın.	Kar ta 9. Bakın	i 75" 2 75" G		0 1
	i 30" G 2 30" G		2 0 I .	10. Karta Bakin	i 75"		01
	1 30" G	·	2 0			TOPLAN	
Ţ.	1 45" G 2 45" G		2				

2 başarısızlıktan sonra

"G" : Araştırmacı deseni yapıp gösterir.

APPENDIX G Instructions and score Sheet for the Object Assembly

PARÇA BİRLESTİRME (OBJECT ASSEMBLY)

MATERYAL

5 parca birleştirme maddesinin herbirinin parçalarının bulunduğu kutular.

Parçaları üzerinde yerleştirmek için bir karton.

BASLAMA

Örnek maddeyle başlayın ve ondan sorra tüm çocuklar için l e geçin.

TESTI BIRAKMA

Tüm çocuklara büt%n maddeleri verin.

YÖNERGE

Her bir madde isin saştanmış belli bir süre vardır. Yönergenin verilişi tamamlanır tamamlanmaz, o madde için zaman tutulmaya başlanır. Çocuğun bir maddeyi ne kadar zamanda tamamladığını dikkatle kaydedin. Şekil kısa zamanda yanlışsız olarak tamamlanırsa ödül olarak ek puan verilir.

Süre dolduğu halde çocuk hala uğraşıyorsa, testi veren, çocuğu güdülemek ve iyi ilişki kurabilmek için devam etmesine izin verebilir. <u>Ancak süre dolduğu zaman parçaların birleştirilmiş</u> <u>olan düzenlemesine göre puan verilir.</u>

Eğer bir çocuk herhangi bir parçayı ters çevirirse , siz hemen onun doğru yüzünü çevirin.

ORNEK MADDE: ELMA Parçaları kartonun üzerine, belirtilen düzende çocuğa göstermeden yerleştirin. Daha sonra kartonu masanın üzerine ko yuş, "<u>Efer BU PARÇALAR DOĞRU BİR ŞEKİLDE BİRLECTİBİLİRSE ORTAYA</u> BİR ELMA ÇIK<u>AR. NASIL YAPTIĞIMA BAK</u>" deyin ve aşağıda gösterildiği şekilde parçaları bir araya getirin.

Çocuğun <u>10 saniye kadar tamamlanmış şekle bakmasına izin verin.</u> Ondan sonra bu parçaları toplayıp madde 1 e geçin.

(1) KIZ Parçaları çocuğa göstermeden şekilde gösterildiği gibi yerleştirin. Sonra kartonu ortaya çıkartıp "<u>EĞER BU PARÇALARI</u> <u>DOĞRU BİR ŞEKİLDE BİRLEŞTİRİRSEN ORTAYA BİR KIZ ÇOCUĞU ÇIKAR. HAYDİ</u> <u>BAŞLA VE BUNLARI BİRLEŞTİR. BİTİNCE BANA HABER VER</u>"deyin. Zaman tutmaya başlayın ve 120" izin verin. Eğer çocuğun düzenlemesi tam hatasız değilse, siz doğrusunu yapın ve "<u>İŞTE BAK BÖYLE OLUYOR</u>" deyin. Ondan sonra madde 2 ye geçin ve başka bir maddede yardım etmeyin.

Parça sayısı:7

(2) AT Parçaları belirtilen düzende, çocuğa göstermeden kartonun üzerine yerleştirin. Ondan sonra çocuğa kartonu gösterip "<u>BU PAR-</u> <u>ÇALAR BİRLEŞİNCE ORTAYA AT ÇIKAR.ELİNDEN GELDİĞİ KADAR ÇABUK BU</u> <u>PARÇALARI BİRLEŞTİR"</u> deyin . "aman tutmaya başlayın ve en fazla 150" bekleyin.

<u>(3) ARABA</u> Parçaları belirtilen düzende, çocuğa göstermeden kartonun üzerine yerleştirin. Ondan sonra çocuğa gösterip "<u>BUNLARI ELİNDEN</u> <u>GELDİĞİ KADAR ÇABUK BİRLEŞTİR</u>"deyin. Zaman tutmaya başlayın ve en fazla 150" bekleyin (Not: <u>Objenin adı verilmez</u>)

(4) YUZ Parçaları belirtilen düzende, çocuğa göstermeden kartonun üzerine yerleştirin. Ondan sonra çocuğa kartonu gösterip "<u>BUNLARI</u> <u>ELİMDEN GELDİĞİ KADAR ÇABUK BİRLEŞTİR</u>" deyin. ²aman tutmaya başlayın ve en fazla 180" bekleyin. (Not: <u>Objenin adı verilmez</u>.) PUANLAMA

Madde 1(Kız) dan doğru olarak yan yana getirilen her kesim için 1 puan verilir. Eğer kısa zamanda hiç hatasız olarak düzenleme yapıldı ise 2 ek ödül puanı verilir. Madde 2 (At) da doğru olerak yan yana getirilen her kesim için l puan verilir. Ödül için ek 3 puan verilebilir. Madde 3 ve 4 (Araba ve Yüz) de ise, doğru olarak yan yana getirilen her kesim için yarım puan verilir. Ek ödül puanı yine 3 dür.

Bir maddeyi puanlamak için tes verenin ilk önce kayıt formuna doğru olarak birleştirilmiş kesim sayısını yazması gerekir. (Şekillerde her kesim yeri bir "X" işareti ile gösterilmiştir). Kayıt formunda l ile mi yoksa 1/2 ile mi çarpılması gerektiği belirtilmiştir. Her madde için yarım puanları bir üst tüme tamamlayın. Bu tüme tamamlama test için tüm puan hesaplanmadan önce yapılmalıdır.

İki parça doğru olarak birleştirildi ise, onlarla birleşen diğer parçalar doğru olmasa bile, bu iki parça arasındaki kesim için puan verilir. Örneğin, madde 4 de (Yüz) çocuk bir çok parçayı ikişer ikişer doğru olarak bir araza getirmiş olabilir. Bu durumda her doğru birleştirilmiş kesim işin şeklin bütününe önem vermeden puan verilir.

Puanlama sistemine yeterinde aşına olup çocuk bitirir bitirmez puanın verilebilmesi gereklidir. 82

PARÇA BİRLEŞTİRME PUANLAMASI

(ZAMAN ÖDÜLLERİ HARİÇ)

EN YÜKSEK PUAN

MADDE	ZAMAN SURESI	EN FAZLA KESIM SAVIS	<u>CARP</u>	ZAMAN ÖDÜLÜ HAR
l.Kız	120"	6	l	6
2.At	150"	5	1	5
3.Araba	150"	9	1/2	5
4.Yüz	180"	12	1/2	6

ZAMAN ÖDÜLLERÌ İLE BERABER PARÇA BİRLEŞTİRME

PUANLAMASI

	ZAMAN	ZAMAN ÖDÜLÜ İLE BERABER PUANLAF			•	
MADDE	<u>suresi</u>	9	8	7	6	5
l.Kız	120"		1-20"	21-30"	31-120"	
2.At	150"		1-15"	16-20"	21-35"	36- 150''
3.Araba	150"		1-25"	26-35"	36-50"	51-1 50"
4.Yüz	180"	1-35"	36-50"	51-75"	76-180"	

EN FAZLA PUAN : 33

Zaman ödülü puanları sadece hiç hatasız düzenlemeler için verilir.

PARÇA FIRLEŞTIRME VE RESIM DÜZENLEME DEGERLENDIRME

FORMU

COCUGUN ADI :

YAÇI

OKULU veya YÖRESİ

ARAŞTIRMACININ ADI:

TARIH:

	•	Bütün çoc	Parça Birleştirm cuklara tümtesti	e uygula	•		• · · • · · ·
<u>.</u>	Puan	MA kesim sayısı	Birleştirilen kesim sayısı	zaman ödülleri puanlar			
K ^{K1Z} 1′20″		6 (1)		1-20" 21"-30" 31"-130 8 7 6			′-1:20′′ 6
A ^t _{150″}		5 (1)		1-15" 8	16-20" 7	21-35" 6	31-150'' 5
A 150" Araba		9 (1 /2)	, .	_1-25" 8	26-35'' 7	36-50″ 6	51-150″ 5
Y 180" Yüz		(2 (1/2)		1-35″ 9	36-50'' 8	51-75" 7	76180'' 6
		· · ·			 To	nlain	

APPENDIX H Instructions and Score Sheet for the Picture Arrangement

RESIM DUZENLEME (PICTURE ARRANGEMENT)

MATERYAL

Bir kutu içinde üzerinde resimler olan 18 takım kart

BASLAMA

6-7 yaşlarında veya daha büyük olup, geri zekalı olmasından kuşkulanılan çocuklar için terazi örnek maddesinden başlayın ve 1. madde Boksla devam edin.

8-16 yaşlarında, Terazi örneğiyle başlayın ve 3. madde Yangın ile devam edin.

8-16 yaşındaki bir çocuk 3. maddenin ilk denemesini başaramazsa 2. denemeyi uygulayın. İkinci denemeyi başarsa da başarmasa da geri dönün ve teste devam etmeden önce 1. ve 2. maddeleri verin.

TESTI BIRAKMA

Arka arkaya 3 başarısızlıktan sonra (Eğer her iki denemede başarısızsa, bir başarısızlık olarak kabul edilir)

YÖNERGE

Her madde için çocuğa karışık bir düzende bir seri resim gösterilir ve ondan resimleri, bir hikaye anlatacak şekilde düzenlemesi istenir. Kartların arkasındaki sayılar bunları çocuğun önüne , soldan başlayarak nasıl sıralayacağını gösterir, harfler ise puanlama kodunu gösterir.

Kayıt formuna çocuğun hir bir madde için kartları düzenleme sırasını yazın. (1-4 maddelerinin her denemesi için). Aynı zamanda her maddenin (veya her denemenin) tamamlanması için çocuğun kullandığı zamanı da kaydedin. <u>Zaman limitleri kayıt formunda vardır</u>.Her madde için zaman tutulmaya , <u>yönergenin son kelimesi söylendikten son</u>ra **başlanır.** 5-12. maddeler için zaman tutma çok önemlidir. Çünkü bu maddelerin çabuk ve doğru bitirilmesinde ödül puanlar verilir. (Aşağıdaki puanlama tablosuna göre).

<u>6-16 YAŞLAR</u>: <u>Örnek madde</u>: <u>Terazi</u>: Çocuğun önüne 3 kartı 1 numaralı kart çocuğun soluna gelmek üzere sayısal düzende koyun. Şöyle söyleyin: "<u>BU RESİMLER TERAZİDE TARTILAN BİR KADININ HİKAYESİNİ</u> <u>ANLATIYOR. RESİMLER ŞİMDİ YANLIŞ SIRILANMIŞ.BANA BAK VE RESİMLERİ</u> <u>NASIL HİKAYE ANLATACAK ŞEKİLDE DÜZGÜN SIRAYA KOYACAĞIMA DİKKAT ET</u>." Kartları doğru olarak (ABC) düzenledikten sonra her kartı göstererek şöyle söyleyin: "<u>İLK ÖNCE KADIN TERAZİYE DOĞRU YÜRÜYOR</u>; SONRA TARTILIYOR SONRA DA UZAKLAŞIYOR."

Kartları doğru olarak düzenledikten sonra 10 saniye kadar çocuğun bakması için bekleyin. Sonra kartları kaldırın ve teste devam edin. (Birinci madde 6-7 yaşlar ve daha büyük olup geri zekalı olmasından kuşkulanılan çocuklar için, 3. madde 8-16 yaşlar için). <u>6-7 YAŞLAR</u>:1 Boks : (2 trial hakkı var) Çocuğun önüne sayısal sırasına göre 3 kart konur. 1 mumaralı kart çocuğun solundadır. "<u>BU</u> <u>RESİMLER BİR BOKS MAÇININ HİKAYESINİ ANLATMAKTADIR. RESİMLER</u> <u>şİMDİ YANLIŞ SIRADA. BU RESİMLERİ DOĞRU SIRALA Kİ BİR HİKAYE</u> <u>ANLATSIN</u>" deyin. Zaman tutmaya başlayın ve 45 sanıye izin verin. Eğer çocuklar verilen zaman içinde kartları doğru olarak (OUT) düzenlerse, 2.maddeye geçin.

Eğer çocuk kartları doğru olarak düzenleyemezse "<u>NASIL YAPTIĞIMA</u> <u>DİKKAT ET</u>" deyin. Çocuğun önüne kartları doğru olarak düzenlenyin. Sonra her kartı göstererek şöyle deyin: "<u>İÇK ÖNCE İKİ ADAM DÖVÜ-</u> <u>SÜYORLAR, SONRA ADAMLARDAN BİRİSİ YENİLMİŞ, EN SOJUNDA DA DIŞARIYA</u> TAŞ<u>ANIYOR</u>."

8

Doğru sıraya, çocuğun 10 saniye kadar bakmasını sağlayın ve sonra kartları ilk şekliyle (sayısal) sıralayın. "<u>ŞİMDİ TEKRAR</u> <u>DENEMENİ İSTİYORUM RESİMLERİ UYGON BİR ŞEKİGDE SIRALA Kİ ORTAYA</u> <u>BİR HİKAYE ÇIKSIN</u>." deyin, zaman tutmaya başlayın ve 45 saniye bekleyin.

2.<u>PİKNİK</u>: (2 trial hak) 3 kartı çocuğun önüne arkadaki sayılarına göre koyun "<u>BU RESİMLER KIRA GİDENLERİN HİKAYESİNİ ANLATMAKTADIR</u>. <u>RESİMLER ŞİMDİ YANLIŞ ŞIRADADIR. SEN BU RESİMLERİ DOĞRU SIRALA Kİ OR</u>-TAYA BİR HİKAYE ÇIKSIN" deyin. Zaman tutmaya başlayın ve 45 saniye bekleyin. Eğer çocuk kartları doğru sırasına⁴ (DOG) koyarsa, teste devam edin. Eğer çocuk kartları doğru sırasına⁴ (DOG) koyarsa, teste devam edin. Eğer çocuk kartları yanlış düzenlerse, "<u>BENİM NASIL</u> <u>YAPTIĞIMA BAK</u>" deyin. Çocuğun önüne kartları doğru bir şekilde düzenleyin. ^Sonra her kartı gösterin ve şöyle söyleyin: "<u>İLK ÖNCE</u> <u>BİR KADIN VE ERKEK YÜRÜYORLAR VE BİR KÖPEK ONLARI İZLİYOR. CONRA</u> <u>SOMRA KÖPEK TAVUĞU KAPIYOR. DAHA SO RA KADIN VE ERKEK TAVUGON</u> <u>YOK OLDUĞUNU GÖRÜYORLAR</u>."

Çocuğun doğru sıraya bakması için 10 saniye izin verin. Sonra kartları sayısal düzenine koyun. "<u>ŞİMDİ TEKRAR DENEMENİ İSTİYORUM</u>. <u>RESİMLERİ BİR HİKAYE ANLATACAK ŞEKİLDE DÜZENLEMENİ İSTİYORUM</u> deyin. Zaman tutmaya başlayın ve 45 saniye bekleyin.

<u>8-16 YAŞLAR</u>: (2 trial ama önce verilen help 1. kartı gösterip) <u>3.YANGIN</u>: Kartları sayısal sırasına göre koyun. Şöyle söyleyin (kartları koyarken): " <u>BU RESİMLER BİR YANGIN HİKAYESİNİ ANLATMAK-</u> <u>TADIR. KAPTLARI O ŞEKİLDE SIRALA Kİ ORTAYA BİR HİKAYE ÇIKSIN"</u>

aman tutmaya başlayın ve 45 saniye bekleyin. Eğer çocuk kartları " doğru düzenlerse (FIRE) , 4. maddeye geçin.

Eğer çocuk kartları doğru olarak düzenleyemezse, "<u>BU TAM DOĞRU</u> <u>DEĞİL</u> " deyin. Kartları sayısal sırasına koyun. Sonra "F" kartını sıradan alın ve diğer üç kartın altına koyun, (Çocuğun soluna gelecek şekilde "F" kartını gösterin ve"<u>HİKAYE BU RESIMLE BAŞLIYOR.</u> <u>BİR ANNENİN OĞLUMU KİBRİTLE OYNADIĞI İÇİN AZARLAYIŞINI GÖSTERİYOR.</u> <u>ŞİMDİ HİKAYEYİ BİTİRMEK İÇİN BU RESİMLERİ KULLAN</u> (diğer üç kartı gösterin) <u>ÇOCUĞUN KİBRİTLE OYNADIĞI RESİMLE BAŞLA. DİĞER KARTLARI</u> <u>DOĞRU SIRASINA KOY</u>" deyin.

Tekrar zaman tutmaya başlayın ve 45 saniye bekleyin.

<u>4.KERESTE</u>: (2 trial + 2. trialdaki help 1. kartı göstermek) Kartları sayısal sırasına koyun ve "<u>BU RESİMLER YÜRÜYÜŞE ÇIKAN</u> <u>BİR ÇOCU UN HİKAYESİNİ ANLATIYOR. O ŞEKİLDE SIRALA Kİ ORTAYA BİR</u> <u>HİKAYE ÇIKSIN</u> " deyin. "aman tutmaya başlayın ve 45 saniye bekleyin. Eğer çocuk kartları doğru sıralarsa (WALK) 5. maddeye geçin. Eğer çocuk kartları doğru olarak düzenleyemezse "<u>BU TAM DOĞRU</u> <u>DEĞİL</u> " deyin. Kartları ilk diziliş (sayısal) sırasına koyun. Sonra "W" kartını sıradan alın ve onu çocuğun soluna gelecek şekilde diğer üç kartın altına koyun "W" kartını gösterin ve şöyle söyleyin, "<u>HİKAYE BU RESİMLE BAŞLIYOR, ÇOCUĞUN NEHİRE DOĞRU YÜRÜYÜSÜNÜ</u> <u>GÖSTERİYOR. ŞİMD</u> HİKAYEYİ TAMAMLAMAK İÇİN DİĞER RESİMLERİ KULLAN (diğer 3 kartı gösterin) <u>ÇOCUĞUN NEHRE DOĞRU YÜRÜYÜSÜNÜ GÖFTEREN</u> <u>RESİMLE BAŞLA DİশER KARTLARI DOĞRU SIRASINA KOY</u> "Tekrar zaman tutmaya başlayın ve 45" bekleyin.

5. madde için kartları koymadan önce , "<u>SENİN DÜZENLEMENİ İSTEDİĞİM</u> BAZI RESİMLER DAMA VAR. HER SEFERİNDE ONLARI SAMA KARIŞIK BİR SIRADA VERECEİM" deyin. Kartları koyarken "<u>KARTLARI BİR HİKAYE ANLATACAK</u> SEKİLDE SIRALA ELİNDEN GELDİĞI KADAR ÇABUK YAP BİTİRDİĞİN ZAMAN HABER VER" deyin. Zaman tutmaya başlayın ve 45" bekleyin. Diğer maddeler için de benzer bir işlem uygulayın. Her maddenin kartlarını koyarken "<u>ŞİMDİ BU RESİMLERİ O ŞEKİLDE SIRALA Kİ ORTAYA BİR HİKAYE</u> ÇIKSIN ELİNDEN GELDİĞİ KADAR ÇABUK YAP BİTİRDİĞİN ZAMAN HABER VER" **ÖYER**. (Çocuk ne yapılacağını açık olarak anladıysa talimatlar kısalabilir.) Sonra zaman tutmaya başlayın.

PUANLAMA

1-4. maddelerde ilk deneme başarılı ise 2 puan, ikinci deneme başarılı ise 1 puan.

ZAMAN SINIRI

Madde	(1. ve 2. denemeler_için)	<u>Doğru sıra</u>
1.Boks	45"	OUT
2. Piknik	45"	DOG
3. Yangin	45" <u>.</u>	FIRE
4. Kereste	45"	WALK

<u>5-12. maddeler</u> : Zaman sınırı içinde yapılan doğru düzenlemeler için üçer puan, çabuk ve doğru başarılanlar için ek en fazla 2 puan verilir.(Aşağıdaki tabloya bakınız) 9-12. maddelerde seçenek düzenlemeler için kısmî kredi (2 puan) verilir ancak ayrıca zaman sınırı için verilen ek puanlardan yararlanılmaz.

ZAMAN ÖDÜLLERİ İLE BİRLİKTE 5-12.

MADDELER İÇİN PUANLAR

MADDE	ZAMAN SINIRI	DOĞRU SIRA		OPULU	PUANLAR
5. Nirsiz	45"	THUG	1-10"	11-15"	16-45"
6. Uykuda	45"	RUSH	1-10"	11-15"	16-45"
7. Artist	45"	Vamp	1-10"	11-15"	16-45"
8. Kement	45"	CASH	1-10"	11-15"	16-45"
9. Kayık	60"	CHASE	1-10"	11-20"	21-60"
		(HCASE-2 puan,	zaman için	ek puar	yok)
10.Bahçıvan	60"	WORMS	1-15"	16-25"	26-60"
ll. Sıra	60"	(WROMS-2puan , BENCH	zaman için 1-15"	ek puar 16-25"	i yok) 26-60

BECHN- 2 puan , zaman için ek puan yok 12. Yağmur 60" CLOUD 1-15" 16-25" 26-60" COLUD - 2 puan zaman için ek puan yok

EN YUKSEK PUAN : 48

Resim Düzenleme Teste son ver: Arka arkaya 3 başarısızlık								
		Zaman	nan Sira Puan					
1. OUT	45**	1			0	1 OUT	2	J T
2. DOG	45"	1		 	0	1 DOG	2 DC	G
((8-16 yaş) 3. FIRE	45"	1			0	1 FIRE	2 FU	RE
4. WALK	45"	1 2			0	1 WALK	2 WA	LK
Ödüllü Puanlar								
5. THƯG	45‴			0	16 3	15 1	1 - 15 4	1 - 10 5
6. RUSH	45‴			0	16 - 4	5 1	1 - 15 4	1 - 10 5
7. VAMP	45"			0	16 - 4 3	5 1	1 ~ 15 4	1 - 10 5
8. CASH	45"		、	0	16 - 4 3	5 1	L – 15 4	1 - 10 5
9. CHASE	60"			0	2 HCASE	21 - 60 3	11 - 20 4	1 - 10 5
10. WORMS	60′′	· ·		0	wROMS	26 - 60 3	16 - 25 4	1 - 15 5
11. BENCH	60″			0	2 BECHN	26 - 60 3	16 - 25 4	1 - 15 5
12. CLOUD	60′′			0		26 - 60 3.	16 - 25 4	1 - 15 5
Toplam								

CORE SHEET FOR

	NAME	
CHILDREN'S	CLASS	
EMBEDDED	BIRTH DATE	SEX: MF
	DATEEXAMINER	

TENT	DESCRIPTION	SCORE	HOUSE	DESCRIPTION	SCORE
P ₁			P ₃		
P2			H ₁		
T ₁			H ₂	*****	
т ₂	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		. н ₃		
т ₃			H ₄		•
т ₄	•		H ₅		
т ₅			H ₆		
т ₆			H ₇		
T ₇			н ₈		
^т 8			H ₉		
т ₉			H ₁₀		
т ₁₀			H ₁₁		
T ₁₁			H ₁₂		
			н ₁₃		
			H ₁₄	······································	
					•

Total Score TENT

Total Score HOUSE

TOTAL TEST SCORE



CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGISTS PRESS, INC. 577 College Avenue, Palo Alto, California 94306