

ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

FIRST INTERNATIONAL

LANGUAGE-FOR-ALL CONFERENCE '22 (LFAC '22)

BOOK OF PROCEEDINGS

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Published by School of Foreign Languages, Çukurova University, Adana, TURKEY

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ISBN: 978-975-487-230-9



LFAC '22

First International Language-for-All Conference '22

Book of Proceedings

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Adana, TURKEY

October 21 – 22, 2022



LFAC '22

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A seed of change ...

Keynote Speakers



**Prof. Emeritus Stephen
D. KRASHEN**
University of
Southern California
Video Conference



Prof. Dr. Erdoğan BADA
Hakkari University
Çukurova University



Prof. Dr. Cem BALÇIKANLI
Gazi University

Workshop



Andrew BOSSON
Sabancı University



OCTOBER 21 – 22, 2022



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Acknowledgements

The *LFAC '22 (Language-for-All Conference 2022)* organizers are grateful to the advice, assistance, and cooperation of everyone who has contributed to *LFAC '22*. We would like to express our deepest gratitude to **Emeritus Prof. Dr. Stephen KRASHEN** (University of Southern California), **Prof. Dr. Erdoğan BADA** (Çukurova University & Hakkari University) and **Prof. Dr. Cem BALÇIKANLI** (Gazi University) for their inspirational speeches which shed light on foreign language teaching and learning issues.

We would also like to extend our sincere appreciation to **Prof. Dr. Meryem TUNCEL**, the Rector of Çukurova University, for her generous support over the course of organizing this international conference.

We also wish to thank the members of the Scientific Committee (list page xi) for their reviews of all the abstracts submitted. The review process is an integral part of *LFAC '22* and we are grateful to the members of the Scientific Committee for their guidance and assistance.

The conference would not have been possible without the valuable cooperation of the members of the School of Foreign Languages, Çukurova University.

We cordially thank all participants for their invaluable contributions to our conference and it is hoped that the *First International Language-for-All Conference (LFAC '22)* will plant a seed of change for further research and innovation in the field.

The *First International Language-for-All Conference* is dedicated to the Founding Director of SoFL of Çukurova University, **Emeritus Prof. Dr. F. Özden EKMEKÇİ**.

Prof. Dr. Yonca ÖZKAN

On behalf of the Organising Committee



LFAC '22

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FIRST INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE-FOR-ALL CONFERENCE PROGRAM
21 October Friday

08.30 – 09.30	Registration			
09.30 – 10.00	Opening Remarks			
10.00 – 10.50	Keynote Speaker I: Prof. Dr. Erdoğan BADA – “Live and Relive through Drama in the Classroom”			
10.50 – 11.10	Coffee Break			
Day I Session I	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium A	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium B	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium C	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium D
11.10 – 11.30	Yunus Kürşat ÇELİK “Perspectives of Turkish High School EFL Learners on the Language Learning Strategies”	Erdal KAÇAR “Investigation of the Tertiary Level Foreign Language Learners’ Perceptions on Cooperative Learning”	Kumari MAMTA “Rarities Involved in Numeral Systems and Need of Documentation”	Beyza Betül TANRIKULU “An Examination of Shakespeare’s <i>Twelfth Night</i> , or <i>What You Will</i> from the Perspective of Feminist Theory”
11.35 – 11.55	Elif KEMALOĞLU-ER “Pros and Cons and Metaphors: What Being a Student in the English Preparatory Program is Like at an English-medium University”	Hacer KAÇAR & Hasan BEDİR “Pre-service Teachers’ Perceptions on Blended Learning”	Mahmoud AL-KANAKRI “Language, Power, Ideology and Persuasion: A Case in Arabic”	Manhal ABDULLAH “Diasporic Identity in Ghosh’s <i>The Shadow Lines</i> ”
12.00 – 12.20	Agnieszka BOJARCZUK-TÜNCER “Linguistic Education of English as a Second Language for Children with Special Educational Needs at Early School Age in Public Schools in Poland”	Melike ÜNAL GEZER “Pre-Service English Language Teachers’ Environmental Print Attempts for Young Language Learners”	Aleyna GÜRSOY & Hasan BEDİR “EFL Teachers’ Occupational Stress and Job Satisfaction: Teachers of Very Young Learners”	Yusuf YILMAZ “Potential Benefits of Mental Imagery in Language Teaching”
12.20 – 13.20	Lunch Break			
13.20 – 14.10	Keynote Speaker II: Prof. Dr. Cem BALÇIKANLI – “Space, Place and Autonomy in Language Learning”			
14.10 – 14.30	Coffee Break			

Day I Session II	14.30 – 14.50	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium A Merve Elmas KOYUNCU “Factors Influencing High School Learners’ Foreign Language Learning Motivation: The Turkish Context”	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium B Meryem ÇALIŞKAN & Meryem AKÇAYOĞLU “The Habits of High School EFL Teachers’ Usage of Assessment Techniques in Sit-down Examinations in Turkey”	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium C Saloni PRIYA “Honorific System and Allocutive Agreement in Magahi”	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium D Seyhan GÜNEŞER GÖÇMEN “Students Teaching to Learn and Learning to Teach through Video Tutorials”
	14.55 – 15.15	Vijay VISHAL & Rajiv BHSUHAN “Error Analysis of Intermediate and Advanced English Learners for Communicative and Vocational Purposes”	Basim AL-GBURI “Mastery of English Grammar by Iraqi EFL Learners at Pre-University Level: A Critical Evaluation”	Mehmet TUNAZ “Pre-service EFL Teachers’ Perspectives on Classroom Management during Teaching Practicum”	Beyza Betül TANRIKULU “Freedom for Women: Examination of Feminist Utopias”
	15.20 – 15.40	Esra KURTULDU & Zeynep CEYHAN BİNGÖL “A Systematic Review of Students’ Attitudes and Perceptions toward Distance Education between 2000 – 2021”	Alexander PAVLENKO & Galina PAVLENKO “Teaching a Lesser-used Language in School as an Effect of Improved Attitudes: The Evidence of Scots”	Samet TAŞÇI “Problems with the Assessment: The Perspectives of Pre-service EFL Teachers in Turkish Context”	Emine Esin ÖZTÜRK & Tuçe ÖZTÜRK KARATAŞ “A Systematic Literature Review on EFL Pre-Service Teachers’ Level of TPACK”
	15.40 – 16.00	Coffee Break			
Day I Session III	16.00 – 16.20	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium A Deniz COŞKUN “Placement of Question Particle in L1 and L2 Acquisition of Turkish”	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium B Deniz ELÇİN “A Critical Discourse Analysis Approach to Identity and Power Relation in Language”	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium C Tuba TÜRKEL & Christian BROGAARD “Using Online Machine Translation as a Translingual Tool in Tandem Language Learning”	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium D Gülcan OSOYDAN “Native Speakerism and the Relationship between Native-Speakerism and Culture”
	16.25 – 16.45	Mustafa ÖZER & Erdem AKBAŞ “Vocabulary Hunting Inside the Veterinary Medicine Corpus for English for Very Specific Academic Writing”	Bilge KALKAVAN & Bülent Bahri KÜÇÜKERDOĞAN “Discourse Analysis in Advertisements: Intercultural Interaction”	Seda BANLI “A Review of Corpus-based English Language Studies in Turkey”	Melek YOLCU “Post-method Pedagogy and its Application in Turkish EFL Context: A Systematic Review”
	19.00	Conference Dinner			

FIRST INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE-FOR-ALL CONFERENCE PROGRAM

22 October Saturday

Keynote Speaker I: Emeritus Prof. Dr. Stephen D. KRASHEN – “The Potential of Self-Selected Pleasure Reading”

Coffee Break

09.00 – 10.00	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium D			
10.00 – 10.20	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium C			
Day II Session I	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium B	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium C	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium D	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium D
10.20 – 10.40	Neslihan GÜNDOĞDU “The Effect of the Process Approach on Students’ Perceptions of Their Strengths and Weaknesses in Composition”	Monireh AZIMZADEH “The Impact of Foreign Language Anxiety on EFL Students’ Oral Performance”	Daniel HIZAR “Can Musicals be Used to Teach Speech Acts?”	İnci DEMİR “The Effects of the Use of Memrise on EFL Learners’ Vocabulary Learning Motivation”
10.45 – 11.05	Zoe MARLOWE “Listening Course Survey Findings in a Turkish University English Language Teacher Education Program”	Emine DEMİR & Figen YILMAZ “A Retrospective Evaluation of an EFL Coursebook Regarding Teaching English Language Skills: Perceptions of Preparatory School Instructors”	İşıl Günseli KAÇAR “Dutch and Turkish Prospective Teachers’ Reflections on Cultural Diversity and Critical Cultural Awareness: Insights into Pedagogical Perspectives in a Telecollaborative Project”	Zekeriya DURMAZ “English Language Teacher Agency: A Systematic Review”
11.10 – 11.30	Hülya TUNCER & Ayşe KIZILDAĞ “Practicum Period of Turkish Pre-service Teachers of English during the Covid-19 Pandemic”	Eser ÖRDEM “The Use of Participatory Approach in EFL Classes”	Sultan ULUAD & Elif DEMİREL TOKDEMİR “Teaching High School Students ‘Subordinating Conjunctions’ through Corpus of Contemporary American English”	Sultan ULUAD & Elif DEMİREL TOKDEMİR “Teaching High School Students ‘Subordinating Conjunctions’ through Corpus of Contemporary American English”
11.35 – 11.55	Amanda LIRA GORDENSTEIN MONTES & Billur ÜLÜKÜ “Bringing a Globalized Perspective to Culturally Responsive Pedagogy in English Language Teaching”	Eser ÖRDEM “The Use of Participatory Approach in EFL Classes”	Sultan ULUAD & Elif DEMİREL TOKDEMİR “Teaching High School Students ‘Subordinating Conjunctions’ through Corpus of Contemporary American English”	Sultan ULUAD & Elif DEMİREL TOKDEMİR “Teaching High School Students ‘Subordinating Conjunctions’ through Corpus of Contemporary American English”
11.55 – 13.00	Lunch Break			

13.00 – 13.50	Workshop by Andrew BOSSON – “Individualisation of Instruction in English Language Classes: Engaging all learners in the Classroom”			
13.50 – 14.10	Özge KÖKSAL & Manolya SAĞLAM – “The Relationship between EFL Teachers’ Burnout and Their Classroom Management” (Poster - Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Lobby)			
14.10 – 14.30	Coffee Break			
Day II Session II	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium A	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium B	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium C	Mithat Özsan Conference Hall – Auditorium D
14.30 – 14.50	Gamze KAPUCU & Onur ULUDAĞ “Student Perspectives on English-medium Instruction: An Analysis of English Language Needs and Self-efficacy Beliefs”	Daniel HIZAR “Musicals and Literature: Can Musicals Support the Teaching of Literature?”	Hasan Çağlar BAŞOL & Onur ULUDAĞ “Understanding the Relationship between Attitudes towards Emergency Remote Teaching and Technological Self-Efficacy”	Tolunay EKİZ “Online Teaching Experiences of Turkish EFL Instructors during the COVID-19 Pandemic”
14.55 – 15.15	Abdullah YILDIZ & Erdem AKBAŞ “A Bibliometric Analysis of an Established and Long-standing Journal: Thirty-five Years of English for Specific Purposes”	Ayşe Betül TOPLU “Attitudes of Sophomore ELT Students towards Using P4C in the Language Classroom”	Diser SUCAK & Cemile BUĞRA “Exploring the Ways and Outcomes of Using Story Books and Films in EFL Classes”	Seda GÜLER “An Investigation towards Intercultural Sensitivity within Turkish High School Context”
15.20 – 15.40	Betül GÜLERYÜZ ADAMHASAN & Figen YILMAZ “Representation of Global Issues in EFL Textbooks”	Ayça DİNÇER & Hatice ÇUBUKÇU “Types of Metonymy in ELT Coursebooks”	Ecem EKER UKA “EFL Teachers’ Awareness and Perceptions on 21st Century Skills: A Case Study”	Aynur KESEN MUTLU & Hasan AHKEMOĞLU “Pre-service Language Teachers’ Emotional Changes: Reflections on a Teaching Practicum Program in Turkey”
15.45 – 16.05				Ayça DİNÇER & Berna BALCI & Diser SUCAK “An Analysis on Grammatical Collocations in Written Texts of EFL Learners”
16.10 – 16.30	Closing Remarks & Raffle			



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The Power of Self-Selected Fiction

Stephen D. Krashen

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Abstract

Research in the last few decades has provided growing support for the kind of reading many of us do regularly: reading for pleasure, reading that is not assigned but reading we select ourselves. Self-selected pleasure reading, which includes fiction, stimulates language and literacy development and can also increase our knowledge in a variety of subjects, more efficiently, in fact, than “study.” Taking advantage of the “power of reading” requires easy and inexpensive access to reading material; hence, the importance of libraries.

Keywords: pleasure reading, self-selected, fiction, libraries

Reading and Self-Selection

Recent research has led us to an extremely important hypothesis, the Comprehension Hypothesis, or the Input Hypothesis: We acquire language in only one way: By understanding messages. We do not acquire language by producing it, by speaking or writing. Rather, the ability to produce language is the result of language acquisition, not the cause.

My focus in this paper is the acquisition of language and literacy through one kind of Comprehensible Input, reading. I first review a few samples of the evidence showing that self-selected pleasure reading leads to language and literacy development, and then describe other benefits of pleasure reading.

The Positive Effect of Self-Selected Pleasure Reading

If we are to understand input, understand what we hear and read, we have to pay attention to it. This is more likely to happen if the input is interesting. Even better than merely “interesting” is “compelling”: so interesting that the hearer or reader even temporarily “forgets” what language it is written in.

Self-selection helps to ensure that the reading is interesting. Several teachers agree with the importance of self-selection. Donalyn Miller, for example, shared this observation: “No single practice inspires my students to read as much as the opportunity to choose their own books does” (Miller, 2012).



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I present here two of the many studies confirming the positive effect of self-selected pleasure reading on reading proficiency (for others, see Krashen, 2004; 2011).

Guided Self-Selected Reading

In Mason and Krashen (2017), eight students of English as a foreign language in Japan participated in a guided reading program in which they were able to select reading material of interest to them, and took the TOEIC examination, a widely used test of reading and listening. Scores on the TOEIC range from zero to 1000: Mason and Krashen reported that the average gain was .6 of a point on the TOEIC per hour of reading, with very little variation among subjects, even though they read different things. Time spent reading was the only significant predictor of gains.

This predicts that a student can move from “elementary proficiency” (able to maintain very simple face-to-face conversations on familiar topics; score of 250-400) to “international professional proficiency” (able to communicate effectively in any situation; score at threshold, 905) after three years of relaxed, self-selected reading of about one hour per day. These are, of course, predictions, based on the performance of only eight students, and for time periods of 22 weeks to several years, but the results are spectacular and deserve replication.

Sophia and Summer Self-Selected Reading

Another demonstration of the “power of reading” is Lin, Shin, and Krashen (2007). Sophia was a beginning secondary school student in US, at one time classified as “limited English proficient” but at the time of this study had been reclassified as “proficient.” Her school administered an English reading test each fall at the beginning of the academic year and again in the spring, at the end of the academic year. Of course the expectation was that students would do better on the test given in the spring, reflecting gains as a result of English class. But Sophia got worse from the fall to the spring! And then she improved over the summer, scoring higher than she did the previous fall.

What did she do during the summer? She visited the local public library and did self-selected pleasure reading, averaging 50 books each summer. She did not do this reading in order to improve her English: She did it because she enjoyed reading the books. Her favorites were among those popular with readers her age: the Nancy Drew series, the Sweet Valley High series, and books by Christy Miller.

Sophia strongly endorsed self-selection: “I really enjoy reading when there are no strings attached, when there is no book report or assignment I also like the freedom of choosing any book I wish to read. ... I believe that people would read a lot more if they find books they are fascinated by. No pressure of doing well on an assignment, but the pleasure of reading ... I know when I find a book I like, I just can't put it aside. On the other hand, when I am being forced to read, I lose interest instantly” (p. 52).



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Reading, not “Study”

We do not acquire language by studying it (conscious learning). We can occasionally use our consciously learned knowledge of language to make input more comprehensible, but this is limited. Linguists who specialize in grammar tell us that we have only described fragments of the grammar of any language.

Reading, Not Writing

DeVries (1970) compared the writing performance of two groups of 5th graders in English language arts classes. One group wrote two essays a week, as is typical in writing classes, and the students in the other group “were excused from practically all composition work ...and made use of the time ... for an increased amount of reading, in and out of class” (p. 15). After nine weeks, students in both groups wrote an essay in-class as a post-test. Essays written by the reading group were significantly better in content, mechanics, organization, and grammar.

In Lee (2005), subjects were university students of English as a foreign language in a university in Taiwan. Their English classes were traditional: they “followed standard textbooks to teach English writing, with an emphasis on patterns of organization, grammar instruction, and error detection and correction.” (p. 343). The amount of leisure reading students reported predicted writing quality, but the amount of “leisure writing” done did not.

What about Academic Language?

There is some concern that reading fiction will not provide readers with the “academic language” they need in school, but studies done so far indicate that fiction contains a surprising amount of academic language.

McQuillan (2019) analyzed the vocabulary used in 22 novels written for young people (e.g. Nancy Drew, Twilight) and reported that they contained 85% of words considered to be “academic,” that is, found in Coxhead’s Academic Word List of 570 words used in post-secondary education (e.g. academic journals, textbooks), and that are not among the most common 2000 English words (Coxhead, 2000).

McQuillan also reported that 44% of the academic words in these texts appeared at least 12 times or more, considered enough for acquisition.

McQuillan predicted that one year of reading for 30 minutes a day would result in acquisition of 37% of the academic vocabulary needed for post-secondary study.

McQuillan (2020) reported similar results for the vocabulary found in the seven Harry Potter novels.



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Other Benefits of Self-Selected Pleasure Reading

Those who read more, know more.

A number of studies confirm that those who do more self-selected reading know more about a variety of subjects, and a great deal of what these well-informed readers read is fiction.

The major study in this area is Stanovich and Cunningham (1993). College students took tests on a variety of topics, including science, social studies, current events, personal finance, health, “daily living technology,” cultural knowledge, and “multicultural literacy.” An example of a finance question was “What is the term for the amount of money charged for a loan and calculated as a percentage of that loan?”, a science question was “In what part of the body does the infection called pneumonia occur?”, for social science “Where is the Panama Canal?”. Subjects were asked if they recognized names such as Linus Pauling, Isaac Newton, and Bertrand Russell. In short, the tests included the general knowledge we would like secondary school graduates to have.

Subjects were also asked about their familiarity with current authors and magazines, using author (e.g. Stephen King, Maja Angelou) and title (Forbes, Ladies Home Journal) recognition tests. These two measures combined to make up a measure of “print exposure.” Print exposure was by the far the best predictor of the combined test battery described above. Of great interest, secondary school grade point average was a much weaker predictor and did not reach statistical significance. Exposure to TV had no value as a predictor of general knowledge.

The weak performance of grades as a predictor of general knowledge is consistent with studies of the effect of homework. Kohn (2006) has concluded that “... there is absolutely no evidence of any academic benefit from assigning homework in elementary or middle school. At the high school level, the correlation is weak and tends to disappear when more sophisticated statistical measures are applied” (Kohn, 2007).

Reading and Empathy

Fiction readers develop more understanding of others. As Terry Gross of National Public Radio’s Fresh Air puts it, when you read fiction “You’re learning to be somebody else, learning to see the world through their eyes.” (https://www.nny360.com/artsandlife/terry-gross-of-fresh-air-talks-about-the-art-of-getting-personal/article_9a9daf3e-b95d-552a-8868-bb921eaf5048.html). Experimental evidence supporting this conclusion can be found in Kidd and Castano (2013) and Djikic, Oatley and Moldoveanu, (2013).

Noam Chomsky also appreciated the value of fiction: “It is quite possible—overwhelmingly probable ... that we will always learn more about human life and personality from novels than from scientific psychology” (Chomsky, 1988, p. 159).



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Conclusions: Access and Time

The benefits of self-selected reading for pleasure are enormous: language and literacy development, knowledge, and the development of empathy. For self-selected reading to take place, however, readers need access to reading material and time to read. The access problem has an obvious solution: Research shows that literacy development and academic performance improves when school libraries are well-supplied with books and have the services of credentialed librarians (Lance, Schwarz & Rodney, 2014). Also, there is a strong positive link between circulation of children's materials in public libraries and 4th grade reading scores in local schools (Lance and Marks, 2008).

How to Raise Achievement

A typical response to the current pressure to raise achievement has been to increase homework, but as we have seen, it is possible that the time spent on homework would be better spent doing other things. Kohn (2006) endorses replacing homework with self-selected reading: "Some of the most thoughtful elementary school teachers I meet tell me that the only homework they give is to ask children to read books of their own choosing. This is a satisfying policy, first, because sustained reading ... helps children to become more proficient readers. In fact, the research supporting that conclusion is as powerful as the research supporting homework is weak. Second, authentic reading is one of the casualties of homework. For reading to be the only homework is advantageous both because of what kids are doing and what they're not doing." (p. 175).

We know now that reading does more than help children become more proficient readers. Even modest decreases in homework and modest improvements in providing access to interesting reading material might make a substantial difference in achievement, as well as making life more interesting and pleasant for teachers and students.



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The Impact of Anxiety on ELT Students' Speaking Performance

Monireh AZIMZADEH YİĞİT*

Abstract

Anxiety in EFL classrooms has long been a hot topic of research since it has always been a predictor of EFL success. The main aim of this study was to investigate the effect of foreign language anxiety (FLA) on ELT students' speaking performance regarding grade and gender. 73 preparatory class students and sophomores participated in this study. The data was collected through a questionnaire adapted from Horwitz et al. (1986). The results revealed that all EFL students suffer from anxiety to a certain extent during their oral performance; albeit, experience (grade) was not found to be effective. Additionally, male students were found to have exhibited a slightly higher level of anxiety when compared to their female counterparts.

Keywords: FLA, EFL, speaking, gender

Introduction

A lot of studies have been conducted to explore the role of “affective domain” in learning process of EFL students (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012; Huang, 2012; Hewitt & Stefenson, 2011; Riasati, 2011; Horwitz, 2010; Horwitz, 2001). As stated by Brown (1994, p.134) the emotional aspects of human behaviour or the “affective domain” consist of various personal factors that involve feelings about oneself as well as about others with whom she/he interacts. Therefore, investigation on the relation between foreign language learning and affective variables mostly concentrates on several personality factors such as self-esteem, inhibition, risk-taking, empathy, extroversion, motivation, and anxiety. These factors may have positive or negative effects on the foreign language learning process. Among these factors “anxiety” is one of the important causes that impact the success or failure of learners. It is considered one of the most vital emotional barriers in language learning and the focus studies of many second/foreign language investigators (Young, 1999; Oxford, 1999; Aida, 1994; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Young, 1991; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). Some scholars (Krashen, 1982; Curran et al., 1960) believed that anxiety hinders language learning and that teachers should create low-anxious situations for students (Huang, 2012). Foreign language anxiety was defined by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) as “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process”. Thus, the main concerns of this study were to investigate the impacts of anxiety on EFL students' speaking performance. It also tried to explore whether there was any relationship between EFL students speaking performance anxiety and their educational levels.

Literature Review

Several researches have been conducted to explore anxiety of EFL students. For example, Baş (2014) examined foreign language anxiety of high school students in Turkey. The results of

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the study showed that students' foreign language anxiety can be classified into seven subjects for instance teaching methods and techniques, fear of making the error, learning environment, teachers' attitudes, speaking activities, listening activities, and exams. In another study, Er (2015) investigated the anxiety level of Turkish children at different ages and found that there was a close relationship between Turkish foreign language learners' age and their level of anxiety in a way that as they get older, their anxiety level increases as well. Similarly, Kaygusuz (2015) investigated foreign language anxiety in preparatory classes and found that preparatory students experienced anxiety and this anxiety affected their progress negatively. Correspondingly, Aydın, Harputlu, Çelik, Uştuk, and Guzel (2017) studied foreign language anxiety of Turkish students in English language classes. The outcomes of the study revealed that exams and grammar-based activities were the vital reasons for foreign language anxiety. Likewise, they discovered that some other sources of high level anxiety in children were being unprepared before speaking in English, fear of making mistakes, unfamiliar themes, fear of failure, and being critiqued by other students. Aydın (2018) conducted a study to explore the impacts of technology on foreign language anxiety. He found that technology reduced anxiety in foreign language classes.

Aim of the study

The main purposes of this study were to investigate ELT students' speaking anxiety in English language classes and its relationship with gender and level of students. The study was carried out in English Language department of Bayburt University in Turkey. The study seeks answers to the following questions:

1. Does the level of ELT students' English language speaking anxiety differ according to their gender?
2. Does the level of ELT students' English language speaking anxiety differ according to their educational level?

Participants

The participants of this study were 73 ELT students studying at Bayburt University in academic years 2021-2022. The number of female participants was 54 while the number of male participants was 19. Likewise, 44 participants were studying at the preparatory level and 29 participants were sophomore students.

Data collection instruments

Data collection was done by using a questionnaire that was adapted from Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986). The scale contains 33 self-reported questionnaires using a five-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree).



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Data analysis

The data were analysed through descriptive and inferential statistics. To display the level of anxiety among EFL students descriptive statistics (means, standard deviation,...) were used. Besides, inferential statistics were utilized to discover if there are any significant differences or correlations among variables or groups.

Findings

The first research question of this study explores the effects of gender on EFL students' speaking anxiety levels. A paired t-test was applied to answer this question. Table 1 shows mean score anxiety level of participants in case of their gender.

Table 1. Mean score anxiety level of participants

Group Statistics					
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Mean	Female	54	3,1574	,78269	,10651
anxiety	Male	19	2,5639	,66790	,15323

As can be seen in Table 1, the mean score anxiety level of female students is (3.15) with a standard deviation of (.782) while the mean score anxiety level of male students is (2.56) with a standard deviation of (.667). Consequently, it can be concluded that female students suffered from speaking anxiety more than male students. T-Test was implemented to see differences between anxiety levels of participants regarding their gender that was shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Mean anxiety									
Equal variances assumed	,054	,817	2,946	71	,004	,59350	,20145	,19181	,99518
Equal variances not assumed			3,180	36,688	,003	,59350	,18661	,21528	,97171



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Furthermore, as Table 2 reveals the existing significant value for the anxiety level of ELT students (0.004) is lower than the significant level ($p < 0.05$) which means that there is a significant anxiety difference in the case of gender among ELT students.

The second research question of this study tried to explore if there are any differences among ELT students' levels of speaking anxiety in terms of their educational levels. Table 3 shows the mean speaking anxiety scores of ELT students according to their educational levels. Table 3 demonstrates mean score level of participants in accordance with their educational level.

Table 3. Mean score level of participants in accordance with their educational level

		Group Statistics			
Grade of students		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Mean	preparatory	44	2,9554	,70694	,10658
anxiety	sophomore	29	3,0813	,91328	,16959

As Table 3 reveals the mean anxiety score of preparatory students is (2.95) with a standard deviation of (.7069) while the mean anxiety score of sophomore students is (3.08) with the standard deviation of (.9132). Although the mean speaking anxiety level of preparatory students is lower than sophomore students, the difference is not noticeable. T-Test was applied to see the differences between anxiety levels of participants regarding their educational levels that were presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	1,309	,256	-,662	71	,510	-,12592	,19009	-,50495	,25311
Mean anxiety Equal variances not assumed			-,629	49,459	,532	-,12592	,20030	-,52835	,27650

Moreover, as can be seen in Table 4 the existing significant value of the anxiety level of ELT students (0.51) is higher than the significant level ($p > 0.05$) which means that there is not any



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significant difference among ELT students' anxiety level in terms of their educational levels. As a result, it can be concluded that ELT students suffer from speaking anxiety at different educational levels.

Conclusion

This study was carried out to investigate the relationship between speaking anxiety and the education level of ELT students. It also tried to investigate the relationship between speaking anxiety and gender among ELT students. The findings of the study reveal that all ELT students experience anxiety in their speaking classes and their educational level have no effect on the degree of anxiety they have. The results of the study also demonstrate that female students suffer from speaking anxiety more than male students. The results of this study confirm the findings of Er (2015) and Aydın et.al, (2017) who found that Turkish students experience anxiety in their speaking classes. Similarly, the finding of this study is in line with the result of Kaygusuz's (2015) study who found that speaking anxiety of students in preparatory classes affects their progress negatively.

As the result of the study showed and the literature review presented anxiety has affected ELT students negatively thus some precautions should be taken by teachers in their speaking classes. This study recommends pieces of advice for teachers. First of all, as teachers ask a question about a topic, students need time to think about it, organize their answer and then discuss it in class. This will take time and teachers should give enough time for students they should not ask a question about a topic and then wait for students to answer as soon as possible. Secondly, teachers can ask students to work in pairs or small groups and discuss the given topic and then as they are ready, they can share it with their classmates. Finally, teachers should make it clear that making mistakes are ordinary and these mistakes can be considered phases of learning. Thus, students should not be ashamed of their mistakes as they speak.



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Placement of Question Particle in L1 and L2 Acquisition of Turkish

Deniz COŞKUN*

Abstract

This paper focuses on the placement of the question particle “*mI*” (a vowel-harmonic particle with four alternants: -*m₁*, -*m_i*, -*mu*, -*mü*.) in alternative questions during L1 and L2 acquisition of Turkish. Comparing child L1 Turkish and L2 Turkish, we can see that children form grammatically correct interrogative sentences in terms of the placement of the particle *mI* once it starts to appear in their productions, while L2 productions show problems of placement even after years of exposure to native Turkish. Ungrammatical productions are studied in this paper to track the reasons that caused them. For the L1 examples, CHILDES corpus and the analyses by Aksu-Koç and Ketez are used. For the L2 examples, productions from adult L2 Turkish speakers with different ages of onset are used. The theoretical explanations this paper suggests for explaining the reasons behind the placement errors in L2 acquisition and studying further into this topic may be instructive and help improve certain methodological details in teaching Turkish as a foreign language.

Keywords: question particle, language acquisition, second language acquisition, Turkish, Turkish as a second language

Placement of Question Particle in L1 and L2 Acquisition of Turkish

There are two possible ways to construct interrogative sentences in Turkish: wh-questions constructed with the wh-phrases, and polar or alternative questions constructed with the question particle *mI* (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005) (a vowel-harmonic particle with four alternants: -*m₁*, -*m_i*, -*mu*, -*mü*.) where the question particle is affixed to the verb. This paper compares the placement of *mI* in L1 and L2 acquisition of Turkish to further study the ungrammaticalities in L2 acquisition, their potential explanations and proposes potential strategies in the discussion part by referencing linguistic and learning theories.

Grammatically correct placement of “*mI*”

The question particle in Turkish (written *mI* hereinafter) is a vowel-harmonic particle with four alternants: -*m₁*, -*m_i*, -*mu*, -*mü*, that precedes the first agreement paradigm (see Table 1 explaining how agreement particles are combined with tense-aspect-mood (TAM) particles) and thus appears between TAM and the agreement particle (1a), and follows all other agreement paradigms (1b).

1a. gel -ir mi -siniz come PRES Q 2PL	1b. gel -di -niz mi come PAST 2PL Q
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Table 1 *The four agreement paradigms in Turkish*

	I. (-Iyor, -mİş, - AcAk, -Ir, -mAll, ∅)	II. (-dİ, -sA)	III. (-yA)	IV. imperative
1S	-y(Im)	-m	-(y)Im	-
2S	-sIn	-n	-sIn	∅
3S	∅	∅	(-sIn)	-sIn
1P	-Iz	-k	-Allm	-
2P	-sInIz	-nIz	-sInIz	-In(Iz)
3P	-lAr	-lAr	-lAr(-sInlAr)	-sInlAr

(Aksu-Koç, A., & Ketrez, F. N., 2003)

Polar question construction in child L1 Turkish

Through previous L1 acquisition research and data from CHILDES corpus, we can say that children speaking Turkish as their native language in a Turkish-speaking environment start producing question sentences at around 1;6 in the unmarked form of 3rd person singular (2a). The affixation grows more complex in a very short time and children may use the particle with the 1st agreement paradigms (2b) by 1;9. According to Aksu-Koç and Ketrez (2003), who analysed the spontaneous productions of a Turkish monolingual child between the ages 1;3 and 2;0, there is no error in the use of the question particle. We can also see from the CHILDES corpus that children at 2;8 are able to place the question particle correctly in various agreement paradigms, even in morphologically complex constructions (2c/d) that are hard to form for Turkish L2 speakers.

(2a) de -di mi
say PAST (3SG) Q

(2c) bil -iyor mu-sun
know PROG Q 2SG

(2b) de -r mi -sin
say PRES Q 2SG

(2d) kur -ar mı -sin
set PRES Q 2SG

Polar question construction in L2 Turkish

In order to see the question forming abilities, a basic question construction test¹ was applied to

¹ Question construction test includes six sentences in total, and participants are asked to form the grammatically correct question for those sentences presented as answers.

Three of those answers are formed to make participants mimic the spontaneous question production of children in Aksu-Koç and Ketrez's (2003) analyses and CHILDES corpus.



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two Turkish L2 multilingual speakers² and two adults³ who had attended Turkish classes for less than a year. After they completed the test, participants were asked to elaborate on the reasons why they chose the placement strategies they had used.

Maintaining the focus on the question particle, phonetic errors are not studied in this paper and possible explanations for placement errors are proposed in the discussion.

Below are the ungrammatical productions by the participants:

F:
(3a) *bil -mi -yor -um?
know NEG PROG 1SG

M:
(3b) *gir -ecek-sin mi?
enter FUT 2SG Q

G:
(4a) *bil mi-yor?
know Q PROG
(4b) *iç mi -miş -ti -m?
drink Q REP.PAST PAST 1SG

MA:
(4c) *ye -di mi-niz?
eat PAST Q 2PL
(4d) *yap-tı mı-sın?
do PAST Q 2SG

Discussion

Comparing child L1 Turkish and L2 Turkish, it is clear that children form grammatically correct interrogative sentences once they start using the question particle *mi*, while L2 speakers may have problems with placement even after being exposed to native Turkish for years.

As Aksu-Koç and Ketrez (2003) point out, the late use of the question particle in L1 acquisition is compatible with Slobin's (1973) "avoid interruptions" operating principle. This may also explain L2 speakers' tendency of placing the particle after the first agreement paradigm where it should precede it (3b) and thus break the affixation into two separate pieces. The same principle may be linked to the productions of participant G, who, after separating them from the verbal stem, grouped the question particle and the inflectional morphemes together (4a/b).

However, another approach is required to explain the ungrammatical productions of participant MA (4c/d), who interrupts the unity of affixation when it is not required, thus working with an unexpected strategy if we consider "avoid interruptions" operating principle the expected way of production. The shared L1 with participant G eliminates the potential explanation by the effect of native language since the same kind of interruption does not occur in their productions. An elaboration on the placement strategies by the participant suggests another reason in this case: the teaching material. MA is an adult who followed a Turkish language course in a foreign environment, lacking native input except for the pre-determined course material that provided examples in the present progressive tense for introducing the basic grammatical rules of

² M: 35 years old, age of onset: 12, L1: Azerbaijani. F: 23 years old, age of onset: 8, L1: Persian.

³ G: 28 years old, age of onset: 27, L1: Italian. MA: 29 years old, age of onset: 23, L1: Italian.



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Turkish. Following the familiar pattern in the examples, MA's explanation for the ungrammatical productions is the fact that they assumed there was one placement strategy to follow for the question particle, which is the one used for the present progressive (2c), falling under the first agreement paradigm category in Table 1. The rule MA overgeneralized as their strategy is that *mI* precedes the first agreement paradigm (Table 1).

Knowing the steps that led to the ungrammatical productions of MA were intertwined with teaching strategies, this paper links the overgeneralization phenomenon to Tennyson and Merrill's (1992) classification of examples and nonexamples and proposes adapting certain teaching strategies following Tennyson and Park (1980), and Karataş Coşkun (2011). In the case of MA, the participant encountered examples from the first agreement paradigm only, and so was deprived of the nonexamples that are second, third and fourth agreement paradigms. As Tennyson and Park (1980) summarize, when various examples are given without comparison to nonexamples, problems of overgeneralization arise. In order to avoid creating confusion and to have positive learning outcomes, in her research Karataş Coşkun (2011) points out the importance of using nonexamples at the right stage of the teaching process. To prevent similar overgeneralization cases, this paper proposes providing nonexamples too (sentences requiring the use of the second, third and fourth agreement paradigms) together with examples, to familiarize the learners with more than one way of grammatically correct affixation. Both linguistic and educational research would benefit from further studies on the ideal stage for introducing nonexamples in similar cases.



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Perspectives of Turkish High School EFL Learners on the Language Learning Strategies

Yunus Kürşat ÇELİK*

Abstract

While learning another language, students usually set themselves some sort of plans and strategies. These plans and strategies differ from one person to another, and there is not just one true way of setting a strategy. In this study, sophomore students at Mehmet Akif Ersoy Anatolian High School located in Uludere, Şırnak, Turkey were asked for their opinion about Language Learning Strategies (LLS). The study involved 71 high school EFL learners in responding to a closed-ended questionnaire and 5 of them in answering the semi-structured interview questions. This study aims at exploring the level of awareness and already established strategies of Turkish high school EFL learners for language learning.

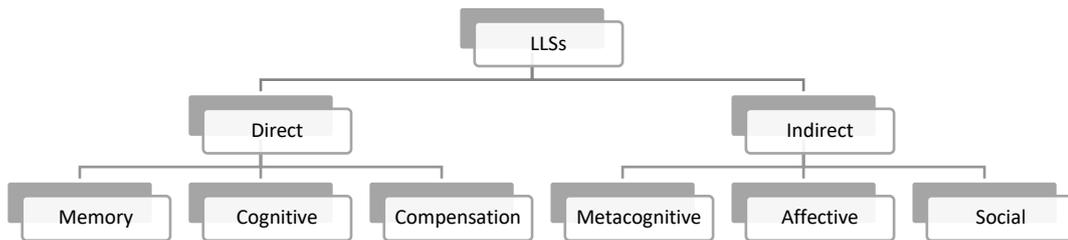
Keywords: language learning strategies, high school students, Turkish EFL context

Introduction

Language Learning Strategies (LLS) have various definitions. Oxford (1990) defines them as 'LLS are specific actions taken by learners to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable'. In other words, to affect learning positively, some actions are ought to be taken. Cohen (2014) states that LLS are useful for the target language acquisition and competence development of the target language. Both theorists found LLS useful for better learning practices.

In terms of categorization, Oxford (1990) states the two major categories of LLS as direct and indirect and divides these categories into 6 subcategories (memory, cognitive, and compensation are under the direct classification, metacognitive, affective, and social are under the indirect classification). See **Figure 1** to have a deeper understanding of the categorization.

Figure 1 *Categorization of Language Learning Strategies*



Note. The figure shows the categorization of LLS. Adapted from Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. New York: Newbury House.

Under direct classification, memory strategies are used among learners for recalling the vocabulary from their storage for example by matching an imaginary picture and the word

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itself, cognitive strategies necessitate lots of repetition, practice, analysis, and reasoning, and compensation strategies include guessing intelligently and getting help when it is needed.

Under the indirect classification, metacognitive strategies include centering, arranging, planning, and evaluating the learning process, affective strategies are about lowering anxiety and raising self-confidence, and social strategies are useful in asking and answering questions, cooperating, and empathizing with others (Oxford, 1990).

Of course, using LLS comes with numerous benefits. Many people believe that learning a foreign language is demanding and one of the most important processes to succeed. In some countries, it is even more important than university marks for a better career. For these reasons, while learning a foreign language, it is more important to focus on how to learn rather than what to learn (Hardan, 2013). Also, when the characteristics of the learner, the learning goal, and the context combine, they can be seen as an overall picture of effective strategy use (Griffiths, 2015).

There is numerous research in this area. Altunay (2014) for example, found out that Turkish distance learners of EFL use LLS sometimes. They rarely use affective strategies. The reason stems from the higher anxiety levels of the learners caused by low proficiency and lack of motivation. Lem (2019) for example, found out that Vietnamese high school students apply LLS at a medium frequency, although free reading and writing activities are not preferable. Also, Duong & Nguyen (2021) demonstrated that Vietnamese high school students use 6 subcategories of LLS at a medium level, too. The most preferred strategy category was metacognitive, and the least preferred strategy category was memory. According to the researchers LLS are supposed to be integrated into lessons in order to increase learner autonomy.

Although there are many studies on LLS worldwide, there are not many studies in the context of high school students in Turkey. So, the study aims to address the following research questions:

1. What are the most used LLS among Turkish high school EFL learners?
2. How do Turkish high school EFL learners benefit from LLS?

Methodology

Participants

The research involved 71 out of 77 students attending 10th grade in Uludere Mehmet Akif Ersoy Anatolian High School. 6 students either did not volunteer for the study or did not attend the class on the day the survey was given. The participants were in their fourteenth to fifteenth years old, and they had been taking English classes for approximately 9 years. None of the participants had encountered the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) before, it was their first experience in terms of evaluating their strategies for language learning. So, the results should be interpreted accordingly.

Instruments

For this mixed-method study, the Turkish-translated adaptation of Oxford's (1990) SILL was



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used as a closed-ended questionnaire which is called Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri Envanteri (DÖSE). Cesur & Seval (2007) indicate that DÖSE is a successful translation that proved to be valid and reliable and can be used in scientific research. The reason the Likert scale is used in this study is that over the years, probably the most used strategy research instrument is the Likert scale which can be beneficial when it is used with care (Griffiths & Oxford, 2014). The questionnaire was rated as (1= Never or almost never true of me, 2= Usually not true of me, 3= Somewhat true of me, 4= Usually true of me, 5= Always or almost always true of me). Thus, participants had more control over the evaluation because of the flexibility (Cohen, 2014).

For the triangulation of the data, a semi-structured interview was used. The benefit of the interview is not only restricted to the triangulation, but also a good choice for learning about the participants' own views and definitions of LLS. They were asked 'What do you think about English learning strategies in general?', 'Which strategies from the inventory here work best for you, and why?', and 'How do you benefit from using these strategies?'.

In order to prove the reliability of the questionnaire, Cronbach's Alpha was applied to all the items and the result is highly reliable with .942.

Data Collection

The data for the questionnaire were collected from the participants who were selected according to the convenience sampling method. This method was beneficial for the study because all the participants who volunteered for the questionnaire were willing to take part.

The questionnaire was handed out to the participants on paper. They were asked to rate their own strategies for language learning according to the frequency from 1 (Never or almost never true of me) to 5 (Always or almost always true of me).

For the semi-structured interview, the participants were selected according to voluntary response sampling. In this way, time efficiency in accessing the participants was established. In addition, participants who wanted to express their opinion on a deeper level had a chance to state their minds. The interview was established in Turkish in order to increase validity and reliability for a better understanding of the participants. The audio-recorded data were transcribed and translated from Turkish to English.

Data Analysis

To analyze quantitative data, SPSS Software Version 26 was used. Mean scores are the basis for understanding and interpreting the results of each closed-ended questionnaire item. Oxford (1990) states that in order to understand the averages, the questionnaire items should be rated like the following: 1.0 to 2.4 indicates a low, 2.5 to 3.4 shows a medium, and 3.5 to 5.0 indicates a high level of strategy usage. The collected qualitative data was analyzed through NVivo software version 1.5.1.



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Findings & Discussion

Findings

Six LLS were analyzed statistically in terms of mean score and standard deviation. The strategies were lined in descending order according to the mean score. It is observable in **Table 1** that the most used strategy is Metacognitive with $M=3.322$, $SD=1.345$. The second most one is Compensation with $M=3.145$, $SD=1.398$. The following one is Social with $M=3.098$, $SD=1.385$. Then Memory with $M=3.001$, $SD=1.298$. Cognitive with $M=2.812$, $SD=1.331$. And the least used strategy is Affective with $M=2.708$, $SD=1.383$.

Table 1. *Descriptive Statistics for Six LLS Categories*

Category	Level	n=71	
		M	SD
Metacognitive Strategies (METS) Part D	Medium	3,322	1,345
Compensation Strategies (COMS) Part C	Medium	3,145	1,398
Social Strategies (SOCS) Part F	Medium	3,098	1,385
Memory Strategies (MEMS) Part A	Medium	3,001	1,298
Cognitive Strategies (COGS) Part B	Medium	2,812	1,331
Affective Strategies (AFFS) Part E	Medium	2,708	1,383
Average	Medium	3,014	1,356

Descriptive statistics are used to gain insights into LLS employment for the students surveyed. For each category, along with qualitative data from semi-structured interviews, quantitative data, is shown starting with metacognitive strategies in **Table 2**.

Table 2. *Metacognitive Strategies*

Category	Item	Level	n=71	
			M	SD
Metacognitive Strategies (METS)	METS3. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	High	4.03	1.191
	METS4. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	High	3.82	1.376
	METS8. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	Medium	3.40	1.428
	METS6. I look for people I can talk to in English.	Medium	3.37	1.476
	METS1. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	Medium	3.17	1.318
	METS2. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	Medium	3.17	1.485
	METS9. I think about my progress in learning English.	Medium	3.17	1.329
	METS7. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	Medium	3.13	1.350
	METS5. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	Medium	2.64	1.155
Average		Medium	3,322	1,345



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Among nine metacognitive strategies, students mostly preferred paying attention when someone is speaking English and trying to find out how to be a better learner of English with $M=4.03$, and $M=3.82$. The usage frequency of these items is high level according to the participants. The remaining items are used moderately.

Students also stated their opinion about their choice of metacognitive strategies through the semi-structured interviews:

‘When someone speaks English, I try to listen carefully. This improves my speaking skills and increases my pronunciation skills.’ (Student D)

‘These strategies allow me to talk to people and have a broad knowledge of the language’ (Student A)

The most preferred strategy among compensation strategies was the first item in **Table 3**. It turns out participants make guesses about unknown words at a high level with $M=3.58$. The other items are used at a moderate level.

Table 3. *Compensation Strategies*

Category	Item	Level	n=71	
			M	SD
Compensation Strategies (COMS)	COMS1. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	High	3.58	1.370
	COMS2. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	Medium	3.23	1.466
	COMS6. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	Medium	3.21	1.295
	COMS5. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	Medium	3.18	1.407
	COMS3. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	Medium	2.99	1.581
	COMS4. I read English without looking up every new word.	Medium	2.68	1.274
Average		Medium	3,145	1,398

Participants who frequently used compensation strategies stated their minds during the interview:

‘While reading, I try to understand the whole text, if I understand the text in general, I can make inferences for the word I do not know.’ (Student B)

‘If a word does not come to my mind when speaking in English, I use another word with the same meaning.’ (Student D)

Social strategies are shown in **Table 4**. The most used strategies from this category are the first two items. Asking for repetition in case of an understanding gap is with $M=3.97$ and asking English speakers for correction is with $M=3.54$. It can be referred from the table that practicing among students is not preferable with a very low usage with $M=1.82$.



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Table 4. *Social Strategies*

Category	Item	Level	n=71	
			M	SD
Social Strategies (SOCS)	SOCS1. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	High	3.97	1.454
	SOCS2. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	High	3.54	1.548
	SOCS4. I ask for help from English speakers.	Medium	3.32	1.481
	SOCS6. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	Medium	3.01	1.545
	SOCS5. I ask questions in English.	Medium	2.93	1.211
	SOCS3. I practice English with other students.	Low	1.82	1.073
Average		Medium	3,098	1,385

Although some students did not prefer social strategies, some are still interested in them:

‘For example, I try to teach English to my friends so that we can use it more.’ (Student D)

‘Sometimes I video chat with my sister, and I try to speak English with her and her friends.’ (Student. A)

In **Table 5**, memory strategies are shown. While physically acting out new English words strategy usage is low with M=2.35, the rest of them are used moderately.

Table 5. *Memory Strategies*

Category	Item	Level	n=71	
			M	SD
Memory Strategies (MEMS)	MEMS9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	Medium	3.35	1.425
	MEMS3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help remember the word.	Medium	3.31	1.337
	MEMS1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.	Medium	3.17	1.179
	MEMS4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	Medium	3.14	1.322
	MEMS8. I review English lessons often.	Medium	3.10	1.071
	MEMS5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.	Medium	3.01	1.419
	MEMS6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.	Medium	2.86	1.515
	MEMS2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.	Medium	2.72	1.221
	MEMS7. I physically act out new English words.	Low	2.35	1.293
Average		Medium	3,001	1,298

One of the students who uses memory strategies states:

‘I can use newly learned words in sentences because, in this way, they are more memorable. When I can't think of the word, I try to remember that sentence. When I remember this sentence, the word probably will come to my mind as well.’ (Student B)



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Among cognitive strategies in **Table 6**, saying or writing new English words several times is the most preferred strategy with $M=3.93$. Students do not prefer using some of the items such as finding the meaning of a word by dividing the sentence into parts with $M=2.42$, starting conversations in English with $M=2.25$, making summaries with $M=2.24$, practicing pronunciation with $M=2.20$, and writing notes, messages, letters, or reports with $M=2.04$. The rest of the items are used moderately.

Table 6. *Cognitive Strategies*

Category	Item	Level	n=71	
			M	SD
Cognitive Strategies (COGS)	COGS1. I say or write new English words several times.	High	3.93	1.175
	COGS9. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	Medium	3.49	1.252
	COGS2. I try to talk like native English speakers.	Medium	3.41	1.409
	COGS10. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	Medium	3.26	1.390
	COGS7. I read for pleasure in English.	Medium	3.14	1.478
	COGS6. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	Medium	2.90	1.587
	COGS13. I try not to translate word-for-word.	Medium	2.84	1.431
	COGS4. I use the English words I know in different ways.	Medium	2.69	1.269
	COGS11. I try to find patterns in English.	Medium	2.56	1.235
	COGS12. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	Low	2.42	1.272
	COGS5. I start conversations in English.	Low	2.25	1.277
	COGS14. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	Low	2.24	1.247
	COGS3. I practice the sounds of English.	Low	2.20	1.235
	COGS8. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.	Low	2.04	1.377
Average		Medium	2,812	1,331

Some students stated their minds about cognitive strategies:

‘For example, watching English TV shows helps me understand English.’ (Student C)

‘Instead of watching English language TV shows spoken in English, I practice by playing games. Games are full of new words and help me learn new words easily.’ (Student A)

The affective strategies category shown in **Table 7** is the least preferred category among students. Talking to someone else about feelings while learning English is used at a low level with $M=2.46$. The least preferred strategy is writing down feelings in a language learning diary with $M=1.61$.



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Table 7: Affective Strategies

Category	Item	Level	n=71	
			M	SD
Affective Strategies (AFFS)	AFFS4. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	Medium	3.39	1.347
	AFFS1. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	Medium	3.06	1.372
	AFFS2. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	Medium	2.90	1.416
	AFFS3. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	Medium	2.83	1.567
	AFFS6. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	Low	2.46	1.557
	AFFS5. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	Low	1.61	1.040
Average		Medium	2,708	1,383

One of the students who suffered from this category states:

‘When I speak English, I sometimes feel anxious, but when I practice more, my anxiety decreases.’ (Student E)

Discussion

The average LLS usage score is 3,014, indicating moderate LLS usage. It is sufficient to say that the results show that Turkish EFL learners are generally moderate strategic users in terms of using the overall strategy. This result is consistent with the results of studies conducted in other EFL contexts (Rahimi et al., 2008 in Iran; Deneme, 2008 in Turkey; Alnujaidi, 2018 in Saudi Arabia; Lem, 2019; Duong & Nguyen, 2021 in Vietnam). In addition, the participants used most LLS at moderate levels ranging from 2.56 to 3.49. The results indicate that while the most preferred strategy category is metacognitive, the least preferred one is affective.

In terms of metacognitive strategies, this study is consistent with the contexts of (Deneme, 2008; Alnujaidi, 2018; Duong & Nguyen, 2021). In all these studies, metacognitive is the most preferred category. It can be inferred that high school students in Turkey, also like centering, planning, and evaluating the learning process just like other contexts.

As compensation strategies took second place in this study, it can be understood that high school students in Turkey compensate for the unknown vocabulary by making guesses, inferring from the passages, etc.

The interest of Turkish high school students in social strategies should not be underestimated, too. The study shows that they seek opportunities to express themselves in the target language. It is a really important discovery because it shows that students are aware of the social contribution of the language. For them, language should be used as a communication tool, not just be written on paper.

Memory Strategies are in the moderate level of usage. Students use memory strategies for retrieving the vocabulary from their minds by using different tactics such as using new



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vocabulary items in sentences. In this way, they try to recall the sentence to get to the target vocabulary.

Cognitive Strategies necessitate reasoning, analysis, and drawing conclusions according to Oxford (1990). The reason cognitive strategies are not used very often is Turkish high school students do not prefer repetition drills, analyzing newly acquired structures in different contexts. As they often use compensation strategies rather than cognitive strategies, it can be inferred that they lack planned study habits, and further research should be done for this hypothesis.

Affective Strategies are the least preferred strategy among six LLS. Turkish high school students do not use affective strategies very often. There might be two different reasons of the results. They either do not feel the need of managing their emotions, encourage themselves and lower their anxiety while speaking or listening in English, or their anxiety is so high that they had already given up on relaxing themselves. According to Altunay (2014), the reason stems from the lack of proficiency and motivation that results in high anxiety levels among students in the distance learning context. However, further research should be done on this topic for classroom learning context, too.

Conclusion

This study was conducted to investigate the frequency of LLS used by Turkish high school students. The results of the study showed that students used six LLS categories at the moderate level. In particular, metacognitive strategies were identified as the most-used category, but affective strategies were the least selected. From this, it can be concluded that Turkish high school students seem to recognize the importance of learning English and therefore have adopted strategies to promote their learning. However, the incidence of LLS is not high.

Although there are not many studies in the context of high school students in Turkey about the usage of LLS, the present study contributes to the study of LLS in the context of language learning in Turkey.



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An Analysis on Grammatical Collocations in Written Texts of EFL Learners

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Abstract

Vocabulary acquisition requires a great deal of collocational knowledge and competence. This requirement is prevalent in first language acquisition, second language acquisition and foreign language learning as well. Foreign language learners with sufficient collocational competence can convey their messages accurately and fluently in the target language. In addition, since collocations are the units which consist of a string of two or more than two words from different parts of speech, language learners have the chance to master the lexical webs, their associations and syntagmatic patterns in their oral and written production in the target language. In this respect, this study primarily investigates grammatical collocations in the written texts produced by A1 level Turkish foreign language learners of English who studied at Çukurova University School of Foreign Languages during the 2020-2021 academic year. The data were analyzed through AntConc 4.0.5 (Anthony, 2022) corpus analysis tool.

Keywords: collocation, grammatical collocation, written corpus, AntConc

Introduction

As a significant component of foreign language learning and teaching, formulaic sequences have priority when compared to single units in vocabulary acquisition since they enable language learners employ accurate and fluent production, and prompt language learners to avoid vocabulary errors lexically, semantically and sequentially. Wray (2008) defines formulaic sequences as multi-word units having a number of communicative functions which are necessary for language users and learners in order to produce appropriate language use in compliance with a variety of contexts in their discourses. Formulaic sequences involve a variety of sequential unit types, such as idioms (e.g., “*She always copies my work, she’s such a copycat.*”), proverbs (e.g., “*The roots of education are bitter, but the fruit is sweet.*”), lexical bundles (e.g., “*It should be noted that.../I don’t know that...*”), conventionalized expressions (e.g., “*Knowledge is a river and education is like a stairway.*”) and collocations (e.g., *rough crossing, remotely clear, have breakfast*).

Among the formulaic sequences, collocations hold a great part in a language and the need to teach and master collocations in foreign language teaching and learning is necessary since some of the collocation types embody more literal denotations than other types like idioms, proverbs and so on. Literal meaning recognition is the first phase of meaning interpretation for foreign language learners to go through, which enable them figure out meanings and produce appropriate utterances in oral and written discourses before accessing to more complex and

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complicated processes of production. In this respect, exposing foreign language learners to collocations is necessary to enable them hurdle lexical and production barriers.

Literature Review

The Concept of “Collocation”

The term collocation was first used by Palmer (1933, as cited in Nation, 2001, p. 317) as “a string of words that “must or should be learned, or is best or most conveniently learned as an integral whole or independent entity, rather than by the process of piecing together their component parts”. After two decades, from a linguistic point of view, Firth (1957) known as the father of the concept of collocation elaborated the meaning as habitual and recurrent juxtaposition of semantically related words (cited in Alonso, Millon & Williams, 2011). Since then, it has been defined by many researchers in the field by prioritizing its various aspects.

Howarth (1998, p. 24) emphasizes the function of collocations by defining them as “combinations of words with a syntactic function as constituents of sentences (such as noun or prepositional phrases or verb and object constructions)”. In Henriksen’s study (2013), collocations are considered as two-to-three word syntagmatic units which frequently recur including either lexical or grammatical words, such as verb + noun (*pay tribute*), adjective + noun (*hot spice*), preposition + noun (*on guard*) and adjective + preposition (*immuneto*). Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992, p.121) define collocations as ‘strings of words that seem to have certain mutual expectancy or a-greater-than-chance likelihood that they will co-occur in any text’. The common viewpoint regarding the definitions of collocation is that these linguistic units are recurrent lexical items which have definite syntagmatic relations and they serve for the communicative actions in every context; therefore, it would not be wrong to state that collocations are also context, language and culture-specific.

Based on the definitions of collocation put forward in the literature, various taxonomies have been proposed to identify, distinguish and classify the different types of collocation since these language units have been studied in different fields, such as corpus linguistics, semantics, phraseology and so on. For example, Howarth (1998) categorized a list of word combinations by using a native speaker corpus and entitled the categories as free combinations, restricted collocations (L1, L2, L3), figurative idiom and pure idiom. Another taxonomy was put forward by Benson, Benson and Ilson (1986a). Benson et al (1986a) classified collocations into two main types: *grammatical collocations* (e.g., *by chance*) and *lexical collocations* (e.g., *valuable asset*). This classification contains eight main types of grammatical collocations and seven types of lexical collocations. These two classes of collocations represent two distinct but related aspects of collocations as they include both lexis and grammar. According to Benson et al. (1997), a grammatical collocation consists of a grouping of a dominant word (verb, noun, adjective) and a grammatical word (e.g., preposition), like *make up* (verb and preposition), *concerned about* (adjective and preposition), and *a choice between* (noun and preposition). To



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Benson and his colleagues, lexical collocations may appear as combinations of verb+noun (e.g., compose music), adjective+noun (e.g., strong tea), noun+verb (e.g., bombs explode), adverb+adjective (e.g., deeply absorbed), and verb+adverb (e.g., argue heatedly).

The Importance of Collocation in EFL

To be competent at production of the target language, vocabulary acquisition holds a prominent place and collocations are the most important component of lexicon. However, acquiring those units is really challenging for foreign language learners, even they are sometimes unable to comprehend and use collocations accurately and appropriately regarding the context. In most of the cases, foreign language learners know the literal meanings of the single units separately, but since they cannot comprehend and internalize collocations, they are mostly unable to convey the accurate meanings in different contexts. Mostly, the underlying reason of this deficiency is that the collocations in the target language operate differently in the native languages of the foreign language learners. Therefore, foreign language learners need to internalize appropriate use of collocations in order to create effective and accurate language use.

In the literature, the importance of collocation use has been considered to a large extent by a lot of researchers, including linguists, lexicographers, foreign language experts and so on. Based on the views, some benefits of collocation use have been stated as that collocational competence is important for language production and reception (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2009; Durrant, 2008) and it enables foreign language learners to make idiomatic choices and their production sounds native-like (Columbus, 2010). In addition, having command of collocation use provides language learners process the target language fluently in its context (Ellis et al., 2008). Foreign language learners also have the chance to distinguish the meanings among some polysemous words (e.g., 'serve', 'bank', 'record', 'mouse') depending on different contexts by their collocational knowledge (e.g., 'They serve read meat', 'She served as Canadian ambassador'; 'I have to go to the bank to apply for a loan', 'Let's take a walk near the river bank'). To highlight the significance of collocations, Taiwo (2004) states that collocations are central parts to the vocabulary learning and EFL learners' meaningful and effective output highly depends on their storage of collocations. Similarly, Fan (2009) signifies that collocational competence is essential for effective communication since it enables foreign language learners match up with target language users.

Studies Conducted on Collocations

Various positive outcomes of collocation use have driven researchers examine the phenomenon of collocations from several perspectives. Jiang (2009) and Siyanova and Schmitt (2008) conducted researches to reveal foreign language learners' native-like use of collocations; Chen (2008) and Laufer and Waldman (2011) examined language learners' erroneous use of collocation structures. Nesselhauf (2003) investigated the effect of L1 transfer on L2 collocational use. Vassiljev, Skopinskaja and Liiv (2015) examined the types of collocations



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used in written texts of the coursebooks. Özata (2020) investigated the amount and types of English collocations which TR pre-intermediate and advanced L2 learners utilized in their in-class writings. The study also aimed to identify the mistakes learners made when they produced English collocations. The results of the study signified that learners' proficiency level was a determinant regarding the amount of L2 collocation produced accurately in the essays.

Another study which aimed to identify the types of verb collocation used in the reading texts of EFL coursebooks (four coursebooks, 162 reading texts in total) conducted by Dinçer, Buğra and Serintürk (2019) revealed that five main categories of verb type collocations “*verb+noun*, *verb+verb (infinitive, gerund, causative)*, *verb+preposition*, *verb+adjective*, *verb+adverb*”. It was found out that the coursebooks employ the *verb+noun* category as 697, *verb+preposition* as 654, *verb+verb* as 141, *verb+adverb* as 106 and *verb+adjective* as 49 in frequency. The findings of the analysis showed that the four books do not coincide with each other regarding the most frequent main verbs that form collocations.

Dukali (2018) searched on the types of collocational errors employed by Libyan learners in a writing task. Three broad categories of errors, namely, grammatical errors, lexical errors and errors regarding usage. Similarly, Chen (2008) also explored the erroneous use of collocations in the writings of Taiwanese L2 learners of English and reported that the most frequent type of grammatical collocational errors was noun+preposition. Noun+preposition collocation type was the most difficult kind of grammatical collocation for the students.

Aim of the Study

Throughout the years, we have been evaluating our students' papers regarding grammar, vocabulary, spelling, content, discoursal aspects and mostly we have come across a lot of collocation and preposition mistakes for many years. Finding the right component for a word to give the correct meaning has always been a challenge for them. In this regard, the present study aims to analyze grammatical collocation types in A1 level students' written texts which they have written during the achievement and final exams held in the academic year 2020-2021 at School of Foreign Languages, Çukurova University. In this context, the research questions of this study are two-fold:

R.Q.1: What types of grammatical collocations are used by the students in the texts they have written during the exams?

R.Q.2: What are the most frequent types of grammatical collocations produced by the students in the exams?

Method

This study on the production of grammatical collocations by Turkish foreign language learners of English is a small-scale learner corpus study and descriptive in nature.



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Participants

In the academic year 2020-2021, 162 A1 level Turkish foreign language learners of English who studied at School of Foreign Languages at Cukurova University participated in this study.

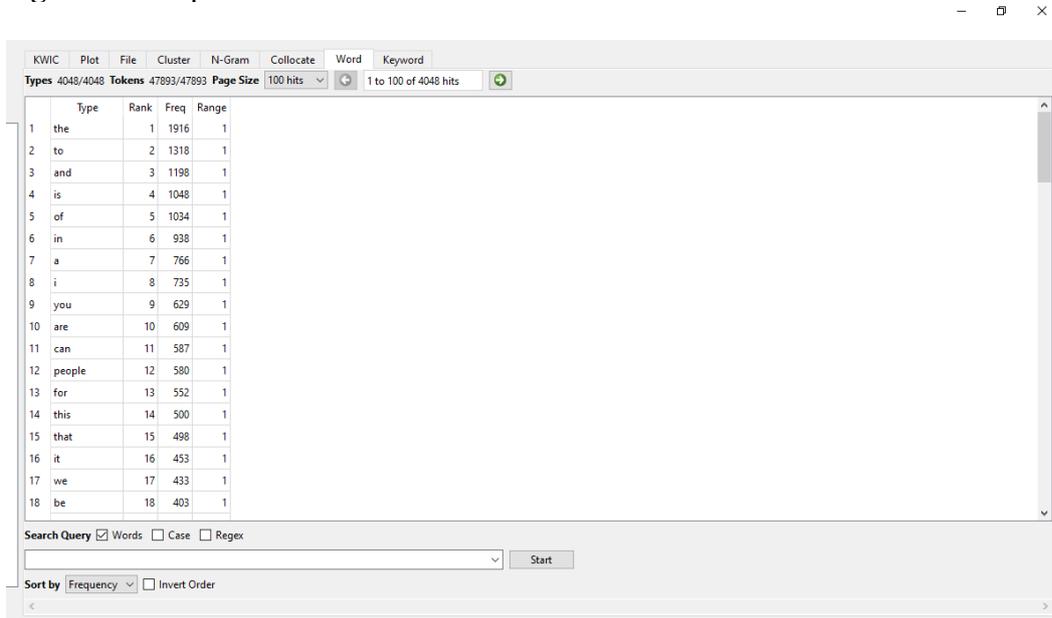
Data

The data were obtained through the exams which 162 A1 level Turkish foreign language learners of English took throughout the 2020-2021 academic year. The exams composed of achievement and final exams, four exams in total. Within these exams, the students' writing sections were gathered and transformed into text document format and uploaded to the AntConc4.0.5 software (Anthony, 2022).

Data Analysis

After all the writing texts were compiled in text document format, the corpus of the study was created. As the next step, using AntConc 4.0.5. (Anthony, 2022) corpus analysis tool, the most frequent adjectives, nouns and verbs were identified using the *Wordcount* feature of AntConc 4.0.5 (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Sample Wordcount Window from AntConc 4.0.5



The first 100 adjectives, nouns and verbs were detected by the researchers. Then, the adjectives, nouns and verbs that can be used as node words while forming grammatical collocations (node word + preposition) were identified. These node words were searched in the corpus using the *Key Word in Context* feature of AntConc 4.0.5 (Anthony, 2022). Figure 2 below shows how



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the node word *-advantages* in this case- is searched in the corpus in order to detect the collocations formed with that word.

Figure 2. Sample Keyword in Context Window from AntConc 4.0.5

File	Left Context	Hit	Right Context
P1 final.txt	One of these is online education which there are some	advantages	and disadvantages. According to my, this situation's disadvantages
P1 final.txt	is discussed by a lot of learners.It has some	advantages	and disadvantages. There are some advantages of online education.
P1 final.txt	one of these amenities is online banking, of course, has	advantages	and disadvantages. Dear Madam, I am writing about a
P1 final.txt	Living in a technological home is good but there are	advantages	and disadvantages. The most important advantage is high technology
P1 final.txt	education was started to spread the virus. This has many	advantages	and disadvantages. Its advantages were the first to remove
P1 final.txt	country.You must wait long long days. There are many	advantages	of online banking. The First advantage is that direct
P1 final.txt	hearing from you. Yours sincerely, Başak ÇETINKAYA There are many	advantages	of online banking. First of all, you can faster
P1 final.txt	I look forward hearing you. ONLINE BANKING There are various	advantages	of online banking. The first advantage is online banking
P1 final.txt	for me too. Now I want to talk about the	advantages	of online classes and disadvantages of face-to-face
P1 final.txt	Online education has its advantages and disadvantages. One of the	advantages	of online education is reduced costs. Disadvantages are expensive
P1 final.txt	learners.It has some advantages and disadvantages. There are some	advantages	of online education.Firstly you don't have to
P1 final.txt	ADVANTAGES OF LIVING IN A SMART HOME There are many	advantages	of living in a smart home. The first advantage
P1 final.txt	about these in this article. I will first explain the	advantages	of living in a smart home. The first advantage
P1 final.txt	two kinds of schools. In my opinion, there are many	advantages	of a face-to-face class, first of all,
P1 final.txt	some advantages and disadvantages in several aspects. There are some	advantages	of education online. To start with, thanks to online

As a final step, the grammatical collocation types '*verb+preposition*', '*noun+preposition*', '*adjective+preposition*' formed with the node words under investigation were identified and listed.

Findings

Table 1 below shows the frequencies and the percentages of the types of node words and the grammatical collocation types instantiated by those noun, verb and adjective nodes.

Table 1. Grammatical Collocation Types and Frequencies

Node Word	<i>f</i>	Grammatical Collocation	<i>f</i>	%
Noun	1791	Noun + prep.	417	23.28
Verb	1043	Verb + prep.	285	27.32
Adjective	1186	Adjective + prep.	207	17.45



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Collocations Formed with Nouns

In the corpus, 1791 nouns that can be node words in grammatical collocations were used in the written exams by the students and among 1791 nouns 417 of them comprise noun+preposition grammatical collocation type, which means the usage of noun+preposition collocation accounts for 23.28 %.

This finding may show that the students are not able to use noun+preposition grammatical collocation type enough which means they do not have enough collocational knowledge to produce those items.

Although the language level of the students is A1, there would be a lot more production, given that nouns as part of speech are the first language items that are acquired and learnt when compared to the other parts of speech, such as adjectives, verbs and so on.

Finally, most of these nouns identified as node words in the data were either provided in the writing instructions of the exams or at least the nature of the writing tasks affected the nouns selected by the students. Thus, we can conclude that compared to free writing tasks, the instructions given to students in the exams shapes the content of their written works.

Collocations Formed with Verbs

In the students' written text corpus, all the frequent verbs, all inflections included, were sorted out and it was found that out of 1043 verbs that could be used as node words in collocations, 285 of them were used to form verb+preposition collocations by the students.

Collocations Formed with Adjectives

There are 1186 node adjective usages in total. However, only 207 adjective+preposition collocation formations are detected in the corpus. The percentage of adjective collocations is 17.45. Although the number of adjective usage is high in the students' writings, the usage of adjective+preposition combination is too low.

In fact, syntactically and semantically the reason of why a wide range of adjectives were employed in the written texts by the students is that adjectives precede nouns in their native language, which is Turkish, (e.g., güzel kız (TR) / beautiful girl (ENG) invariably in the target foreign language, which is English in our context. Despite this syntagmatic similarity between the two languages, the findings show that the students had difficulty in producing adjective+preposition collocation considerably.

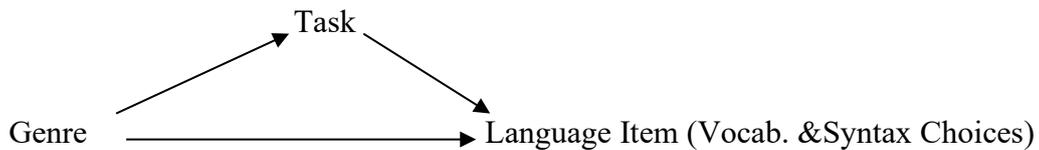
Most of the adjectives are used both in the sentence-final position and adjective+ noun formation. This shows that both in coursebooks and in the presentation parts of the lessons students are not exposed enough to adj + preposition formations. For example, the word *depressed* could be used with *about* or *for*. However, no such usage was observed in the data. Instead, the adjective *depressed* was found to collocate mostly with the verb *get*.



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It is assumed that some adjectives were used highly and the reason for that may be the genre of the writing tasks given to students. For example, in one of the entries “online + x (in this case noun)” formation accounts for 168, which is the highest in the rank of the adjective usage, because the task given was about the advantages of online education. Therefore, a series of “online education” was employed in the writings although no use of the grammatical collocation, adjective+preposition took place in the texts.

Figure 3. The Interrelationship between Task, Genre and Language Item



Sample Sentences from the Corpus

“The world can be boring for you because of this situation.”

“One of the benefits of distance education is related to education, teaching time.”

“But I do not agree with this opinion.”

“My city is Idlib, it is famous for oriental food and vegetarian foods.”

“Korea is a country that cares about science and technology.”

“The best way to express yourself is speaking a language.”

Table 2. The 10 Most Frequent Grammatical Collocation Formations

Rank	Noun + Prep.	<i>f</i>	Adjective + Prep.	<i>f</i>	Verb + Prep	<i>f</i>
1.	advantage(s) of	46	easier / easy to	27	go to	50
2.	cause(s) of	32	important (x) in	23	live in	29
3.	disadvantage(s) of	31	good / better for	16	deal with	22
4.	way(s) to	30	important for	15	Talk about	17
5.	effect(s) of	29	unhappy with	12	lead to	15
6.	number of	27	famous for	10	Come to	11
	problem(s) with	27				
7.	at home	26	another (x) of	8	look at	10
8.	result(s) of	19	another (x)to	7	Listen to	9
	at night	19	effective for	7	Communicate with	9
			different from	7		
9.	reason(s) for	15	harmful to	6	wait for	8
			difficult to	6	happen to	8
					agree with	8
10.	effect(s) on	14	bad for	5	charge for	7
			best (x) of	5		



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Table 2 shows the ten most frequent grammatical collocations employed by the students while they were doing their writing exams, and the most frequent noun+preposition grammatical collocations vary from “advantages of” to “effects on”, the combinations of adjective+preposition grammatical collocation include a variety of usages as well, such as “easy to, important in, good for, unhappy with, famous for, another of/for, effective for, different from, harmful to, difficult to, bad for and best of”. The third grammatical collocation type ‘verb+preposition’ produced by the students vary from “go to” to “charge for”.

Conclusion

Table 1 shows the frequencies of the node words (nouns, verbs, adjectives) and grammatical collocation types which were identified in the students’ writings that comprise the data. Regarding the nouns, the highest frequency belongs to the noun category with 1791 tokens. The adjectives as nodes were used with the frequency 1186 and the verbs with the frequency 1043. When the frequencies and percentages of grammatical collocation types are examined, noun+preposition formation by the students accounts for 23.28 % and verb+preposition type accounts for 27.32 %. The lowest usage of grammatical collocation type is adjective+preposition category (17.45 %).

Limitations to the study

The written output of students from only one level was under investigation. The corpus was not very large and not all the adjectives, verbs and nouns used by the students were in the scope of this study. The nature of the tasks in the exams had an impact on the lexical choices of the students. As a result, the written texts of these students were not naturally formed / created.

Implications

Based on the findings of the study we suggest that for preparatory class students, booklets designed specifically for teaching and practising grammatical collocations can be used. Coursebooks that highly employ grammatical collocations should be used and presenting them in a cyclic way should be considered with these group of students in higher education.



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Online Teaching Experiences of Turkish EFL Instructors during the COVID-19 Pandemic

Tolunay EKİZ*

Abstract

Online teaching and face-to-face teaching are completely different in nature requiring different teaching skills and teacher competencies. During the Covid-19 pandemic, most of the English language instructors at foreign language or preparatory schools of universities in Turkey had to immerse in online teaching with little or no professional development opportunities and/or preparations about their new roles. This study aims to explore the experiences of English language instructors at School of Foreign Languages, Çukurova University, Adana, Turkey who had to cope with the demands and challenges of teaching English online during their transition from face-to-face teaching to the new online teaching model due to the COVID-19 pandemic. The findings imply that language teachers should be encouraged to critically think about their own learning as active participants and adapt to online teaching through collaborative professional development programs. In addition, prospective teachers in ELT departments and other education faculties should be guided into how to learn and how to look for solutions to educational and pedagogical problems using the technology by working collaboratively within the Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) framework proposed by Koehler et al (2007). Thus, they can understand the intertwined relationship between content, pedagogy, and technology and design their teaching content and context accordingly.

Keywords: Online teaching, adult learning, Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK), Covid-19 pandemic

Introduction

Since Baran et al (2011) did a critical research about the changing roles and competencies of teachers together with the increasing demand for online courses starting from 1990s, teaching online has grabbed a considerable amount of attention. Such studies have recently gained greater importance since the world is now facing a mandatory shift to online or hybrid education due to the Covid-19 pandemic. Teachers' unexpected and emergent transformation to learning how to teach online can be a good example of transformative learning, a theory proposed by Mezirow in 1978. Mezirow (2000) defines this theory as 'a way of problem solving by defining a problem or by redefining or reframing the problem' (p. 20).

The key idea in this learning is a continuous process of reflection on experience and questioning and rethinking about values, beliefs, assumptions and practises, thus becoming an autonomous adult learner. Adult learners need to be critical thinkers as well as reflective individuals who are open to new ideas, which can be provided through dialogues in a social environment. This means the theory is basically grounded in constructivist learning theory, which is directly connected with learner experiences of adults where the focus is on contextualising learning by relating to their life experiences (Reushle, 2008).

Throughout this self-teaching, teachers reflect on their new roles in online education instead of accepting the roles and competencies given by an authority. As Baran et al (2011) state, 'the

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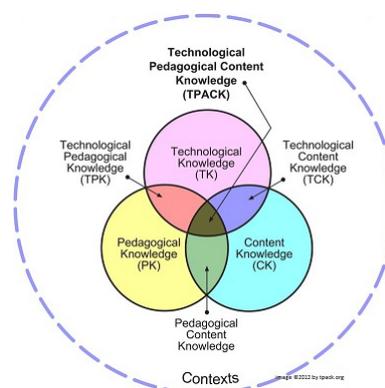
notion of emphasizing standards-driven, technical, one-size-fits-all online teaching approaches is insufficient for addressing the complex educational needs of each unique online teaching context' (p.431). As a result, as Barret (2010) explains, 'virtual instructors today need to develop and enhance their teaching strategies and methodologies in order to meet the growing needs of today's online learning population' (p.18).

While in the 20th century teacher education was based on content knowledge, later on the focus was primarily on pedagogy; thus they were considered separate and independent. Shulman (1986) combined the two by introducing pedagogical content knowledge. Similarly, today, technological knowledge is often considered to be independent from pedagogical and content knowledge. However, with the advent of technology towards the end of the 20th century, teachers also had to learn to integrate technology into their teaching.

In the case of the COVID-19 pandemic, online teachers literally have had to switch to new ways of enhancing learning for their online students to meet their ever-changing needs. At this point, Koehler et al (2007) mention the importance of understanding the relationship between content, pedagogy, and technology and the contexts in which they function. Thus, they propose Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK), which integrates technology in pedagogy and content; thus, interweaving all three, guides teachers in discovering how technology can be used in designing learning environments and provides implications for teacher education and professional development.

According to Mishra & Koehler (2006), the foundation of effective technology-enhanced instruction is TPACK, which calls for an understanding of the representation of concepts using technologies, pedagogical techniques that use technology to teach content constructively, knowledge of what makes concepts difficult or easy to learn and how technology can help solve some of the issues that students face, knowledge of students' prior knowledge and 'theories of epistemology, and knowledge of how technologies can be used to build on existing knowledge and to develop new epistemologies or strengthen old ones (p.1029).

Figure 1. The TPACK framework and its knowledge components. (image ©2012 by tpack.org)

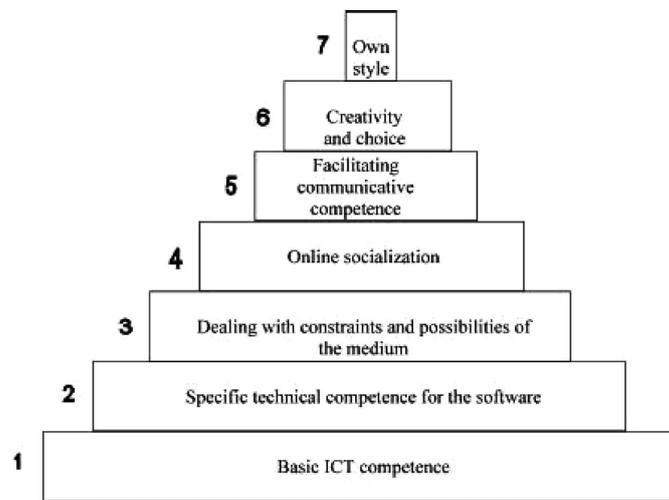




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As Compton (2009) suggests, many teacher training programmes help them use technology and gain the necessary computing skills but they do not actually help with how to use technology in language teaching. As Mishra and Koehler (2006) suggest, 'merely introducing technology to the educational process is not enough' (p.1018). In fact, Hampel & Stickler (2005) say that gaining new teaching skills and rediscovering teaching approaches are vital especially in online language teaching as language teaching is all about communication, and they identify the key skills of online language teachers ranging from the most general technology skills to higher level of skills in the skills pyramid (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Skills Pyramid (Hampel & Stickler, 2005, p. 317)



They assert that building collaboration and interaction among students in an online context is very different from in a face-to-face classroom; therefore, online teachers should be aware of the opportunities for students to communicate during the online interaction and should try to facilitate students' participation and increase their language production (p. 321). That is why the competencies in the pyramid are essential and can be achieved through well-designed tasks and creativity in using online tools (p. 319).

When the key skills of language teachers are developed according to the Skills Pyramid (Hampel & Stickler, 2005), the issue of changing teacher roles raises because as Baran et al (2011) state, 'the online environment changes the fundamental nature of the interaction between the teacher, student, and content, requiring a re-examination of the roles teachers take in enhancing students' learning' (p.429). Goodyear et al (2001) described main roles of online teachers as process facilitator, advisor/counsellor, assessor, researcher, content facilitator, technologist, designer, and manager/administrator, and Aydın (2005) added to these content expert, instructional designer, and materials producer. All these roles that are undertaken by online teachers emphasize the importance of facilitation, with the main responsibility being development and maintenance of an online learning environment.



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As teachers struggle with their changing roles, swap their board marker and whiteboard with digital tools, rethink their values, and reflect on their new experiences, it is vital that they are supported emotionally and are given the chance to upgrade their professional skills in a constructive environment through sharing and socialization.

Methodology

The online teaching experiences of EFL instructors at Foreign Languages Centre, Çukurova University, who had to cope with the demands and challenges of teaching English online during their transition from face-to-face teaching to the new online teaching model due to the COVID-19 pandemic, were explored based on four research questions.

1. To what extent did the EFL instructors use digital tools before they had to teach online?
2. How did they adapt to online teaching in terms of managing stress and challenges, adapting materials, lesson plans, and assignments?
3. What did they think of their online classroom environment?
4. What do their emergent online experiences implicate for pre-service teacher education?

Due to curfews and social distancing rules during the pandemic, the data was gathered online via teacher questionnaire created using Google Forms and semi-structured interviews. The online questionnaire consisted of four different parts including demographic information about participants, questions about instructors' previous experiences of online teaching, Likert-type questions ranging from Certainly Agree to Certainly Disagree about their online teaching experience during the pandemic; and the fourth part consisted of open-ended questions about their online classes and students. A total of 61 English language instructors from Foreign Language School at Çukurova University, Adana, Turkey participated in the survey. However, only five of them volunteered to be interviewed. Average years of experience in the institution was 20.1.

Results

The results are discussed in line with the research questions.

1. *To what extent did the EFL instructors use digital tools before they had to teach online?*

Table 1. Online training and teaching experiences of the participants

	N=61
had not got any professional training about online teaching before the COVID-19 breakout	88.7%
kept track of student work via emails or online tools	80.6%
did not have any online language teaching experience before the pandemic	74.2%
had never used online classroom tools like Google classroom or Edmodo	70.5%
benefited from online educational tools or applications like Kahoot and Quizlet	58.1%



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Table 1 shows that the rate of language instructors who had not got any professional training about online teaching before the COVID-19 breakout is 88.7%. In parallel to this result, the rate of those who did not have any online language teaching experience before the pandemic is 74.2%. 70.5% of the participants stated they had never used online classroom tools like Google Classroom or Edmodo.

These high rates may mean that the majority of the participants did not *need* to or *have to* teach online until they had to due to the lockdowns. However, 58.1% of the language instructors stated that they benefit from online educational tools or applications like Kahoot and Quizlet while teaching English and 80.6% said that they kept track of student work via emails or online tools. Although this may seem like a contradiction, it may also show that the majority of the participants are open-minded about using technological tools in the traditional classroom. However, considering 20 out of 61 (32.7 %) of the instructors expressed in the survey that one thing increasing their level of stress during online teaching is fear of technical problems and lack of computer skills, it can give us the clue that these teachers do not feel competent or comfortable enough to teach online. The participants also expressed their level of technology use as excellent (25.8%), good (46.8%) and neither good nor bad (25.8%). Therefore, it can be concluded that despite their limited technological knowledge, the participants are prone to the fear of using it due to unprecedented problems.

Although this incompetence, hesitation or fear may be related to how many hours of computer education the participants had during their university education in their departments or the extent to which they upgraded their professional skills, it may also be a result of the years they spent in face-to-face language teaching since the average years of experience of the participants in language teaching is 20.1, with the newest instructor teaching for 4 years and the most experienced teaching for 34 years.

2. How did they adapt to online teaching in terms of managing stress and challenges, adapting materials, lesson plans and assignments?

In the third part of the questionnaire, the participants were asked about their adaptation period to online teaching. The percentage of participants who revealed that they certainly agreed that they enjoyed teaching online is 16.4%. On the other hand, the rate of those who felt nervous during online teaching is 52.5%. One participant revealed a reason for feeling nervous by saying 'recording my classes – I feel like I'm being put on the spot. Classrooms – virtual or physical – should be a safe and judgment-free space for all shareholders involved. I think students feel more pressured as well.' Another reason for nervousness revealed by participants is fear of technical problems and lack of computer skills (32.7%).



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Table 2. Rates of amendments in online teaching

	N=61		
	Certainly agree	Agree	Partly agree
had to change/adapt materials and course design	27.9%	41%	31.1%
spent more time finding digital materials, checking assignments and giving feedback	34.4%	26.2%	23%

Table 2 shows the percentage of English language instructors who stated that they had to make some amendments in their online teaching such as changing their course design and materials during the pandemic. 31.1% partly agreed that they had to make changes, 41% agreed and 27.9% certainly agreed that they had to make the necessary amendments in their online language teaching. As several participants emphasized in the interviews, 'not being able to use the board effectively' to give examples and make drawings, the difficulty of 'promoting interaction among students and doing pair and group work' and 'finding the right and useful sources' as well as 'lack of face-to-face interaction' all contributed to taking a step forward to amend the course designs and teaching materials. All these changes seem to mean more need and use of time for the instructors as 34.4% of the participants certainly agreed that they had to devote more time to finding digital materials, checking assignments and giving feedback. The participating instructors stated that not only did they have to take time modifying their teaching, but also had to spend a good amount of time googling to learn about how to convert to teaching online by reading blogs, articles and webpages (75.4%), and exchanging ideas about online language teaching with colleagues (88.5%). These were the steps to adapting to their new roles as online teachers.

3. *What did they think of their online classroom environment?*

When asked about the drawbacks of teaching English online, the majority of the participants (59%) stated that the biggest disadvantage was technical problems and 26.2% mentioned internet loss as these cuts blocked their teaching most, followed by a rate of 24.5% saying keeping the interaction with students behind a screen and motivating them to participate and learn was the most challenging part of teaching online. Other drawbacks mentioned were low student participation and/or motivation (16.3%), having no face-to-face interaction and eye contact with students (9.8%), finding and/or designing useful online materials (6.5%), internet connection problems (6.5%), not being able to use the board (6.5%) and being home with young kids around (4.9%).

In the study, the best part of teaching English online was found to be the flexibility of time and place in teaching (40.9%). The teachers seemed happy to adjust teaching times to their comfort and some of them stated that not having to commute saved them a lot of time. Also, some participants emphasized that being home was 'really comfy' as they could get their coffee and do domestic errands during breaks. This was followed by the opportunity to use various tools and materials in teaching (9.8%) as they had the chance to discover some useful online



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materials and internet tools. Some participants even used mobile apps like Quizlet to boost interest in classes turning learning English to competition and fun.

4. What do their emergent online experiences implicate for pre-service teacher education?

The participants were asked in the questionnaire and the interviews what they would suggest ELT departments include in their curriculum for prospective teachers considering their emergent online teaching experiences. One suggestion was having distance education as a module in micro-teaching lessons. A participant expressed the need for ELT departments to include online teaching in their curriculum by saying 'Face-to-face teaching time can be reduced. I believe young people don't benefit from traditional classroom environment as much as older generations do. They need more technology involved in learning.' Another participant said universities should offer courses on online testing as well as online teaching. Classes about how to engage technology in teaching are also offered by another participant as 'students can be familiar with new web tools or the use of educational technologies' in practice as well as in theory. Almost all participants agreed that students of teaching faculties should learn how to use the technology in the classroom and to use the technology to teach an online classroom in a systematic and professional way before they graduate from the department and get in the field, and not only in an occurrence of a pandemic as in our case.

The study also included a part where participants were asked to reflect on what they would have done more differently if they had known that they would have to teach online one day. Nearly half of the participants (47.5%) stated that they would have improved their technology skills, especially computer skills, to prepare for teaching in this technological era. In the interview, a participant intensified this by saying s/he had to spend a lot of time trying to figure out how to use a new and unfamiliar online platform on an old laptop. 16.3% said they would have been more curious about producing online materials and managing online platforms, and 4 out of 61 participants stated that they would have learnt about how to manage an online classroom.

Discussion

Koehler and Mishra (2009) emphasize that many teachers received degrees at a time when educational technology was at a much earlier stage of development than it is now. It is not surprising, then they say, that teachers do not believe they are adequately prepared to use technology in the classroom and frequently do not recognize its value or relevance to teaching and learning. Thus, they believe that the 'TPACK framework can guide further research and curriculum development work in the area of teacher education and teacher professional development around technology' (Mishra & Koehler, 2006).

The *learning technology by design* approach proposed by Koehler et al (2007) can be benefited in ELT departments and other education faculties in order to help prospective teachers learn how to learn and how to think when they are looking for solutions to educational and pedagogical problems using the technology by working collaboratively within the TPACK



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framework. Thus, they can understand the intertwined relationship between content, pedagogy, and technology and design their teaching content and context accordingly.

Teachers can be provided with a collaborative working environment, where they can take up roles both as teachers and adult learners, empowered by research. As Baran et al (2011) state, 'teachers need to be guided in finding ways to support their learners' independence and autonomy in the online environment'. Hampel & Stickler (2005) also focus on action research and encouragement of self-development through taking a reflective role in online teaching to ensure that the 'tutors will carry on delivering the best quality teaching'. The focus of online teacher preparation and professional development programs should thus be on inviting online teachers to consider alternate views and reference frames by means of meetings, whether face-to-face or web-based. This should be done because when they change their roles into being an online teacher, teachers often feel 'uncertain, uneasy, and unprepared for the challenges of teaching online, and also lacking in the tools and conditions that they use to establish their expertise and teacher persona in the traditional classrooms' (Baran et al, 2011).

To sum up, face-to-face or web-based meetings for training the instructors, creating opportunities for exchanging peer views, starting action research, and encouraging taking a reflective role in online teaching are some of the options that institutions have to ensure and increase the quality of teaching. However, teachers are the ones to invest time and effort in this learning and developing process. Therefore, it should be a joint effort of the institution and the teachers to develop a proper online language teaching pedagogy.

Teacher support groups can also encourage collaboration and sharing of experiences, as an interviewee said, 'Teacher support groups have helped more by cooperating, sharing their experiences correcting each other, sending videos and links.'

It should be administrators' mission to help teachers create time to update their professional skills and they should support teachers in their adult learning process. If possible and needed, they should collaborate with other institutions, such as higher education institutions, to help them gain new skills in the use of technology. Another beneficial act could be adding TPACK frame to curriculums of education faculties in order to empower student teachers with technology use to suit their pedagogical objectives. This is crucial because, as Mishra & Koehler (2006) state, 'the ability to learn and adapt to new technologies (irrespective of what the specific technologies are) will still be important'. We should hope that 'enhancing tutors' awareness of the differences between face-to-face and online teaching—above a purely technical level—will make it easier for them to demand training and development in this area.' (Hampel & Stickler, 2005)



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A Critical Discourse Analysis Approach to Identity and Power Relation in Language

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Abstract

The term "language" itself has been subject to a lot of debates, research and studies in terms of its meaning, function and significance to people. As Fairclough (1989) puts it, language is a part of society, a social process as well as being a socially conditioned process. He expresses that there is not an external relationship between language and society but an internal and dialectical one. That is, language might be regarded as a bridge of comprehension, self-expression, a medium between one's all socio-cultural background and the new context while s(he) is trying to express himself. Contextual clues of utterances need further understanding in a social interaction, which requires a deeper outlook beyond the surface meaning of a dialogue between two people. This study provides a detailed description of a dialogue between the researcher and an old man when they encountered in the street. A deeper insight into the conversation will provide significant clues about the societal and contextual meaning of a simple dialogue as well as a thorough analysis of power and identity relations in a specific context. The dialogue will be analyzed by Fairclough's (1989) Critical Discourse Analysis Model, which has got three main components, description, interpretation and explanation. This analysis is supposed to provide significant clues about the background intention and meaning of utterances and power relations between an old man and a young person, which conclusively will emphasize the deeper understanding of contextual and societal use of language.

Keywords: Critical discourse analysis, power and identity, contextual meaning

Introduction

Language and Identity Relation

Language is a part of society, a social process as well as being a socially conditioned process, having internal and dialectical relationship. It is a bridge of comprehension, self-expression, a medium between one's all sociocultural background and the new context while he is trying to express himself (Fairclough, 1989). The function of language as a tool for communication cliché might be too simplistic approach to the definition of it as language plays very significant and differing functions which are constantly changing according to social and contextual functions. Within the new technological age in which most of the people are involved in social media now, definition of language has taken over new interpretations. For instance, in line with the changing and globalizing world via social media, social media has also altered the nature and definitions of the languages of the world, which has also impinged on the teaching of four foundational skills leading students to develop those skills outside the schools (Gökmen, 2022). As the language itself is facing new interpretations, it might be inevitable for the functions to be affected by related changes as well.

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Identity issue, on the other hand, has got a mutual relationship with language in which both of them may have a shaping function in a specific context. Identity can have individual and social norms for which people choose to be understood and appraised by others as well as the person's understanding the others. People employ differing identities according to the emergent needs of their social environment (Gumperz, 1982; Miller, 1997). Identities are re/created socially, interpersonally in ever changing interactions and social contexts. Our needs to convey meanings while we are speaking are shaped by the language we use in that specific interactional environment and even in a small dialogue like the one analyzed here; we can detect power and identity shifts conveyed by the language used.

Llmas and Watt (2010) expressed that texts and language mutually have got a boundless relationship and they affect almost every aspect of our daily lives. Language itself plays a very crucial role in that it is a way to convey who we are, what kind of sense of belonging there is, why or how we see people or ourselves in their eyes. According to Fairclough (1989), language is a means of showing power and identity relations in social interactions, which vary a lot in terms of emerging contexts in daily life.

Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is all about studying or evaluating the written or spoken forms of language which can include the relations between power, dominance, inequality and differing identities, all of which may have a dynamic relation within themselves (Van Dijk, 1998). Various social, political or historical contexts play a role in those identity shifts. According to Wodak and Meyer (2008), critical discourse analysis analyses the extent and ever changing relationship between power, dominance, discrimination or control issues which are all conveyed by the language itself. That language may hinder hints as for description, legalization, medium of control and social force which can shape our identities in a certain context.

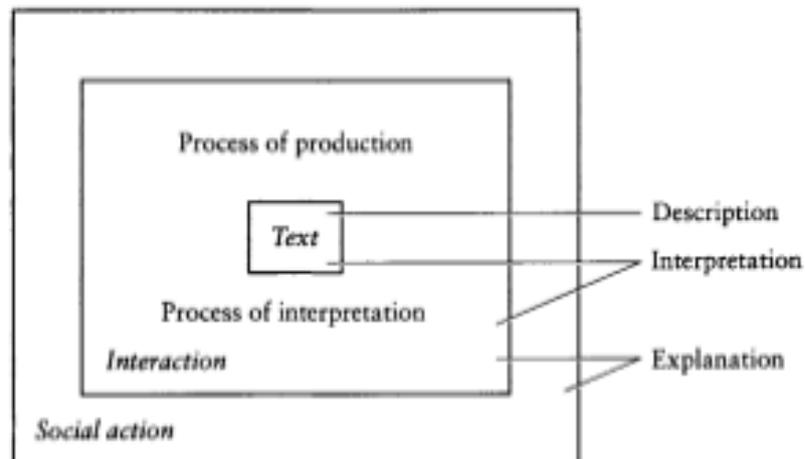
The Aim of the Study

This study aims at highlighting the importance of language which is used as a means to show the relationship of power and identity in a small dialectic context (See Appendix 1). In order to analyze a small dialogue, the researcher used Fairclough's (1989) three dimensional model in which a surface level of the text is analyzed in terms of vocabulary, grammar and textual structures in description part, sentence level in interpretation part and finally socio-contextual dimensions of the text are evaluated in interpretation part. The figure below shows the connection between the parts of the model.



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Figure 1 *A Three-Dimensional View of Discourse Analysis (Fairclough, 2013)*



Research Question: What kind of role does language play in terms of power and identity shifts in a small dialogue?

Findings and Discussion

The conversation to be analyzed here took place in a southern town of Turkey while the researcher was walking idly after a tiring day of MA courses with one cigarette in hand. While he was walking, an old man dressed in traditional Southeastern clothes, stopped the researcher and started a dialogue. Even this small dialogue could show the power and identity shift in a real life context according to emerging and changing situations. The researcher had been living in a southeastern town for 18 years and he was definitely familiar with the general profile of people there. The old man was dressed in a traditional way, which directly may have caused some kind of prejudice from the researcher. With a small hesitation, the old man stopped the researcher and started the dialogue with a direct statement.

“Sorry to interrupt, boy. Please do not misunderstand me.”

Description

Vocabulary

The old man used very simple and kind words to make himself understood. The repetition of two sentences and usage of «Please» several times is used probably to express his hesitation to interrupt the walking and some kind of anxiety to be misunderstood. On the other hand, the researcher used direct answers like «Ok, Yes, Yes, Ok» trying to understand what the old man was trying to tell him. Very short answers like these might also show his reluctance to go on the conversation. He may just be willing to continue his way.



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Grammar

As can be seen in the dialogue, very simple sentences are used. Direct speech is used mainly. The old man used several imperative sentences; «Please do not misunderstand» to make an apology for interruption.

Sometimes those imperative sentences could be used to show sincerity and acquaintance, which is not the case here. We can see several differing meanings of those imperative sentences in the dialogue according to the emerging contexts. For example,

- «Please do not misunderstand me». (Apology)
- «Do not smoke that cigarette.» (warning)
- «Do not spoil your health.» (warning plus a little anger as to why somebody was smoking to impair health)

Textual Structures

There seems to be no control of power in the text. We may only see the short cut answers from the researchers in order to finish the conversation as early as possible because at first the researchers thought that the man might be a beggar asking for money, which unfortunately ended up with a feeling of shame when he understood the real intention of the old man.

Interpretation

The repetition of the following utterance;

«Look! I know Turkish, Kurdish and Arabic.» is used to show the old man's identity and his somehow inferiority towards the other speaker. By means of acknowledging that he knows three languages, he might be trying to prove his worthiness to be listened. He might have been trying to prove his literacy and wisdom before he gave a very important suggestion about smoking.

On the other hand, the researcher's very short answers to the old man's acknowledgement continue till the end of the conversation to show the reluctance of speaking with some kind of prejudice towards the man thinking that he might be a beggar.

«I lived and saw a lot of things in my life. Please do not misunderstand. I am not a totally illiterate person.»

This utterance from the old man is also used to prove the worthiness of his suggestion. He is trying to make sure that he is a wise man though he does not look so. He is worthy of listening. Most probably he did not get a formal education throughout his life however he is trying to say he is literate by means of his life experiences.

«Please take these grapes and do not smoke that cigarette.»

Presenting a bunch of grapes with an imperative sentence to prevent a bad habit of smoking might be the climax of this conversation. This attitude is a very pure and humanly behaviour



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to help somebody to get rid of such a bad habit.

«Have a good day! (with a proud and happy smile on the face)»

The old man was happy to have been listened and to have given a very valuable suggestion to the young man. He might have felt more worthy of being listened by a seemingly educated young man.

Explanation

The role of language in a sociocultural context;

We can see from the dialogue that the language used seems to be very simple on surface level but hides a lot of clues beyond the utterances which might be;

- Generation gap
- Literacy versus illiteracy
- Prejudices
- A very pure and humanly attitude

The identity shift of researcher and the old man:

- The researcher was ashamed at the end as he thought the old man might be a beggar and the old man was transformed to be a wise man who was listened by a much younger man.

Power relation:

- The attitude of the researcher with short sentences and the struggle of the man to prove he was worthy of being listened.
- The good intentions of Anatolian people:
- As in history, Anatolian people are ready to share anything for good intentions even if they are poor.

Conclusion

As can be seen from a very small dialogue, language plays a very important role to show the power and identity relations in social environments as well as changing roles or meanings according to the emerging contexts. The conversation took place for almost two minutes and it shows how discursive values simple sentences or utterances might take over in a very short period. There were various identity shifts like a literate person, the researcher and an illiterate one even regarded to be a beggar, who turned out to be an old wise man at the end and the researcher becoming a young man who might be unaware of the long term effects of smoking. The power and control passed from the researcher to the old man by means of his valuable humanly attitude towards the intervention to a bad habit. It might be concluded here that language plays a very important role as to convey deeper meanings in very seemingly simple words or utterances.



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We may suggest from these results that ELT courses should emphasize more about the discursive function of language as very simple sentences may function for several contextual meanings. By means of discourse analysis, students may understand differing functions of language instead of just saying «Language is for communication.» Methodologically, language use is not a linear route but a very complex phenomenon changing according to emerging sociocultural contexts.



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Appendix 1

An encounter between the researcher (aged 42) and an old man (probably in his mid-seventies) in a Southern town in Turkey.

The researcher was walking idly on the street after a tiring day of PhD courses, a cigarette in one hand.

The old man was dressed in a typical local dress from Southeast Turkey, which the researcher was aware of as he had been living in a southeastern town for 18 years.

Old Man: (The old man stopped him suddenly) Sorry to interrupt, boy. Please do not misunderstand me.

Researcher: Yes, uncle.

Old Man: Please do not misunderstand. Look! I know Turkish, Kurdish and Arabic.

Researcher: Ok.

Old Man: Look! I know Turkish, Kurdish and Arabic. I will tell you something.

Researcher: (Thinking he might be a beggar with a mixture of frown and empathy on the face.) Yes, Ok.

Old Man: I lived and saw a lot of things in my life. Please Do not misunderstand. I am not a totally illiterate person. (Most probably he did not get any training at school) (reaching a bunch of grapes from his bag.) Please take these grapes and do not smoke that cigarette. Smoking is dangerous and you are too young. Do not spoil your health.

Researcher: Ok uncle. (with embarrassment on the face, throwing away the cigarette immediately.) Thank you very much.

Old Man: Have a good day! (with a proud and happy smile on the face)

Researcher: Good day, uncle.



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An Investigation towards Intercultural Sensitivity within Turkish Context

Seda GÜLER*

Abstract

In today's globalized world, the intercultural communicative competence (ICC) of learners plays a significant role in foreign language learning. At an expanding rate, people from all around the world are having interconnected cooperation and experience. Thus, intercultural awareness needs to be maintained by foreign language learners to understand and communicate effectively with their various interlocutors. In this study, Chen and Starosta's (2000) five-factor model of intercultural sensitivity (IS) that assesses the emotional dimensions of ICC was conducted to examine the IS of language learners which is vital to enhance harmony in today's multilingual and multinational societies. This study aims to view the level of IS of high school English language learners that affects the motivation, efforts, and time put out by the learners in language learning. It also attempts to explore the relationship of gender and academic achievement to the IS level of the learners. 170 high school students from two different High Schools were the participants of this study. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) program was utilized to analyze the quantitative data. The finding of the study reveals that in both schools, learners have a high level of intercultural sensitivity; they are willing to communicate and are sensitive to communication competence. Based on learners' responses to the ISS, the scores of the learners of both schools were not statistically different, yet results show that gender has an impact on the sensitivity scores of the learners and females are significantly more sensitive than males regarding ICC.

Keywords: intercultural communicative competence, intercultural sensitivity, high school context

Introduction

There is an increasing amount of interest in intercultural issues in this globalized era since people of today have contact with other languages and cultures frequently at an expanding rate and the number of multinational enterprises has multiplied tenfold in the past forty years (Gabel & Bruner, 2003). Each individual is unique and has different aims, lifestyles, experiences, and understanding of the world which results in different levels of competence in the intercultural communication process. Possession of intercultural communicative competence fosters a positive attitude and perception in interaction. However, there exists ambiguity within the concept of ICC and the approved empiric model of ICC (Fritz, 2001; Fantini, 2005). Based on Spitzberg and Cupach's (1984) paradigm, ICC was defined as knowledge, skills, motivation, appropriateness, and effectiveness in the past.

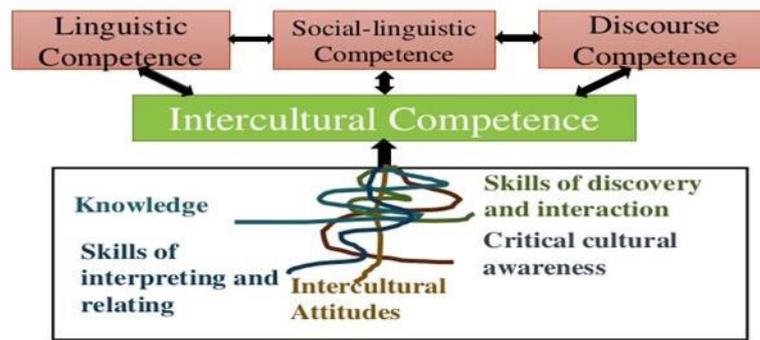
Byram (2020) in his international communicative competence (ICC) theory presented five important factors. In his theory, the cultural awareness concept came to the fore since there exists a strong connection between learning a language and learning its culture. He placed cultural awareness at the center of the ICC theory.

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Figure 1. Intercultural communicative competence (ICC) (Byram, 2020, p.73)



Byram (2020) defined ‘intercultural knowledge’ as the knowledge of general processes, products, and practices at an individual and societal level. He defined ‘intercultural skills’ as the ability to understand and interpret, elucidate and relate documents and facts of different cultures and relate them to his/her own culture and he described ‘intercultural attitudes’ as openness and curiosity to understand different cultures. He also redefined the concepts of Van Ek’s (1986) language base model and proposed ‘linguistic competence’ as the knowledge of the rules of a language and using this knowledge to interpret and produce language; ‘socio-linguistic competence’ as the ability to use and make explicit the language in social context produced by the interlocutor or negotiated with the interlocutor; and ‘discourse competence’ as the ability to use the strategies to understand, negotiate, and produce intercultural texts or texts in an interlocutor’s culture (pp.48-52).

Spitzberg (2000) described ICC as an impression of the appropriateness and effectiveness of behavior in a given context. In the study of Deardorff (2006), 23 intercultural experts from the USA were also asked to propose a definition for the ICC. There were seven definitions 80% of the experts agreed. The definition of ICC as ‘the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one’s intercultural knowledge, skills and attitudes’ came forward among those definitions (2006, p. 13).

In recent research, Intercultural communicative competence is viewed as an umbrella term that consists of affective, cognitive, and behavioral domains (Fritz, 2001; Spitzberg, 2000). Chen and Starosta (1996) also classified intercultural communicative competence, using similar yet different terminology. They classified ICC into three dimensions; intercultural awareness, adroitness, and sensitivity. In fact, intercultural awareness corresponds to the cognitive aspect, intercultural adroitness corresponds to behavioral, and intercultural sensitivity to the affective aspect of intercultural communication. While describing intercultural sensitivity, Chen and Starosta also indicated six affirmative characteristics of individuals that signal a higher level of intercultural sensitivity. These are; Open-mindedness, empathy, self-esteem, self-monitoring, engagement in interaction, and preventing prejudice.



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In 2000, Chen and Starosta also created an Intercultural sensitivity scale (ISS). The purpose of the scale is to assess the sensitivity level in intercultural communication. In their study, Chen and Starosta worked with 414 college students to develop and evaluate the reliability of the new instrument that they developed. They first created 44 items that they found important for intercultural sensitivity from the review of the literature. After the students rated the items, the final version, which consists of 5 factors and 24 items, is created. These factors are: 'intercultural engagement, interaction enjoyment, interaction confidence, interaction attentiveness, and respect for cultural differences' (p.12). They also assessed the concurrent validity of the scale with 162 participants. The results revealed that the ISS was significantly correlated with other related scales.

Chen and Starosta's (2000) IS Scale has been a significant scientific survey that examines the emotional dimension of intercultural competence, yet it was developed in the USA context so; the cross-cultural validity and appropriateness of this model were also tested with different samples in various contexts, as well. For instance, Wu (2015) examined the model and reproduced the scale in the Taiwanese cultural context and produced an alternative four-factored version, including 13 items of the 24 items of Chen and Starosta's model. Within the same line, Graf (2004) also used ISS to examine the culture-specific and culture-general intercultural design between American and German university students.

Intercultural sensitivity, which is directly related to the perceptions and approach of individuals to other cultures and is significant in effective communication, is undeniably important in today's multicultural and mobile world, as according to the results of a UN study (2013), the number of people living in different places other than their hometowns is 232 million (Morales, 2017). In such a reality, young people's competencies in life and more specifically in language use are related to their high intercultural sensitivity. In this context, Chen and Starosta's (2000) IS model provided a theoretical framework for this study. Based on the importance of doing research in this context, the research questions of this study were formed as follows:

1. What are the views of high school English language learners regarding intercultural sensitivity?
2. Does gender affect the sensitivity of ICC?
3. How do the perceptions of sensitivity change or does it change in accordance with the types of school?

Setting and Participants

The study was conducted in a Science and a General High School in Adana. Totally 85 Science High School and 85 General High School students were asked to complete the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale. Among Science school participants, 41 were females and 44 were males; and 40 were females and 45 were males in General school sample. A T-test was conducted to check whether a gender-specific influence exists. The students were all 9th-grade students who had 7



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hours of English lessons per week. The average English level of the students was A2 in accordance with the Common European framework.

In Türkiye, students are selected for high schools regarding their TEOG examination scores. The entrance score of Science School is distinctly higher than the General school and the main scope of the students is only Science, whereas in General School the entrance score is average and they can choose to study Social Sciences, Science, or Language.

Participants were selected on a voluntary basis and approval was received from the schools' headmasters to conduct the study. In the data collection procedure, the rights of the volunteer participants were clarified to them. They were informed that their identities would be kept confidential. A comfortable and trustworthy atmosphere was set so that all the participants could make their points freely. The data were collected and used only for research purposes.

Findings and Discussion

A quantitative research design was conducted to provide insight into the participants' intercultural awareness. The Questionnaire was adapted from Chen and Sarasota's (2000) Model of Intercultural Sensitivity. A pilot study with ten students was conducted before to ensure the reliability of the items. In this Intercultural Sensitivity scale, the participants filled out the five-factor Likert scale that consisted of 24 items. Higher scores for each measure indicated sensitivity to intercultural differences. In addition, demographic information, age, and gender, of the participants were also collected. Items 2, 4, 7, 9, 12, 15, 18, 20, 22 were reverse-coded as they included negative statement. The items summed up under 5 factors the same as in Chen and Sarasota's (2000) study: '(1) Interaction engagement items are 1, 11, 13, 21, 22, 23, 24; (2) Interaction Confidence items are 3, 4, 5, 6, 10; (3) Interaction Enjoyment items are 9, 12, 15; (4) Interaction Attentiveness items are 14, 17, 19; (5) Respect for Cultural Differences items are 2, 7, 8, 16, 18, 20' (p.16-19). T-test and ANOVA were conducted via the SPSS program in the data analysis process.

A T-test was conducted utilizing the SPSS program to answer the first research question which asks the views of high school learners regarding IS and the third research question of this study which seeks whether there exist any changes in the perceptions of sensitivity of two different educational settings: Science and General High School and the results are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1. T-test results of the five factors and total scores in accordance with the School Type

		N	X	S	sd	t	P
Interaction	Science	85	27,46	4,81	168	1,86	0,65
Engagement	General	85	26,25	3,58			
Interaction	Science	85	11,45	2,15	168	-1,23	,219
Attentiveness	General	85	11,89	2,43			



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Respect for differences	Science	85	24,91	4,52	168	1,59	,113
	General	85	23,81	4,53			
Interaction Confidence	Science	85	17,08	3,71	168	-1,80	,073
	General	85	18,10	3,68			
Interaction Enjoyment	Science	85	12,12	2,63	168	-,457	,648
	General	85	12,30	2,40			
Total Score	Science	85	93,05	13,95	168	,341	,734
	General	85	92,37	12,10			

When we look at the mean and median of the total ISS score for the high school students was 93,05 and 92,37 respectively. This showed that overall intercultural sensitivity is high among high school students. In addition, the result of Spinthourakis, Stavlioti and Roussakis' study (2009) which was a sample of Greek University Elementary education students, was similar to the results of this study. However; when we compare the two school types, Science and General school, the score of the Science students was not higher in a statistically significant way than the ones of the General school. Tamam (2010) recommended future researchers use ISS to identify more variables that may cause a greater variance in intercultural sensitivity scores within this respect.

Each factor of the model was assessed one by one to assess the emotional dimensions of the intercultural competence of the students in both schools deeply. The results of each factor were explained respectively:

Interaction engagement, which measures individuals' feelings while participating in intercultural interaction, consists of seven items. The means of interaction engagement of both schools were 27,46, and 26,25 respectively which could be counted as pretty high. This showed that in both schools, students have a positive sense while interacting with their culturally distinct counterparts and they are open-minded and eager to show their understanding while interacting with their peers from different cultures. This result was in line with Tamam's (1996) study that stressed the effectiveness of open-mindedness and empathy in intercultural communication. When we look at the significance value, higher than 0,05 p-value, we can notice that the results obtained were not statistically significant.

Interaction attentiveness, which consisted of three items that measure the sensitivity of the students to the subtle meanings of their culturally distinct counterparts' speech during their interaction, was high in both schools. As can be seen from the results, the significance value was much higher than the p-value of 0,05. As a result, the null hypothesis was accepted meaning that the difference between the variances of the Science and General High school students was not statistically significant.

Respect for Cultural Differences consisted of six items. The mean scores of both schools were 24,91, and 23,81 respectively which were also reasonably high in both schools. The result



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showed that the students of both schools value the different cultures and they are respective to cultural differences. However; the results were not statistically significant as the p-value was higher than 0,05. Interaction attentiveness and respect for cultural differences did not have the highest but the higher variance in ISS scores compared to other factors. Cuciureanu and Saini (2012) assessed the development of intercultural sensitivity within the CEMS MIM program and found interaction attentiveness and respect had maximum variances in the ISS scores.

Interaction Confidence consisted of five items and indicated the level of confidence during intercultural communication. Table 1 displayed that although the mean factors in both schools were high when compared to other factors in the table, this factor had the lowest mean value. We can conclude from this result that even though the students in both schools have enough confidence and self-esteem, students still need to be encouraged to be more social and interactive as Chua (2004) emphasized self-confidence and self-image underlies the communication skills in effective and appropriate interaction.

Interaction Enjoyment consisted of three items and assessed the level of delight felt in intercultural communication. This factor had the highest mean value when compared to the other five factors unlike the results of the study of Tamam (2010) who tested the fitting of the ISS on a Malaysian high school student sample. Interaction engagement out of the five factors from the ISS model was not found applicable in a Malaysian context since Tamam expressed that enjoyment is insignificant in that culture, which can be concluded from the result of this study is vice versa in Turkish culture.

Tables 2 and 3 presented below shed light on Research Question 2 of this study, which was 'Does gender affect the sensitivity of ICC?'

Table 2. T-test results of ISS total score in respect of gender

	N	X	S	Sd	t	P
F	81	95,67	11,06	168	2,889	,005
M	89	90,02	14,10		2,922	

In Table two, the total scores of both female and male students on IS scale were compared utilizing a t-test via SPSS program. Although the number of female students was less than the number of males, the mean value of the total scores was higher than males. The mean score of 95,67 was obtained from 81 females whereas the males constituted 89 of the participants had a mean score of 90,02. Females did significantly better than males. The results were statistically significant as the p-value is lower than 0,05. We can conclude from the results that females are more sensitive than males with respect to intercultural competence. However; the result was not consistent with the study of Villar (2010) who studied with 596 female and 345 male Filipinos to understand their level of IS and indicated that males did significantly better than females (Mean diff= 1.54, p-value= .012). This may be due to the fact that the two cultures are different from each other.



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Lastly, in order to see whether there occur any changes when school types of both female and male high school students differ, the ANOVA test was also conducted and results were presented in Table 3.

Table 3. ANOVA results of ISS total scores in school and gender base

Source	Sum of Squares	Sd	Mean Square	F	(p)
Gender	1353,400	1	1353,400	8,23	,005
School	15,022	1	15,022	,09	,763
G&S	8,176	1	8,176	,05	,824
Error	27289,315	166	164,393		
Total	28670,447	169			

As can be seen from Table 3, there was no relation between school type and gender with respect to IS level of the students. The p-value was below 0,05 only in gender base so it can be concluded that school type does not have any effect on the level of IS in both genders.

Conclusion

This study aimed to explore the views of English language high school students on intercultural sensitivity. Intercultural sensitivity is a significant competence in this era. It is important for compatibility, understanding, and embracing relations among different people. People who have diverse cultures and different national roots have been living together in Turkiye for decades and for this reason, the intercultural sensitivity of learners was examined in high school Turkish context. The study's findings illustrated that Turkish high school students, inconsequential of school type, have a high level of intercultural sensitivity. Overall, the study's participants had a Mean ISS score of 93,05 and 92,37 respectively, which signifies a high value of intercultural sensitivity. In accordance with the quantitative results, Turkish high school students have a sense of empathy and are able to successfully communicate with varied cultures. This may be the result of Turkish culture. When Chen and Starosta's (2000) instrument was implemented, interaction enjoyment was scored the highest, and interaction attentiveness followed it. Taking into consideration the age group of the participants, which was 14, enjoyment factor and being sociable have an important role in their lives. As peer interaction and support are important at that age, they may be eager to communicate with their culturally distinct counterparts. They also tried to be open-minded and wait before making judgments when they found other people's cultures strange.

The analysis of the second research question indicated that there was statistical significance among female and male students' intercultural sensitivity. That is to say, the intercultural



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sensitivity of girls is better than boys, which means that they are more emphatic and open-minded. Even so, Turkish high school students are highly interculturally sensitive and; therefore, are ready to face what global developments have to offer.

This study was conducted with 170 high school students, so more studies in future research are needed to generalize the findings of the study. Taking into consideration that the present study raised awareness on the intercultural sensitivity of the students, future research on how to develop pedagogical implications for English language teaching and intercultural classroom activities need to be conducted to improve their intercultural sensitivity. Future studies may also be conducted in the following years to observe if there occur any changes within the views of the learners.



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The Effect of the Process Approach on Students' Perceptions of Their Strengths and Weaknesses in Composition

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Abstract

This study aimed to determine if the process approach to teaching writing changes students' perceptions of their strengths and weaknesses and to examine students' attitudes towards peer review and the writing of multiple drafts. An eight-week relationship study was conducted. Two classes at the pre-intermediate level participated in the study as group A and group B. Group A received the traditional approach to writing whereas in group B the process approach to writing was implemented throughout the treatment. Data collection tools were surveys with five-point Likert scale questions and open-ended questions and informal interviews. Mann-Whitney Test and Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test were implemented to compare pre-treatment and post-treatment survey answers across and within groups. At the beginning and at the end of the study, students in both groups responded to surveys about their perceptions of their strengths and weaknesses. Written reflections to open ended questions exploring students' strengths and weaknesses in composition were analysed by categorizing them into language issues and writing issues. The findings obtained from the survey and open-ended questions will be discussed.

Keywords: process approach, traditional approach, peer review

Introduction

Writing is one of the most important skills to be improved in language classes to convey our ideas. In Raimes' (1983) words "when we learn a second language, we learn to communicate with other people, to understand them, to talk to them, read what they have written and write to them" (p. 3). In other words, in order to communicate, "one should not only be competent in speaking but also be able to communicate through writing" (Toros, 1991, p. 1). Despite its importance some students do not like writing and it is usually students' nightmare. It is also sometimes neglected in language teaching. It is usually given to students as homework rather than a task which should be done in the classroom. There could be some underlying reasons for students not liking writing or the writing activity not being implemented in the class as class activity. Since the 1990s there have been "dramatic departures from traditional approach to writing" (Hedge, 2000, p. 300). Therefore, there has been a shift from traditional approach to process approach to teaching writing in language classes. Similarly, process approach to teaching writing had just been implemented at the institution where this research was carried out in 1999. The purpose of this study is to investigate whether the process approach changes students' perceptions of their strengths and weaknesses in composition. It also aims to find out what students' attitudes are towards peer review and the writing and revising multiple drafts

Literature Review

Traditional approach is a "linear process with a strict plan and write sequence" (Toros, 1991, p.29). In this approach, students are instructed to write about a topic and then the teacher checks and marks the students' paper while focusing on grammar, punctuation and spelling as the focus is on the product. After students receive their paper back with the feedback on, they do

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not write a second draft to make it better. As Raimes (1983) states “topics are assigned by the teacher since the interest is how sentences are written rather than in what ideas are expressed” (p.199). This creates anxiety among students and fear of making mistakes hinders students writing skills as they avoid trying new complex sentences in their paragraphs. They make simple sentences as they have control over them. In addition, the teacher is the only audience for the texts produced by students. The study conducted on Korean students revealed that being exposed to traditional approach with specific instruction from the teacher leads students to write for the teacher, not for themselves and the teacher is only their audience. (Rollinson, 2004)

Unlike the traditional approach, the process approach is “non-linear, cyclical and fluid” (Moorhouse, 2016, p.1). In other words, process approach is a non-linear cycle of writing activities including rehearsing (pre-writing), drafting (a reflection of the writer’s thinking) and revising. As the focus of attention is more on the process of writing than the product, students go through the cycles of writing several drafts by referring back and forth to the initial drafts when necessary. The process approach is also the process of communication between peers and teachers. While composing, students make use of the comments of their peers and teachers on their work. Furthermore, students communicate their ideas by forming a triangle including writing, reading and text. When students are learning to write, they discover their ideas by integrating skills and task with the help of the writing instruction they receive. Going through an interactive process helps students become “self-sufficient in learning, self- correction and self-editing” (Singh & Sarkar, 1994, p. 18).

The process approach helps students become aware different types of writing such as personal writing, public writing, creative writing, social writing study writing, and institutional writing. Thus, students are trained to write different purposes through instruction using this approach. (Hedge, 2000). Content of student writing is important. They write about what they are interested in and know about. Students pay attention to what they really want to communicate and what they really want a reader to know. Working on subjects that students are familiar with or interested in help students commit themselves intellectually to express something meaningful. It helps student experiment with ideas and gain confidence, and reduce anxiety too. The research conducted by (Arici & Kaldirim, 2015) aimed to determine the effect of the process-based writing approach on the development of writing skills of pre-service teachers and the reduction of writing anxieties. From its results, it may be concluded that the process-based writing approach is efficient for reducing writing anxieties and developing writing skills.

The activities that characterize the writing process are planning, revising and producing ‘reader-based’ prose and editing. In the planning stage, “good writers concentrate on the overall meaning and organization of a text, and engage in planning activities” (Hedge, 2000, p. 305). These activities start with brain storming and organizing ideas, thinking about the purpose and style of the writing. For instance, when we write a letter of complaint, the layout will be formal or a letter to a friend would be “informal, expressive, probably colloquial, and a mixture of description and comment” (Hedge, 2000, p. 305). Good writers also review their plans



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episodically as they progress. In the revising stage, a good writer starts reflecting on his/ her ideas by re-reading his sentences. While re-reading his text, he asks himself questions such as: “Is my argument express through a clear set of points or does my reader have to make conceptual leaps in order to follow me?, Are any sections repetitious can they be missed out? And do I need to rearrange any sentences?” (Hedge, 2000, p. 306). In this way, the writer does the necessary additions, deletions and rearrangements to improve the writing. As these questions focus on the meaning and organization, they guide the writer to be on the right track. With regards to the producing ‘reader-based prose’ successful writers know who their readers are, what the readers need to know, how the information should be clear and accessible and what style to use while composing. (Hedge, 2000).

Peer feedback plays a major role in the encouragement of students’ participation during the writing process. Peer feedback, also known as peer response or peer review, is defined as a collaborative activity in which students read, critique and give feedback on one another’s writing to facilitate writing competence through mutual scaffolding (Hu, 2005; Tsui & Ng, 2000; Zhu, 2001 cited in Nyugen, 2016, p. 77). Peer feedback has a number of benefits for the students. It helps students to become aware of the fact that they are not writing for themselves but for a reader. It allows the students to look at their work from alternative points of view and improve their writing skills. While giving feedback students improve their critical thinking skills while interacting with each other. In this way real communication occurs in the class. It also promotes learner autonomy. However, when this is implemented in the class for the first time, students may not like the idea of giving feedback to their peers as they think that their knowledge is limited to help their peers compared to their teacher’s feedback but when they are informed that their focus is not on the form but the content, they will be more relaxed and will be able to express their opinions about their peer’s work. This can be achieved through effective peer feedback sheets and with the teacher’s guidance during the peer feedback sessions.

The study carried out by Sotoudehnama & Pilehvari (2016) can be given as an example for the positive impact of peer feedback on students. In their study, the researchers compare two groups of participants to determine whether the most advantageous effects of peer review can be found in giving or receiving feedback. At two proficiency levels (high vs. low), 122 female EFL learners studying in high-intermediate levels were divided into two groups of givers (participants who only give feedback) and receivers (participants who receive feedback). Participants have three training sessions on peer review. The results of this study show that the students who were trained to review their peers’ essays to provide feedback improved their writing abilities more than the ones who used the received feedback to revise those essays. The researchers state that their positive result is in line with the “obtained results of Lundstrom and Baker (2009 cited in Sotoudehnama & Pilehvari, 2016, p. 41), who declare that L2 writing students improve their own writing by transferring the abilities they learn while reviewing peer texts. They consider the act of providing feedback as the most beneficial aspect of peer review and claim that certain skills may not develop when the students are only trained to use feedback” (p.41). According to Tsui and Ng (2000), students who give feedback to the writings



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of their peers benefit more than the ones who read the feedback and modify the texts. “By being a critical reader of their classmates’ writing, our students activate their linguistic competence and learn to examine, evaluate, and assess their own papers critically to identify the areas which need to be improved without being entirely dependent on their teacher’s feedback “(Rollinson, 2005 cited in Sotoudehnama & Pilehvari, 2016, p. 41). The result of the research and the comments of the other researchers conveyed by Sotoudehnama & Pilehvari show that peer review may have a positive effect on students writing process.

Despite the positive impact of peer feedback on students writing, there exist some doubts about the efficacy of peer feedback on English language learners according to prior research on peer learning (Nyugen, 2016). The main concerns are reliability of the feedback given by peers on a variety of errors and inappropriate attitude towards peer response. Another concern is that peer feedback is not as informative as teachers’ feedback. To solve this this problem, the teacher’s responsibility is to check whether his/her students are in capable of giving reliable feedback to their peers and guide the feedback givers and the receivers during the process constantly. This could be a workload for the teacher but in the long run the result may be very rewarding.

Although process approach offers students a great deal of benefits in their writing process to be better writers, it is criticized that “the multiple-draft approach is hardly suitable for timed examinations” (Hedge, 2000, p. 319). Students who are preparing for exams worry about this situation. Therefore, as Hedge (2000) states “a distinction needs to be made between classroom writing aimed at developing efficiency and exam preparation which aims at demonstrating that efficiency, and for which other strategies are needed” (p. 319). In other words, students need to know how to use their writing skills during timed examinations. Another serious concern is that process approach is not helpful when it comes to composing academic texts under limited time. Solution to this problem could be the combination of product and process approach. Agustiana (2016) carries out a study to see the effect of the combination of product and process approach to teaching writing discussion texts. The result of the research shows that students benefitted from combination of these approaches and had a positive attitude towards the implementation of this approach in the classroom. However, more research is needed to make generalization on the positive impact of these approaches being implemented together.

Research Design

The study took place at a preparatory school of languages of a state university in Turkey for eight weeks. A relationship study was conducted in two intermediate level The participants were forty-one undergraduate students at intermediate level undergraduate writing classes. Forty-one students, 19 students in Group A and 22 students in Group B participated in the study. The students in Group A received the traditional approach to teaching writing whereas Group B was taught writing through the process approach. Each class was taught by a different teacher.



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A survey determining students' perceptions and weaknesses in composing was given to students in both groups at the beginning and at the end of the study. Students in Group B also responded to another survey investigating their attitudes towards peer review and the writing of multiple drafts at the end of the study.

Data analysis

In the data analysis procedure, first, the responses of the two groups to survey items were compared within groups and across groups. Mann-Whitney test and Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test were run for the comparing survey results across groups and within groups. Second, written responses to the open-ended items at the end of the checklists were analysed by organizing them into categories. Third, results of the open-ended questions were compared. Finally means and standard deviations of students' awareness to the survey determining students' attitudes towards peer review and writing of multiple drafts were calculated. Then students' responses were analysed by being rank ordered according to the means. As the survey included two open ended questions, students' responses to the open-ended questions were analysed by organizing them into categories

Results and Discussions

The first research question of this study was:

Does the use of the process approach change students' perception of their strengths and weaknesses?

Statistical analysis of the first question had interesting results. The comparison of pre-treatment and post treatment surveys in Group A showed that there was no significant difference between the pre-treatment and post treatment surveys. This indicates that the writing instruction that the students received did not change their perception of their strengths and weaknesses.

In comparison of the pre-treatment and post treatment surveys in Group B, two out of twelve items were significant. One of the items, which was about students' writing simple sentences, was in a negative direction, indicating that students became aware that they do not use simple sentences in their compositions. The other item concerned with students' writing conclusions well, and was in a positive direction, which indicates that students became aware that they did not write conclusion well. Both of these results suggest that they were gaining awareness of potential problems in their writing skills.

The qualitative analysis of the responses from Group A to the open-ended questions on the survey indicated that these students perceived themselves as consistently having more weaknesses than strengths and were more concerned with language issues than writing issues. In particular, it was noticeable that the number of claimed weaknesses increased from the pre-treatment survey to the post treatment survey. These results may be due to the focus on error



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correction in the writing of the composition in traditional approach (See Raimes, 1983; Leki, 1991; Williams, 1996 for discussion of this emphasis). There was less change in students' perceptions of their strengths as a result of students not receiving positive feedback on their work.

Students in Group B were also asked what their strengths and weaknesses were in composition. The number of perceived strengths and weaknesses declined from the pre-treatment and post treatment survey among these students, with the greater decline in perceived strengths. The number of students giving no answer in terms of strengths doubled from the pre-treatment to the post treatment survey. The focus on raising issues for improving writing such as content, organization, purpose and accuracy while writing the multiple drafts, may have led students to become more uncertain of their strengths. In other words, having to rewrite and think about these issues may have made them see that they had more to learn in all these areas. However, they did not end up focusing on weaknesses because the process emphasizes improvement rather than correction (Leki, 1991).

The other research question for the study was:

What are students' attitudes towards peer review and the writing of multiple drafts?

According to the statistical analysis of the survey, students agreed with four of the statements out of twelve. They were uncertain about the remaining statements. The students agreed that making changes on multiple drafts was useful and helped them improve their writing. Thinking until the ideas take shape and organizing them may have helped students improve their writing. However, as students did not have access to computers, they thought that writing multiple drafts were time consuming. Students also agreed that "not worrying about correcting the grammar of composition until the last step helped me focus on the composition". Some of the students might have started to focus on content, rather than form, up to writing their final drafts.

The items students were most uncertain about were "peer review is a useful activity" and "peer review allowed me to take responsibility for what I am writing". Students' uncertainty is related to not being used to receiving feedback from a peer because of their educational background. This uncertainty may indicate that some students might have started to perceive it as useful, but others may need more time than was available for this research study.

Responses to the open-ended questions given by the students in Group B on their attitude towards peer review and writing of multiple drafts revealed interesting results. Students' gains during peer review were language issues such as correcting mistakes. Nelson and Carson (1998) reported that the students in their study saw peer review as an activity for finding mistakes and correcting them. The results here suggest that these students felt the same. Students dealt with the language issues in peer review because of their level of English. (see also Villamil & Guerrero, 1998). Three students not giving an answer to the question and five students gaining nothing from peer review indicate that some student may have developed a negative attitude towards peer review.



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In contrast to peer review, students reported that they improved in terms of writing issues such as generating ideas, developing content, making connection with ideas, learning new ideas, learning organization, and putting thoughts in order by writing multiple drafts. This may suggest that writing multiple drafts encouraged students “to wander on the path” (Leki, 1991, p.174) until they discover how to present their ideas. This may be also due to putting off the focus on form until the revision stage. Consequently, writing multiple drafts may have helped students learn more about the process of composing.

In conclusion, the major limitation of the study was the length of treatment for both the process and traditional groups, which was eight weeks. Due to time constraints, the study had to be conducted in only eight weeks. The researcher believes that given more time Group B would have changed more since there was a slight change on the post treatment survey of Group B.



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EFL Teachers' Occupational Stress and Job Satisfaction: Teachers of Very Young Learners

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Abstract

In Turkey, teaching English to preschool children has taken more interest in the past ten years since the Ministry of National Education (MoNe) increased the role of preschool education in child development. In line with this, preschool education teachers have become more and more important to provide quality education. However, teachers in preschools in Turkey suffer from occupational stress while putting forward the significance of job satisfaction in the field. Thus, this study aims to investigate the job satisfaction and occupational stress of EFL teachers of very young learners to have an in-depth understanding of their beliefs about teaching English. The participants of the study selected using the purposive sampling method were six preschool EFL teachers including both native speakers and non-native speakers of English, working in six different cities and at the same institutionalized private kindergartens in Turkey. Semi-structured interview with open-ended questions was used to collect data. Qualitative data analysis methods of transcribing, coding, and developing themes were used to investigate the main sources of EFL teachers' stress, and their level of satisfaction with the job. The findings of the study showed that EFL teachers of very young learners experience occupational stress and job satisfaction due to various hidden factors embedded in the occupational and personal factors whereas native EFL teachers take the lead in the dominance occupational stress.

Keywords: very young learners (VYL), occupational stress, job satisfaction

Introduction

Currently, English as a global language is not only seen as crucial for the social milieu and technological advancements of different fields, but also for education. Thus, notably third world countries around the globe have modified their educational policies as a compulsory course in schools (Gursoy et al., 2017). In EFL countries hereby; it is no surprise that English classes have started to be taught at even earlier stages such as in kindergartens, nurseries, and preschools. EFL teaching which plays a vital part in multinational discussions, early childhood English education has grown into a contentious debate to realize ameliorations.

In this context, Cenoz (2003) considered language teaching to very young learners (VYL) as an extremely challenging job and suggested the implementation of completely different methodologies. In view of the importance of early childhood education and the characteristics of VYL, investigations on EFL teachers' well-being, burnouts, and emotions, in general, are considered to be an important area of study, particularly within the scope of VYL. Thus, it would be fair to say that EFL teachers in preschools hold different beliefs compared to other school grades.

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Though the number of existing studies within the body of teachers' beliefs and emotions is high in number, it would be useful to examine occupational stress and job satisfaction in terms of the scope of this study. Kyriacou puts forward the position of teaching in schools as being among the "high-stress" occupations (2000). Pertaining to the context of EFL, teachers in the profession also suffer from occupational stress and at one-point experience job satisfaction. Correspondingly, in EFL teaching context, Jepson and Forrest (2006) discerned that EFL teachers' stress might have adverse effects, such as its negative effect on job satisfaction which is intertwined with teachers' performance and effectiveness. A large number of existing studies in the literature have examined teachers' occupational stress and job satisfaction as well as their interrelation. Afshar and Doosti (2016) in their study argued that EFL teachers' sense of job satisfaction can increase their job performance. Another study reported that "teachers with a high level of stress reported low level of job satisfaction leading to the emergence of the desire to leave the profession" (as cited in Jepson & Forrest, 2006, p.193). Although previous studies raised multiple reasons for dissatisfaction and stress in teaching; the most prevalent ones can be regarded as lack of time to deal with students, inadequate teaching resources, low salary, and poor relationships with colleagues and administrators.

The majority of the previous studies based on teachers' and EFL teachers' job satisfaction and occupational stress remained limited to the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels. Since preschool EFL teachers need to integrate different pedagogical approaches in order to meet the developmental needs of younger learners, this field should be given in-depth consideration (Cameron; 2001, 2003). Very few studies, to researchers' knowledge, have focused on the occupational stress and job satisfaction of EFL teachers working with very young learners. Additionally, no study related to differing beliefs among NESTs (Native English-Speaking Teachers) and NNEST (Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers) in teaching VYL has been found. Therefore, this preliminary study of a longitudinal process might contribute to related literature and fill the gap in the research while acting as a spearheading in the field.

Research Questions

Based on the gaps in the related literature, this qualitative case study aimed to understand the occupational stress and job satisfaction perceptions of EFL teachers working in preschools with a distinction between Non-native and Native speakers of English. Therefore, answers were sought to the following questions;

1. What are the perceptions of NNESTs and NESTs towards teaching VYL?
2. How do NNESTs and NESTs consider their overall job satisfaction and occupational stress?
 - 2.1 What kind of factors affects the occupational stress and job satisfaction of the NNESTs and NESTs in preschools?



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Methodology

The current investigation used a case study research method as it may give researchers the opportunity to explore the main features and meanings of the participants' beliefs.

Participants

For the selection of participants, purposive sampling technique was used consisting of six EFL teachers working at the same private preschool school founded in six different cities in Turkey. However, in EFL teaching at preschools, most in-service teachers are either English majors without pedagogical training for VYL or preschool education majors whose English competence is weak (Liao,2002). Therefore, followed criteria for choosing participants for the study were based on the fact that participants were holding at least one bachelor's degree in the ELT department and have similar working environments. Accordingly, they teach students aged between 3-6 while starting lectures at 9 a.m. and continuing till 5 p.m.

The participants were divided mainly based on whether they are native to English or not. Consequently, 3 NNESTs (Non-native English-speaking Teachers) and 3 NESTs (Native English-speaking Teachers) took part in the research aged between 27-35 with a total experience ranging from 1 to 12 in EFL teaching and demonstrated with pseudonyms below (see Table.1).

Table 1. Demographic data of the participants

<i>Pseudonym</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>Level of Education</i>	<i>Years of Experience in Total</i>	<i>Years of Experience in the Institution</i>
Jenna	30	Female	Australia	Undergraduate Degree	1	1
Emily	27	Female	Jamaica	Undergraduate Degree	6	3
Elif	35	Female	Turkey	Undergraduate Degree	12	3
Deniz	28	Female	Turkey	Ph.D. Degree	4	4

Data Collection and Analysis

As this study concentrates on NNESTs and NESTs EFL teachers' perceptions of occupational stress, and job satisfaction, semi-structured interviews were utilized through video conferencing. Prior to carrying out the semi-structured interviews, each participant was provided with an online written consent form ensuring the volunteerism of the study group and the process of research. Moreover, participants were informed about the confidentiality of their



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identities for reliability issues. The interviews that include questions based on participants' perceptions starting from general to specific took 40 minutes on average through which 6 open-ended questions were asked as well as follow-ups. Subsequently, the process was followed by transcribing the interviews by utilizing MS Word Online Transcribe Tool. Upon completing the transcripts of the semi-structured interviews, thematic analysis was carried out in order to elicit certain categories within the framework of EFL teachers' perceptions of occupational stress and job satisfaction they experience.

Findings and Discussion

The analysis of the conducted semi-structured interviews indicated that EFL teachers teaching at private preschools in Turkey are satisfied with their job pursuant to working with very young learners and teaching occupation in general. Although the satisfaction of the EFL teachers precedes and dominates the occupational stress they experience, stress was seen to be experienced by NNESTs and NESTs with varying degrees and sources. The responses obtained from the participants led to the emergence of four overarching themes. Encountered problems with very young learners (VYL), teacher satisfaction, working climate, and occupational difficulties all appear to be significant in EFL teachers' perceptions of occupational stress and job satisfaction. Accordingly, the following sub-titles were presented including certain excerpts with pseudonyms from the conducted semi-structured interviews.

Encountered Problems with Very Young Learners

The findings on the first theme "encountered problems with VYL" denoted certain reasons, namely; prejudice towards language learning, attention span of VYL, and readiness level. Irrespective of whether participants were NNESTs or NESTs, they were found to experience challenges based on the same or similar reasons. As for Deniz, one of the NNESTs teaching at preschool, the short attention span of the kids can be counted as a factor impeding the natural course of the learning environment. She reported that when a teacher has students with short attention spans, he/she needs to change the type of activities and methodologies constantly in order to get their attention which is considered as a problem. On the other hand, NNEST Elif pointed out the lack of readiness of VYLS as one of the problems not only within the framework of language learning but also in the school environment.

Although the readiness level and attention span of VYLS were found to be one of the most common problems encountered, NEST Jenna touched upon the prejudice of the kids toward learning a language. She reported that;

'Some of the kids say "I don't want to learn it, we speak Turkish." They have this strict attitude. And I try to explain to them every day, 'I came from another country and lived here. The mean of communication is English whether you like it or not.' ... But this prejudice also depends on parental attitudes and encouragement of them. When parents are more open to the idea that their kids should learn English, then kids will be open as well.'



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Both NESTs and NNESTs agreed on the commonly encountered problems related to VYLs whereas the rate of the importance of the factors varied from one teacher to another exposing the dissimilarity among VYLs.

Teacher Satisfaction

In this study, EFL teachers' state of satisfaction was found to be affected by learner achievement and the development of professional skills. In other words, NNESTs and NESTs feel the sense of occupational satisfaction when they witness the progress of VYL, see their teaching pays off and develop their professional skills in teaching. Though differentiations were found in the responses of NNESTs and NESTs, all of the participants mentioned the satisfaction they got from kids' development yet the dominance level of this factor varied between groups. NNESTs indicated their sources of satisfaction in many aspects whereas NESTs denoted VYL's progress as the only source of satisfaction apart from the development in teaching. This finding additionally yielded that NESTs struggle with administrative problems which leads to a limitation in satisfaction while NNESTs are pleased with the conditions they work under.

To illustrate better, Jenna indicated the happiness she got from kids' speaking English eagerly even if it's been a short while. While she emphasized that her only satisfaction roots in her internal zest for teaching proving that her satisfaction doesn't get affected by external determining factors e.g. support of the administration, salary, working hours, or the benefits of her institution. On the side of the NNESTs, Deniz described her satisfaction within the scope of internality and externality. As she stated VYL tend to grasp every language-related input they have been given at an unexpected rate, which increases the satisfaction of teaching. Not only did Deniz state internal satisfaction in terms of teaching but also she expressed satisfaction considering external factors such as administration or financial issues.

Taking into consideration the separation between NNESTs and NESTs' views on the perception of satisfaction toward their occupation, Emily exemplified her own point as:

'I can absolutely say that my satisfaction has nothing to do with administration or money. Because they don't pay well when I think about the expenses, they don't intervene in my teaching yet they don't also support me. I only realized my satisfaction when kids say talk to me in English with sparkling eyes and when I add more to my teaching strategies.'

Having said that there was found to be a junction as to for what reasons and to what level NESTs and NNESTs experience job satisfaction. Therefore, it would be right to say that while NNESTs experience both external and internal job satisfaction, NESTs only get internal occupational satisfaction with regard to VYL and professional development.

Working Climate

During the interviews, the participants were asked to describe their work environment including relationships with colleagues, attitudes of the administration, and whether they are



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involved in the process of decision-making, etc. It was found that the participants described their working climate within the framework of interpersonal relationships among colleagues and their attachments to the institution and people.

All of the participants irrespective of being native or non-native agreed on having good and healthy relationships with their colleagues. However, responses from the participants differed when they were asked to describe thoughts for administration or attachment to the institution. Subsequently, it was found that in addition to the participants' problems they encounter and certain factors having an effect on their satisfaction, NNESTs indicated administration of the schools they work for involves them in the process of decision-making as well as supporting their teaching whereas NESTs stated that they're having certain problems with the administration mostly due to language barrier and miscommunication.

To begin with NNESTs, Deniz and Elif both asserted that they are feeling just like working with family members in a place where ultimate tranquillity exists and they are deemed important. Specifically, Deniz stated that "I've never planned to work for a private school but my relationships with the colleagues and administration convinced me to work here till now. We bounded like a family and I feel extremely attached to them."

Though NNESTs were found to have a healthy environment and feel the attachment to the institution, the opinions of NESTs were indicated partially the opposite. In order to clarify the distinctness of the NESTs, Jenna reported that:

'My colleagues welcomed me with open arms even though they didn't know the language. Through time, they learned basic English and I learned a little bit of Turkish. But the problem is with my administration because they never inform me about oncoming events which put me under lots of pressure. Honestly, our relationship resembles parent-kid ones. You know, we don't agree with our parents most of the time but we still feel attached to them. Despite all of the drawbacks, I can say that I feel attached to the people who work there and the kids.'

On the other hand, Emily addressed this issue from a different viewpoint, and contrary to the other participants' responses, she added the factor of the language barrier for teachers leading also the emergence of the final theme "occupational difficulties". The findings were in tune with one final thought and that is apart from the working climate and relations among individuals, EFL teachers of VYL were found to be attached to the learners also supporting the findings based on experienced teaching satisfaction.

Occupational Difficulties

The analysis of the interviews revealed that aside from challenges and difficulties encountered with VYL, EFL teachers of VYL come up against occupational difficulties on a daily basis. The participants described the umbrella term occupational difficulties under the categories of the language barrier, administrative problems, and loss of language skills. EFL teachers of VYL were asked to clearly state the sources of their occupational stress, the difficulties they come across, and how these difficulties affect the level of stress they experience. Though the



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responses of NESTs declared similarities and agreements at one point, NNESTs held varying beliefs.

When findings are evaluated in general based on all the given answers, NNESTs expressed their stress and difficulties they face under the headings of loss of language abilities, characteristics of the age group they work with, and finally parents' attitudes and profiles. In this respect, Elif reported the loss of language competence and development when she imagines herself working with other age groups and she grounded this difficulty based on the limited curriculum and language structures VLY pedagogies have. On the other hand, Deniz found problematic parents as one of the sources of her stress as well as the obligation to be on alert all the time for the kids considering their age range. According to her, the upbringing of certain kids poses serious problems, and parents' standing idle to these problems puts lots of pressure and stress on her.

NESTs approached the mentioned matter from a different perspective and expressed their struggles with the language barrier and administrative problems. Emily indicated the lack of support by the administration similar to the previous themes and financial inadequacy. In line with Emily's response, Jenna emphasized the communication problems both within the framework of the English language and also the administration. She reported that:

'I am a perfectionist but when there's miscommunication or even no communication at all, this puts me under pressure and I feel it a lot. My administration can understand basic English but she can't talk to me just like my colleagues. And sometimes I go to school and say "good morning" eagerly to everyone then suddenly I see everyone leaving. Because interestingly, they are too afraid to speak English to me. Besides, as I said before, my administration never informs me about any event at all. You know I can't create miracles when you tell me 1 hour beforehand.'

The findings within the frame of occupational difficulties showed that EFL teachers of VYL suffer from the language barrier, administrative problems, and loss of language abilities in general with varying degrees and depths peculiar to each individual. Consequently, the mentioned factors were found to be the sources of occupational stress that EFL teachers experience.

Although previous studies related to the field of interest were found to be rare and quite limited within the scope of EFL teachers of VYL, similar studies hold certain points that should be taken into consideration. The findings of this study revealed that EFL teachers of VYL experience occupational stress stemming from relationships in the working environments, learners' characteristics, administrative problems, and the schooling system. From this standpoint, the study of Sadeghi and Khezrlou (2016) showed similarity to the carried out research as they found out that English language teachers experience occupational stress as a result of organizational factors, class hours, and educational demands. Moreover, Kyriacou defined the stress sources of teachers as reluctant students, lack of discipline, work overload as well as poor relationships with colleagues and administrators (2001). In this study, responses



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of the NESTs pointed out similar problems leading to the emergence of stress and pressure they experience in teaching. Though the causes of stress triggering occupational stress bear similarities with the previous studies irrespective of teaching levels, NNESTs and NESTs ultimately stated the dominance of satisfaction in their occupation mostly due to working with VYL. Contrarily, Jepson and Forrest (2006), for instance, came up with the fact that teachers with lower satisfaction also suffer from occupational stress the most. Ultimately, it might be said that NNESTs and NESTs working at institutionalized private preschools experience occupational stress and job satisfaction with varying degrees and densities depending on multiple factors and reasons.

Conclusion

This qualitative case study was carried out with the aim of having an in-depth understanding of occupational stress and job satisfaction perceptions of EFL teachers of VYL centered on NNESTs and NESTs. Accordant with the purpose, semi-structured interviews were conducted through video-conferencing with 3 NNESTs and 3 NESTs working at the same institutionalized private preschools in 6 different cities. Subsequently, thematic analysis was executed to obtain certain categories for analysis. Overall, results of the study demonstrated that EFL teachers of VYL experience occupational stress with a view of encountered problems with VYL, the working climate, and the difficulties they confront. On the other hand, job satisfaction of EFL teachers in preschools was found to be stemmed mostly and dominantly from learners' achievements. The narrower analysis of the data revealed further effective factors ranked as prejudice, attention span, and readiness level of VYL; learner achievement and development of professional skills of EFL teachers; interpersonal relationships and attachments of the EFL teachers; finally, language barrier among teachers, administrative problems and loss of language skills. Ultimately, the results showed that NESTs struggle more with occupational stress mostly derived from administrators and miscommunication due to the language barrier yet participants from both groups emphasized as the final thoughts that the satisfaction that emerged from working with VYL dominates the most when the rates of occupational stress and job satisfaction are considered.

For better improvements in EFL teaching for early childhood education, participants of the research as active individuals in the field shared constructive suggestions. According to EFL teachers of VYL, in preschools, language learning environments should be strengthened, the use of foreign language should be embedded in real life and finally, administrators and policymakers should be conscious and solution-oriented. Despite the limitation of this study in terms of participants and the scope of research, it is considered the conducted study might be a pioneer one for further research in the field of teaching English to VYL and EFL teachers.



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Can Musicals Be Used to Teach Speech Acts?

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Abstract

In daily life, more is communicated than is said. This is why the study of pragmatics, or understanding what is not said, should play a more significant role in ESL/EFL classrooms. This paper, stemming from the previous literature that shines a light on the inadequacy of ESL/EFL textbooks regarding the teaching of pragmatics, aims to present musical songs as a supplementary tool to fill this gap. For this study, one group number called It's All Over from the musical Dreamgirls was analysed. Due to the qualitative nature of the present study, the speech acts, more specifically the illocutionary acts, in the song were analysed manually. Then, the speech acts were categorised based on Searle's Taxonomy and as direct or indirect speech acts. The results of this study show that the song It's All Over is highly rich in terms of speech acts. Even though there aren't any declarative speech acts, the felicity conditions weren't met since none of the characters are in a position of authority, there are 12 representatives, 6 directives, 5 commissives, and 5 expressives. Although being a narrow-scoped pilot study, this research shows promise that this song has many examples of different communicative aspects of language and can be used in the classroom to supplement ESL/EFL textbooks in teaching pragmatics. A logical deduction can be made to see whether other songs that have the same characteristics (e.g., being group numbers or having dialogues) would yield a similar result.

Keywords: pragmatics, speech acts, musicals, *Dreamgirls*

Introduction

For a few decades, second language pedagogy has been mainly concerned with communicative competence. Kiessling and Fabry (2021) propose defining communicative competence as "the ability to achieve communicative goals in a socially appropriate manner." This definition can be regarded as highly beneficial since it includes the social aspect of the language as well. For instance, there are many ways to refuse a request however one cannot say "no, dude" to their professor. Similarly, one wouldn't prefer to refuse a close friend by saying "I would really like to help you out albeit I am highly busy with the projects at hand."

The social aspect of communicative competence calls for the study of pragmatics to be included in the process. The core of the study of pragmatics lies in this statement: "More is communicated than is said." There is more in communication among people than just utterances. Of the many types of communication, conversations have received considerable attention within the relevant literature. Especially among the ESL and EFL research because English is taught as a second or foreign language mostly for communicative purposes, mainly oral communication.

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We engage in conversations with over 5,000 speech act moves per day, claims Levinson (2016). We must quickly interpret or associate speech acts in order to respond since we are more prone to respond to the illocutionary force than the message. Thus, pragmatic competence has become a crucial part of communicative competence.

Even though textbooks are generally the main material of instruction, many textbooks fall behind when analysed according to their representation and inclusion of pragmatics and speech acts. In a study conducted by Ren & Han (2016), ten textbooks used in Chinese universities were analysed. The study states that about 10 percent of the pages in textbooks include some pragmatic information. The authors place emphasis on the word *some*. One might predict that this is because the pages were not dedicated to pragmatic information but rather included small boxes that have pragmatic information. In addition to the quantity of pragmatic information, they also criticise the quality of pragmatic information that is presented. The authors state that “The range of speech acts included is rather limited, and the ways that speech acts are presented seem to be based on writers’ intuition.”

Similar results have been obtained from similar studies. Cohen and Ishihara (2013) come to the conclusion that the majority of the resources analysed in their study seem to inadequately represent pragmatic language use in the social context. Similarly, Harwood (2014) states that students are generally given inadequate context while being exposed to a target linguistic resource for the first time (as cited in Ren & Han, 2016).

Another research topic in ESL/EFL research is the effects of music on teaching English. There is now much evidence to support the hypothesis that the use of music affects the language learning process positively. Even though songs specifically made for language learning are mostly targeted towards children, normal songs can be used with adult students. However, these songs will probably lack many of the communicative aspects of the language.

Musicals, on the other hand, can be a great tool to incorporate music into language teaching since communication happens through music in them. This way it is possible to benefit from the positive effects of music while teaching the communicative aspects of the language.

While a considerable amount of research has been done in the areas of pragmatics, conversation analysis and, music in language teaching, there has been little -almost no- research on the use of musicals which are vast resources of melodic dialogues. The aim of this paper is to show that songs from musicals can be very useful while teaching communication. Due to the fact that analysing conversations of people is as challenging as is beneficial, this study only focuses on the analysis of speech acts in one musical number, which is “It’s All Over” from “Dreamgirls.”



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Methodology

The lyrics of the song “It’s All Over” from the musical “Dreamgirls” were analysed in a qualitative manner to answer the main research question of this study, “Can musicals be used to teach speech acts?” Since an utterance can have a lot of functions and purposes within a language, some classification schemes have been proposed. Two of the schemes are within the scope of this paper, Searle’s Taxonomy and whether the speech acts are direct or indirect. In the following section of the paper, the speech acts in the song will be categorised according to these two schemes.

Results

Searle’s Taxonomy

In *A Taxonomy of Illocutionary Acts*, Searle (1976) identifies five categories of illocutionary acts: representatives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations. Representative illocutionary acts are where the speaker states their belief. Directive illocutionary acts are where the speaker wants to make the hearer do something. Commissive illocutionary acts are where the speaker commits themselves to an action in the future. Expressive illocutionary acts are where the speaker states their feelings. Finally, declarations are statements made by an authority figure. Since none of the characters in this song are in a position of authority, there aren’t any declarations. However, the instances of the rest are present.

Representatives

In lines 23 to 25, Effie states some facts that she believes to be true, which makes them representative speech acts. She thinks that Curtis and Deena are having sex, that Deena thinks she’s better than everybody, that she isn’t better than anybody, and that she’s common.

In response to this, Deena says “Now who you calling common you self-indulgent self-absorbed nonprofessional?” Here she performs a representative speech act because she states that she thinks Effie is self-indulgent, self-absorbed, and nonprofessional.

In line 40, Effie performs another representative illocutionary act by saying that this fight is between Deena and her to exclude Lorrell. In response to this Lorrell performs another representative speech act, in lines 42 and 43, indicating that she believes that she’s a part of the group as much as them and she’s involved too.

Other examples are:

- “I always knew you two were together” – line 47
- “I always knew you two were ganging up on me” – line 51
- “I knew you were trouble from the start” – line 57



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- “You were real bad trouble from the start” – line 61
- “Curtis I’m your woman!” – line 62
- “This time you know what you’ve done” – line 76
- “So they bought your black ass too, huh?” – line 78
- “This time you’ve gone too far” – line 80

Directives

In line 17, Curtis tells Effie to stop excusing herself which is a directive speech act because he wants Effie to perform an action – in this case not to perform an action.

In line 38, Lorrell says “Oh, now when are you two gonna stop all this fighting?” Even though this sentence is in the form of a question, the function here is to stop Deena and Effie fighting. Lorrell utters this sentence with expectations of them coming to their senses and stopping fighting.

In line 72, C.C. says “Lay off, Effie. Just take the money and run” which is a directive illocutionary act because he wants Effie to stop, take the money and go away. Also, in lines 76 and 80 C.C. says, “Cool it, Effi.” and “I said cool it, Effie” respectively. These are also directives because they are uttered with the aim of making the hearer do something.

Another example is in lines 95 and 96 where Michelle says “Now you watch your mouth / Watch your mouth Miss Effie White”. Here Michelle wants Effie to be cautious about the way she speaks which makes it a directive illocutionary act.

Commissives

In line 68, Curtis says “Don’t worry baby, I’ll buy you out” to Effie, meaning that he will pay her share of the group. This is a commissive illocutionary act because Curtis commits himself to a future action which is to pay Effie’s shares.

In lines 110 and 114, everyone tells Effie “And now we’re telling you it’s all over” and “It’s all over” respectively, meaning that they aren’t going to work with her anymore. This can be considered as a commissive illocutionary act because they commit themselves to a future action which is to not work with Effie.

In lines 112 and 116, Effie says “And now I’m telling you I ain’t going” and “I ain’t going” respectively, meaning that she isn’t giving up. This also can be considered as a commissive illocutionary act because she commits herself to the act of not giving up.



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Expressives

In lines 15 and 99, Effie says “It’s just I haven’t been feeling that well” and “I’m not feeling well I got pain” respectively. Since she is talking about her feelings these are expressive illocutionary acts. As a response to Effie’s expressive illocutionary act in line 99, everyone says “Effie we all got pain!” in line 101. This is also an expressive illocutionary act because they are talking about the pain they are feeling.

In lines 34 to 36, Deena says “I’ve put up with you for much too long / I have put up with your bitching / I’ve put up with your nagging and all your screaming too”. Although this verse looks like a statement, it’s actually an expressive illocutionary act due to the negative meaning of “put up with someone/something”.

Finally, in lines 44 and 45, Lorrel says “I’m tired Effie, I’m tired of all the problems you’re making us” which is an expressive illocutionary act because she is talking about her feelings and being tired.

Direct and Indirect Speech Acts

The fact that whether a speech act is direct or indirect is dependent on its structure and function. Yule (1996) mentions three structural forms (declarative, interrogative, imperative) and three communicative functions (statement, question, command/request). The general relationship between these forms and functions are that statements are declarative, questions are interrogative, and commands and requests are imperative. If there is a direct relationship between the form and function of a speech act, it is regarded as a direct speech act. However, if the relationship isn’t direct, it is regarded as an indirect speech act.

Direct Speech Acts

In line 40, Effie says “Stay out of this, Lorrell!” This is a direct speech act because the form is imperative, and the function is command. Other examples include:

- “Stop excusing yourself” – line 17 – (imperative – command)
- “I always knew you two were together” – line 47 – (declarative – statement)
- “I always knew you two were ganging up on me” – line 51 – (declarative – statement)
- “I knew you were trouble from the start” – line 57 – (declarative – statement)
- “You were real bad trouble from the start” – line 61 – (declarative – statement)

Indirect Speech Acts

In line 27, Deena says “Now who you calling common you self-indulgent self-absorbed nonprofessional?” In the video it is clear that Effie is calling Deena common, so she isn’t asking this question to receive an informative answer but rather to state the bad things about Effie.



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This is an indirect speech act because the form of the utterance is interrogative but the function isn't questioning, it's stating.

In line 38, Lorrell says "Oh, now when are you two gonna stop all this fighting?" As explained above, although this is a question, it is not uttered to receive an answer but rather to request to stop the fight. This is why it is regarded as an indirect speech act.

In line 93, Effie says "How much did you put out to get in?" Because of the meaning of "put out" and the presupposition it generates, this sentence isn't regarded as a question but a statement or accusation. It is regarded as an indirect speech act because the form is imperative, but the function is making a statement.

Discussion and Conclusion

The study described here was performed in order to provide information on whether or not songs from musicals can be useful tools for teaching communication. Even though there has been little -almost no- research on the area, this study shows promise that they can be useful. The results of this study indicate that this song includes many features of the speech acts such as different illocutionary acts, as well as many instances belonging to two different classification schemes. Thus, this study provides strong evidence that this song has many examples of different communicative aspects of language and can be used in the classroom. A logical deduction can be made as to other songs that have the same characteristics (e.g., being group numbers or having dialogues) would yield a similar result.

It should be noted that this study has been primarily concerned with a single song and a single topic, since it is both challenging and time-consuming to conduct a study like this manually. In addition, it wouldn't be wrong to state that the examples which are chosen to be presented in this paper are subjective. Due to the manual nature of the study, this was inevitable. Other researchers may find different underlying speech acts or emphasize other examples.

There are three major implications of this study that are worth mentioning. First, this study proves that this song, and probably many more musical numbers, can be used to teach language and communication. Secondly, further research is needed to assess how other songs share (or not) the same characteristics and whether or not they can be used in language classrooms. Finally, an experiment would further prove the points made in this paper.



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Appendix

1 C.C.: Effie, Curtis was supposed to—
2
3 EFFIE: Love me! Curtis was supposed to love me!
4
5 CURTIS: There you are, Effie. I've been looking all over.
6
7 EFFIE: I turn my back and find myself out on the line,
8 You could have warned me but that would have been too kind
9
10 CURTIS: I've been warning you for months to clean up your act. You've been late, you've
11 been mean, giving all kinds of bullshit flack.
12
13 EFFIE: That's a lie
14 That's a lie
15 It's just I haven't been feeling that well
16
17 CURTIS: Effie, please. Stop excusing yourself. You've been late; you've been mean and
18 getting fatter all the time.
19
20 EFFIE: Now you're lying You're lying
21 I've never been so thin
22 You're lying You're lying
23 'Cause you're knocking off that piece who thinks she's better than everybody
24 She ain't better than anybody,
25 She ain't nothing but common
26
27 DEENA: Now who you calling common you self-indulgent Self-absorbed
28 nonprofessional?
29
30 EFFIE: You
31 I'm calling you
32 I'm calling you the common piece he's knocking off
33
34 DEENA: Now you listen to me, Miss Blame-It-On-The-World
35 See, I've put up with you for much to long
36 I have put up with your bitching
37 I've put up with your nagging and all your screaming too
38
39 LORRELL: Oh, now when are you two gonna stop all this fighting?
40
41 EFFIE: Stay out of this, Lorrell! This is between Deena and me.
42
43 LORRELL: Yeah? Well, it's between me too



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44 I'm as much a part of this group as anybody else,
45 and I'm tired Effie, I'm tired
46 Of all the problems you're making us
47
48 EFFIE: I always knew you two were together
49
50 LORRELL: What!?
51
52 EFFIE: I always knew you two were ganging up on me
53
54 DEENA: She had nothing to do with this change, it was you
55 It was you always thinking of you
56 Always thinking of you
57
58 CURTIS: I knew you were trouble from the start
59
60 EFFIE: Trouble?
61
62 CURTIS: You were real bad trouble from the start
63
64 EFFIE: Curtis I'm your woman!
65
66 CURTIS: But you're getting out now
67 I'm not building this group to have you tear it apart
68 Go ahead and rant and scream and shout
69 Don't worry baby, I'll buy you out
70
71 EFFIE: There's no money dirty enough to buy me out. You remember that, Curtis.
72
73 C.C.: Lay off, Effie. Just take the money and run
74
75 EFFIE: You in this with them, C.C.?
76
77 C.C.: Cool it, Effie. This time you know what you've done
78
79 EFFIE: So they bought your black ass too, huh?
80
81 C.C.: I said cool it, Effie. This time you've gone too far
82
83 EFFIE: Oh I can go further. I can go further.
84
85 MICHELLE: I don't want to stay around this
86 I'm just breaking into this business



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87 This is between all of you
88 This is none of my affair
89
90 EFFIE: Yeah? Well, it's between you too now, lil' sister.
91 This snow job is as much your sin,
92 Look at me
93 Look at me
94 How much did you put out to get in?
95
96 MICHELLE: Now you watch your mouth
97 Watch your mouth Miss Effie White
98 'Cause I don't take that tone from some second-rate diva Who can't sustain
99
100 EFFIE: I'm not feeling well I got pain
101
102 ALL: Effie, we all got pain!
103
104 EFFIE: Oh for seven years I sung with you
105 I was your sister
106
107 ALL: You were our trouble
108
109 EFFIE: And now you're telling me It's all over?
110
111 ALL: And now we're telling you It's all over
112
113 EFFIE: And now I'm telling you I ain't going
114
115 ALL: It's all over
116
117 EFFIE: I ain't going



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Investigation of the Tertiary Level Foreign Language Learners' Perceptions of Cooperative Learning

Erdal KAÇAR*

Abstract

Cooperative learning is widely recognised as a pedagogical practice that promotes socialization and learning among students from pre-school through to tertiary level and across different subject domains. There is no doubt that teachers play a key role in establishing cooperative learning experiences in their classrooms by structuring the groups and the tasks so that students understand what they are expected to do and how they are expected to behave. Helping students to interact and work together not only enables students to learn from each other but also to accept responsibility for the tasks they have to complete and the decisions they have to make. From this perspective, qualitative research method was used to uncover foreign language learners' perceptions of cooperative learning and the application of the term in the classrooms. In total, 45 students who learn German, English and French at the Department of Foreign Languages answered the open-ended questions. The results have indicated that the majority of the respondents have a limited range of definitions and explanations about cooperative learning. Although they do not have enough experience about the term, they strongly believe in the effectiveness of cooperative learning. The results further underlined that most of the students who participated in the study had a wish to have lessons designed with cooperative learning by the teachers who can enhance good working relationships among them. Overall, this study highlights the significance of cooperative learning for the improvement of working in groups and proposes valuable implications for further implementations and research.

Keywords: Cooperative learning, foreign language learners, perception

Introduction

In developing nations, education plays a key role in shaping future generations. Cooperative learning is one of the teaching approaches that employ cooperative activities such as pair and small group work in learning environments and the epistemological assumptions of collaborative learning are mostly borrowed from the American educator John Dewey in the early twentieth century (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Democratic social theories, according to Dewey (1938), emphasize cooperation among group members as a way to promote student learning. In a similar respect, the success of learners' academic achievements becomes reliant on their capacity to work as a team (Vygotsky, 1978). Cooperative learning is a combination of educational techniques that are designed to raise student accomplishment and provide teachers with stimulating tasks to encourage productivity. Each member of a small group team is responsible for not only learning the content information but also for assisting and facilitating their teammates' learning, thanks to the small group components of cooperative learning strategies, which actively seek to promote interdependence among group members (Altun, 2015; Calderon et al., 2011).

Collaboration can be used in the teaching and learning process, according to Nayan et al. (2010), since it allows students to actively participate in the process, which helps them better

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understand certain concepts or recall knowledge in their long-term memory. By placing students in groups to do daily class worksheets, homework reviews, controlled conversations, and hands-on activities, teachers promote teamwork in the classroom. Hence, understanding how foreign language learners view collaborative learning will help language teachers effectively provide a suitable curriculum and environment while also fostering academic progress. The opinions of the learners regarding the teacher's methods and teaching style should also be taken into account. As a result, the researcher is in a need to see how students feel about using cooperative learning in foreign language classes. It is important to provide a complete picture of the students' perspectives and experiences with cooperative learning in their FLE (Foreign Language Education) department.

The Aim of the Study

Cooperative learning methodologies play a significant role in improving EFL learners' performance to the target level. Hence, this study aims to understand foreign language students' perceptions of cooperative learning. With this aim, the following research question guides the direction of the study:

What are foreign language students' perceptions of cooperative learning?

This study portrays the picture of foreign language learners' perspectives on the issue and it can give an insight into how foreign language students think about their instructors and their implementations of cooperative learning.

Literature Review

Cooperative Learning

The term cooperative learning comes from the word cooperative, which refers to working as a team or a group to accomplish a task. It refers to teaching methods in which students work together in small groups to help each other learn academic content (Slavin, 2015). Larsen-Freeman (2000) suggests that cooperative or collaborative learning involves students' learning from each other in groups. In order to improve both the students' communication competence and their critical thinking skills, cooperative language learning emphasizes the crucial role that social contact plays in language learning (Richards and Rogers, 2001). In line with this, the following core goals are included in the use of cooperative learning in language instruction (Richards and Rogers, 2001):

- to provide opportunities for naturalistic second language acquisition through the use of interactive pair and group activities,
- to provide teachers with a methodology to enable them to achieve this goal and one that can be applied in a variety of curriculum settings (e.g., content-based, foreign language classrooms; mainstreaming),



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- to enable focused attention to particular lexical items, language structures, and communicative functions through the use of interactive tasks
- to provide opportunities for learners to develop successful learning and communication strategies,
- to enhance learner motivation and reduce learner stress and create a positive effective classroom climate (p. 93).

With all levels of education, cooperative learning not only promotes students' social skills performance but also their communicative competence. Cooperative learning is particularly advantageous for developing critical thinking abilities, teamwork, and encouraging others and it can help pupils understand complex academic subjects. Cooperative learning involves students actively participating in the learning process, which improves the quality of interaction and communication while also inspiring students to increase learning achievement, particularly in language classrooms.

Cooperative Learning in FLE Context

There are numerous efficient teaching methods for encouraging the cognitive and linguistic progress of foreign language students. Richard and Rodgers (2001) suggest that 'in foreign or second language teaching, cooperative learning has been embraced as a way of promoting communicative interaction in the classroom and is seen as an extension of the principles of communicative language teaching' (p.193). When students work together to learn, they will go through a successful learning process, and teachers will be able to help learners perform well better in school (Brown, 2008). While the teacher uses collaborative language teaching strategies to promote learning for a language, students will be more involved in the language classroom and produce more positive learning outcomes.

According to Ahlstrom (2003), the interaction between the teacher and the students should be used to explore topics on an equal footing and jointly develop fresh perspectives on the world. Since students are required to collaborate with one another to overcome difficulties and achieve their academic goals, cooperative learning promotes social and personal growth (Mohseny & Jamour, 2012). Cooperative learning is more than just group work; it's a chance for everyone to work together on a project to improve their social skills (Van Wyk, 2012). Slavin restates this fact by underlining that cooperative learning encourages the development of students' personalities, relationships with other students and teachers, and enthusiasm for the subject being studied (Slavin, 2011). As a matter of fact, cooperative learning is equally important for teachers as well as students in order to achieve effective language teaching and learning. Since it improves the classroom environment and language skills of students, cooperative learning is becoming more and more popular on a global scale (Zhou, 2012). Language teachers have a better chance of understanding students' needs and knowing how to support their learning if they encourage collaborative learning among their pupils.



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Methodology

Participants

The participants for the study included 30 foreign language learners from a state university in Turkey. All the students are 4th grade and ten of them are students from the department of German language teaching, 10 are from the department of English language teaching and the rest of them are from the department of French language teaching. According to Dörnyei (2007), convenience or opportunity sampling is the most popular method of sampling in L2 studies, where the only consideration is the researcher's convenience. Therefore, the students in this study have been selected according to are selected for the study as they meet certain practical criteria, such as geographical proximity, availability at a certain time, easy accessibility, or willingness to volunteer (Dörnyei, 2007). 22 participants were female and the rest of them were male, but gender was not considered as a variable for data analysis. The open-ended questions were designed to measure the 4th grade students' understanding of cooperative learning as well as gain comprehension of their definition of cooperative learning, personal perspective, and exposure to cooperative learning. The opinions of the participants were given through encoding letter to them, which was followed by ordinal numbers as representatives (Participant 1=A1).

Data Collection Tool and Data Analysis

This study aims to comprehend foreign language students' notion of cooperative learning in general rather than subject specific. Following this objective, a survey with open-ended questions as a qualitative data collection tool was utilized to frame the findings in the study. Data collected from open-ended questions were qualitative, so Qualitative Content Analysis (Mayring, 2000; Schreier, 2012) was used as the primary method of data analysis. The aim was to determine categories, themes, phrases or concepts within texts in order to make inferences about the messages stated by the participants. The responses were organized into the categories that emerged most strongly and that aligned with ideas in cooperative learning. Therefore, certain conceptions were identified and analysed (Marton & Pong, 2005).

Findings

The findings are presented under four main titles according to the questions asked in the survey according to the research question. After collecting the answers, the researcher first went through the participants' answers in order to familiarize with the data in the light of cooperative learning. In the second phase, noting brief descriptions and explanations of the participants regarding the topic were categorized. The findings are presented separately under the title of foreign language students' perceptions about the definition of cooperative learning, their perceptions about teachers' role in terms of cooperative learning, their perceptions regarding students' role in the process of cooperative learning and their perceptions about the advantages and disadvantages about the implementation of cooperative learning.



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Foreign language students' perceptions about the definition of cooperative learning

The survey started by asking the definition of cooperative learning to illustrate whether the participants were familiar with the term or not. The answers stated by the participants were sorted out and categorised with some outstanding expressions. The results regarding the first title are presented in table 1.

Table 1 *The participants and their perceptions regarding cooperative learning*

Categories related to the definition of Cooperative Learning			
Frequency	Group Work	Social Relations	Common Goal
16	Working together Providing equal contribution Exchanging information	Understanding others Improving a helpful sense Strengthening empathy	Sharing the same purpose Taking an active role Performing at the highest level
6	Doing a task together Sharing duties Fostering team spirit Fostering the sense of self-sacrifice	Improving the sense of respect Improving the level of tolerance for others	Joint effort Maximizing working hours Motivating each other Sharing responsibilities
8	Having no idea about cooperative learning and its definition		

Concerning the definition of cooperative learning, except for eight participants, all the participants had a tendency to describe cooperative learning as a method of learning a subject by forming small groups of students working together for a common goal to solve a problem or accomplish a task. Especially, the preservice teachers (A6, A18) are found to have outstanding explanations of their perceptions about cooperative learning explained in the following excerpts.

A6: Cooperative learning is a method of learning a subject by working together to complete a task.

A18: Cooperative learning is when students learn a subject by assigning certain tasks in groups. Key points: Leadership is shared; success or failure is undertaken by all members.

The participants tended to have a consensus about their explanations for cooperative learning although three of them had no idea about the term. Most of them stressed the importance of working as a group work, improving social relations, and achieving a common goal as a group in their definitions of cooperative learning.



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Foreign language students' perceptions about the role of teachers in terms of cooperative learning

Some of the participants directly said that they had no idea about the roles of the teachers while many stated some crucial roles of teachers in terms of cooperative learning. Analysis results of pre-service teachers' perceptions about the roles of teachers in terms of cooperative learning are shared in Table 2.

Table 2 *The participants and their perceptions regarding the roles of the teachers in terms of cooperative learning*

Categories related to the roles of the teachers in terms of cooperative learning			
Frequency	Being a Guide	Being an Organizer	Source of Motivation
9	Helping with any need Coping with difficulties Making directions	Distributing the roles Leading to reaching the right decisions	Giving encouragement Supplying positive energy
8	Giving support Showing toleration	Implementing the planned actions	Raising participation Increasing group dynamics
6	Identifying goals and aims Working together Being fair	Programming Managing time	encourages cooperation Increasing the willingness to participate
7	Having no idea concerning teachers' role in terms of cooperative learning		

Some participants gave remarkable explanations about the teachers' roles by referring to their experiences. They also added their willingness to be asked to discuss those roles in the course of teaching and learning. Especially, the participants (A3, A12, and A25) expressed their thoughts regarding the second question clearly.

A3: The teacher ensures the active participation of all participants and evaluates this. It helps students explore different perspectives and views and motivates group dynamics.

A12: The role of the teacher is to be a guide. He/she is to provide a learning environment where students can work comfortably.

A25: The teacher is expected to monitor developments and problems in all groups regularly by learning from students and encouraging students individually and in groups.



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Although seven students explained no idea about the teachers' role, the rest of the participants perceive teachers as important guides, effective organizers, and lastly as a source of motivation during the learning processes.

Foreign language students' perceptions about the role of students in terms of cooperative learning

The data analysis uncovered the participants' perceptions about their roles in cooperative learning. The results of the analysis regarding the third question are notified in Table 3.

Table 3 *The participants and their perceptions regarding the roles of the students in terms of cooperative learning*

Categories related to the role of the students in terms of cooperative learning			
Frequency	Group Work	Personality	Social skills
11	Sharing duties Contributing to reaching the common goal	Becoming extrovert Improving trustworthy	Improving the sense of friendship and togetherness
9	Sharing a common identity Collaborating with peers	Learning cooperation Improving the sense of tolerance	Learning from each other Improving communication skills
6	Being social Having equal opportunities	Improving the sense of empathy	Behaving for the sake of the group goals
5	Having no idea concerning students' roles in terms of cooperative learning		

Their answers were generally about their roles in terms of group work, their contributions to each other's personalities, and improving social skills as a group. Particularly, the participants (A1, A30) explained their thoughts regarding this issue very clearly.

A1: Even the most passive student has a great share in the success of the group. Students work together, there is no individuality. The whole group works together for the purpose.

A30: It is a process in which students are active. He/she strives for both his/her own success and the success of the group. I think that a real responsibility is placed on the student at this point.

It can be inferred that the students have a tendency to perceive their roles in cooperative learning as positive and encouraging.



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Foreign language students' perceptions about the advantages and disadvantages of cooperative learning

The participants, quite enough, state the level of their awareness regarding the advantages and disadvantages of cooperative learning. The students' opinions about this issue are presented in table 4.

Table 4 *The participants and their perceptions regarding the advantages and disadvantages of cooperative learning*

Categories related to the advantages and disadvantages of cooperative learning			
Frequency	Advantages	Disadvantages	Potential Risks
11	Improving social skills Fostering personal efforts	Causing role conflict among peers Trigger leadership debates	Working with peers may not be satisfactory enough Group work may lead to a lack of motivation
8	Increasing collaboration Improving group identity	Making use of others' efforts Dysfunctional division of roles	The difference in learning speed may cause reluctance Organizational errors may lead to chaos
6	Increasing productivity Providing psychosocial and emotional development.	Improper organization of student groups Not managing time	Mismatches in groups may reduce efficiency Teacher's incompetence may cause problems
5	Having no idea about the advantages and disadvantages of cooperative learning		

The participants commented on the awareness of the advantages, disadvantages, and some potential risks in terms of cooperative learning. They stated their thought according to the experiences they had during any kind of learning process that was shaped by cooperative learning. Their experiences illustrated that cooperative learning is not always advantageous as it sometimes leads to confusion and a low level of efficiency during the learning process. The participant (A28) own clear insights and overtly expressed their thoughts.

A28: The advantage is that it increases social learning. The downside is that everyone in the group has a different learning pace.

In this regard, they are aware of the advantages, disadvantages, and potential risks of cooperative learning.



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Discussion

The main goal of this study is to uncover the students' perceptions and opinions concerning cooperative learning including some sub-questions. For the definition of cooperative learning, the participants basically used the expressions like working together, doing a task as a group, exchanging ideas, understanding their peers, and taking an active role. According to research, cooperative learning boosts students' affordances for classes and curriculum while also raising engagement and achievement levels among mainstream students (Altun, 2015; Calderon et al., 2011). The findings also revealed that foreign language students tend to think positively about cooperative learning. Thus, the ability to collaborate with team members becomes critical to the success of students' academic abilities (Vygotsky, 1978). This investigation confirmed the validity of the theoretical frameworks developed by Piaget (1926), Dewey (1938), and Vygotsky (1978).

The answers of the participants regarding the teachers' roles in the process of cooperative learning are mostly related to teachers' being a guide, an organiser and a source of motivation. These themes are also supported by the previous studies by underlining that teachers can assure the effectiveness of their cooperative learning teams by modifying materials and methods, actively observing interactions, and changing the groups as necessary (Hsuing et al., 2014). It takes careful planning and management on the part of the instructor to be able to effectively manage and encourage positive interdependence and individual responsibility among the students (Sadeghi, 2012). Although some students did not have enough knowledge about the teachers' roles, the others who seemed to have more experience with cooperative learning seemed to stress the positive perceptions about teachers' roles in terms of cooperative learning.

The third category was related to the students' roles in terms of cooperative learning. Except for five students, the rest of the participants clearly listed their roles according to the roles they have in a group both as a self and a peer. On the one hand, they focused on sharing duties, being social, learning cooperation, improving both self and group identity, and on the other hand they perceived their roles as improving the sense of friendship and togetherness, developing communication skills and learning from each other. Similarly, cooperative-based learning environments have been linked to improved academic achievement in general, including among different student subgroups like foreign language learners. Particularly, under the title of identity, the students stressed their role of improving their self and becoming more extroverted. Personal responsibility is a crucial element that has been confirmed by the results of some experimental research (Slavin, 2009). The success of a team is dependent on each member's ability to learn, which is what individual accountability means (Wang, 2009). Every team member, regardless of whether they are a high, average, or low achiever, has an equal opportunity to contribute to the team's success (Wang, 2009).

The last category was about the advantages and disadvantages of cooperative learning. Apart from the students who did not mention any point about the advantages and the disadvantages of cooperative learning, the others elaborated on both the benefits and drawbacks of the topic



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by talking about their thoughts regarding the potential impacts as well. Given the advantages of cooperative learning strategies as described above, the more cooperative-based education a student receives, the more successful they will be. Foreign language learners show a beneficial impact of phonetic and phonological training with cooperative learning strategies (Chen et al., 2011; Slavin, 2015). The study of the data also generated concerns about the understanding that some of the cooperative learning's drawbacks, which they complained about, were generally about having role conflict among peers, making use of others' efforts, not managing time, and having organizational problems. As a result of these drawbacks, the students think that it is sometimes possible that working with peers may not be satisfactory enough and group work may lead to a lack of motivation. In addition, the findings show that the difference in learning speed may cause reluctance and organizational errors may lead to chaos during the process of cooperative learning. At this point, the foreign language students think that all the teachers need to improve their confidence to practice cooperative learning in order to improve student achievement and make them become better people.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to assess the extent that foreign language students at the tertiary level have about cooperative learning and discover their perceptions regarding sub-questions concerning cooperative learning. The hypothesis for this descriptive study was whether the students fully understand cooperative learning and would want it to be incorporated and/or implemented into their lessons by their teachers. The findings clarified that the students at most were aware of the term cooperative learning and had a tendency to perceive cooperative learning in relation to working together as a group, sharing responsibilities, exchanging information, providing equal contribution, improving social skills and empathy, understanding others, being active and supporting each other in order to achieve a common goal. Cooperative learning is positively viewed as an effective learning practice by the participants in this research. According to the research, cooperative learning supports students in learning a language, and the majority of students acknowledge that this strategy makes it simple for them to learn by working in a team and makes the learning process more engaging. Additionally, students think that by interacting in cooperative learning, they can learn language from each other as well as from the teacher. According to the students' perceptions, cooperative learning has a positive effect on students' ability to achieve language learning objectives and this proves that cooperative learning is a useful strategy to use, particularly in foreign language classrooms despite the fact that it has some drawbacks and potential risks as categorised under the light of the findings.

The findings from this study guide teachers and teacher educators about the need to reshape and reorganise the strategies they use and make use of cooperative learning more as it is clearly useful in increasing the engagement and achievement levels of various groups of students. The recommendations for this study focus on gaining a better understanding of how cooperative learning practices affect English, German and French language learners separately. The goal of this study was to determine foreign language learners' perspectives and gather data to



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determine whether they can provide an explanation about what cooperative learning is, what kind of roles the teachers have during the implementation of cooperative learning, what kind of role the students have during the teaching and learning process and lastly what kind of advantages and disadvantages that they can state about cooperative learning. At this point, this study could benefit from additional research that focuses on quantitative data from student performance. In the same way, future research could build on this one and examine the quantitative data of test results for students with and without cooperative learning strategies in a language classroom. Moreover, educators are continually looking for fresh and powerful approaches to help students understand what they are studying better. Teachers who read this study will be able to see how cooperative learning techniques promote students who are studying foreign languages. In brief, this study's findings show that foreign language learners generally have a favourable view of cooperative learning and how it can affect the achievement and engagement of language learners.



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Pre-service Teachers' Perceptions on Blended Learning

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Hasan BEDİR†

Abstract

As a prerequisite of the 21st century, technology-based teaching and learning environments have increased and made many school administrations to incorporate online and blended courses into their curriculum. As there is a need to prepare prospective teachers to be able to teach in multiple formats, there is a need for education programs to enhance the practices in both online and face-to face contexts. Accordingly, the purpose of this research is to uncover and understand pre-service teachers' perceptions about blended learning in order to better comprehend the application of blended learning in the classrooms. Therefore, a mixed method research design was used including a survey with two parts answered by 64 pre-service teachers and a semi-structured interview participated by 10 prospective teachers. The results have clarified that pre-service teachers strongly believe the potential of online and blended courses to provide more personalized, student-centered approaches for the students. Indeed, they underline that blended learning have the opportunity to help them gain different learning models to individualize learning by providing them with some choice in where, when, and what they learn. They also believe that blended learning can make a significant contribution to learners' personal and cultural development as well as promoting progression in language learning and use. To sum up, this research stresses the importance of blended learning for pre-service teachers to know how to use technology in their future classrooms by having implications for future practices at any level.

Keywords: blended learning, pre-service teachers, perception

Introduction

During the last decade, the capacity of learners to work together to learn, think creatively, study independently, and customize their own learning experiences to suit their particular requirements is increasing. For students to build their abilities and competence as learners, the U.S. Department of Education (Means, Toyama, Murphy, Bakia, & Jones, 2009) states that a combination of classroom and web-based teaching and learning provides access to the widest range of learning modalities and approaches (as cited in Cleveland-Innes, 2018). Blended learning has exploded in popularity since the relatively basic learning management systems that first appeared in the late 1990s. "Rather than having to distribute CD-ROMs to learners, organizations could simply upload material, e Learning assessments, and assignments via the web, and learners could access them with a click of a mouse button" (Pappas, 2015b). The majority of people on earth today have access to computers, tablets, and smartphones, and learning that is supported by technology has expanded in scope and accessibility. Learners have

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access to a wide range of applications to help their learning, and more and more teachers and institutions are incorporating web-based learning into their delivery methods. Therefore, blended learning is one of the important innovations in teaching and learning techniques brought about by the use of internet-based technology and computer software. Basioudis, et.al. (2012) stated that students' perceptions of blended learning management system and its online materials is influential to their level of engagement. Hence, this study aims to understand the pre-service teachers' perceptions about blended learning. This study can give an insight about how pre-service teachers think about what blended learning and what it requires including the implementations of the term. By doing this, this study can also contribute to the field of teacher training and the use of teaching alternatives in class on how to use and guide prospective teachers for teaching in a blended learning environment.

Literature Review

Definition of Blended Learning

Although blended learning is a recent concept and practice, it has been developed and put into practice in numerous ways by numerous academics and institutions throughout the world. It has also been investigated from a variety of viewpoints. As a consequence, it has many various definitions and names, including "hybrid learning" and "flipped classroom". Boelens, et al. (2015) defined it as "learning that happens in an instructional context which is characterized by a deliberate combination of online and classroom-based interventions to instigate and support learning" (p.5). According to Bonk and Graham, "blended learning systems combine face-to-face instruction with computer-mediated instruction" (2006, p. 5). Considering this large range of definitions, the most of them are essentially the definitions of a few basic themes. Graham, Allen, and Ure (2005) defined three themes according to different definitions. First, they explained blended learning as the blending of various instructional modalities or delivery media. Secondly, they defined blended learning as the blending of various modalities or delivery media, and lastly, they indicated blended learning as the blending of face-to-face instruction with computer-mediated education.

The term "blended learning" describes a flexible method of teaching that recognizes the benefits of performing some instruction and assessment online while also incorporating other methods to create a comprehensive training program that can enhance learning outcomes. According to Kintu et al. (2017), blended learning allows EFL instructors and students to have more comprehensive teaching-learning experiences under the guidance of various technological tools. In line with this, Dziuban et al. (2018) also agree incorporating a blended learning strategy will also enable teachers and students to completely experience more enjoyable learning interactions whereby technological supervisions can greatly increase their knowledge. Although blended learning is a recent development, it is regarded as one of the most significant educational innovations of the twenty-first century (Thorne, 2003). The reason why blended learning has been preferred by many is well explained by Chang-Tik (2018), who underlines that blended learning will produce academicians who are more knowledgeable,



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creative, and autonomous and who can apply their newly gained skills to solve a variety of problems in daily life when it is implemented properly.

Blended Learning in ELT Settings

Blended learning is becoming more popular at colleges and universities as more digital learning platforms are available and more ways are found to use them for educational purposes. It takes on best practices from both online and face-to-face teaching approaches. According to Ocak (2011), blended learning is a distinctive approach that enables teachers to balance the amount of in-person instruction and online learning by utilizing online communication tools, web-based content, and learning management systems. Students gain from this balance because it gives them the ability to use trustworthy learning resources at their own speed, communicate with teachers, and gather information about their learning development (Aldosemani et al., 2018). Additionally, blended learning serves educators by giving them access to materials from around the world that are appropriate for their students' talents and interests, increasing possibilities for meaningful professional development and cooperation, and enhancing time management (Ju & Mei, 2018). It increases students' enthusiasm in learning, helps them improve their language abilities, gives them the freedom to learn at their own speed, encourages deeper learning, and makes it easier for them to use technology (James, 2016). Blended learning also supports learners by providing them with a variety of abilities that may be immediately used for real-world problem-solving, such as research skills, self-learning skills, self-engagement skills, and computer literacy skills.

Some potential advantages of the blended learning approach include minimizing the need to only attend face-to-face and online classes (Kuo et al., 2015), providing more flexibility for teaching and learning for both teachers and students (López-Pérez et al., 2011), and potentially spending less money on courses than in traditional settings. Although the design of blended learning is supposedly an easy activity in the field of English language teaching, the activity substantially requires problem-solving skills (Hew & Cheung, 2014). When creating blended learning, it is essential to take into account the necessary physical and technological infrastructure in order to support learning rather than impede it (Garrison & Kanuka, 2004). In fact, "instructors need to improve their capabilities to deal with complex set of roles and responsibilities so that they can create a quality-learning environment" (Garrison & Vaughan, 2008, p. 49). Bearing a significant role during the teacher education process in terms of English language teaching, this study tries to comprehend pre-service teachers' perceptions about blended learning. The outcomes of this study should be able to contribute to the related literature by addressing the research question "What are pre-service teachers' perceptions on blended learning?"

Methodology

This study used a mixed method approach that integrates the gathering and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data. The explanatory sequential mixed method technique served as the foundation for the study. Mixed-methods study designs, according to Fraenkel, Wallen,



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and Hyun (2012), can assist researchers explain and clarify relationships among variables and thoroughly analyse them. According to Creswell and Clark (2007), an explanatory sequential design involves "first collecting quantitative data and then gathering qualitative data to assist explain or elaborate on the quantitative results." This strategy was chosen because, while quantitative data and results give a broad image of the study problem, more analysis, particularly through the collection of qualitative data, is required to enhance, extend, or clarify the general picture.

For the first phase, a questionnaire consisting of two parts was implemented. In the first part of the questionnaire, there were 15 items in order to uncover pre-service teachers' perceptions on what blended learning provides, and the second part included 10 items in order to understand pre-service teachers' perceptions on what blended learning requires. Pre-service teachers either agree or disagree with the items on the questionnaire. For the second phase of the study, semi structured face-to-face interviews were used to obtain qualitative data. This is because of the fact that research procedure keeps on advancing and evolving, and mixed methods is another progression forward, using the advantages of both qualitative and quantitative research (Creswell, 2009).

This study was conducted in spring semester of 2021-2022 academic year with 64 pre-service teachers. Convenient sampling was utilized while selecting the participants since it "is the least demanding technique, including the selection of the most accessible subjects" (Marshall, 1996, p.523). Moreover, semi-structured interview was applied to focus on obtaining data through conversational communication. The researcher has interviewed 10 participants from the same university with the aim of enriching the data as much as possible. As for the data analyses, the descriptive statistics was utilized for the data obtained from the questionnaire and content analysis was used for semi-structured interviews (Mayring, 2000). The researcher only wanted to focus on the participants' perceptions, hence they were not asked to provide any demographic or background information including gender.

Findings

The purpose of this study was to investigate pre-service teachers' perspectives of blended learning and to understand how they interpreted the concept. According to the survey questions and the research question, the findings are presented under two main sections. In the first part, pre-service teachers' perceptions on what blended learning provides were analysed and in the second part their perceptions on what blended learning requires were presented. For each sub-topic qualitative data were also analysed and relevant excerpts were stated.

Pre-Service Teachers' Perceptions on What Blended Learning Provides

Pre-service teachers' perceptions about the items regarding what blended learning provides were examined and descriptive statistical data were presented accordingly. Table 1 indicates pre-service teachers' perceptions item by item.



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Table 1. *The pre-service teachers' perception about what blended learning provides*

Items	N	Gender	Disagree	Agree	Mean	Std. Deviation																																																																																																																														
1. Blended Learning helps students develop only their language skills	64	Female	30	14	,3125	,46718																																																																																																																														
		Male	14	6			2. Blended Learning helps students develop only their subject knowledge.	64	Female	33	11	,2656	,44516	Male	14	6	3. Blended Learning helps students develop both their language skills and subject knowledge.	64	Female	2	42	,9531	,21304	Male	1	19	4. Blended Learning can increase student motivation to learn.	64	Female	5	39	,8594	,35038	Male	4	16	5. Blended Learning can make a significant contribution to learners' personal and cultural development as well as promoting progression in language learning and use.	64	Female	2	42	,9531	,21304	Male	1	19	6. Blended Learning enables students to gain a healthy appreciation of four skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking).	64	Female	3	41	,9219	,27049	Male	2	18	7. Blended Learning provides learning contexts which are relevant to the needs and interests of learners.	64	Female	3	41	,9375	,24398	Male	1	19	8. Blended Learning offers direct opportunities to learn through language and to make meanings that matter.	64	Female	3	41	,9063	,29378	Male	3	17	9. Blended Learning supports the integration of language into the broader curriculum.	64	Female	3	41	,9531	,21304	Male	0	20	10. Blended Learning helps to focus on the interconnections between cognition and communication – between language development and thinking skills.	64	Female	1	43	,9844	,12500	Male	0	20	11. Blended Learning offers genuine opportunities to interact face-to-face and through the use of new technologies e.g. internet, video-conferencing, international projects.	64	Female	3	41	,9375	,24398	Male	1	19	12. Blended Learning is an appropriate vehicle for exploring the links between language and cultural identity, examining behaviours, attitudes and values.	64	Female	2	42	,9375	,24398	Male	2	18	13. Blended Learning involves contexts and content which enrich the learners 'understanding of their own culture and those of others'.	64	Female	3	41	,9375	,24398	Male	1	19	14. Blended Learning strengthens intercultural understanding and promotes global citizenship.	64	Female	5	39	,8906
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Items	N	Gender	Disagree	Agree	Mean	Std. Deviation
15. Blended Learning can erode the quality of English language education.	64	Female	18	26	,5781	,49776
		Male	9	11		

According to Table 1, it is highly clear that pre-service teachers think positively about the items in the questionnaire. They agree that blended learning helps students develop their learning skills and subject matter. They support the idea that blended learning provides them with many opportunities to communicate with others and interact face-to face and through the use of new technologies such as internet, video-conferencing, international projects. They advocate the items which underlines the topic that blended learning strengthens intercultural understanding and promotes global citizenship. On the other hand, the participants did not agree with three items including 1, 2 and 15. In fact, the reason why they disagree with these items is because of the fact that these items have negative meaning in terms of blended learning. The participants oppose the idea that blended learning helps students develop only their language skills or subject matter as they think that blended learning can help them improve both. Similarly, they oppose the item which says blended learning can erode the quality of English language education. As a result, pre-service teachers perceive many of the items in Table 1 positively.

Pre-Service Teachers' Perceptions on What Blended Learning Requires

Second part of the questionnaire were mainly about the items that try to answer what pre-service teachers think about the requirements of blended learning. Table 2 clarifies the perceptions of pre-service teachers' item by item for the second part.

Table 2. *The pre-service teachers' perception about what blended learning provides*

Items	N	Gender	Disagree	Agree	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Blended Learning requires more subject knowledge than teachers of English possess.	64	Female	13	31	,7031	,46049
		Male	6	14		
2. Blended Learning requires more methodology knowledge than teachers of English possess.	64	Female	14	30	,7031	,46049
		Male	5	15		
3. Blended Learning requires a lot of time (both lesson preparation and teaching).	64	Female	7	37	,7969	,40551
		Male	6	14		
4. Blended Learning requires new teaching materials.	64	Female	4	40	,9219	,27049
		Male	1	19		
5. Blended Learning requires big administrative support.	64	Female	7	37	,8594	,35038
		Male	2	18		
6. Blended Learning requires cooperation with subject teachers.	64	Female	6	38	,8750	,33333
		Male	2	18		
7. Blended Learning requires the collaboration of subject area specialists and language specialists to design the course.	64	Female	2	42	,9219	,27049
		Male	3	17		



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Items	N	Gender	Disagree	Agree	Mean	Std. Deviation
8. Blended Learning can be achieved by a team working collaboratively to choose an appropriate theme and to identify key concepts and processes.	64	Female	3	41	,9375	,24398
		Male	1	19		
9. Blended Learning is possible only with intermediate students of English.	64	Female	30	14	,3750	,48795
		Male	10	10		
10. Blended Learning is possible both with young learners and older students.	64	Female	8	36	,8125	,39340
		Male	4	16		
Valid N (listwise)	64					

As shown in Table 2, pre-service teachers tend to think positively about the requirements of blended learning. They think that blended learning requires more subject knowledge and methodology than English language teachers have. They support the items that emphasizes the fact that blended learning requires administrative support, cooperation among teachers, subject area specialists and language specialists to design the course. They also stress the idea that blended learning is possible for different age groups including both young learner and older students. At this point, they don't agree with only the item 9, which in fact has a negative meaning about blended learning. According to item, blended learning is possible only with intermediate students of English and that is why pre-service teachers don't agree with this item. In brief, pre-service teachers have positive perceptions about the items in the questionnaire.

The data obtained from the semi-structure interview were also analysed and the results actually supported the findings of the questionnaire implemented beforehand. Three main themes emerged as a result of the analysis. First, pre-service teachers who were interviewed focused on the benefits of blended learning in terms of improving four language skills. One of the pre-service teachers said:

“Blended learning provides me with many opportunities to practice especially my writing and speaking. After the lesson, I can study more at my own pace. I can do the same activity as I want”.

The second issue raised by the pre-service teachers covered the benefits of blended learning in terms of learners' personal and cultural development. They stated that they not only had a chance to know many other learners all around the world but also, they got the change to share their own customs by experiencing their peers' social backgrounds as well. One of the participants explained this development in a very effective way as follows:

“Because it blends in-person and online learning, blended learning is an effective teaching strategy. By working on multimedia projects, remote teamwork and collaboration, one can improve the ability to communicate with others effectively and build trustworthy friendship in the long run”.

The last point that was underlined by the participants was about the benefits of blended learning regarding improved engagement about the content. Pre-service teachers think that blended



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learning provides better learning which leads to enhanced engagement. A pre-service teacher who was interviewed further explained this point as follows:

“I can be more engaged in the content because there are varieties of ways to practice in blended learning. Additionally, it has a significant effect on how well I learn. I can easily find different sorts of activities that are in line with my interests or needs”.

As seen in the excerpts the pre-service teachers supported what they think about the items in the questionnaires with the interview questions as well. It has become clear that blended learning tries to apply the process of learning to various contexts and circumstances, which is a great method to make sure the students remember the content.

Discussion

The primary objective of this study is to learn how pre-service teachers think about blended learning. The results have been analysed according to descriptive statistics according to each item and relevant excerpts have been provided about the interview accordingly. First, pre-service teachers think positively about the items regarding what blended learning provides. The participants clearly underlined that blended learning is an effective delivery of information in terms of improving four language skills including the subject matter. The findings from Akbarov et al. (2018) also suggested the participants believed that the use of blended learning resulted in developing their English proficiency levels. As such, the researchers concluding by stating that blended learning is an effective learning mode that can be used in an English language context to improve the teaching and learning process. Similarly, Ja'ashan (2015) investigated students' perceptions and attitudes toward the use of blended learning in an EFL English course in Bisha University, Saudi Arabia. Data analysis revealed that students had favourable opinions on the implementation of blended learning in the teaching of English. The learners were pleased with blended learning because they think it may be used to increase language proficiency, foster learner autonomy, strengthen student-teacher interaction, accelerate the learning process, and provide relevant learning opportunities. As well as improving the language skills, pre-service teachers in this study indicated that blended learning an effective way of teaching and learning because it raises motivation and enthusiasm towards the content. Similarly, Ja'ashan (2015) concluded by stating that the participants mentioned that blended learning is more convenient than traditional face-to-face teaching, and that it increased their motivation to learn and develop their skills accordingly. Therefore, the implementation of blended learning has been associated with raising student engagement and motivation. Studies have proven that this method of instruction helps students learn languages and increases their involvement and participation.

The statements that highlight the idea that blended learning increases cross-cultural understanding and fosters global citizenship are supported by the participants. As one of the significant strengths of blended learning, pre-service teachers told that they were motivated to interact and collaborate. Finding a setting that works for all students can be challenging, according to Zhang and Zhu (2018), but the blended learning method makes it possible to create



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a teaching and learning environment that is "accessible, flexible, active, interactive, encouraging, and inspiring " (p. 268). Moreover, the analysis of quantitative and qualitative data has proven that the participants unanimously focused on the benefits of blended education. This is in line with the advantages of blended learning in terms of the effective employment of indirect language learning strategies (Oxford, 1990) such as meta-cognitive strategies (arranging and planning learning), affective strategies (confidence enhancement), and social strategies (cooperating with others). Zibin and Altakhaineh (2018) further contend that because blended learning facilitates student-teacher interactions and speeds up student-teacher involvement in both the online and offline environments, it enhances students' communication abilities.

The findings showed that pre-service teachers mainly perceived blended learning largely as an effective way of course delivery. Pre-service teachers realize the important role of technology and blended learning in language learning and teaching, but require training that would help them to adopt blended learning in English language teaching and assessment more successfully according to the data obtained from semi-structured interview. This result is supported by Ertmer and Ottenbreit-Leftwich (2012) and they have argued that teachers need sufficient professional development to use technology-based resources efficiently in order to successfully build a blended learning environment. Although blended learning has the potential to alter teaching and learning processes, instructors need professional development to become creative and comfortable with technology in order to integrate blended learning into their classroom situations (Scott & Scott, 2010). On the whole, the participants reported that the blended learning strategy promoted engagement by utilizing a variety of digital tools. Similarly, according to the findings in this research most of the pre-service teachers suggested in their semi-structured interviews that blended learning should be implemented and integrated into English language courses. Language learners can communicate both within and outside of the classroom by combining traditional and online teaching methods. Studies have shown that this method of instruction helps students learn languages and increases their involvement and participation.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate how pre-service teachers perceived the blended learning strategy. The participants were from a state university in Turkey and they answered a questionnaire, the questions of which consisted of either agree or disagree options. Afterwards, some of the participants were interviewed in line with the research question to get a better understanding about their perceptions regarding blended learning. The findings clarified that the students at most were aware of the term of cooperative learning and had a tendency to perceive what blended learning provides and requires positively. Pre-service teachers seemed to be ready for this new form of learning in English language classes. What is currently needed is sufficient student preparation for blended learning as well as teacher training in creating successful blended courses for language acquisition that go beyond using blended learning. In fact, teachers will be able to create effective blended learning experiences for students, who



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will then be able to successfully develop their English language abilities, with more advanced technology and better knowledge of blended learning design. Future studies should include more pre-service teachers from different universities in the blended learning development process to better understand their views and perceptions on the term. The results of the study have important implications for language teacher programs in higher education. Moreover, English teacher programs should include modules that prepare them to teach the language and learn from those ways in order to promote the adoption of blended learning. As pre-service teachers become familiar with the practice and gain a deeper knowledge of their roles as learners in blended learning, teacher educators should consistently offer them assistance and coaching. Meanwhile, pre-service should be provided with the technology skills necessary to support multi modal learning strategies as demanded by higher education systems around the world.



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A Systematic Review of Students' Attitudes and Perceptions toward Distance Education between 2000-2021

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Abstract

Distance education (DE), which has recently become more acquainted with, has had a significant role in various education fields for many years. However, this crucial role has reached its peak during the pandemic when education has to be continued online. Thanks to technological advances, face-to-face education has suddenly been replaced by DE. Although face-to-face education continues, it seems undeniable that DE will be a part of our lives from now on. This systematic review paper investigates graduate and postgraduate students' attitudes and perceptions of DE worldwide beginning from the millennium; however, it focuses more on the last three years, namely the Covid-19 times. In this paper, what types of behaviors students hold toward online courses have been revealed. The findings are essential for educators to know what kind of attitudes and perceptions the students may have while designing and teaching an online course. Therefore, this systematic review article is expected to shed light on further studies in the field of DE.

Keywords: distance education (DE), student perceptions, student attitudes, Covid-19, systematic review

Introduction

Rapid changes in communication and technology in the digital era resulted in the rise of distance education (DE), as Harasim informed (2000). With the first seeds in the USA in 1728 through the newspaper (Holmberg, 2005), DE peaked with the mass use of computers and the Internet. Despite being involved in educational settings since the millennium, it caught on due to the Covid-19 pandemic worldwide. There was an emergency, and it was a decent solution as a requirement of social distancing during these times. Whether prepared or not, educational institutions had to switch to DE partially or totally.

When viewed from a historical aspect, Harasim (1990) divides DE into two perspectives: the first functions more like a support for home studies, whereas the second has an entire virtual and classroom-based atmosphere, which is generally synchronous. For years, educational institutions have taken advantage of materials such as World Wide Web sources and CD-ROM-based lectures as a part of DE support or run their courses virtually on their systems as a part of online education. However, technological developments in recent decades have led institutions to synchronous classes, enabling student-teacher interaction in online platforms.

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Innovations in education have also resulted in a broad classification of terms in the literature, and researchers have used various terms related to DE. For instance, online learning, e-learning, distance learning, mobile learning, and such are being used interchangeably; this could also be seen in the review of the literature section below.

King et al. (2001) define DE as formal instructional learning in which time and place constraints do not affect the contact between the learner and teacher. DE enables individuals to engage in educational activities without problems with time and space (Beldarrain, 2006). It can be synchronous and asynchronous, has numerous course materials available for learners, is flexible, and offers equal educational opportunities for individuals (Kırık, 2014; Salar, 2013). Also, it is for everyone, thanks to its low cost and accessibility (Traxler, 2018). This study considers all related terms as synonyms and subsumes those terms under "DE" as an umbrella term. This study's definition of DE covers a learning environment apart from school, supported by different technological devices and products such as mobile phones, computers, laptops, and CD-ROMs.

Cheung (1998) implies that studying students' perceptions and attitudes toward DE has myriad benefits. This kind of research allows students to express their needs, views, and future expectations, giving educators a chance to modify their courses. Thanks to the provided feedback, faculty staff could improve the quality of the course design. It helps distance teaching methodologies and the curriculum development process be reviewed. Educators may realize the aspects to be improved in teaching online since such studies offer insights into teaching. As Sahin and Shelley (2008) state, understanding students' perceptions of DE is the preliminary step for setting a prosperous learning atmosphere in a virtual condition. From this point of view, understanding graduate and postgraduate students' attitudes and perceptions toward DE regardless of their departments is the primary goal of this study. The questions below have been investigated with the help of a systematic review process.

- 1) What kind of attitudes and perceptions do graduate and postgraduate students have toward DE from the millennium until now?
- 2) Is there a change in graduate and postgraduate students' attitudes and perceptions toward DE over the years? If yes, how?
- 3) How do graduate and postgraduate students approach DE during the Covid-19 times?

Methodology

Search strategy and selection criteria

During the review process, the researchers searched for articles on various digital platforms, including Google Scholar, ERIC, and Research Gate, by using the keywords "distance education", "online education", "online learning", "distance learning", "student perceptions and online education/learning", "web-based learning", and "web-based instruction". Many studies were found with the related keywords in the initial data gathering on the aforementioned platforms. The studies included articles, M.A. and Ph.D. theses, and proceedings in English focusing on student attitudes and perceptions toward DE were elected. The Critical Appraisal Skills Programme (CASP) was utilized to control the process.

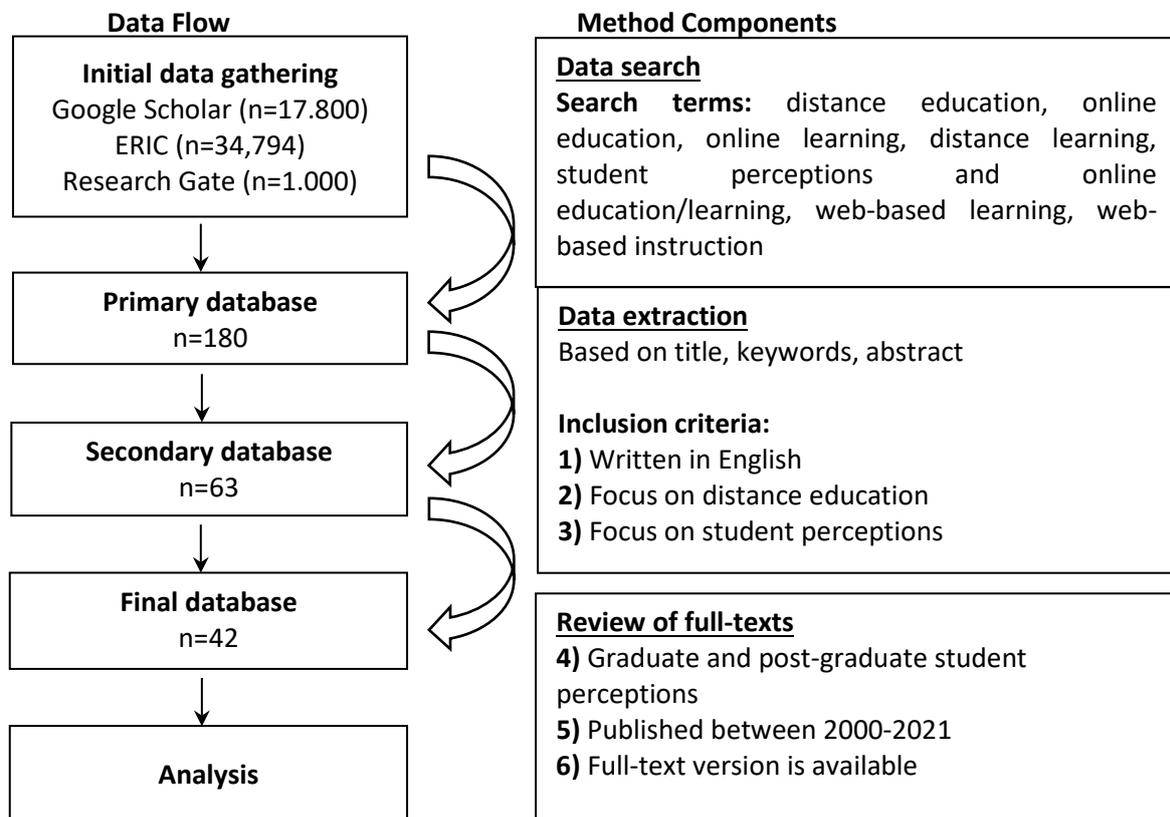


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Data extraction

The articles and dissertations were firstly scanned for title and abstract. Then, they reviewed, and the ones before 2000 were removed. The studies published between 2000 and 2021 were chosen for analysis, and the ones with the availability of full-text versions were included. Also, the views of teachers and lecturers were excluded. Some additional criteria were added later to the criteria list; primary, secondary, and high school student perceptions are all excluded. Whether graduate or postgraduate, higher education students without the distinction of their fields were chosen as the main focus of the review process. Duplicates were manually removed from the list, and the remaining 42 studies were analyzed. The summary of the data gathering and extraction process is presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Data inclusion and extraction process



The data inclusion process involved Ph.D. dissertations, M.A. theses, and articles. However, many of the M.A. theses found had to be removed from the review as these did not meet the requirements of the present study. With 15 studies during 2000-2021, the USA appeared to be number one among the countries where the studies on DE perceptions were conducted. The second country was Turkiye, with 12 studies. The infographic of included data can be seen in Table 1 below.



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Table 1. Infographics of the included studies

No	Researcher(s)	Year	Research country	Research paper type
1.	Aljarah	2000	the USA	Ph.D. dissertation
2.	Kurubacak	2000	the USA	Ph.D. dissertation
3.	Navarro & Shoemaker	2000	the USA	Article
4.	Hurd	2000	the UK	Article
5.	Bathe	2001	the USA	Article
6.	Richardson	2001	the USA	Ph.D. dissertation
7.	Keller & Cermerud	2002	Sweden	Article
8.	Pekel	2002	Turkiye	M.A. thesis
9.	Stepp-Greany	2002	the USA	Article
10.	Ku & Lohr	2003	the USA	Article
11.	Alaugab	2004	Saudi Arabia	Ph.D. dissertation
12.	Ali et al.	2004	the USA	Article
13.	Delfino	2004	Italy	Article
14.	Hao	2004	the USA	Ph.D. dissertation
15.	Thompson & Ku	2005	the USA	Article
16.	Ushida	2005	the USA	Article
17.	Ojo & Olakulehin	2006	Nigeria	Article
18.	Richardson	2006	the UK	Article
19.	Hussain	2007	Pakistan	Article
20.	Sahin & Shelly	2008	Turkiye	Article
21.	Al-Fahad	2009	Saudi Arabia	Article
22.	Yaman	2009	Turkiye	Article
23.	Crump	2010	the USA	Ph.D. dissertation
24.	Horspool & Lange	2010	the USA	Article
25.	Cinkara & Bagceci	2013	Turkiye	Article
26.	Huss & Eastep	2013	the USA	Article
27.	Jaradat	2014	Saudi Arabia	Article
28.	Smidt et al.	2014	the USA	Article
29.	Genc	2016	Turkiye	Article
30.	Mahmoud Raba	2016	Palestine	Article
31.	Gündüz & İşman	2018	Turkiye	Article
32.	Linjawi & Alfadda	2018	Saudi Arabia	Article
33.	Alan et al.	2020	Turkiye	Article
34.	Arıcı	2020	Turkiye	Article
35.	Çocuk & Çekici	2020	Turkiye	Article
36.	Durak & Çankaya	2020	Turkiye	Article
37.	Evişen	2020	Turkiye	Article
38.	Fidalgo	2020	Portugal, UAE, Ukraine	Article



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39.	Benadla& Hadji	2021	Algeria	Article
40.	Godzhaeva&Tochilina	2021	Russia	Article
41.	Moonma	2021	Thailand	Article
42.	Öztürk	2021	Turkiye	Article

Findings and discussion

This paper investigated students' attitudes and perceptions toward DE. The studies below were summarized and discussed in chronological order.

Between 2000-2009

Aljarrah (2000) researched 138 students' perceptions and attitudes from three community colleges in the USA. The students were bachelor's degree students, their departments were different, and they all received their courses through the college's online system. The data were collected via an online survey. The students were positive about their online courses regarding course structure, student-teacher interaction, teaching content, student-student interaction, college staff assistance, and general satisfaction.

Kurubacak (2000) worked with 20 undergraduate and three graduate students at the University of Cincinnati. The students utilized web-based instruction as a DE tool. The study collected both quantitative and qualitative data to understand the phenomenon better. A pre-and post-survey to investigate attitudes was used for the quantitative data; the qualitative data were obtained by interviews and field notes. The researcher concluded that the students enjoyed being online as they could construct their knowledge and skills and touched upon the importance of the instructor's personality in affecting their behaviors toward online sessions.

Navarro and Shoemaker (2000) compared students' perceptions of cyber education. They investigated 200 students in the macroeconomics course and asked them to choose between traditional and cyber education. Forty-nine students chose the cyber format, and 151 chose the conventional form. The study revealed that the students receiving cyber education could learn as well as or sometimes even better than those taking the traditional course. The cyber students mentioned that instant feedback was valuable, and discussion groups were significant for a successful online learning atmosphere.

Hurd (2000) researched the language learners' perceptions of the characteristics of a thriving distance learning atmosphere in a French context at a university. One hundred thirty-eight students from third- or fourth-year studying French participated. The data were gathered through two structured questionnaires and a focus group discussion. The researcher explained that distance learners, especially those who lack planning and monitoring skills, were at risk of learning successfully in DE. Those who were well-organized, self-confident, enthusiastic, and persistent were good at surviving DE.



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Bathe (2001) asked 48 students' opinions about online courses via survey questions composed of open-ended questions. The questions uncovered that students were unprepared for an online system due to a lack of computer skills and technological difficulties. There were different opinions about the course. The students approaching online training positively reported that the course's flexibility and high access to the course materials were advantages. On the other hand, other students held negative opinions toward the online format since they found themselves undisciplined and incapable of handling technological difficulties.

In Richardson's (2001) basic correlational study, nearly 100 students from Empire State College filled out the "Social Presence Scale" generated by Gunawardena and Zittle (1997) and answered an open-ended questionnaire. The findings showed that the students felt more present in the online courses when their instructors provided classroom discussions or group projects. Lectures, notes, or reading assignments, compared to discussions and projects, were not helpful for the students regarding their presence as a student in an online class.

In 2002, Keller and Cernerud researched the attitudes of students toward e-learning. The researchers used a five-point Likert-type scale and an open-ended question focusing on technical problems to discover more about this aim. Based on this, it could be expressed that the implementation of e-learning was crucial in influencing the students' perceptions.

Pekel (2002) worked with 14 preparatory class students at a Turkish university to resolve students' attitudes toward independent web-based learning. The data were collected through questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, e-mails as course assignments, and reflective e-journals. Despite technical problems and inadequate computer skills, the students appeared optimistic about studying on the internet. Most of them stated that the flexibility and convenience of the internet atmosphere were advantageous.

Three hundred fifty-eight foreign language students studying Spanish joined in Stepp-Greany's (2002) study. The students were asked to indicate the measure of their agreement with the statements on different topics, such as the usefulness and effects of online sources. The study data included internet activities, CD-ROM, electronic pen pals, and internet discussions. Many students expressed that they gained confidence in completing task-based activities in the online class, and the use of technology encouraged their independent learning.

In Ku and Lohr's (2003) work, five Chinese students studying in the USA were the participants. The researchers used a five-point Likert scale to reveal the students' attitudes about their first online learning experience. The online learning environment provided them with self-paced and self-directed learning and some opportunities for reading and writing. Besides, this type of learning encouraged group members to meet online or face-to-face.

In the descriptive-correlational research conducted by Alaugab (2004), female students (n=310) from two different institutions in Saudi Arabia agreed in the survey that online learning in higher education facilitated their learning process, increased their achievement, and enabled



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them to keep up with the new information. It also helped students get familiar with the use of technology.

Ali et al. (2004) conducted a study with 20 graduate students from the department of nursing. The data were collected via focus groups, face-to-face or telephone interviews, and web surveys. The graduate students remarked that the online environment helped them share their clinical practice experiences and connect with people from across the country. Each student had an equal opportunity to join the discussions. The poor sides of online education were stated as technical problems, timing in testing, group work, and social isolation.

To inspect undergraduate vs. postgraduate student teachers' views on online teaching, Delfino et al. (2004) designed an action study. The researchers asked 32 students to complete two questionnaires at the beginning and the end of the course on educational technology. The students got familiar with online education and had the flexibility of not having to commute to the university. Some of them needed to gain experience in online learning activities and believed that the time required for online classes was either high or very high.

At the end of three questionnaires and interviews, Hao's (2004) exploratory research with more than 100 students from different departments notified that the flexibility of online courses was a significant advantage for the students in choosing the course. As a negative aspect, some students felt disconnected from class during online learning. When receiving online education, the students enjoyed the class more while receiving instructional feedback and support, such as motivational or emotional, and participating in collaborative activities.

Seven Chinese students who were graduates and studying in the USA participated in Thompson and Ku's (2005) work. According to their experiences, online learning had both positive and negative aspects. For example, it was an engaging experience because resource sharing and record-keeping were effortless. However, they thought that their writing skills in English were insufficient. The delayed feedback from lecturers and the lack of cultural exchange were their concerns during this process.

In an empirical study with language students studying Spanish and French by Ushida (2005), flexibility regarding the pace of learning was propounded. Yet, some students found it challenging to cope with the online system. The study concluded that motivated students could better take advantage of the online system than the other students as the online system could be more based on self-learning.

Ojo and Olakulehin (2006) focused on the students' attitudes and perceptions in the Nigerian context. The researchers chose 120 students randomly from six different zones in Nigeria. A structured questionnaire was used in the data collection process. The results indicated the students' interest in online courses. The reason for their interest was similar to the previous studies summarized above. Students liked the flexibility in the learning environment and the use of multi-media tools.



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Nearly a thousand and five hundred students completed the questionnaire that Richardson (2006) sent out to the students taking courses at the Open University in the UK. The students were majoring in different programs. The students drew attention to the fact that efficient materials turned their online process easy; hence materials used in online platforms had an importance on students' perceptions of this platform. Overall, the students held positive perceptions of their online courses.

With more than 400 participants, Hussain (2007) examined the students in the Pakistani context. This descriptive study was conducted at the Virtual University of Pakistan, and the data was gathered through a five-point Likert scale. Hussain (2007) concluded that virtual education was flexible and convenient. In addition to those good sides, it also enhanced the students' performance in self-directed study.

Sahin and Shelley(2008) requested 195 undergraduate students enrolled in a course titled "Introduction to Educational Technology" at a state university in Turkiye to participate in their study. The students were needed to report their opinions and perceptions of DE and fill out a survey based on their experiences. Moving from the student reports and survey, it could be stated that the students' computer knowledge affected their approaches to the web-based learning platform. The characteristics of web-based platforms, such as flexibility and usefulness, should also be considered.

Al-Fahad (2009) explored female students' perceptions and attitudes in Art and Medicine programs at King Saud University in Saudi Arabia. Al-Fahad (2009) utilized a quantitative survey in the data collection process. The survey results highlighted that the most significant advantage of mobile education was being flexible, meaning the students could learn anytime and anywhere they wanted. Offering mobile learning to the students was a good way of enhancing retention of the topics they covered as a part of their academic studies.

In a study conducted with 330 physical education and sports department students, Yaman (2009) gathered data using a researcher-developed questionnaire. The findings showed that most students thought it was unlikely to offer online education since they needed to receive practical lectures as a requirement of their majors. On the whole, the female students held more positive approaches than males.

The participants of the studies in the 2000-2009 period mainly were favorable towards DE and enjoyed their process, as seen in studies by Aljarrah (2000), Kurubacak (2000), Navarro and Shoemaker (2000), Richardson (2001), Pekel (2002), Richardson (2006). The reason why students were positive towards DE in these studies may be that they chose the courses voluntarily. Nevertheless, some students held positive and negative opinions in a few studies (Bathe, 2001; Hao, 2004; Thompson & Ku, 2005). Interaction, feedback, classroom discussions, and task-based activities supported them in gaining confidence, learning better, being autonomous, and enjoying lectures. It could be deduced that the students desired to be in interaction to feel present in DE settings and admired teacher feedback. On the other hand, technical problems, an undisciplined atmosphere, the students' and some lecturers' inadequate computer skills, and social isolation were the problems. Technical problems appeared to be a



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common problem. Flexibility was the main advantage of an online classroom, as students did not commute and could learn anytime they wanted.

Between 2010-2018

A hundred and eighty-three students in the Department of Early Childhood participated in Crump's (2010) exploratory study. A survey was distributed to the students via e-mail, and the results unraveled that the students were satisfied and comfortable with online learning environments. However, the least favorite part of online environments was the lack of interaction or isolation. The participants noted the fact that their workload increased compared to traditional classes.

Horspool and Lange (2010) compared 88 online and 64 face-to-face learning students' perceptions. Many students preferred online learning due to not going to campus, the easiness of scheduling, and balancing work and school. Though both groups were satisfied with instructor communication in classes, the online students indicated the need for more interaction with their peers. However, both groups underlined that they did not experience any technical problems during their courses.

Cinkara and Bagceci (2013) requested nearly 200 students to complete the Online Language Learning Attitudes Questionnaire and formal assessment to compare students' viewpoints on online learning. To sum up, language students, especially those with proficient knowledge of computers had positive attitudes. The males regarded themselves as good computer users; therefore, their attitudes were more positive than females.

Huss and Eastep (2013) intended to uncover undergraduate students' perceptions from various colleges such as the College of Arts and Sciences, Health Professions, Informatics, Education and Human Services, and Business. The electronic survey results indicated that the students tended to choose an online course due to its convenience to their schedule. According to the students' ideas, it provided self-reliance and autonomy.

In a mobile learning classroom environment, 36 female students majoring in French at a Saudi Arabian university contributed to Jaradat's (2014) work. The research included both quantitative and qualitative data. The data elucidated that mobile learning enhanced students' learning inside and outside the classroom, enabling learning anytime and anywhere. The students had different opinions; for example, some did not consider themselves successful technology users to interact with mobile learning, and some believed it increased their interaction with their peers.

Smidt et al. (2014) designed a qualitative study with 36 teacher candidates studying English language teaching. The study took part at a mid-Atlantic state university. The flexibility of online learning was again the most prominent emerging theme in terms of its positive sides, as could be estimated from the previous studies in the literature. Interaction was regarded as a



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critical principle in any learning environment. Giving clear instructions and providing guidance were essential factors in the DE process.

In their comparative study, Genc et al. (2016) examined 500 students studying English as a foreign language from different faculties. Half of the students received their English courses in a formal setting, and the other half received the same course from the same instructors in an online environment. The questionnaires showed that the students' motivation affected their perceptions of online education. More participants in the online setting had negative feelings toward DE, whereas fewer participants in the formal setting had negative feelings toward formal education.

Mahmoud Raba (2016) performed a study at Al-Quds Open University in Palestine with first, second, third, and fourth-year students from different departments. The researcher used a 30-item questionnaire to uncover the participants' opinions, and the Likert scale was utilized to classify the given answers. The results indicated that distance learning offered students with economic and social barriers an opportunity to study flexibly and provided autonomous learning. They also mentioned some disadvantages, such as the lack of campus activities and instructor interaction.

Gündüz and İşman(2018) investigated 692 pre-service teachers' views on DE by comparing variables including gender, department, year of study, having a personal computer, and internet connection possession. The participants were first, second, third, and fourth-year students studying at various teaching departments. The researchers revealed that there was no significant difference based on gender, having a personal computer, and possession of an internet connection. Second and fourth-year pre-service teachers had more positive DE views than other students.

In a longitudinal study conducted with an assemblage of undergraduate dental students, Linjawi and Alfadda (2018) focused on the changes in the students' perceptions of online learning implementations during their fourth-year (T1) and internship years (T2) in Saudi Arabia. The study found that T1 dental students thought e-learning greatly impacted their education, whereas the T2 group perceived no effect of e-learning. While the T1 group was considerably ready for e-learning, the T2 group had a low level of readiness. Also, the adaptation of both groups for e-learning was highly related to accessibility to technological tools and Internet connection.

Between 2010 and 2018, the students joining an online classroom were satisfied with the flexibility, as clearly seen in studies by Crump (2010), Horspool and Lange (2010), Huss and Eastep (2013), Smidt et al. (2014), and Mahmoud Raba (2016). Therefore, it could be induced flexibility was a feature that attracted especially the working students. Some studies also had opposing ideas (Cinkara & Bagceci, 2013; Genc et al., 2016; Jaradat, 2014; Linjawi & Alfadda, 2018). Some students appreciated DE and its advantages, while some did not, as the students regarded themselves as incompetent technology users. In line with the previous period, the studies in this era revealed that DE enabled students to be autonomous. They had to study their



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courses and improve their computer skills. Clear instructions and teacher guidance were also significant; these two may be associated with student motivation.

Between 2020-2021: The Covid-19 Times

In their mixed-methods study, Alan et al. (2020) identified the perceptions of 699 Turkish pre-service teachers in 13 state universities. The study revealed that male students had more positive views of DE than females. The grade level or DE experience did not affect the DE perceptions of the students. Also, using more than one tool to access DE had a positive effect, and having an Internet connection affected pre-service teachers' perceptions positively. However, the participants were not positive toward DE.

Arıcı (2020) aimed to reveal 322 university students' views on DE methods during the Covid-19 process. Though some students underlined the adverse effects of insufficient technological opportunities, some stated their pleasure with the current methods. A group of students mentioned the inadequacy and inefficiency of the courses; some also noted the burden of excessive assignments. While some participants preferred live online classes, others chose Google Classroom courses. Additionally, some students opted for face-to-face courses.

Çocuk and Çekici (2020) conducted a study to investigate and compare 181 university students in a state university. Their research revealed that gender and faculty did not affect students' perceptions, yet males were more positive towards DE. Also, engineering students held more positive views than social sciences students.

From four universities, 32 students contributed to the study of Durak and Çankaya (2020), focusing on their views on the emergency DE during the Covid-19 pandemic. The study showed that the students were more pleasant about using Microsoft Teams. Moreover, the students considered universities more professional when several tools were available. The advantages of DE were the home environment and the lack of distracters, yet the lack of discipline and feedback problems were the disadvantages.

In their qualitative data-based study, Evişen et al. (2020) investigated the attitudes and feelings of six university students at Gaziantep University towards online learning. The students mentioned the disadvantages as technical issues and classroom management, whereas the advantages were time, asynchronous learning options, teacher interaction, various instruction methods, comfort, and efficient courses. Most students did not like online learning and preferred the traditional classroom environment.

Fidalgo et al. (2020) conducted a pilot study to examine 223 undergraduate students' opinions concerning DE in Portugal, Ukraine, and UAE. The results revealed that Ukrainian and Portuguese students opted for DE, yet Ukrainians had higher confidence in controlling technology. The participants were reluctant to enroll in DE due to interaction problems with peers and instructors and difficulty in motivation. However, technical issues were not an issue



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for the participants. The participants also preferred flexible schedules and blended learning for their DE.

In their research, Benadla and Hadji (2021) focused on 157 master students' perceptions of Moodle platform to facilitate online learning. The study ascertained that the students complained about the Internet connection, Wi-Fi problems, and lack of technological devices. Also, several students underlined that the teachers' inadequacy to teach online negatively affected their motivation. Most students added that limited interaction with teachers created problems in understanding the courses. Many students considered e-learning inconvenient and were dissatisfied with it.

Godzhaeva and Tochilina (2021) presented 96 university students' perceptions of distance foreign language learning. Many students believed that they were not well informed to master online courses. However, they mentioned that they had enough time to complete the tasks. Most students complained about Internet connection problems, yet they were happy to listen to native speakers via digital technologies. The students predominantly indicated that distance learning improved their language skills.

Moonma (2021) worked with 111 Thai students from different majors. The students learned English through online sessions on Google classroom. The data were obtained via a questionnaire and semi-structured interview. The results uncovered the students' positive feelings about Google Classroom as it was easy to use and effective. The students appreciated Google Classroom since it notified them about classroom activities, assignments, and announcements.

Öztürk (2021) investigated students' perceptions of asynchronous and synchronous online learning following a survey method in the Turkish context. The participants were third-year university students in different majors. The students had difficulty in peer interaction, group work, motivation, and internet access in asynchronous and synchronous online learning.

Students receiving DE during the Covid-19 years were more negative toward DE than in previous years, as seen in studies by Alan et al. (2020), Evişen et al. (2020), Fidalgo et al. (2020), and Benadla and Hadji (2021). They were negative due to connection problems (Benadla and Hadji, 2021; Fidalgo, 2020; Godzhaeva & Tochilina, 2021; Öztürk, 2021), excessive assignments (Arıcı, 2020), and lack of motivation (Benadla and Hadji 2021; Fidalgo, 2020; Öztürk, 2021). The flexible atmosphere of DE was not seen as a significant feature. When the Covid-19 years and conditions were considered, it could be said the students took these online classes compulsory. As the students had to stay inside during the curfew times, DE was not an option for them but an obligation. Thus, their attitudes were negative. Godzhaeva and Tochilina (2021) stated that the students holding a positive attitude considered their learning, language, and networking skills improved through DE.



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Conclusion

Based on the studies in the literature, students were primarily positive about DE. Students highly appreciated its flexible atmosphere, especially before the Covid-19 times. Thus, it is possible to state that when DE was an alternative option to traditional education, it was favored and liked more. However, when it became an obligation during the pandemic, most students approached it negatively due to technical problems, social isolation, and low-level motivation. Therefore, it could be said there was a change in students' attitudes and perceptions toward DE over the years. Highly motivated students seemed advantageous on such platforms (see: Genc et al., 2016; Hurd, 2000; Ushida, 2005).

Giving clear instructions and instant feedback are crucial in employing an online lecture. Task-based activities and group discussion help students feel present in lectures; thus, these kinds of group activities are needed to be benefited more. The platform in which DE will be delivered should be introduced to students, and they should be trained to use the platform effectively. Pre-, during, and post-surveys may be used to obtain student opinions about the course to fix problematic aspects of online learning environment. Educators may avoid giving excessive assignments as it lowers student motivation. In conclusion, students tend to show negative attitudes about DE when it is a necessity rather than an option.



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Native-Speakerism and the Relationship between Native-Speakerism and Culture

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Abstract

Despite having more speakers who speak English as a second/ foreign language than the ones who speak the language as their mother tongue, the categorization of native and non-native teachers is still there to be seen. Many studies have been conducted for many years regarding the debate of what is meant by native and non-native teachers and how the terms are perceived by people in the field, yet the standpoint of people who are out of the field has not been in the scene as much as language teachers and students. Therefore, this study aims to shed light on the perception of "native-speakerism" according to the people who are out of the field. The participants included 10 individuals who work outside the ELT field. A semi-structured interview is used as a data collection tool to gain insight into participants' understanding of the term and their opinions on the relationship between native-speakerism and culture. Thematic analysis is used to analyze the data collected from the interviews. Transcriptions of the interviews and detailed analysis showed that the participants' expectations were parallel to native-speakerism ideology consisting of student-centered teaching, lesson plans aiming to improve communication skills in the target language, and exposure from the teacher. Participants qualified native speakers more competent at representing the "western culture" due to the fact that they gain insight from their first-hand experiences as natives; however, the significance of self-improvement was deemed necessary regardless of whether the teacher is native or non-native.

Keywords: native-speakerism, culture, NESTs, NNESTs

Introduction

Following the globalization of English, second language teaching and learning came into prominence even more. Thus, studies related to English as a second language have gradually broadened. The overpowering importance of English as a lingua franca led to several teaching methods emerging to meet the needs of different learner profiles. The common use of English around the world unveiled a different kind of approach to language learning since the language has been the universal communication tool among non-native speakers coming from different cultural backgrounds speaking different first languages (Tatar, 2019).

In accordance with this, a large number of alternative approaches to language teachers have been developed over the last few decades as well. According to Quirk (1990), Standard English was the best model of English and teachers should be encouraged to focus on teaching based on native norms.

According to Chomsky, a native speaker is an individual that speaks a native language from birth and they are associated with "fluency, inborn talent and cultural appeal" (1965). Non-

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native speakers, on the other hand, were individuals who learn a language as their second language labeling them as "marginalized minorities" (Braine, 2010). With Standard English being considered the ideal model, NESTs started to be in great demand because one of the simplest ways of tackling this issue was to use natives to take initiative in teaching the language as ideal embodiments of English (Wu and Ke, 2009). This posed some problems for non-native teachers as now they were expected to reach a native-like proficiency as a result of being compared to native-speaking English teachers.

In 2005 Holliday referred to this phenomenon as "native-speakerism". He defined native-speakerism ideology as "an established belief that 'native-speaker' teachers represent a 'Western culture' from which spring the ideals both of the English language and English language teaching methodology" (Holliday, 2005, p. 6).

Even though the ideology itself has been widely denied in ELT, several studies conducted proving the distinction between NESTs and NNESTs can still be observed to this day. Research conducted in 2008 by Atay stated that the expectancy of native-like competency is the main source of anxiety for pre-service teachers (Atay, 2008). Another study revealed that 40 out of 60 ELT students believe that the language is delivered best in a native context (Silalahi, 2019).

The majority of the studies conducted about native-speakerism include people within the ELT community leaving the perceptions of people outside the field neglected. However, English is a language that is widely spoken by non-native speakers who do not choose to teach the language as a profession; therefore, it is crucial to investigate these individuals' take on the phenomena to bring light to different perspectives. This research aims to develop an overarching understanding concerning the views of individuals who stay on the learning side of language acquisition.

Problem Statement

Although native-speakerism ideology is considered as othering of teachers by Holliday (2005) who coined and described the term and it is widely denied in the ELT field, studies that were conducted especially in China and Indonesia prove the fact that the distinction between native and non-native English-speaking teachers is real and evident.

Research Questions

For this study, it was of interest to investigate what people from other fields, and majors think about this ideology. There are myriad studies conducted to address the thoughts of teachers and students of ELT; however, as far as it is known, few studies have focused on the perception of people who learned English as a second language without choosing to teach the language as a profession. This study therefore analyzed and investigated whether native-speakerism is present or not among participants through the following questions:



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1. What are participants' expectations of language teachers?
2. How do participants perceive native-speakerism phenomena in ELT?
 - 2.1. What are NESTs' and NNESTs' strengths and weaknesses?
3. What is the relationship between native-speakerism and culture?

Methodology

The study in question used a qualitative research method since qualitative analysis provides a more in-depth overall understanding of a certain phenomenon. As it was mentioned by Richard and Morse (2013), "If the purpose is to understand phenomena deeply and in detail, you need methods for discovery of central themes" (p. 28). This study investigated participants' perceptions of native-speakerism ideology through semi-structured interviews.

Participants

Participants of the study were selected through purposive sampling consisting of 10 people working in different majors. The main criterion for the participant was based on the condition that each hold at least a bachelor's degree in fields other than ELT. Eight of them were females whereas two of them were males and their ages ranged from 21 to 42.

Participants were expected to answer 7 interview questions formed by the researcher and some extra questions risen during the interview to acquire more detailed information regarding the topic in question. They used their personal experiences of learning English as a second language by giving related examples. One of the participants had a Native English-Speaking Teacher (NEST) though others have never had the chance to be taught by Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers (NNESTs) only. Seven participants hold a bachelor's degree in their majors while the other three currently do their master's degree.

Data Collection and Analysis

The data was collected between June 2022 and September 2022. Each participant was provided with an online consent form prior to the interviews to make sure they are aware of the research process and to confirm the fact that this study was conducted based on voluntariness. Semi-structured interviews were used as the data collection tool to bring flexibility to the scene during the sessions and each interview lasted for about 15 to 25 minutes. Each interview included 7 questions formed by the researcher to investigate participants' points of view concerning native-speakerism ideology though there were extra questions asked so as to shed light on some of the answers that needed to be explained more thoroughly to avoid confusion during analyses.



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Following the semi-structured interviews, the thematic analysis method which is widely used as a qualitative data analysis method was adopted in an effort to identify and interpret certain patterns of themes under the participants' perceptions towards native- speakerism.

Findings and Discussion

As a result of the thorough analysis of the conducted research, it has been found that the participants' expectations of language teachers were parallel to native-speakerism ideology. Through thematic analysis, three categories including "teacher expectations, native vs non-native dilemma and cultural awareness and teaching target culture" has emerged. Regarding the participants' expectations of language teachers, it must be pointed out that answers mostly listed characteristic traits such as being sincere, creative, and understanding rather than teachers' level of competence at first. When asked about the distinction between native and non-native, participants stated that each group has its advantages and disadvantages by giving real-life experiences from their life although 8 out of 10 argued that being native on its own is not a qualification when it comes to teaching.

Excerpt 1:

"I mean native speakers themselves can be considered as material on their own, I mean... what I mean is that if they are not trained to be teachers what is viewed as an advantage might turn into an unwanted experience." (Participant 2)

Self-improvement proved to be of great importance as the term has been used by multiple participants suggesting that the information pool a teacher has is related to their effort to improve themselves in their field as much as possible. The following titles were presented for each theme to be explored more in-depth by providing extracts from the transcriptions.

Teacher Expectations

The first question of all interviews started with a question to determine what is expected from language teachers and what makes a language teacher effective according to participants. Within this category, there were three themes identified to be used as umbrella terms. The first theme is learner-centered teaching which included "meeting students' needs by taking individual pace into consideration and consistency in teaching using repetitive drills to make learners get familiar with the target language. Another theme is a student-friendly attitude that consists fun and engaging classroom environment, with the teacher being encouraging, understanding, and creative. One participant narrated that for learning to take place, learners should be provided with a safe environment in which they feel at ease expressing themselves. This proves useful especially because low self-esteem is one of the most common problems that is encountered in language classrooms explaining that creating this environment is a huge step for learners to have fun and be present during activities. The last theme is the use of target



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language that puts teaching within context, the use of real-life scenarios which enable promoting interaction in the target language.

Native vs Non-Native Dilemma

There are numerous studies conducted that focus on the effect of native-speakerism (Tatar, 2019). It was concluded that most NNESTs get affected by the ideology in terms of their future careers and their competence in the target language being compared to that of a native which creates a critical approach towards native non-native division. At this point of the interview, within the formation of questions 2, 3, and 4, participants shared their thoughts on native and non-native teachers' strengths and weaknesses. The findings are directly in line with previously reported results. Participants listed exposure as the most important advantage putting forward the idea of NESTs being superior to NNESTs in terms of enhancing listening and speaking skills which are considered to be one the skills that are hardest to acquire. Accordingly, NNESTs were criticized due to their limited interaction with students in the target language and their use of traditional methods that are seen as old and not efficient. On the other hand, NNESTs were praised for being well-equipped as a result of furnishing their abilities and having first-hand experience learning a second language resulting in them being more understanding towards learners. Another common theme that emerged under this category was the language barrier. This theme particularly raised controversy among participants because some of the participants acknowledged the language barrier as a negative reinforcement due to the fact that it may be hard for learners to establish a bond with a teacher that does not speak their mother tongue whereas others stirred up the debate by suggesting that this is, in fact, a positive trigger for learners to get greater exposure.

Excerpt 2:

"...having just one native speaker may be a bit intimidating especially with younger learners as they may not be able to express themselves properly which might get frustrating at some point. Though speaking the language as often as possible is important for language development, a teacher being able to switch between languages would definitely help." (Participant 6)

"...I mean native speaker not being able to speak learners' mother tongue can actually ensure greater exposure making speaking skill easier to acquire..." (Participant 4)

Cultural Awareness and Teaching Target Culture

According to Holliday, the term native-speakerism is identified as "an established belief that 'native-speaker' teachers represent a 'Western culture' from which spring the ideals both of the English language and English language teaching methodology" (Holliday, 2005, p. 6). Research conducted in 2008 revealed that the expectancy of native-like competence is the main source of anxiety for pre-service teachers (Atay, 2008). Although it is still debatable whether



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it is necessary for an NNEST to achieve a native- like competency or not, language teachers enriching their proficiency by gaining insight into the culture of the target language is necessary beyond any doubt since it is important for learners to be equipped with "contextual knowledge" (Silalahi, 2019, p.5)

The last three questions of the semi-structured interviews aimed to investigate participants' opinions on cultural awareness and whether it is possible to teach a culture without actually being a part of it. Half of the participants regarded cultural awareness as important while the other half considered it to be not necessary. Participants revealed that cultural awareness allows in-depth learning and higher proficiency so if the learner strives for speaking a language as accurately as possible it is important. However, assuming that the learner aspires to learn a universal language such as English to use it as a common ground when interacting with people, it is not a necessary element to consider.

Excerpt 3:

"If you want to speak the language as accurately as possible you are bound to learn about its culture." (Participant 9)

"...if I am learning the language because it is universal and I will be using it to interact with people coming from other countries to use a common language I mean, I do not think culture is a necessary element to consider." (Participant 3)

Another interesting finding that is worth discussing is the participants' comments on teaching the target culture. In this section, the researcher intended to grasp participants' standpoints about NESTs and NNESTs ways of teaching culture. Participants claimed that it is easier for NESTs to convey the message as they get exposure from birth and are brought within the culture qualifying them to be more efficient. On the other side of the coin, if the coin is two-sided that is, participants signified that self-improvement is key and it is possible to obtain sufficient knowledge about the target culture though teachers would benefit from witnessing and experiencing the culture by living in a country where the target language is spoken and having the opportunity to interact with natives.

Excerpt 4:

"I think, being a part of a culture would make integrating and explaining the culture much easier because you have all kinds of experiences you can give as an example and those are memories you lived through." (Participant 2)

"In order to teach a culture properly, you should go experience it for quite a while unless you are already a part of it. You have to spend time with people, understand their mindsets, and embrace it." (Participant 3)



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Conclusion

Phillipson refers to the othering of NNESTs as "the native speaker fallacy" in terms of the phenomenon being biased and considerably favoring NESTs (1992). Though that means that this ideology is not accepted within the ELT community, based on the results of this study as well as others prove that native-speakerism is still evident and out there. The distinction between native and non-native teachers especially shows itself when it comes to listening and speaking skills as they are seen as skills that can only be acquired through natural scenarios. Provided that NESTs are being considered as the users of Standard English, this issue makes them seen as better representations of the language and its culture. The findings of the study also suggest that participants deem NESTs more suitable for teaching target culture due to their natural language development in a native environment though it is possible for NNESTs to gain a certain amount of proficiency if they can improve themselves efficiently.

Despite the fact that NESTs seem to have the previously mentioned advantages, according to participants being native on its own is not a qualification when it comes to teaching. This result ties well with Rampton's idea of English proficiency which he explains as being dependent on "what teachers know" rather than "who they are" (1990). He also argued that being born and brought up in a native environment does not ensure that this person can speak his/her language accurately. He further explains his ideas by mentioning that not many native speakers of English can write and tell stories although there are many examples of non-natives being able to. Nunan (2003) claims that "If English is a necessity, steps should be taken to ensure that teachers are adequately trained in language teaching methodology appropriate to a range of learner ages and stages, that teachers' language skills are significantly enhanced, that classroom realities meet curricular rhetoric, and that students have sufficient exposure to English in instructional context" (p.610). Correspondingly, Cook's argument gives weight to learners' needs implying that language teaching could profit from concentrating on the user of the second language instead of focusing on the native speaker (1999).

Participants, when they were asked about native and non-native teachers' strengths and weaknesses, demonstrated that despite their so-called "limited use of target language", NNESTs do a good job at classroom management and are more understanding towards learners. As Brain asserts that different groups of teachers should not be compared to each other about superiority. The broad implication of this idea is that teachers should improve themselves and their teaching by way of training in linguistics and sociolinguistics and more importantly, they should be able to identify students' needs in order for language development to take place (Wu and Ke, 2009).



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Teaching a Lesser-Used Language in School as an Effect of Improved Attitudes (The Evidence of Scots)

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Abstract

In Scotland as well as in some other European countries, school is a source of negative information on regional dialects. This situation significantly limits the opportunities for speakers of traditional dialects, violating their rights. Meanwhile, nowadays the attitude of society towards the Scots language and its dialects may not be as negative as it seems to the local teachers, and employers are more likely to prefer a qualified specialist who has not got rid of dialectisms in his speech to a weaker professional fluent in the standard variety. Since the 70s of the 20th century, the situation with the study of Scots language and literature at school has changed conspicuously. The view that linguistic and dialectal diversity is a source of the lifeblood of society, and not at all a weakness, as was previously believed, was gaining more and more popularity. Linguistic diversity is inextricably linked with the diversity and richness of the culture of the nation and deserves the closest attention and support. Works on sociolinguistics and the history of the Scots language by well-known linguists became the theoretical basis for a new concept of the place and meaning of lesser-used languages and dialects in educational sphere. Changes in the field of school education contribute to further democratisation of Scottish society and provide new opportunities for speakers of traditional dialects.

Keywords: Scots, lesser-used language, attitude, school, language planning.

Introduction

Sociolinguistic studies of the Scottish society's attitudes to the Scots language and to the so-called covert and overt Scotticisms in speech demonstrate that for the majority of the population school is an important source of information about regional dialects, but this information tends to be restricted and negative (cf. Aitken, 1984, pp. 105-108). Indeed, school has played an obviously destructive role in the social history of Scots. The social prestige of this regional language, which had been steadily declining since the 17th century, was hit heavily again in 1872 by the Educational Act, which replaced parochial schools established during the Reformation with a uniform, centralized system in which the emphasis was on the introduction of 'correct' speech, understood, of course, as literary English. After 1872, the displacement of Scots accelerated significantly, which exacerbated the concern of the patriotic intelligentsia, who were aware of the possibility of losing an important part of the cultural heritage associated with the language (Educational (Scotland) Act, 1872).

As for the teachers, most of them have long considered it to be their duty to identify and correct those features of students' speech that, in their opinion, belong to the Scots section of the

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Lowlands dialect continuum and are not highly respected in society. This approach, consecrated by more than three centuries of tradition, has always reinforced negative attitude towards non-English speech in general, and Scots in particular, what is especially pronounced at the stage of secondary socialization – above all, in school – and subsequently at the stage of employment significantly limiting the opportunities for speakers of idioms known today as ‘lesser-used languages’, seriously violating their rights (cf. Bailey, 1987; Craigie, 1924; McClure, 1980).

Meanwhile, everyday practice demonstrates that nowadays the attitudes of society towards the Scots language and its dialects may not be as negative as it used to seem to educationists and school-teachers previously, and employers are more likely to prefer a qualified specialist who has not got rid of dialectisms in his speech to a weaker professional fluent in the standard variety (Bailey, 1987, p. 140). The boundary between the old and new approach to Scots was outlined somewhere in the 70s of the 20th century, since what time the situation with studying the language in question and its literature at school has undergone significant changes.

Methodology

As early as in 1976, with his article ‘The Scots Language and the Teacher of English in Scotland’, A.J. Aitken (1976) ignited a lively discussion in educational circles on teaching Scots in schools. Supporters of the revival of Scots put forward the idea that teachers’ focusing on such ‘external’ aspects as pronunciation and general ‘correctness’ of speech (namely, English speech) was not able to develop students' ability to use the language in real life to the limit.

The view, according to which linguistic and dialectal diversity is a source of lifeblood of society, and not at all a weakness as used to be previously believed, was gaining more and more popularity. The conception of ‘linguistic diversity’ inextricably linked with the diversity and richness of the culture of the nation has become commonplace. Scottish teachers and educationists who hold these views have come to the conclusion that the results of a long and unsuccessful struggle against Scots and its regional dialects need to be reassessed. Works in sociolinguistics and the history of the Scots language by well-known linguists (cf. Aitken, 1980; Macafee, 1987; McClure, 1980; McIntosh, 1952) became a theoretical basis for a new concept of the place and value of lesser-used languages (the Scots language in particular) and regional dialects in educational sphere. Through publications, seminars and lectures, the very concept of the indigenous language, as well as a new understanding of its place and role in the educational process, were conveyed to the community of teachers and educationists, who elaborate new priorities and approaches.

Results and discussion

The most important problem of modern Scots affecting seriously its prospects in the educational sphere is its lack of a single literary standard, which prevents its official



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recognition. Both writing prose and poetry in Scots and teaching of this language are extremely difficult because there is still no single modern grammatical and spelling norm. In this regard, it is recognized that it is very important to study the language and generalize the linguistic experience of modern Scottish authors, and among them, first of all, the language of the classic of modern literature – the poet Hugh MacDiarmid (literary pseudonym of Christopher Murray Grieve). This is all the more important because it was MacDiarmid who gained a reputation as the creator of the supra-dialect literary variety of Scots, now widely known as *Lallans*.

Due to the fact that written Scots as an academic subject has only recently been introduced in Scottish schools and is still not a compulsory course, it takes a lot of intrinsic motivation to learn how to write correctly, as well as to get acquainted with both colloquial speech and literary tradition. Examples of what is considered good writing in relation to any language are provided by literature in this language, and Scots is no exception in this regard. However, as noted by N. R. McCallum and D. Purves, many modern authors are not ready to make the efforts necessary for the successful use of Scots in literary work (MacCallum & Purves, 1995, pp. xii-xiii).

Practice shows that the specific tasks of language planning are only within the capacity of the state. It is obvious that writers, remaining only writers, are not able to legally achieve official recognition of the language, introduce it into the educational process or in any other sphere of life, or officially initiate a language planning programme that has any status other than academic. They can only develop and expand the use of the literary language, and this process, in turn, in a favourable social and educational climate, can increase the prestige of such a language and, accordingly, cause a desire to officially raise and consolidate its status. True, in the 1990s changes in the political life of the country – the referendum on devolution in 1997, the opening of Parliament in 1999, etc. – significantly improved the prospects for the development of both the Gaelic language and Scots and created conditions for the development and implementation of a targeted language planning.

According to the Census of 2011 there are up to 1.5 million more or less competent users of Scots in Scotland but it is likely that, in fact, this number may be considerably bigger (Scotland's Census 2011. Languages.). Ten years before that (i.e. in 2001), the UK Government ratified the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages in respect of Scots and Scottish Gaelic in Scotland, Welsh in Wales, and Ulster Scots and Irish in Northern Ireland. Manx Gaelic and Cornish were subsequently added in 2003. Scots was ratified only under Part II – which is a statement of objectives and principles, without any explicit requirement for action (The Official Report of All Parliamentary Debates. Responsibilities under the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages since Signing the Charter.). Nevertheless, certain changes have followed, and nowadays Scots language planning is implemented by such government bodies as Education Scotland and Creative Scotland, whose function is to facilitate the protection and maintenance of the language through Education and the Arts. This has affected positively the attitudes to Scots at school and in the arts and brought about certain status upgrade of the language in question.



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Scots is currently recognized by and taken into account in the Curriculum for Excellence, which is the Scottish Government's official guidelines for education in Scotland. This document is implemented by Education Scotland and formulates the recommendations on organizing and administering primary and secondary education for Scottish children and young adults from the age of 3 to 18. Every educational establishment in Scotland has to follow the guidelines and recommendations in this document. Curriculum (and, correspondingly, assessment) in all schools is divided into eight broad subject areas, the language area comprising Literacy and English, Literacy and Gaelic, Modern Languages, Gaelic (Learners) and Classical Languages. The Scots language is not mentioned in the above regulations but curriculum provides schools with considerable autonomy in selecting subjects and methods of teaching. A certain number of Scottish educationists and teachers has come out for official recognising Scots as an additional language, turning it, therefore, into a subject to be included into the curriculum.

Since 2012 the system of Language Teaching and Learning in Scotland has been based on the scheme 'A1+2' presupposing learning two more languages in addition to one's own, which – even if a pupil speaks broad Scots – is rather considered to be English(!), which may bring about disregarding the former. The first and the second additional languages are designated as L2 and L3, and Scots under the current system may be chosen as L3 from the age of 9 (Second level – Phase 5). Besides, language study is supposed to be accompanied by teaching culture and history of Scotland regional and national (Education Scotland. Briefings.).

Today's approach to supporting and promoting Scots was expressed in the 1992 report prepared by such educational governmental body as 'Her Majesty's Inspectors of Education'. Its section devoted to English 'Effective Learning and Teaching in Scottish Secondary Schools' contains quite a disputable statement that '...it should be the aim of English teaching throughout the secondary school to develop the capacity of every pupil to use, understand and appreciate the native language in its Scots and English forms' (Her Majesty's Inspectors of Education. Reports.).

However, there remains an element of subjectivity in the inspection of schools, as there is not a consistent approach to the inclusion of Scots language. Scottish schools have curricular guidelines rather than compulsory subjects.

Being the main educational development agency, Education Scotland provides the government with advice on curriculum development and produces teaching, learning and assessment materials for schools. Besides, the government appoints Scots Language Coordinators, whose function is to compile resources for education, and has created a team of the so-called Scots Language Ambassadors who facilitate promoting Scots in schools. Support is also provided by such academic institutes as Association of Scottish Literary Studies (ASLS), Scots Language Centre based in Perth and local education authorities. An online interactive resource, GLOW, provides support across the curriculum and the SLD provide substantial support in the form of outreach work with an appointed education officer as well as regular updated project work.



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In 2016, the Scottish Education Minister launched a website of Scots language resources available in the National Library, demonstrating support for the language in question at Scottish Government level. Other academic associations, individual authors and language activists write and publish poetry and prose in Scots, organise workshops, conferences and other events to provide language models, raise awareness of the language and improve attitudes to it.

Conclusion

Summarising all the above it is necessary to stress the fact that with all the scale of support and promotion of Scots in school today, its limited official recognition and optional status as a subject make the whole situation around this idiom in the field of education rather controversial and its prospects not so favourable. Two most obvious factors of this are 1) low social prestige of Scots and 2) its competition with Gaelic, whose status of an official language is absolutely unambiguous.

Besides, it is not easy to 'turn' to the Scots language the majority of the population of Lowland Scotland, who consider English their mother tongue. As is known, unlike some other European autonomies, in Scotland, despite the fairly broad support for the cause of independence, political and linguistic 'patriotisms' are not interconnected in the minds of the majority. Even in the event of Scotland's gaining full independence, the widespread directive introduction of Scots could be ineffective and harmful. The example of Ireland shows that the revival of culture and language in an independent state will not happen automatically, even with strong financial and organizational support. Gaining independence – long awaited for by many Scottish academics – is only one of the prerequisites for the further development of language and culture, however, in order to implement these plans, a reasonable strategy for cultivating a new attitude towards the native culture and language should be developed, taking into account available examples of successful and unsuccessful cultural and linguistic construction.

The question of the future of Scots remains open, although public opinion, as already noted, is changing slowly but steadily in favour of supporting Scots and its dialects through teaching and beyond. In any event, positive changes in school, which is traditionally more conservative than universities in terms of language policy, provide new opportunities for speakers of Scots and thereby contribute to even further democratisation of Scottish society.



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Exploring the Ways and Outcomes of Using Story Books and Adapted Films in EFL Classes

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Abstract

Contributions of reading books and watching films during language learning processes have been widely known issues in terms of language development and improving language learning skills. The main aim of this study is to engage EFL learners in activities that demand active participation, develop 21st-Century skills such as critical thinking and literacy skills and enhance linguistic competence. With these in mind, 16 students aged between 18-20, who were pre-intermediate and intermediate level, participated in this study voluntarily during the second term of the 2021-2022 academic year. The study took place at the School of Foreign Languages, Çukurova University for six weeks out of the compulsory class hours. Therefore, it was an extracurricular session that was run by one of the lecturers/researchers. Pre-determined writing and speaking tasks were assigned to students before, during and after the sessions of reading the books and watching the films. Informal interviews were conducted at the beginning of the study and after all the implementations were completed, an open-ended questionnaire was applied to be able to learn more about the experiences of participants in this learning atmosphere outside the classroom.

Keywords: books, films, literacy skills, linguistic competence, critical thinking skills

Introduction

Movies and books are a rich source of both language and culture and they enhance listening, speaking, reading and writing skills thanks to having the advantage of authentic language input. It is of interest to find out how to incorporate films and books in classroom settings. Although reading skills are crucial for students, they are not aware of the importance of having reading skills in their lives. The lack of motivation may stem from the length of texts, the difficult vocabulary they contain and the short allotted time. Teaching and using literary works such as novels and short stories throughout the curriculum have various benefits to the EFL learners' language development, self-motivation, critical thinking skills and cultural awareness etc.

Digital media including movies, documentaries, animations, etc. present the target language with rich visuals which stimulate the minds of the learners and expand the methods used in EFL classrooms. Using films intertwines culture and language with accents, native dialogues even slang and that leads to exposing students to a positive learning environment further from repetitive instructions based only on grammar and language structures.

The main aim of this study is to engage EFL learners in activities that demand active participation, develop 21st century skills such as critical thinking and literacy skills and enhance linguistic competence using story books and their film adaptations in extracurricular sessions.

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Literature Review

Learning process can be stimulated by authentic materials such as short stories and novels since they include the real language which is more beneficial than informative materials. Zahra and Farrah (2016) proposed that using short stories in the EFL setting is beneficial for enhancing language skills, personal development, self-reflection, cultural understanding and tolerance in their study conducted with 2nd-4th year university students. Pardede (2011) indicates that “short story creates a meaningful context to teach different language focuses and to improve the students' interpretative strategies” (p.24). However, literary works should be selected according to the learners' profile, the objectives of the course and content of the story in order to reach the best outcome. According to Sasalia and Sari (2020), students started to have a positive attitude towards reading skills with the use of novels as a result of the questionnaire about the perceptions of literary works on reading skills.

Using the movies in the class enables the students to picture or to visualize the events, characters, story and words in the context. Since they provide real language in cultural contexts, listening, reading, writing skills of learners can be improved when films are combined with effective tasks. Brown (2010) conducted a study with films including a variety of listening and writing activities based on the content of the film and questionnaires were given to evaluate students' progression. She concluded that if appropriate tasks and a certain amount of time and thought were given in teaching skills, students would benefit from films in terms of cultural transference. For Bray (2018), discussing the film after watching in class may result in inadequate gains, therefore various tasks including a five-question 'Movie Journal' can be an effective way to optimize the benefits of film watching. Moreover, movies, documentaries, short-films, animations, film clips provide opportunities to develop listening comprehension, critical thinking skills and analytical skills of students. Kaiser (2011) used film clips in the classroom and concluded that “our challenge, as instructors, is to devise activities that involve students in a process of discovery of the linguistic, cultural, and cinematic clues that together form the basis for an interpretation of text” (p.249).

Integration of literary works and films in the EFL classrooms facilitates the learning environment in various ways as can be seen in aforementioned studies. Zoreda and Lima (2008) presented simplified novels as graded literary material for beginning and intermediate level of students and their associated audio recordings and films in their program in order to support students to develop their critical skills, intercultural competencies and awareness of media variations in literary texts. Another way to integrate films in classrooms is implementing animation films in teaching reading comprehension texts which are considered an effective technique that supports the stories through the sound and visual effects and the speech of the characters. Torabian and Tajadini (2017) investigated the effects of animation films on developing reading comprehension texts with experimental and control groups consisting of pre-intermediate level of learners and at the end of pre-test and post-tests they found out that the traditional classroom setting changed into a more enjoyable and vivid environment in which students developed positive attitudes towards reading texts since they were able to understand



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the text and answer the related questions. In another study with simplified books and their film adaptations Ismaili (2013) reported that “students can learn more effectively when their attention is focused on the task; therefore, they are focused more on the language they use than on the grammatical forms” (p. 127). The chance for learning real-life dialogues in films helped students to improve listening and speaking abilities which lead them to take part in group discussions to analyse the characters and have a better understanding of the events (Ismaili, 2013).

Identification of the Problem

Our students mostly have difficulty in developing study skills in terms of learning a foreign language. Although they are supported by their teachers both during the orientation weeks at the beginning of the academic year and during the whole year ahead, they still have problems acquiring language learning skills and creating a daily routine to help themselves in this process. Most of the time, they need strict guidance and repeated instructions to be able to develop autonomy, self-study habits and self-reflective skills, etc.

As we are using coursebooks in our classes, we usually face some conflicts during the process. To illustrate, most of our students do not have enough prior knowledge or skills to be able to complete the tasks in our books. At that point, we need to take some actions to be able to help them better. That is why we wanted to create more space for our students’ voices so as to let them express themselves about their learning experiences, problems, and challenges that they meet while learning a foreign language in the current study. Based on our observations and students’ feedbacks during in-class discussions, we realized that they had difficulty in developing reading skills and habits. Moreover, they did not have reading habits and they did not know how to read and analyse a book or a film as they lacked of some literacy skills such as reading literacy, film literacy, etc. For all these reasons, they needed first-hand experiences in class to have higher level of consciousness about literary issues to be able to understand metaphoric language that is used in books and films.

In our course book, there was a unit about books and films that are adapted from books. We thought that it could be a good opportunity to use this idea as a starting point for our study. After having discussions about this issue with our students, we decided to create a six-weeks plan. Depending on this plan, students were asked to read some books and they watched the adapted films with English subtitles together in the class. During all these, they were asked to complete some tasks before, during and after each intervention.

We tried to make this plan based on the outline suggested by the syllabus, which means that our activities are all in line with the curriculum objectives. Thanks to these extracurricular activities we tried to strengthen students' prior knowledge and activate their language use in many different skills. Not only their basic language skills but also some other vital skills were improved such as academic skills, literary skills, critical thinking skills etc. (See Table 1)



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Table 1. The outline of the tasks used in extracurricular sessions

Weeks	Aims	Outside Tasks/ Studies	In-Class Tasks/ Studies
Week 1	Reading and analysing the book	Reading and writing a summary about the book	
Week 2	Analysing the differences and similarities between the book and the film	Writing a compare/contrast paragraph about the film and the book	Watching the film of the book
Week 3	Developing questioning skills through pair discussions		Preparing questions about the book and film (Think/Pair/Share) (Scenes from the film)
Week 4	Reading and analysing the second book Analysing the differences and similarities between the book and the film	Reading the book Doing comparative analysis	Mini quiz about the book and film Watching the film and revising the quiz
Week 5	Creating an awareness into film literacy skills	Comparing a book and a film from different aspects	Film Study Exercises for the adapted book Whole class discussion
Week 6	Evaluation		Reflection and Discussion Open-ended Questionnaire



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Methodology

Procedure

For the purposes of this study, two simplified books “Mrs. Doubtfire” and “Call of the Wild” were chosen and used in outside reading and their film versions were shown in extracurricular sessions. With regard to the aims determined in the outline in Table 1, some tasks/studies were used both in and outside the classroom during the process. They were all chosen in line with the syllabus program although this was an extracurricular study. Additionally, there was an order of task implementation that was presented from easier to difficult ones.

Implementations

Outside Tasks

Writing a summary

As the students had already worked on summary writing as part of the syllabus, they were just asked to write a summary of the book that they read before the session started.

Writing a compare and contrast paragraph

Since the students had already learned how to write a compare/contrast paragraph within the syllabus program, they were asked to write a paragraph by analysing the similarities and differences between the first book and the film.

In-class Tasks

Mini quiz

The quiz was adapted from the story book, and some more questions about the film were added. Students took this quiz twice. They did it after reading the book but before watching the film. However, after watching the film they took it for the second time and revised their answers. They checked their answers and compared them with their friends' answers.

Think/Pair/Share

This was a pair work activity that the students did with their peers in the class. First of all, they were asked to prepare some questions about the book and the film and then they asked those questions to their peers and they took notes about the answers given by their partners. In this way, they could see the similarities and differences between their own answers and their friends'.



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Film study exercises

This was a more detailed task in which students focused on various elements and issues from critical aspects. This was a more guided task since it was the first time for students to analyse a film from critical perspectives. With the help of the guidance and instructions of the practitioner teacher, they evaluated the second film individually at first and they had a whole class discussion afterwards.

Participants

As this was an extracurricular study, 16 volunteer students from 4 different classes participated in this study during the second term of the 2021-2022 academic year. They were mostly aged between 18 and 20 years old and were pre-intermediate and intermediate level. The sessions took place outside of class hours for 6 weeks.

Data Collection Tools

Informal Interviews

Before starting the study, informal interviews took place in the class about students' personal experiences in terms of developing reading skills, analysing books and films, evaluating books and films from different perspectives and developing language learning skills by using books and films. Thanks to these informal interviews, students could express their ideas freely and talk about their needs, expectations, strengths and weaknesses etc.

Practitioner's Reflections

The practitioner, who is one of the researchers, reflected on each step during the study. She wrote reflections before, during and after all those implementations. She observed the participants' behaviours and reactions while doing all those studies in class activities. She was always in contact and collaboration with the students to be able to guide and support them when they needed. Therefore, she reflected on all the things she experienced during the process.

Open-ended Questionnaire

The survey was prepared by the researchers to be able to evaluate the whole process and let the students share their personal experiences and reflections about the implementations that were applied and their impacts on the students' language development and critical awareness etc.

Data Analysis

Content Analysis

This was a qualitative study in nature and that is why the data gathered during the study were recorded and coded under the emerging themes based on the content analysis. The emerging



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themes were presented with their subcategories and they were supported by the participants' quotes and practitioners' observations and reflections.

Main Themes

Repeatedly, most of the students focused on the similar issues about the effects of these extracurricular sessions and implementations on their development of linguistic competence and critical awareness. As a result of the analysis, some main themes emerged and they were presented.

Engaging EFL learners in activities that demand active participation

As practitioner researchers, we observed students' energy and enthusiasm to be active in sessions. Although it seemed extra workload to write the summaries, paragraphs about the books and films, they actively participated in class discussions in order to express their awareness about the differences they had observed while they both were reading and watching the same theme. Some students' reflections were shared in the following:

S1: It was really good. Nobody hesitated to share their ideas. Shortly, it was intimate.

S2: It was pretty sincere and I was not ashamed when I talked.

S4: Since everyone participated voluntarily, no one got bored and participation was good.

S10: This was out of the classes and exams. I think these kinds of activities help students learn a language. This should be started earlier.

S14: These activities were really efficient and useful. I wish we could do these activities in the first term too.

Developing critical thinking and literacy skills

Students benefitted from the tasks and implementation to develop their critical thinking skills and literacy skills beyond experiencing some new activities/tasks. Students commented on their experiences like these:

S2: People have different opinions and this broadened my perspective.

S7: The most beneficial part is learning the meanings of the unknown words from the books, being able to make connections even if I cannot learn and, in this way, understanding most of the film with the subtitles.

S9: Reading the books and watching the films with a purpose and thinking about the questions and the activities related to the books and the films led us to think more critically and from different perspectives.

S11: I learned how to review and evaluate a book.



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S12: Recognizing and explaining differences between books and films which no one recognizes in class were good.

S13: Reading the books beforehand helped us to understand the films easily.

S14: I like having prior knowledge. As I know the main idea, I can focus on the details.

Enhancing linguistic competence

Students' self-awareness in terms of evaluating the development of their linguistic competencies was raised thanks to the implementations we used in the classes. Students reflected upon this issue as below:

S1: I learned new words and it improved my speaking skills.

S2: I think it improved my English reading and speaking skills.

S4: I learned lots of new words and structures. My pronunciation improved thanks to the films.

I think the most beneficial part was watching without Turkish subtitles.

S5: I think the most beneficial part was watching without Turkish subtitles. It improved my listening.

S10: It improved my listening skills and vocabulary.

S:14: I learned a lot of idioms and phrases. Although we know the meanings of the words, we don't know exactly how they are pronounced. these words are reinforced while watching the movies.

Developing collaborative skills

Students from different classes came together for a shared goal and we witnessed the synergy created within the group. Watching a film all together created more dialogue between students and the teacher and among students as well. Films draw students' attention and kept their interest alive. Some excerpts from students' reflections were shared as follows:

S1: What I liked most was that we watched and commented together.

S3: What I liked most was that the sessions were interactive.

S6: We could ask each other when we did not understand some parts of the film and have discussions. For example, I learned some details during the discussion.

S9: I liked we commented together after watching the movie the most. My friends' different comments made it easier for us to understand some parts that I did not understand.

S10: Watching sth. together was awesome.



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S6: It was really comfortable and enjoyable because I like watching movies with my friends.

S12: We motivated one another to attend these sessions.

Other benefits of extracurricular activities

The implementations that were employed as supplementary resources during the process supported the language learners from many perspectives by scaffolding. And here are some of their reflections:

S5: I gained self-confidence because I was aware of what I learned.

S9: Reading the books beforehand helped us to understand the films easily and this affected our experience and I felt more self-confident.

S10: Doing sth. out of the classes motivated me to learn English.

S11: My interest in reading English books, articles and news increased. As a result, my ability to write compositions has also improved.

Results and Conclusion

At the end of the whole process, we can say that we created a space for ourselves and our students by carrying out this exploratory study. Most of the students stated that they felt the benefits of these extracurricular activities on their language development. They said that they had such an experience like this for the first time in their educational life. They also realized that there could be lots of differences between the books and the adapted films in many aspects such as the descriptions and demonstrations of the characters, emotions, scenes, etc. Therefore, reading literacy skills and film literacy skills developed thanks to these tasks and activities held in and outside the classroom. Furthermore, they realized that their voluntary efforts and dedicated participation are valued and appreciated by peers and tutors and they felt satisfied in terms of being a part of this collaboration. Although the study was limited to a low number of students, all of them actively participated in the sessions and devoted their time for the hands-on activities.

As Kabooha (2016) suggested, student's language learning process could be enhanced by well-organised tasks and their motivation and attitudes towards the target language could be increased. In this respect, choosing the appropriate type of story and their film adaptations was demanding. Time management in film sessions was another challenging point although all students were eager to take part and work collaboratively throughout these voluntary sessions.

Based on the findings of the study, film-based instructions can be employed by teachers in the language teaching programs to improve basic language skills such as reading, writing, listening, speaking and linguistic competence of students as well. Additionally, reading comprehension tasks can be renovated by tasks given in film sessions which may motivate



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students to be active in peer and group discussions. For different contexts, these tasks and implementations can be adapted or the order of the tasks can be reorganized based on the needs of the students and curriculum.



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Problems with the Assessment: The Perspectives of Pre-service EFL Teachers in Turkish Context

Samet TAŞÇI*

Abstract

This study aimed to reveal the assessment problems experienced by pre-service EFL teachers in Turkish context. Two dimensions of assessment problems were investigated: student-related assessment and teacher qualification assessment. The participants of the current study were 15 4th year ELT students studying at a state university. Pre-service teachers have an insider's perspective on the difficulties of both teaching and learning English as they are involved in both the teaching and learning processes. Therefore, purposeful sampling method was used in the selection of the participants. The data of the study were collected through reflection papers and interviews. The students were asked to answer the questions related to assessment problems both in reflection papers and interviews. Content analysis was used in the data analysis process of the current study. The findings showed that the teachers generally applied multiple-choice exams and used summative assessment techniques in the evaluation of the students. These kinds of exams were stated to be score oriented and to cause students to have test anxiety. Moreover, communicative skills were neglected in these kinds of exams. As for the teacher qualification assessment, the participants stated that centralized exams such as KPSS/ÖABT fail to determine teacher qualifications. In conclusion, the study showed that both teacher assessment and student assessment tools are insufficient to determine students' and teachers' potential. The findings were discussed in line with the literature and educational implications were offered.

Keywords: teacher assessment, student assessment, pre-service teachers, EFL.

Introduction

One of the key elements of the educational process is assessment since it indicates whether or not learning takes place. In other words, assessment plays a crucial part in the learning and teaching because it directly influences these processes. Similarly, teaching and assessment inform and give information to improve each other (Malone, 2011). Strong, well conducted assessment gives instructors, students, and other stakeholders crucial information regarding student achievement and the degree to which learning objectives have been accomplished (Stiggings, 2002; Stoyhoff & Chapelle, 2005). Therefore, assessment has a definitive role in the selection of teaching material, method and techniques. Language teachers generally modify their teaching practices depending on the applied assessment methods. Consequently, teaching and assessment may and should work together to create a partnership where one benefits from and enhances the other. However, to improve the link between teaching and assessment, language teachers should be trained to know and use different assessment methods in their instructions, which might increase the quality of teaching and learning processes.

In Turkey, Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) is used as a basis to define learning outcomes and the proficiency levels and communication skills of the students, which is also aimed by Ministry of National Education (MoNE). As a result, all course materials and

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textbooks are created to develop communication skills of the students based on the criteria identified in CEFR (Yücel, Dimici, Yıldız & Bümen, 2017). In other words, a variety of assessment types have been prescribed in coursebooks and curriculum. However, the practical implementations of assessment in the schools of MoNE may greatly differ from what is prescribed in the curriculum and textbooks because of some reasons such as crowded classes, inadequacy of teacher training programs, lack of resources or inequalities among state schools in terms of assessment facilities. Therefore, it is necessary to determine problems related to assessment in Turkish context. However, the number of the studies identifying assessment related problems in foreign language education in Turkey is very low. One of these studies conducted by Çimen (2022) examined how EFL teachers' assessment procedures and the assessment component of English language curriculum (for grades 9 - 12) corresponded to each other. By contrasting the results with the suggested assessment practices in the curriculum, the researcher examined EFL teachers' goals for assessing learners, the linguistic features they evaluate, and the methods they use to do so. The findings showed that some teacher practices correspond to the assessment component of the curriculum while others do not, EFL teachers are unaware of what authentic assessment is and they do not use it, and the only feedback providers in the classroom are teachers. Similarly, aiming to find out assessment problems in ELT in Turkey, Çapan (2021) revealed that teachers in Turkey tended to focus more on grammar and vocabulary because high-stakes assessments prompted them to emphasize on grammar and vocabulary. As a result, negative washback effect of national exams resulted in a lack of oral abilities in FL classes. In an attempt to evaluate the selection process for English teacher education in Turkey, Erdoğan and Savaş (2022) showed that university entrance exam was not well-received by teachers and students as a method of student selection. Moreover, the exam was stated not to reflect accurately students' level of proficiency by many students and teachers. The outcome of the university test was not viewed as a reliable indicator of students' future performance in the program by a majority of teachers. In a similar attempt, Sayın and Aslan (2016) reported that there are key abilities that have been ignored not only in university entrance exams but also in the teachers in-class activities. The researchers concluded that university entrance exam, which is not a comprehensive exam, neither measures students' English proficiency nor, in general, corresponds to the material covered in ELT courses. Examining the exams determining teacher qualifications in Turkey, Baştürk (2017) concluded that exams identifying teacher qualifications are entirely theoretical and fall short of their goals of ensuring efficient teacher recruitment.

Since the standard methods of assessment used in Turkish schools and the exams applied in schools may endanger the quality of instruction in foreign languages (Akdağ Çimen, 2017) and the quality of national exams may directly affect teacher training programs, it is necessary to explore the problems related to assessment in Turkey from different perspectives. Therefore, this study aimed to reveal the challenges in the assessment process from the perspectives of pre-service EFL teachers in Turkish context. Pre-service EFL teachers were chosen as the focus of the current study since they are learners and teachers of foreign language and may have more in-depth knowledge about the issue. Two dimensions of assessment problems were investigated: student-related assessment and teacher qualification assessment. In line with the



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aims of the current study, the answers of the following research questions were sought.

1. What are the problems related to student assessment in Turkish context according to pre-service ELT teachers?
2. What are the problems related to teacher qualification assessment in Turkish context according to pre-service ELT teachers?

Methodology

Research Design

Exploratory case design, one of the qualitative research methods, was used in the current study as the aim is to explore problems related to assessment in Turkish context.

Participants

Fourth-year prospective ELT teachers took part in this study conducted at a public university. In the current study, fifteen prospective ELT teachers participated voluntarily. The participants were chosen using purposeful sampling method. Prospective ELT teachers were chosen specifically because they are in both side of teaching and learning processes. The participants also get the opportunity to observe their mentor teachers at their practicum school. As a result of their learning and teaching experiences, they may identify assessment problems from an insider's perspective.

Data Collection and Analysis

Qualitative data collection instruments such as interviews and reflection papers were used in data collection process. Since this study aimed to identify assessment related problems in Turkish context, the participants were asked to write reflection papers based on their experiences and considering the following questions:

1. Is there any problem with student assessment?
2. If yes, what are the problems with the assessment?
3. What kind of assessment techniques does your mentor teacher use?
4. What kind of assessment techniques do you use in your instructions?
5. What do you think about national exams in Turkey (YKS, KPSS, ÖABT)?

To have in-depth knowledge about the issue, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 5 of the participants. The interviews lasted for about 15 minutes and questions clarifying the issues were asked in the interviews such as:

1. What are the problems with the teacher qualification exams?



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2. Which skill is assessed more compared to others?
3. Which skills are not assessed as expected or required level?

Reflection papers were analyzed by using content analysis technique. The interviews were recorded and transcribed. The same technique was used in the analysis of interviews. Codes and themes were formed and some of the direct quotations expressed by the participants were presented in the results section.

Findings and Discussion

Pre-service ELT teachers identified some of the problems related to assessment in Turkish context. As seen in Table 1 below, there are eight major problems related to assessment practices in Turkey. Each problem was explained in detail and expressions of the participants were presented.

Table 1. The problems related to assessment in Turkish context.

1.	Lack of communicative skill assessment in centralized/national exams
2.	Negative washback effect
3.	Summative assessment
4.	Multiple-choice exams or unvaried assessment types
5.	Result oriented exams
6.	Test anxiety
7.	Unvaried feedback types
8.	Exams (KPSS; ÖABT) do not determine the qualifications of teachers

Pre-service ELT teachers stated that standardized or national exams conducted in Turkey by Student Selection and Placement Center (ÖSYM) do not assess productive skills. According to the participants, even though MoNE uses a communicative curriculum based on CEFR and books have listening and writing sections, national exams such as university entrance exam do not assess communicative skills, which causes teachers focus more on receptive skills. One of the participants stated the following remark about the national exams:

“Another problem is that English language exams in our country and the curriculum do not match each other. Reading comprehension is the only skill national exams focus on.”

PT3

Previous studies also emphasized that national exams in Turkey did not assess communicative skills such as speaking, listening, or writing, and were limited to prove actual proficiency of the learners (Erdoğan & Savaş, 2022). Similarly, Sayın and Aslan (2016) reported that national exams were not comprehensive to include productive skills and did not measure the competency in language acquisition. Akdağ Çimen (2017) reported that without a focus on listening and speaking skills, exams only assess how well students can memorize the given information about the language itself.



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One of the major problems stated by the participants were the negative washback effect of the national exams. As the exams did not measure speaking, listening, and writing, these skills were not practiced in the classrooms, which was also supported by the previous literature (Çapan, 2021; Yıldırım, 2010; Erdoğan & Savaş, 2022). For example, Çapan (2021) concluded that EFL teachers in Turkey spend more time on grammar and vocabulary because national exams in Turkey do not assess communicative skills such as speaking, listening, or writing. Moreover, these exams have negative washback effect on teachers' instruction.

According to the participants, especially writing is the most ignored skill in language instructions. One of the participants articulated the following statements:

“Writing skill is neglected in our country as much as speaking skill. Today, there are too many students who have graduated from high school but cannot write a simple paragraph in English. The reason for this is that students are not taught how to write. Because the exams do not have writing or speaking section.” PT2

The participants stated that summative assessment was used at the end of teaching process rather than formative or self-assessment during instruction, which poses as a serious problem in assessment process. According to the participants, summative assessment is inadequate to show real proficiency of the students and incompetent to evaluate students' use of English, which is in line with the statement of Qu and Zhang (2013).

According to the participants, as a result of summative assessment, mentor teachers generally used traditional testing methods such as fill-in-the-blanks, multiple-choice questions, and drills in their instructions, which assess lower cognitive abilities of the students rather than alternative assessment tools such as portfolios, self- and peer-assessment, or projects. One of the participants stated that:

“Our mentor teachers generally used mechanical exercises such as transformation drills, fill-in-the-blanks, and matching during the lesson. These kinds of exercises are not enough to improve students' English.” PT4

Correspondingly, Çimen (2022) revealed that multiple-choice and fill-in-the-blanks are mostly included in the exams in teachers' actual practices. Previous studies criticized multiple-choice exams for ignoring complex competencies and not assessing high-order thinking skills (Kitchen et al., 2019). Çimen (2022) noted that multiple-choice questions do not measure creative language use, but they measure memorization of vocabulary and structures.

Most of the exams applied at schools were stated to be score/result oriented rather than process or performance oriented. As a result, students do not accept English as a communication tool, but as a lesson to pass. According to the participants, score/result oriented exams decreased students' motivation and caused students feel test-anxiety. Tosuncuoğlu (2018) reported that based on the teacher and student preferences, assessment type can either reduce stress and anxiety or increase them. Similarly, test



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technique, exam format, and test length were reported to be among the sources of test anxiety (Aydm, 2009). One of the participants explained the situation with the following sentences:

“As far as I observe, I can say that students try to get high grades from exams. They do nothing to use their English as a means of communication. If the teacher gives some project homework like introducing a place to tourists rather than in-class exams, the students will have to use English out-of-class.” PT11

The current study showed that even though teachers used a limited number of formative assessment tools, one of which is feedback, in their instruction, they generally use recast or explicit feedback due to time constraints and they do not spend time for elicitation, clarification, self-correction or peer feedback. This finding was also in line with previous findings. For example, Yoshida (2008) revealed that teachers preferred to use recast due to time limitation of classes and their awareness of learners' cognitive styles. Çimen (2022) noted that teachers are the only feedback providers in their classes, not allowing different feedback types such as peer or self-feedback on grounds that the learners do not care about feedback. One of the participants of this study verbalized the issue as follows:

“I guess one of the problems in the classroom is that our mentor teachers ask questions to the students and if the answers of students are wrong, they don't give time to students to correct them. The teachers give the correct answer immediately” PT7

Based on the perspectives of pre-service ELT teachers, the last problem related to assessment in the current study was about teacher qualification assessment. According to the participants, the national exams such as KPSS, ÖABT are insufficient to determine teacher qualifications. The participants emphasized that assessing their field knowledge with a single multiple-choice exam is not fair and enough to determine their qualifications. It was revealed in the literature that teacher qualification exams in Turkey are theory-based and might be insufficient to achieve the selection of effective teachers for recruitment (Baştürk, 2017). Yeşilçınar and Çakır (2020) reported that the current teacher recruitment model in Turkey has undesirable consequences that negatively affect the fairness and validity of teacher qualification exams. In line with this finding, one of the participants expressed her ideas as follows:

“It is not fair to evaluate four years of university education with an exam, which I do not believe to determine teacher qualifications. The ones who have good test technique and good memorization, not the ones with good teaching qualifications, succeed in this exam.” PT4

Conclusion

The current study focused on the problems related to assessment in Turkish context from the perspectives of pre-service ELT teachers. The findings of the current study showed that there are some basic problems related to assessment in Turkey. The problems related to assessment were stated to be lack of communicative skills in national exams, negative washback effect, summative assessment,



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multiple-choice exams or unvaried assessment types, result oriented exams, test anxiety, unvaried feedback types and inability of exams to determine teacher qualifications. Investigating each problem, it can be concluded that some problems are cause or result of another one. In other words, solving some of the assessment problems may automatically help to solve other ones. Based on the conclusion above, some educational implications can be offered. For example, including communicative skills in national exams may help to reduce negative washback effect of these exams, which also may have a positive effect to lower test anxiety of test takers. Teachers should be encouraged to apply process-oriented assessment types in their instruction. Assessing students' performance may decrease the dependency on traditional assessment methods, which in turn, may diversify teachers' assessment methods. In addition, teachers require assistance in developing successful feedback mechanisms through the use of various methods and multiple sources. Therefore, in-service trainings should be conducted to improve teachers' assessment methods.



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Pre-Service EFL Teachers' Perspectives about Classroom Management During Teaching Practicum

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This study aimed to investigate the problems of classroom management experienced by Turkish pre-service EFL teachers in the final year of Bachelor's Degree and to shed a light on the problems related to classroom management during the teaching practicum. Descriptive Phenomenology was employed as the research design in this qualitative study. As the participants, eight final-grade pre-service EFL teachers were selected through convenient sampling method. The data were collected through pre-service teachers' self-reflection papers and semi-structured interview sessions. Regular classroom observations were also conducted weekly to triangulate the data. The comprehensive content analysis of the data indicated that educational and behavioral aspects of classroom management are the main thematic categories of this study. It was found that pre-service EFL teachers had difficulty in applying classroom management strategies that were taught at the faculty because of the contradictions between the theoretical knowledge and practical experiences. Moreover, physical conditions of the classroom context, mentors' attitudes as a role-model towards students during the lessons and gender rates of the students were found to have crucial influence on the improvement of pre-service teachers' classroom management skills. This research could help to determine the classroom management problems encountered during teaching practicum and guide the pre-service EFL teachers to improve their personal classroom management approaches.

Keywords: pre-service EFL teachers, classroom management, teaching practicum

Introduction

Classroom Management (CM) has proven to be a tough topic for novice teachers to address although it is given as a theoretical subject in the majority of schools of education (Hammerness, 2011). It is even a source of stress for new teachers especially when the classroom language is a foreign language (Evertson & Weinstein, 2013). While it is difficult to address particular CM issues in the students' native language, it is much more difficult in interactive language programs, since the aim of language lessons is to sustain student participation (Keser & Yavuz, 2018). Due to the difficulty of the situation, inexperienced teachers are trying out different methods of maintaining order in the classroom. Investigation of teachers from different years of experience, therefore, might shed a light to the CM strategies used in the classroom. However, strategies preferred by teachers might vary depending on some other factors such as the age, academic background, and year of experience as well. Since problems are inevitable parts of the classroom especially within the student-centered teaching context, all the teachers need strategies to sustain the desirable classroom environment where learning and teaching take place in ideal way.

Implementing strategies for managing a classroom effectively raises the bar for the entire learning environment and encourages students to actively engage in their own learning. With the potential for pupils to exhibit unusual behavior in a language classroom, these techniques take on added significance. Hence, in order to better prepare future language teachers, it is

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crucial to identify widespread issues in CM and examine the methods that pre-service teachers use to address these issues. The purpose of this research is to examine the CM issues encountered by Turkish pre-service EFL instructors in their last year of Bachelor's degree and to give insight into CM issues during the teaching practicum. In the light of this, the following questions guided the research for this study:

1. What are the most common issues with CM that pre-service ELT teachers face throughout their practicum experiences?
2. Pre-service ELT teachers face CM issues throughout practicum experiences; what are the possible reasons behind these issues?

Review of literature

During the pre-service teachers' practicum, when they are required to give sample lessons to be evaluated by their university instructors and mentor teachers, students have the opportunity to put their CM abilities to the test and gain valuable hands-on experience (Korkut, 2017). Pre-service teachers attend teaching practicum for two semesters in the final year of Bachelor Degree according to latest regulations of Higher Education Council (YÖK in Turkish). During this practicum, students are expected to visit a state or private school which is appointed by the faculty for 6 hours per week. During each semester, students are to plan, prepare and conduct at least 4 lessons while the supervisor from university and mentor teacher from the school are in the classroom for observation. CM is one of the many features that pre-service teachers learn and improve during this teaching practicum. It is so important that, if the classroom is not handled correctly, even the most well-planned instruction might go wrong. Because of its importance, CM has been investigated in ELT pre-service context in some studies such as İnceçay and Dollar (2012), Scrivener (2005), Ragawanti (2015), Müjdeci (2017), Yavuz and Keser (2019), and Akmal et al. (2019), and some others.

Upon searching the previous research, it is possible to come across many studies related to the current one in the literature. However, the findings of each research might be different from the others due to the characteristic of the participants and context-bounded feature of the qualitative research method. When ordered from older to the current one, the first related research included in this study is by İnceçay and Dollar (2012) who stated that prospective teachers need to acquire a set of abilities that may be taught at the undergraduate one of which is CM. İnceçay and Dollar (2012) conducted their research with 36 pre-service ELT teachers, and aimed to examine the relationship between pre-service teachers' confidence in their abilities and their preparedness to supervise classrooms. The results of this study indicated a correlation between student teachers' confidence in their ability to handle difficult in-class behaviors and their own CM effectiveness. However, there was no discernible change in the way pre-service teachers used their CM abilities in actual classrooms. The results provided light on the effectiveness and preparedness of future teachers in the area of CM, as well as their potential for growth in this area.



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In another related study, Ragawanti (2015) examined student teachers' reflective writings in an effort to better understand the challenges they face in the classroom and to show how keeping a reflective diary might aid in the development of their own teaching practices. A total of ten students from Satya Wacana Christian University's English Department in Salatiga, Central Java, participated in this study by completing their student teaching at SMP 2 Salatiga. Analysis of participant diaries revealed that the majority of issues stem from poorly handled crucial times, activities, approaches, grouping and sitting, authority, instruments, and dealing with people. In a similar study, Müjdeci (2017) examined the CM views of inexperienced EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers in Turkey. In this qualitative research, 20 English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instructors with varying levels of experience teaching EFL were interviewed using written questionnaires that included twenty-four open-ended questions. Researchers observed that first-year EFL educators were unhappy with their teaching environments. Despite the detrimental impact of physical restraints, most educators strive to treat their pupils with compassion and refrain from abusing their position of authority. Studying the dynamics of CM in language classes, this research might inform the training of future educators.

In a relatively recent study in Turkish context, Yavuz and Keser (2019) conducted a research to reveal the challenges faced by student teachers during practicum experiences and the methods they use to overcome them. The study's primary goal was to gain insight into how ELT student-teachers conceptualize and approach CM issues. The study was carried out using a mixed method including collecting qualitative and quantitative data from fourth-year students in the English language teaching (ELT) department at Balıkesir University. Interviews with senior students were conducted in a semi-structured format in order to acquire the data. The findings showed that students' loud talking and overcrowding are the main causes of CM issues. Besides, the suggestions proposed by last-year students include using a variety of teaching strategies with well-organized activities and establishing positive connections with students. Parallel to this research in Turkey, Akmal et al. (2019) also published a research examining how well and how poorly student teachers at the Department of English Language Education, UIN Ar-Raniry, managed their classrooms throughout their practicum experiences at certain schools. In this research, eight of the 250 students enrolled in the ELT Department during the 2017–2018 school year were interviewed by carrying out semi-structured interview sessions. The results of this research showed that using a group discussion approach in the classroom may lead to better management of the classroom as a whole. Student teachers, on the other hand, were shown to have significant concerns about leading their classes. This might pose severe challenges after they graduate and become responsible for managing their own actual classrooms.

As can be seen from the aforementioned studies, the majority of studies examining student teachers' abilities in CM rely on the respondents' own accounts. In her comparison of pre-service teachers' demo lessons and in-service teachers' actual lessons, Korkut (2017), on the other hand, investigated CM in ELT through careful observation of real classroom interactions between student teachers and practicing educators. The purpose of the study was to address the



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question, "How do in-service and pre-service teachers' classes vary with respect to each category in Scrivener's (2005) model?". This research concluded that there are significant differences in CM strategies between pre-service and experienced teachers, and pre-service teachers may not have the chance to improve their CM abilities in a setting which may fail to reflect authentic teaching situation. Unlike Korkut (2017), the current research is based on the self-reflection of the pre-service ELT teachers to gain insight in the problems and solutions of CM in ELT context.

Methods

Participants

Qualitative method was used in this investigation of pre-service teachers' performance in practicum settings related to CM. 8 pre-service teachers from the Department of English Language Teaching (ELT) at Nevsehir Hacı Bektaş Veli University who participated in a teaching practicum as the part of their official curriculum were appointed to the researcher randomly out of 65 students. The selection of participants was actually the same as the selection of the students appointed to the responsible lecturers for the teaching practicum. A separate selection procedure was not applied, and these students were included into the research process through convenient sampling method. As for the genders, 3 of the participants were male while the other 5 were female.

Data collection instruments

This research employed qualitative data collected through pre-service students' self-reflection essays and individual semi-structured interview including 7 open-ended questions directed to each participant. Selected student teachers shared their perspectives on the school context, the mentor teacher and classroom procedures at the school, and their personal CM experiences. Investigating the personal experiences of the participants assisted in identifying the common issues and how pre-service teachers approached to the problem they encountered.

Data analysis

Qualitative descriptive analysis is the primary way of analysis used in this research. Content analysis was performed on the data obtained from student reflection papers and semi-structured interviews. The data was analyzed by the researcher reading it many times and drawing different conclusions each time. Multiple categories were created from the data while sub-themes were created for each major part. The investigation mostly focused on the positive and negative experiences of student teachers' CM throughout their practicum. After detailed revision of all the data, coding was employed for data analysis of interview and self-reflection papers.



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Results

According to the extensive content analysis of the data, the key theme areas in this research are the educational and behavioral elements of CM. Therefore, the findings are mainly associated with educational or behavioral background of the issues the participants experienced. The findings were also exemplified by the utterances of the participants, and will be given when necessary.

The term "classroom management" refers to a teacher's method of running class by creating a productive learning environment. However, sometimes ideal conditions may not be easy to create due to some problems resulting from the setting or the people in that setting. The results of the current research indicated that pre-service ELT teachers assumed that the curriculum or the content of the courses related to CM fails to prepare them to real classroom cases. Since there were discrepancies between theoretical understanding and actual experiences, student teachers struggled to implement CM practices taught at the faculty. The participants all agreed that CM could only be experienced in real context. Here's a quote taken directly from one of the participants during the interview:

“Pedagogic courses always reflects the ideal classroom context. Even the problems included in the courses sound artificial compared to the real classroom issues. Therefore, CM skills must be experienced in the classroom during the practicum.” (PT 1)

“We are lucky since the practicum is not online this year. Otherwise, it would be impossible for us to improve our classroom control and organizational skills.” (PT 2)

As understood from the excerpts, students stressed the importance of teaching practicum to improve their teaching skills while mentioning the problems related to CM. Similarly, the findings revealed that physical condition of the classroom was also cited as a determining factor in effective CM. The answers to the interview questions indicated that student teachers are not content with the classroom facilities and setting in general because of the order of the chairs, technical issues with the projectors and smart boards. Indeed, some of the participants highlighted the problems related to the classroom setting and technological equipment which caused students to get distracted during the lesson and resulted in CM problems.

“I offered students to play a game as a vocabulary practice, but the screen just stopped working and students started to chat while I was trying to reopen it. The classroom facilities must be regularly checked up.” (PT 3)

When participants were questioned about the influence and contributions of the mentor English language teachers at practicum schools, they called the researcher's attention to a crucial topic. Mentor teachers were respected by the participants, but not accepted as an ideal role model for CM. The participants stated that these teachers mostly conducted teacher-centered methods and



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tried to sustain the discipline by stressing their authorities. Moreover, participants also believed that mentors at the school might be good English teachers, but they were not teacher trainer, and therefore, these teachers failed to be a role model in the application of the latest pedagogical methods such as student-centered teaching, learner autonomy, critical thinking, and etc. The following phrase might serve as an illustration of this problem.

“The classroom observation was very interesting for me because our mentor teacher dominated the classroom and lectured all of the grammar rules, claiming that we cannot control the students if we give them freedom.” (PT 2)

Another issue related to CM according to participants was their lack of knowledge in preparing effective lesson plans. Due to this inadequacy, the participants exhibited reluctance when questioned about past lesson plans they had developed. It was observed that many of the participants assumed they wouldn't need to create a lesson plan since they could just refer to the course books' content tables. This lack of knowledge was noted as a reason for CM problems since lesson plans directly influence the classroom organization and discipline. One of the participants made the following comments on this topic.

“In fact, I learnt how to prepare lesson plans at our faculty, but I never thought that I would need to prepare lesson plan here because we can use the table of content from the book. Still, I should work on the content to modify it according to my own class.” (PT 4)

During the interview, the participants were also asked about the experiences of gender distribution and its influence on CM. The participants stressed that gender rate played a crucial role in their teaching practicum because the classroom was mostly dominated by the male students in this vocational high school. Participants stated that male dominant classes are possibly more problematic while teaching especially teenagers. Moreover, some of the participants specified that after graduation they might get appointed to a primary school if they choose, which means they would be totally inexperienced in that age group. After finishing their studies in Turkey, prospective English language teachers may be hired for positions in all grade levels except for higher education. Therefore, the statements of the participants on this issue were compatible with the practical applications now being used in Turkey. To further understand the participants' ideas, an example is provided below.

“I am not at a high school, and last semester I was again at high school for practicum. If I am appointed to a primary school, I will not have any classroom experience, leave alone the CM issues. I guess I will learn the features of primary school students if I have to do so.” (PT 5)



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Discussion and Conclusion

CM has been an important issue in all educational settings. Thus, scholars of educational pedagogy offer ways of improving teachers' CM abilities through various methods. For instance, to educate pre-service teachers, pedagogical courses at the faculties include CM topics embedded in some pedagogic courses or as a separate course. The current study revealed that pre-service teachers often found it difficult to put into practice the CM methods they were taught in the classroom due to the gaps between theoretical knowledge and practical experiences. This result might be associated with the in-class experiences of the teachers. For instance, as Korkut (2017) identified, there is a large gap between the CM techniques used by pre-service and in-service educators, and pre-service teachers may not have the opportunity to develop their CM skills in an environment that does not replicate real-world classroom conditions. In some cases, as revealed in the current research, pre-service teachers might not have practicum opportunities for different age groups, and might graduate without any experience for different learner groups. Regarding this fact, İnceçay and Dollar (2012) revealed that student teachers' perceptions of their own CM efficacy are related to their confidence in dealing with challenging student behaviors in the classroom. In this vein, considering experience as a determining factor to improve the theoretical knowledge into practical knowledge, pre-service language teachers might be supported with a denser teaching practicum program. Moreover, teacher candidates should be informed well about preparing comprehensive lesson plans rather than relying on the content of the course books.

Another problem that was revealed as a result of this research is the state of the classroom's physical environment, which was also highlighted as a factor influencing successful CM. Actually, this fact has been stressed in many studies before and classroom conditions are directly associated with CM problems today. This problem was also stressed in Mújdeci (2017) by claiming that first-year ELT teachers were dissatisfied with their classroom conditions. Similarly, the current research pointed out that pre-service ELT teachers were unhappy with the classroom facilities and environment as a whole due to the seating arrangement and technical issues with the projectors and smart boards. Since it is cited in many context as a CM problem, classroom context should be given extra attention to improve the quality of the language education. It seems that there are lots of problems and inequalities among schools in terms of classroom facilities in spite of many attempts made by the authorities. Even the distribution of genders in classes might be a problem today for CM, which should be dealt with by the authorities for the sake of improving the quality of education in general.

The importance of teaching practicum is accepted by all scholars in educational sciences. As for CM skills, teaching practicum is the first official context for teacher candidates to improve these skills on site. Therefore, supporting the mentor teachers, who are the role model in all respect, is also very important. Teacher candidates learn the school context, official procedures and work ethics from these mentor teachers, and CM is not an exception for this. Mentor teachers should be provided easily accessible in-service training in terms of the latest approaches to CM considering factors such as student-centered teaching, learner autonomy and



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critical thinking. Teacher candidates who fail to benefit from teaching practicum to improve CM skills might have serious problem after getting appointed as a language teacher when they become responsible from their own students. To deal with such a problem, providing them with theoretical and practical knowledge and teaching how to lead their own classes before their graduation must be an important aspect of teacher education programs, as offered by Akmal et al. (2019) as well. In this vein, pre-service teacher might be equipped with abilities such controlling crucial times, activities, approaches, grouping and sitting, authority, instruments, and dealing with people (Ragawanti, 2015). Furthermore, the candidate teachers might be exposed to negative conditions during teaching practicum such as students' loud talking and overcrowding to make them familiar with CM problems. Candidate teacher might be more confident to deal with these CM problems if they informed about making meaningful relationships with students and using a wide range of instructional methods as stated by Yavuz and Keser (2019).



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Representation of Global Issues in EFL Textbooks

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Abstract

Today's world is becoming more and more global, and teaching now involves much more than just showing students how to master the material in their textbooks in order to succeed academically. Instead, it emphasises fostering the growth of responsible, global citizens while making an effort to undergo various global transformations. In order to meet the changing needs of students, it is clear that these programs have also included a global perspective when it comes to teaching and learning foreign languages. Students are actually becoming more aware of the issues they share with people around the world, as well as their role as change agents in both their own countries and the rest of the world, thanks to more globally oriented content and instructional strategies in the classroom. In light of this, the goal of this study is to determine the extent to which prep school students using EFL textbooks at a state university are able to improve their knowledge of and proficiency in relevant global issues. These EFL textbooks' content was assessed through content analysis to explore how well they represented global issues.

Keywords: Global issues, global competences, EFL textbooks, EFL textbook analysis

Introduction

Intercultural interactions have significantly increased over time as the world has become more globally interconnected and civilizations have become more culturally diverse. As a result, young people are required to have the knowledge and skills required to succeed in the workforce in the twenty-first century. Along with the academic and technical qualifications needed for jobs in the modern world, graduates also need to be equipped with the knowledge, skills, and competencies that are taught in colleges and universities in order to compete in today's complex and competitive world.

Learners who are globally competent are aware of the interconnectedness and diversity of the world's population. Additionally, while understanding how other cultures affect one's own, he or she values all people and acknowledges that not all cultures, religions, and values are universal. As a result of their global education experience, the globally competent learner develops the capacity for adaptation. In fact, the emergence of ideas like global citizenship, global education, intercultural language learning, and intercultural citizenship education has changed the way that people study, learn, and reach new knowledge.

To make it clear, global issues that learners share with others around the world and their role as change agents in their nations and the world are becoming more prominent in both the contents and methods used in education.

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Review of Literature

Global Education, Global Citizenship

Globalisation has blurred geographical and cultural boundaries by means of sophisticated telecommunications, the internet, and means of transport. Many conflicts emerge and spread in the world due to intercultural contact. These conflicts and many other problems, such as poverty, environmental threats, diseases, and terrorism, have an impact on the lives of the inhabitants of the globe.

These shared problems, called global issues, cannot be solved by individual state governments (Hosack, 2011), but require the intervention of international organisations. International and local non-governmental organisations can provide short-term and immediate solutions. However, the long-term solution, which is preparing young people to live responsibly in the world, lies at the bottom of education. As stated by Cates (2000), education has a moral obligation to morally prepare students to be committed to acting and locating solutions to those problems, beginning with their local environment (Byram, 2003).

Since local and national problems are related to and influenced by international issues, a globally-oriented education can raise learners' awareness of the dangers and the necessity of finding solutions with the collaboration of the international community either through local, national, or international actions (Cates, 1990, 2000, 2002; Hosack, 2011; Pratama & Yuliati, 2016). This type of education is a transformational process where students develop four areas: knowledge, skills, attitudes, and behaviour. UNESCO (2014, 2015, 2016) defines knowledge as having an understanding of both universal principles and issues as well as how those issues relate to people's daily lives. This process led to the development of the idea of "global citizenship," which is defined as a feeling of belonging to a larger community and common humanity (UNESCO, 2014). It is obvious and necessary more than ever to increase citizens' sensitivity to, knowledge of, and capacity for resolving global issues. In this light, global education has gained more significance than ever.

Moreover Cates (2000, p. 241.) explains the aim of global education as;

“... integrating a global perspective into classroom instruction through a focus on international themes, lessons built around global issues, classroom activities linking students to the wider world, and concepts such as social responsibility and world citizenship”

According to this viewpoint, some modifications to conventional educational strategies are necessary to develop people into global citizens who can adjust to the shifting global order and act accordingly. More importantly, Topkaya (2016) argues that the only effective way to train these people is through educational and training activities.

The organisation OXFAM (2006, p.6), which develops the global citizenship curriculum, describes a global citizen as one who:



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- is aware of the wider world and has a sense of their own role as a world citizen.
- respects and values diversity.
- has an understanding of how the world works.
- is passionately committed to social justice.
- participates in the community at a range of levels, from the local to the global.
- works with others to make the world a more equitable and sustainable place.
- takes responsibility for their actions.

Global Issues in Foreign Language Education

Global education has emerged as a globally-focused pedagogical approach to teaching and learning foreign languages that has a great deal of potential for promoting global citizenship. Apart from helping students acquire language, they teach them the knowledge, skills, and sense of commitment required by global citizens. Due to the rise in cross-cultural interactions and the multicultural makeup of contemporary societies, this sense of commitment has expanded to encompass the entire planet. Global education, an approach to foreign language teaching, has undertaken this responsibility given the nature of language as a vehicle of expression on a wide variety of topics and as a means of communication connecting people all over the world (Cates, 2000; Hosack, 2011; Erfani, 2012). In this respect, English language teaching can play that role thanks to the importance of English as the language of global communication (Cates, 1999, 2000; Jacobs and Cates, 2000).

According to Cates (1990), foreign language teaching has an ethical and moral responsibility to society, which is based on students' being sensitive to the seriousness of global issues and the need to solve them. In other words, teaching foreign languages should support educational goals like fostering a sense of national pride and a desire to help a community in addition to linguistic ones (Byram, 2008; Kirova, S.; & Veselinovska, 2015). Also, Cates (2000) asserts that English teachers who focus on language instruction and give their students the tools they need to function as global citizens have a greater influence on global education. Foreign language education, with the rapid and overwhelming spread of English as a global language, can prepare students to act internationally by teaching them global issues and values (Cates, 1990, 2000, 2002; Jacobs & Cates, 2002; Yakovchuck, 2004).

Global Issues in EFL Textbooks

In the past 20 years, a global perspective has been incorporated into the teaching and learning of foreign languages in order to meet the changing needs of students. Many attempts have been made to incorporate various global issues into teaching materials and methods (Cates, 1990, 2000, Jacobs and Goatly, 2000; Kirov and Veselinavaska, 2015; Pratama and Yuliati, 2016).

From the standpoint of preparing students to be change agents in their communities and the wider world, the Common European Framework of Reference has given teachers a common basis for the development and design of language syllabuses and textbooks that call for "thinking globally and acting locally" (Cates, 1990). The selection of themes in textbooks should depend on their representation of the problems in the students' lives so that it can affect the learners' attitudes towards themselves and other people (Cates, 1990; Ndura, 2004). The learners should be glocalized, which means they must satisfy the requirements of local users



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while maintaining their connection to the rest of the world (Gray, 2000, 2002; Yakovchuk, 2004).

Taking all these into consideration, the goal of the current study is to determine how well English textbooks portray and educate about global issues. It attempts to answer the following research question:

- Which global issues are represented in textbooks' content?

Data Collection & Analysis

Two English language teaching textbooks (Wide Angle 5 and Wide Angle 6 by Oxford University Press) were analysed by content. The analysis was based on Mark's (1993), Swenson and Cline's (1993), and Yoshimura's (1993) classification of global issues.

Global Issues

Two English language teaching textbooks, namely Wide Angle 5 and Wide Angle 6 by Oxford University Press, were analysed by content based on Mark's (1993), Swenson and Cline's (1993), and Yoshimura's (1993) classification of Global Issues which are listed as below:

1. Environmental issues: pollution, deforestation, endangered animals, global warming, recycling, natural disasters, etc.
2. Issues of peace education include wars, nuclear arms races, refugees, and so on.
3. Human rights issues: racism, gender issues, children's rights, etc.
4. Intercultural communication issues: cultural issues, global citizenship vs. national identity, multiculturalism, etc.
5. Socio-economic issues: poverty, wealth, consumer society, advertising, immigration, etc.
6. Health concerns: drugs, AIDS, etc.
7. Linguistic imperialism

Results

When compared to other global issues, the analysis of these two textbooks showed that the environment was covered more thoroughly. Pollution, natural disasters, and climate change were the environmental issues included in the textbooks. Pollution was dealt with under the topic of "The Great Barrier Reef." Volcanic eruptions were another natural disaster included in the textbooks. The devastating effects of the volcanic eruptions in history were explained in the section titled "*Unexpected Consequences*, Going Back in Time, and Finding the World's



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Lost Cities." Climate change was highlighted in relation to a text about the best government investment. In addition to addressing these environmental problems, the textbooks aim to inspire people—especially students—to live more sustainably. For example, the text “Living off the Grid” motivates people (students) to use alternative energy sources and recycle. The importance of creating green spaces was another issue highlighted in the textbooks.

Another global issue that was represented to a greater extent was intercultural communication. Almost each unit in the textbooks included an award-winning photo from a different country. Some of these pictures were about the subject of the unit and came with information or discussion starters, but others were just displayed without any instructions on how to use them. Some of the photos from different cultures that were displayed in the textbooks were:

- A Group of Guarani people in Brazil
- The Swabian Castle of Agusta in Italy
- A photo from an Islamic country
- A home in Swaziland

The textbooks not only offered a visual representation of interculturalism but also reading and listening passages on related subjects. For example, in one of those sections, speakers from different countries talk about the New Year’s Eve party in their countries. Likewise, students read about different lifestyles in another section. Globalisation could be stated as another intercultural issue exploited in the textbooks. For example, in the section entitled “What is your logo?” Some global logos, such as McDonald’s, Netflix, were displayed as examples of global brands. In the chapter titled "A Good Citizenship and Living Environment Architect," the textbooks also make an effort to increase students' awareness of global citizenship.

Some human rights topics were covered in the textbooks, with a focus on gender issues in particular. For instance, the "Women's Rights Movement" and "Female Explorers and Females from History" sections highlight the significance of women in society. Issues related to children's rights included cyber safety and protecting children online.

Health concerns such as AIDS and drugs were another global issue according to Mark’s (1993), Swenson and Cline’s (1993), and Yoshimura’s (1993) classifications. The health issues covered in the textbooks included diets for being green and environmentally conscious, mental illnesses like depression and social phobia, and obesity. Along with these health issues, the textbooks also covered subjects like animal testing and the placebo effect that are connected to health.

Socio-economic issues were also included in the textbooks. For example, an award-winning photo showing a young girl from Congo sharing her food is a true representation of poverty. In contrast, the story of two internet billionaires introduces students with the concept of wealth in another part of the world. The textbooks also highlight the issue of consumer society in the section entitled “Life without currency.” Advertising was represented as another socio-economic issue according to the classification that the analysis was based on, and was represented in relation to privacy.



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Regarding linguistic imperialism, listening exercises and video clips from the textbooks were compared to native and non-native Englishes. It was seen that all the tracks and the videos, except for a few videos at the beginning of the units, included British, and, to some extent, American English.

To sum up, it can be said that while some global issues were partially or entirely covered in the textbooks under analysis, many of them were not covered at all. In relation to this, we can mention a few points. Firstly, the books make no reference to immigration, although it is one of the hottest issues all around the world. Likewise, the books have not included anything related to peace education issues such as wars, the nuclear arms race, or refugees. Finally, although the textbooks aim to address language learners anywhere in the world, their references to native speakers of English still surpass other non-native varieties of English.

Conclusion & Discussion

This research has focused on the representation of global issues in two EFL textbooks. The results have shown that the textbooks include some global issues such as environmental issues, health issues, and socioeconomic issues to some extent, but that they are underrepresented, while there are no references to peace education. Even though the textbooks were designed to be used by language learners anywhere in the world, they still made more reference to native English speakers than to other non-native varieties of the language. Students are exposed to fewer global issues because there are fewer topics available to them, which in turn affects their awareness of those issues and propensity to act. As this study has only dealt with the issues covered in the textbooks, the variety of tasks based on the issues is still unknown. When tasks are more varied and frequent, it can emphasise the acquisition of global skills such as problem solving, cooperation, decision making, critical and creative thinking, and conflict management because they will have an effect on learners' personalities. Another study can explore the types and frequency of the tasks.

To conclude, because of its adaptability and the range of topics it provides, teaching foreign languages is "a window to the world" (Cates, 2000, p. 241) and a useful tool for introducing students to global issues; it is regarded as the right field for doing so (Cates, 2000). The methods used in the classroom and the content of different teaching materials, like textbooks, play a significant role in the development of learners' knowledge, attitudes, and global competencies. Because they provide input that is rarely available outside of the classroom, English language textbooks are crucial in contexts where the language is a second language.

In the twenty-first century, there is a multiracial, multilingual global village that is influenced by economic, political, social, and cultural dynamics. It can be said that global competencies must be included in the curriculum in order to give future graduates the abilities they need to live and work in a world that is becoming more and more complex. The development of learners' knowledge, attitudes, and global skills is greatly influenced by teaching strategies as well as the content of various teaching materials, including textbooks.



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Textbooks, like other instructional materials, should expose English-language students to ideas and techniques that support the growth of the knowledge, values, and abilities necessary for them to function as responsible citizens. However, textbooks generally do not seem to give importance to global concerns. Topics such as climate change, pollution, war and peace, and human rights (Shin et al., 2011) just make up a little bit of the required content and are not tackled deeply (Cates, 1990). Global issues should be covered in EFL materials, according to Byram (2011), in order to improve students' understanding of other cultures and their sense of intercultural citizenship. In this respect, ELT instructors/ teachers have great roles and responsibilities in educating and fostering students as global citizens and changing agents while textbooks can only be assumed as the first step to be taken in this long and tiring process.



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Potential Benefits of Mental Imagery in Language Teaching

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to examine the literature available on the topic of mental imagery, analyze them, and present an alternative and effective way to be used in the language learning process. There is a lack of research in this field, and though it has been used for medicine and sports for many years now, mental imagery (MI) is not investigated explicitly when learning a new language. Throughout the years, MI proved itself useful when teaching medicine and helped athletes and stage artists to improve their performance. Much research and discoveries have been done in terms of mental imagery and how the brain processes such experiences. Zurayn (2018) states that the brain cannot really understand the difference between perception and imagery, consequently it reacts to them immediately by creating psycho-physiological changes in the brain and the body. Thus, we can safely assume that creating imagery scenarios in one's brain to practice the new language items can be as effective as having the same experience in real life. When learning a foreign language, the learner needs to be exposed to an environment in which the target language is spoken in order to process it in the corresponding parts of the brain. Since the difference between reality and the mental imagery happening in one's mind will not be distinguished by the brain, it may result in the acquisition of the new information in a new way. Therefore, MI can supposedly provide such exposure.

Keywords: Mental Imagery, acquisition, mental practice.

Introduction

Recently, language learning has been accelerated more than ever before, and knowing more than one language is being demanded by employers. Thanks to technology, people from all over the world with different cultures are crossing paths every second, which has also nurtured the need to learn other languages. However, learning a new language is still considered difficult by many people in spite of the drastic developments that have been made in the language learning area.

There have been many kinds of research and books about how mental imagery works, the implications, and some examples of implementations in a few study areas such as theatre, medicine, and so on. However, we cannot obtain much information about its practice in the language learning area. For this reason, some articles are gathered here to manifest that we can enhance the acquisition of the target language in the way that other fields do.

One of the common barriers to learning a new language is that the learners tend not to speak since they are afraid to make mistakes and to be laughed at due to their mistakes. Mental imagery provides a context in which there is less pressure: The Mind. Learners can make mistakes in their minds, however, they may not care about them as they are the only ones who

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witnessed their mistakes. They can immediately look up in the dictionary the words that they do not know, and correct their grammar mistakes without any pressure.

As suggested by many educators, the new input should be within students' zone of proximal development (ZPD), and the teachers are supposed to provide such input. The problem here is that not every student in a classroom is in the same zone and the teacher cannot cater to all of the students' needs at once. However, mental imagery can help in this case by letting students create scenarios in their minds where they have conversations in the target language. In this way, each student will be aware of what they lack and fine-tune their output in these imaginary scenarios without having the pressure of making mistakes, being fluent and accurate at the same time because MI may help to strengthen the neural links that are necessary to acquire and speak a language better.

A Brief Introduction to Mental Imagery from the Perspective of Neuroscience

According to Mizuguchi et al. (2012), motor imagery can be defined as the mental execution of a movement without any overt movement or muscle activation (Mizuguchi et al., 2012). In his review article, he summarizes how to measure motor imagery and the activity taking place in the brain during motor imagery while also discussing the benefits of motor imagery practice. To investigate brain activity, the article points out various techniques that have been utilized to measure it. There are four main techniques:

1. TMS (Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation)
2. fMRI (Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging)
3. PET (Positron Emission Tomography)
4. EEG (Electroencephalography)

The MI process has been examined with the help of these techniques and it was compared to those activities in the brain during the actual execution of a movement. However, only the TMS and fMRI techniques will be investigated in this article.

In the TMS procedure, a magnetic coil, through which a high-current pulse passes, is placed on the scalp (See Appendix I). Next, the contralateral primary motor cortex receives the TMS pulse and corresponding corticospinal neurons are activated with the aid of synaptic inputs. From the point of TMS, it's been revealed that very similar brain activities took place during both MI and the actual execution of a movement. Even though there was no actual muscle contraction, motor imagery was able to increase the excitability of the corticospinal tract (See Appendix III for the definition and a representation picture) (Mizuguchi et al., 2012).

In our cerebrums, the action of the neurons continually fluctuates as we take part in various exercises, from basic tasks like controlling our hand to hold the door and open it to complex cognitive-demanding exercises like understanding language in a discussion. Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI) is a procedure for measuring and planning mind movement that is noninvasive and safe. It is being used in numerous investigations to see how



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a healthy cerebrum functions, and in an increasing number of studies, it is being applied to see how that typical activity is disrupted when one has a disease. The use of this technique started when the fact that the nucleus of a hydrogen atom acts like a small magnet was discovered (See Appendix II). In the procedure, the hydrogen nuclei are manipulated in order to generate a signal with which it was possible to be mapped and turned into a high-resolution image with good contrast (UC San Diego School of Medicine, n.d.).

The Use of Mental Imagery in the Field of Medicine

A study conducted by Sanders et al. (2004) has proved that having physical practice after mental imagery training was equal to additional physical practice according to the data gathered throughout the study. The experiment consisted of 65 sophomore medical students and they randomly received one of the following trainings (Sanders et al., 2004):

1. 3 sessions of physical practice,
2. 2 sessions of physical practice and 1 mental imagery rehearsal session,
3. 1 session of physical practices followed by 2 MI rehearsal sessions.

At the end, a surgery on a live rabbit was performed by all participants. Even though the group that received 3 sessions of physical practice surpassed the other groups, mental imagery rehearsal proved itself to be as effective as physical practice in learning surgical skills. The paper also suggests that this technique should not replace physical practice, but it encourages the use of the technique as a supplement thanks to its cost-effectiveness revealed during the study.

The Use of Mental Imagery in the Field of Sports

Today, many elite athletes are trying to raise their performance levels to the highest point by receiving psychological support. Athletes should have basic psychological skills to cope with competition stress and anxiety (Basut, 2006, as cited in Yamak, 2019). Yamak (2019) conducted a study with a total of 83 active female handball players, 38 of whom play in the Turkish Super League and 45 in the 2nd League. The study aimed to determine the imagery levels of female handball players and to determine the effects of age and sports age on imagery levels. Thanks to the abilities developed by the athletes as a result of imagery studies, their ability to solve the problems that arise during the game, think about the next move, and develop new tactics or strategies increases. At the same time, it can be said that younger athletes have a higher tendency to avoid failure in order not to feel ashamed of being unsuccessful. It can be stated that older athletes have a higher motivation to approach success because they have leadership characteristics and a desire to be proud of success. It was observed within the study that professional and successful athletes make use of MI and feel less stressed and they tend to be able to cope with negative emotions better than those who are less experienced (Basut, 2006, as cited in Yamak, 2019).

In this context, archers also use mental training skills to perform this shot. Various techniques have been investigated which include:



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- Mental imagery of the actions to be taken in negative or positive, incidents that are likely to occur during practice or competition,
- Enhance the psychological process that affects the sportsperson such as motivation, focus, stress, sensation, and the like.
- Imagining performing in the best way they can.

In the article, MI is also described as a technique where athletes recreate the situations they experienced before and it has been one of the most popular mental practice techniques. Based on the information in previous studies, research underlined that mental training is a psychological skill that aims to change and control the physical and mental behaviors and experiences of athletes (Cankurtaran, 2020). Thus, mental training can constitute a positive factor in order to maximize the performance of the sportspeople and should be included in practices along with the physical training practices.

The Use of Mental Imagery in the Field of Music

Mental imagery has been used not only for activities demanding particular body movements like sports but also for activities requiring more passive procedures like improving one's music processing. Another study done by Aleman et al. (2000) suggests that music processing takes place in the auditory cortex as well as in auditory imagery and that enhanced auditory imagery ability can be helpful to improve music training (Aleman et al., 2000).

In the paper, Aleman et al. (2000) state that "Musical mental imagery, or the ability to 'hear' melodic sound-sequences with the 'mind's ear' in the absence of external stimulation, plays an important role in musical performance. Musicians often rely on musical imagery to guide their performance and to memorize or compose new music. Moreover, the ability to read written music silently is an acquired skill that often involves mental imagery." With that being said, the study also discusses the benefits of music training and listening to music on cognitive performance. The subjects in the study were divided into 2 groups; musically-trained group (15 subjects) and non-trained group (20 subjects), and they were compared on 2 different tasks;

1. Musical MI task: The pitches of notes were to be mentally differentiated in parallel with the lyrics from familiar songs.
2. Non-musical auditory task: The acoustic characteristics of everyday sounds were to be mentally differentiated by the subjects.

As a consequence, the musical imagery task was performed better by the musically-trained subjects, in addition, the non-trained group was outperformed by the trained subjects on the non-musical auditory imagery task (Aleman et al., 2000).

The Use of Mental Imagery in the Field of ELT

Though it is not as popular as the other approaches towards language teaching, there are examples where MI has been used to improve the learners' linguistic competence. Zahedi and



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Abdi (2012) carried out research where the participants were divided into experimental and control groups. The experimental group received memory strategy training through Mental Imagery (MI) while the other group was taught with traditional methods. Moreover, pre and post-tests were administered to compare whether the variable (Mental Imagery technique) would make a difference between the groups or not. The results were compared and they clearly demonstrated that the experimental group with the MI treatment outperformed the control group with traditional teaching regarding the selected vocabulary mastery.

Aligned with the previous findings in this paper, Aydin (2017) investigated the effect of the MI technique while teaching metaphorical language (precisely, idioms) and the results resemble the other studies. In the experiment, the idioms were taught in 3 different ways:

1. Context out (only dictionary explanations without additional contextual support)
2. Context in (both contextual support and dictionary definitions were given)
3. Mental Imaging Technique (contextual support and dictionary definitions were given along with the pictorial representations)

At the end of the study, the group supported with MI Technique got better results than the other two groups and it was demonstrated that this Dual Coding approach proved itself effective to create a supplementary link for remembering the verbal information. The nature of cognitive processes that are used to acquire knowledge emphasizes its significance over the duration of exposure to the new input (Wheeler et al., 2006).

Findings and Discussion

It is crucial for an athlete to practice to get better at what he/she does. However, it may not always be possible to actually “physicalize” the action. To give an example, a football player may not be able to practice because of the weather. So, he/she can practice it in his/her mind, imagine playing in the field, visualize the movements, the strategies, and the methods. As far as we have known so far, this activity will not only help the footballer get better at playing but also improve his/her self-esteem since he/she will be activating the related parts in his/her brain. The brain will not fully distinguish the difference between reality and imagery and treat them as one. That is, when a tennis player imagines himself/herself raising his/her hand and hitting a ball, the brain will perceive the action as a real execution. The implication of this is not that the muscles will fully be activated. This imagery helps the players to improve technically which leads to achievement in real execution. With the help of neural imaging systems like fMRI or EEG, it was observed that the mental execution sends signals to the corticospinal tract, which is the neural pathway of voluntary motor executing function, in other words, real execution of a movement. As per the example above, the brain will send almost the same signals to the corticospinal tract when we are imagining hitting a ball with a racket as it does when we do it in real life.

Some deductions can be drawn in the light of this information. Above, a few studies were



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mentioned regarding the use of the MI technique in ELT. Naturally, there are many more methods to implement mental imagery in language teaching. However, this paper is targeted at the use of MI towards improving speaking skills, not only as a cognitive approach but also as a neurologic approach and its possible implications. Parallel with the example above, not every language learner has the opportunity, and possibility, to get exposed to L2. A Turkish learner living in a small city will never have the opportunity to get exposed and to use the L2 he/she acquires. As a result, his/her linguistic competence will not be developed unless he/she travels abroad, which is not always possible either financially or logistically.

The importance of exposure cannot be overemphasized since it is one of the key ingredients when acquiring a new language (Kurt, 2020). Individuals are exposed to formal input with the education they receive at school, informal input with all the activities they do with the target language outside of school or class, and they experience the linguistic process from learning to acquisition. In this respect, many linguists, especially Krashen (2009), have stated that individuals residing in the environment where the target language is spoken, if they do not have a previous experience with this language, will be more exposed to incomprehensible inputs at first. However, later on, they will be more exposed to comprehensible input over time, and this will positively affect their learning or acquisition (Krashen, 2009, as cited in Kurt, 2020). Since the effect of exposure and comprehensible input play a vital role while learning/acquiring a new language, learners must be provided with informal exposure, in other words, real-life conversations.

The problem here is that not every country has such a context. By all means, the best way to get the exposure is to be in a place where the target language is spoken, yet it is not possible for schools to take a long trip to another country with all those students because it is neither a logistical nor feasible solution. As the research done in other fields has shown above, MI can be the answer linguistics has been looking for. When learners create scenarios of conversations held in the target language, their brains will perceive them as real-life communication because the brain cannot differentiate between imagery created in their visual cortices and perception occurring in real-life communication (Zurayn, 2018). Additionally, this is also the same case with those athletes and medical students stated in the literature above. In one of the studies where the students were divided into two and only one of them got additional MT, it was clearly seen that the students with mental training outperformed the ones who did not get such training (Sanders et al., 2008). With the aid of extra mental training, the students were able to practice and get better at an operation without doing the actual motor execution.

More clearly, the parts in the brain that are activated when someone speaks to another one will also be activated when a learner mentally imagines a conversation in the target language. The same corticospinal tract will receive a signal as it does when we actually speak. This may not seem significant. Nevertheless, this is the fundamental core of this paper. In order to improve one's speaking skills, it is crucial to get exposure to the L2, and MI proves itself to



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be useful so as to achieve this goal in an effective and economical way.

Another benefit of this technique in language learning would be the motivation that the learners will strengthen. Seeing themselves having conversations with other people in the target language will eventually lead to a better self-image and this may increase their motivation towards the new information. Their brains will provide a safe environment where they can try out new things without the fear of making mistakes. Whenever they cannot find the right vocabulary or cannot construct a specific grammar structure, they can check their books, dictionaries, ask the teacher and go back to imaging where they left, which, as mentioned above, will improve their motivation. In the previous studies, a remarkable difference between the athletes using mental training has been observed. The athletes that make use of mental imagery bear more self-determination, motivation, and better self-image than those who do not. Imagery in sports not only helps the athletes to create a positive self-perception about themselves but also enables them to cope with anxiety and to feel confident (Hall, 2001, as cited in Yamak, 2019). It can be deduced that the very same effect can be obtained with language learners through providing them with confidence and motivation toward language learning.

Conclusion

This study aimed to identify what mental imagery is, gather previously done data in the field, and proclaim that this technique can be used in the language teaching area. New language learners may not have the context to use the language, nor to be exposed to the new language, and MI can be used to reinforce the quality of language usage as well by means of providing the learners with a safe environment where they are not afraid to make mistakes and be aware of their own learning process. In this paper, a neuroscientific approach was tried to be used in order to justify that MI will be useful for improving one's speaking skills because MI may help to create the necessary neural links while imagining.

As shown above, motor imagery has been used by many people from other fields and it has proven to be useful to practice and get positive results. As a result, when carefully implemented, mental imagery can provide exposure in those environments where the target language is not present and help learners to practice new language items. Furthermore, MI not only will help to improve learners' L2 by creating a context to practice it, but also may help them to decrease anxiety, motivate them towards learning a new language, and foster a more naturalistic way of doing it.

All the evidence gathered through the years in other fields regarding the benefits of MI clearly suggests that MI plays a vital role in terms of enhancing one's motor skills. With the information stated above, MI has been used in different areas and it has proved itself to be useful to enhance the quality of the performance without the actual execution of the activity. Therefore, it is safe to assume that the very same technique can be, and should be, implemented



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in language classes so as to raise balanced bilingualism since it may provide the very same exposure effect in one's brain without the presence of real exposure.

The studies done in other fields clearly state that the brain reacts to the real execution of activities almost the same way it reacts to the imagery of the same activities. If this is the case, that the brain will also react to imaginary conversations in another language similarly as it does to real-life ones will not be a wrong assumption. Every language learner in the world can apply MI techniques wherever they are and, even if the target language is not present in the community they are living in, obtain the exposure they need in order to improve their language skills.

What this paper is not aimed at is that the MI technique should be a whole new approach to learning languages. In fact, MI should be incorporated into language learning as a supplement to the other education that the learners receive. Since it was repeatedly proven with past studies within other fields, MT may also provide everything a learner needs; motivation, context, success, self-awareness, confidence, and real-life interaction (Though the conversation takes place in one's mind, the brain will perceive it as a real interaction.). Ultimately, there should be more research on the neural connections in learners' brains.

By analyzing the proven benefits of MI in the fields addressed above, this paper has shown how MI assists sportspeople, musicians, and medical students with their performance. Nevertheless, there has not been extensive research on the implications of this technique in the brain. Thus, further studies must be done to have a better comprehension of its possible benefits and to reveal ways to utilize it in the best way. It would be interesting to compare learners speaking in a foreign language and learners applying mental imagery and having a mental conversation in fMRI and make correlations before reaching strong conclusions.



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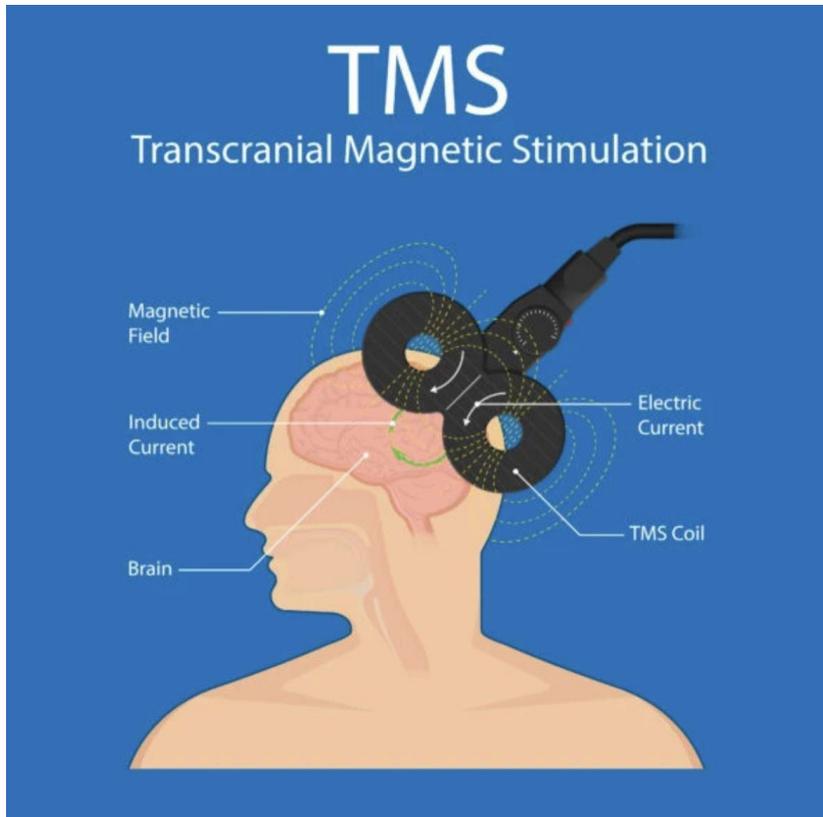
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Appendix I

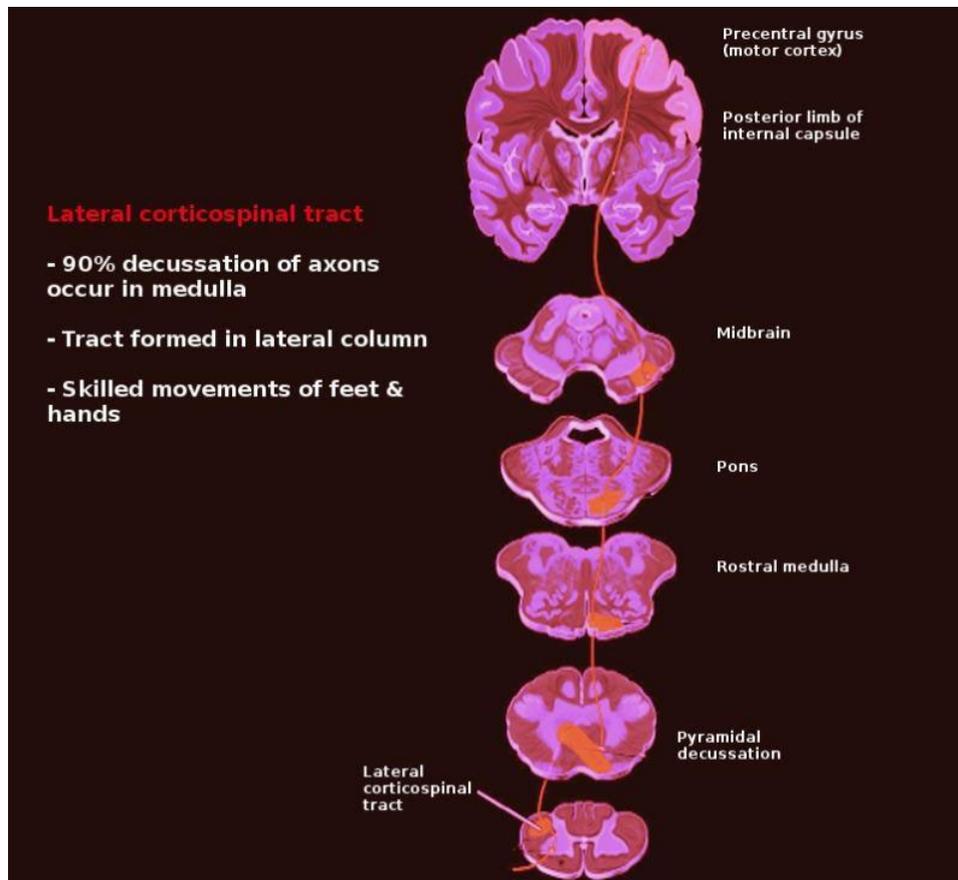


TMS Procedure (Flagel, 2021).



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Appendix III



Lateral Corticospinal Tract. “The corticospinal tract, also known as the pyramidal tract, is the major neuronal pathway providing voluntary motor function” (Natali et al., 2021).



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List of Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Explanation
MI	Mental Imagery
MT	Mental Training
L2	Second Language
TMS	Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation
fMRI	Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging
ELT	English Language Teaching



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Post-Method Pedagogy and Its Application in Turkish EFL Context: A Systematic Review

Melek YOLCU*

Abstract

There has been a good number of research on post-method pedagogy, its applicability, condition, status and difficulties all around the world. This review study aims to examine the empirical studies on post-method pedagogy conducted in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context in Turkey in terms of their focus, research design, data collection tools, sample group, years and the current status of method/post method pedagogy. This review study was done after searching various databases like Google Scholar, ResearchGate, Academia.edu, Dergi Park, YÖK Tez, and ERIC. A total of 8 studies, 6 of which were dissertations and 2 articles, were included according to certain criteria. As a result of this review study, it was found that most of the studies conducted on post-method pedagogy focused on the perceptions and views of EFL teachers. The results about research methodology of the studies indicated that the commonly used research design was quantitative; data collection tools were surveys/questionnaires and EFL teachers were the most common sample group taking part in those studies. Most of the studies on post-method pedagogy were reported to have considerably increased after 2013. As for the current status of method and post-method pedagogy, it was found that while methods are still commonly used, EFL teachers also have a positive inclination to post-method pedagogy.

Keywords: Postmethod pedagogy, Post-methodology, EFL teachers perceptions, ELT methods

Introduction

In the last two decades, there have been noteworthy changes in language teaching education. Social, political, and economic changes in the world had an impact on the viewpoints and approaches toward language learning and language teaching. In line with that, various methods in language education were introduced mostly between the 1950s and 1980s in an attempt to find the best method for language learners to facilitate their learning and meet learners' needs. In fact, each method was asserted by its proponents to be better than the previous one. However, all the struggle to find the best method resulted in dissatisfaction. Some scholars (Prabhu, 1990; Kumaravadivelu, 1994; Allwright, 2003) criticized the existing methods in terms of their scope, features and shortcoming in language education and argued that relying only on method results in failure, which also led to the questioning of the concept of method. Prabhu (1990) further states that there is no best method that fits in every teaching context. Kumaravadivelu (1994) critiques the traditional methods because they are not context-sensitive. Later, Kumaravadivelu (2006) explains that the concept of method lost its importance because it has little theoretical validity and practical utility (p.170). Therefore, he puts forth that instead of an alternative method, a search for an *alternative to method* is necessary (ibid.). Taking all these problems and complications about the quality, utility, validity of method and abortive learning outcomes, a growing number of scholars and practitioners led to the emergence of a state-of-the-art notion which is termed as postmethod pedagogy by Kumaravadivelu (1994). He describes post-method pedagogy as "... can potentially refigure the relationship between theorizers and teachers by empowering teachers with the knowledge, skill, and autonomy. So empowered, teachers could devise for themselves a systematic, coherent, and relevant

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alternative to method, one informed by principled pragmatism” (ibid., page 27). Accordingly, putting the emphasis on teachers’ autonomy and empowerment, he puts forth that teachers who were viewed as “passive recipients of transmitted knowledge” (Crandall, 2000, p.35) and whose decision-making and thinking was not taken into account ” are no longer supposed to implement prescriptive, pre-packaged sets of techniques. In fact, post-method does not decline the applicability of the existing methods but instead, confirms the endeavor and will of language teachers to be able to modify their teaching in line with their unique and dynamic context ((Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Kumaravadivelu’s Framework

Kumaravadivelu (1994, 2001, 2006) developed three pedagogic parameters of post-method pedagogy as *particularity*, *practicality*, and *possibility*, which are interrelated and interwoven with each other.

Particularity

It refers to the context-sensitive and location- specific language pedagogy which takes sociocultural, linguistic and political context into account when it comes to making pedagogical decisions. Kumaravadivelu (2001) argues that any kind of teaching pedagogy “must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural milieu” (p. 538). Accordingly, teachers are expected to observe, evaluate and interpret local incidences happening in their classrooms, and depending on the particular needs of learners they can devise their own postmethod pedagogy.

Practicality

It pertains to the relationship between theory and practice and how teachers are skillful in observing their teaching effectiveness. Kumaravadivelu (2001) maintains that unless theories are nourished with real classroom experiences, they are inadequate and useless. As Edge (2001) stated, teachers are no longer viewed as practitioners of theories, but someone theorizing practice. In fact, this can be achieved only if teachers are trained by developing particular skills and knowledge, attitude, and autonomy as to form their own context-sensitive theory of practice (Kumaravedivelu, 2006).

Possibility

Having its origin in critical pedagogy, this parameter is also related to language ideology and learner identity (ibid., p.175). It deals with the socio-political, socio-economical, and socio-cultural experiences of the participants which are carried into the pedagogical setting (ibid., p. 174). Therefore, besides the linguistic concerns, cultural and individual-specific variables need to be associated with one another in a language classroom environment.



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Criticism of Post-Method Pedagogy

The new perspectives in postmethod pedagogy provoked new anxieties and challenges for teachers who had training in methods. Methods in the past supplied teachers with instructions on what likely worked and what did not work in the classroom depending on the goals set by the method (Akbari, 2008). Therefore, post-method pedagogy requires qualified teachers who are able to practice their own profession with confidence and competence, and improve their society with the practices by caring about learners' histories, which culminates in social transformation (ibid., p.642). It could be concluded that this view put a heavy burden on teachers' shoulders. But, does an appropriate teacher education substructure really exist, and are the teachers' challenges in a real classroom confessed? As Akbari (2008) criticizes, post-method pedagogy can not be applied in all contexts, as the situation is the same with methods, because most of the teachers are deficient in terms of time, qualifications, resources, and willingness to frame their particular context into this model. Moreover, he claims that many teachers "have not yet heard about the post-method and have no regard for social and critical implications of education" (p.649), hence, raising awareness of academia is immediately needed. Besides, a simultaneous shift of language teaching policies and professional education on the implication of post-method pedagogy for language teachers renders this pedagogy possible.

Scope of the Review

There has been a growing interest in research on the post-method condition and status, its challenges, and language teachers' implications on this issue in various contexts. Studies conducted on post-method pedagogy indicate different results as the conditions and settings vary. In line with the global discussion and studies on this state-of-the-art issue, I searched for all the published studies in the Turkish EFL context relevant to the post-method pedagogy using Google Scholar, ResearchGate, Academia.edu, Dergi Park, YÖK Tez, and ERIC databases. Since post-method pedagogy is a new current issue, and there are a limited number of studies done on this issue, the researcher did not specify any time span in the selection of the studies. Those studies which were empirical and relevant to the research questions were obtained for this systematic review study. As a result of the literature research, 13 studies related to the post-method pedagogy in ELT were attained, but five of them were not empirical (Arıkan, 2006; Tosun, 2009; Can, 2009; Uçman, 2019; Kırac, 2020), explaining the historical background of post-method pedagogy so they were excluded from the review. A total of eight studies, six of which are dissertations, are included in this review. The dissertations and articles that are included in this review study are given in Table 1 and Table 2.



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Table 1. *Distribution of Dissertations Included in the Study*

Source	Type of Dissertation	Title of Dissertation	University
Balcı, 2006	Master's Thesis	Teacher Development in the Postmethod Era and the Compatibility of the Turkish Teacher Efficacy Scale with the Parameters of Postmethod Pedagogy	Istanbul University
Tıǧlı, 2014	Master's Thesis	Method vs. Postmethod: A survey on prospective EFL teachers' perspectives	Bilkent University
Dağkırın, 2015	Master's Thesis	Postmethod Pedagogy and Reflective Practice: Current Stance of Turkish EFL Teachers	Bilkent University
Gökmen, 2018	Doctoral Thesis	Post-method Pedagogy from the perspectives of post-method indicators: A case study of a Turkish State University	Atatürk University
Kandırallı, 2019	Master's Thesis	The Pre-service English language teacher educators' perceptions on the postmethod pedagogy and its application	Bilkent University
Geneyikli, 2020	Master's Thesis	AN analysis of EFL teachers' methodological choices and their views on post method pedagogy	Gazi University



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Table 2. *Distribution of Articles Included in the Study*

Source	Name of Journal	Title of the Article
Tekin, 2013	Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry	An investigation into novice English teachers' views and beliefs about method and post-method pedagogy in Turkish EFL context
Boran & Gürkan, 2019	International Association of Research in Foreign Language Education and Applied Linguistics	Post-method pedagogy vs. conventional language teaching methods: Are they compensating or competing?

As can be seen from Table 1 and Table 2, the studies on post-method pedagogy in the Turkish EFL context are conducted between 2006 and 2020, predominantly after 2013. Most of the studies are conducted as master's thesis (n=5). Half of the dissertations are conducted at Bilkent University (n=3).

Research Questions

This systematic review aims to examine the studies related to the post-method pedagogy conducted in the Turkish EFL context and to interpret the emerging themes. In line with this aim, the current study is going to explore the following questions:

1. What is the focus of the studies?
2. What is the research methodology of the studies conducted on post-method pedagogy in the Turkish EFL context?
 - i) What is the distribution of studies in terms of research design?
 - ii) What is the distribution of studies in terms of data collection tools?
 - iii) What is the distribution of studies in terms of sample group?
 - iv) What is the distribution of studies by year?
3. What is the current status/trends of method /post-method pedagogy in the Turkish EFL context?
 - a) What are the popular language teaching methods of EFL teachers in the Turkish context?
 - b) What are the perceptions of EFL teachers regarding post-method pedagogy in the Turkish context?

Findings

As a result of the in-depth descriptive analysis, the results of this systematic review which consists of the empirical studies regarding the post-method pedagogy in the Turkish EFL



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context are presented and discussed below in line with the research questions and significant themes that emerged.

The Focus of the Studies

Table 3 specifies the studies included in this review and outlines the subject matter that is focused on in these studies. This overview highlights the emerging themes as “popular language teaching methods of EFL teachers” and “views/perceptions about post-method pedagogy” which are listed with the particular studies in Table 4.

Table 3. *The Focus of the Reviewed Studies*

Source	Focus of the study
Balcı (2006)	Contrastive analysis of Teacher Efficacy Scale taking the macro strategies of the postmethod pedagogy as the criteria
Tekin (2013)	EFL teachers' views/beliefs about and attitudes toward popular ELT methods and post-method pedagogy
Tıǧlı (2014)	The awareness level of ELT students (third and fourth-grade prospective teachers) about postmethod pedagogy, and the teaching methods in Turkey
Dağkırان (2015)	Turkish EFL teachers' perceptions on the postmethod pedagogy and their reflective practices
Gökmen (2018)	Insights of prospective teachers, practising teachers & teacher educators over the post-method pedagogy
Kandırالı (2019)	Perceptions of pre-service English language teacher educators' on the postmethod pedagogy in ELT and its application in the pre-service ELT programs
Boran & Gürkan (2019)	Perceptions of pre-service and in-service teachers about the conventional methods and post-method pedagogy
Geneyikli (2020)	English language teachers' methodological choices and ELT teachers & students' views about post method pedagogy



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Table 4. *The Distribution of Studies by Their Focus*

Studies Examining the Perceptions of EFL Teachers about Post-Method Pedagogy	Studies Examining Popular Language Teaching Methods in addition to Post-Method Pedagogy
Tekin (2013)	Tekin (2013)
Tıǧlı (2014)	Tıǧlı (2014)
Daǧkırın (2015)	Boran & Gürkán (2019)
Gökmen (2018)	Geneyikli (2020)
Boran & Gürkán (2019)	
Kandıralı (2019)	
Geneyikli (2020)	
Total: 7	Total :4

* In this Table, *EFL teachers* is used to refer to prospective teachers, novice teachers, in-service teachers and teacher educators.

As it is demonstrated in Table 3 and Table 4, almost all the reviewed studies (n=7) focused on the perceptions/views/insights of EFL teachers regarding post-method pedagogy. In addition to post-method pedagogy, half of the studies (n=4) also examined the popular methods that were used by EFL teachers. Only Balcı (2006)'s study has a different focus, which investigated the "Teacher Efficacy Scale" carried out by the Ministry of National Education and European Union Committee in order to determine its appropriateness to the post-method pedagogy and its parameters.

The Distribution of the Studies in Terms of Research Methodology

In Table 5, the distribution of included studies in terms of years, research design, data collection tools, and participants are demonstrated below.



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Table 5. *The Distribution of the Studies by Years, Research Design, Data Collection Tools, and Sample Group*

Source	Year	Research Design	Data Collection Tools	Sample group
Balcı, N.	2006	Contrastive analysis	-	-
Tekin, M.	2013	Qualitative	In-depth interviews video conferencing	11 novice teachers
Tıǧlı, T.	2014	Quantitative	Online surveys	88 ELT students
Dağkırın, İ.	2015	Quantitative	Online surveys	347 Turkish EFL teachers
Gökmen, M.F.	2018	Mixed-method	A questionnaire, reflection papers, and interviews	76 prospective teachers, 3 practising teachers, and one teacher educator
Kandıralı, K.	2019	Qualitative	Interview	8 volunteer English language teacher educators
Boran, S.G. &Gürkan, Ş.	2019	Quantitative	Online survey	107 pre-service teachers and 53 in-service teachers
Geneyikli, B.	2020	Quantitative	Online Survey	314 English teachers 317 secondary and high school students

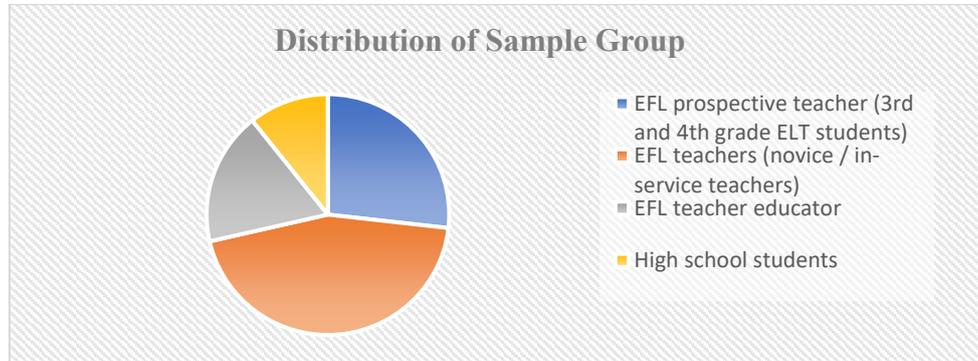
When the distribution of the analyzed studies was examined according to the research years, it was perceived that the studies are conducted between 2006 and 2020. The earliest study on this issue was conducted in 2006. It is clear that after the first study, there is a time span of about 7 years when no empirical study was done. The vast majority of the studies were conducted after 2010 (n=7) (Table 5).

As for the distribution of the research design, Figure 1 shows that half of the studies (n=4,) were quantitative studies, 25 % of them (n=2) were qualitative, and 12.5 % of them were



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Figure 3. *The Distribution of Sample Group*



* In some studies, more than one sample group was included.

The Current Status/ Trends of Method /Post-Method Pedagogy In Turkish EFL Context

After an in-depth analysis of the empirical studies, the themes regarding the current status/ trends of methods and post-method pedagogy emerged. As Table 4 displays, in some studies (n=4) findings about language teaching methods were revealed in line with the perceptions of participants regarding post-method pedagogy. All the studies examining the trends of language teaching methods (Tekin, 2013; Tıǧlı, 2014; Boran &Gürkan, 2019; Geneyikli, 2020) ascertained that using methods are not out of date, a good number of them are still favored and used. According to the findings, mostly the Communicative Language Teaching method (CLT) (n=3) and Total Physical Response (TPR) (n=3) was favored most among the participants. The Eclectic Method is also stated as a popular method in those studies (n=2).

The analysis of the reviewed studies showed that in half of the studies(n=4, f=50 %) participants do not have any resistance to post-method pedagogy. Besides, they have a positive attitude and are open to post-method pedagogy (Dağkırın, 2015; Boran &Gürkan, 2019; Kandıralı, 2019 ; Geneyikli, 2020). Balcı (2006)'s study also shows that “Teacher Efficacy Scale” carried out by the Ministry of National Education and European Union Committee is in line with post-method pedagogy and its parameters. On the other hand, 37.5 % of the reviewed studies (n =3) showed that the participants are either not aware of the post-method pedagogy or have resistant reactions to it. (Tekin, 2013; Tıǧlı, 2014; Gökmen, 2018). In Tekin's (2013) study, post-method pedagogy is mostly confused with the Eclectic Method. However, there is a significant change in participants' perceptions when the time span is taken into account. Although post-method pedagogy was unfamiliar to the participants in earlier studies (Tekin, 2013; Tıǧlı, 2014), in current studies, it was found that there is a positive change, in which the participants were not resistant, but open to this state-of-art- notion (Dağkırın, 2015; Boran &Gürkan, 2019; Kandıralı, 2019; Geneyikli, 2020).

When the findings about the three parameters of Kumaravedivelu (particularity, practicality, and possibility) are analyzed in, it can be inferred that there is mostly a positive stance towards these parameters. Some studies do not provide findings in line with the parameters. Hence, for the *particularity* parameter, in the majority of the reviewed studies (n=6), participants believe



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that methods can be changed/ adapted according to the needs, context, and students (Tıǒlı, 2014; Daǒkırın, 2015; Gökmen 2018; Boran & Gürkan, 2019; Kandırallı, 2019; Geneyikli, 2020). However, in Tıǒlı's (2014) study, the participants also had a negative attitude as they did not see themselves as knowledgeable enough to form methods accordingly. Moreover, as the teachers had more classroom experience, their opinions about methods were found to change (ibid.) As for the *practicality* parameter, the findings reveal that although post-method pedagogy is favored in most of the reviewed studies, still the participants believe that methods are not dead, they are necessary and they are still playing a significant role in classroom practices (Tıǒlı, 2014; Daǒkırın, 2015; Gökmen,2018; Boran & Gürkan, 2019; Geneyikli,2020). To apply this parameter, teachers were believed to need good training, personal creativity, self-reflection, and self-awareness (Kandırallı, 2019). For the *possibility* parameter, in some studies (Daǒkırın, 2015; Boran & Gürkan, 2019), participants were found to be sensitive to societal, political, educational, and economical situations in their teaching context. Tıǒlı (2014)'s findings on this parameter indicated that participants mostly believe that native speakers are the authority of the English language. Teachers are believed to have a crucial role in raising cultural awareness (Daǒkırın, 2015; Boran & Gürkan, 2019).

Discussion and Conclusion

This systematic review aimed to examine all the empirical studies regarding post-method pedagogy conducted in the Turkish EFL context in terms of their focus, research design, data collection tools, sample group, years, and the current status of method/post-method pedagogy. As post-method pedagogy is a state-of-art issue, only a limited number of studies were conducted in the Turkish EFL context. A total of 13 studies were found after searching various databases, however, five of them were not empirical, but only gave some historical background about post-method pedagogy, so they were excluded from the study. This review included six theses and two empirical articles.

When the studies were analyzed in terms of what they focused on, it was found that almost all the conducted studies focused on the perceptions/views/insights of EFL teachers about post-method pedagogy. In addition to post-method pedagogy, half of the studies also examined participants' perceptions about methods and mostly favored methods for EFL teachers. The scope of the studies lacks the practices of the participants in the real classroom context. As Fang (1996) states, teachers' beliefs /perceptions may not reflect on their practices.

When the distribution of the obtained studies by years was examined, it was seen that the studies increased dramatically after 2013 although this notion gained popularity in the beginning of the 2000s. In fact, post-modern studies in other contexts were also conducted commonly at about the same time span (Saengboon, 2013; Karimvand, Hessamy & Hemmati, 2014; Scholl, 2015; Aboulallaei, Poursalehi & Hadidi, 2016; Soomro & Almanki, 2017; Marzban & Karimi, 2018; Al-kadi, 2020). Therefore, post-method pedagogy can be perceived as a current research field worldwide.

With regard to the research design, it was revealed that mostly quantitative research design was adopted. As for the data collection tools, surveys/questionnaires were commonly used, especially online surveys were found to be the most common tools in those studies. However,



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no observation was conducted. In order to triangulate the data and to evaluate participants' perceptions from wider perspectives, observation or other data tools can be added to the studies. As regards to the sample group, EFL teachers were preferred over the other groups. Actually, the studies were conducted with a different range of sample groups which included prospective teachers studying in 3rd or 4th grades, novice teachers, EFL teachers educators, and high school students.

Considering the current status of method use, the results showed that methods are not out of data, they are still commonly used by the participants. This is in line with Akbari (2008) and contradicts Kumaravedivelu (1994, 2001). Results showed that the most preferred methods were CLT and TPR. This indication conflicts with Kırkgöz's (2008) study which states that CLT was not applied in actual classrooms although the curriculum was designed in line with CLT.

The present review study revealed that EFL teachers/ educators have a positive inclination toward post-method pedagogy and its parameters. However, to some extent, there is also resistance or ignorance about post-method pedagogy. This finding confirms Akbari's (2008) criticism in which he alleged that "...many members of our community have not heard about post-method and have no regard for social and critical implications of education...". He further claims that although it seems that the conceptual shift from method to post-method places method discussion on one side, actually methods are still alive for many teachers, and post-method seems to have challenges in application. Another major finding of the study is that participants' perceptions about post-method pedagogy changed by a considerable extent in a positive way in the progress of time. This brings us to ideas that raising awareness in EFL context, instructing prospective teachers on post-method pedagogy, and making changes in language teaching policy may portray this pedagogy as possible.



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