



ILTERG

INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION RESEARCH GROUP

2nd ILTERG CONFERENCE

BOOK OF PROCEEDINGS

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2nd ILTERG CONFERENCE
DAY 1 - 16 October 2020, Friday

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| 09:30 – 09:45 | | Opening Remarks Prof. Dr. Gonca YANGIN EKŞİ | | | |
| 09:45 -10:45 | Plenary Session (1) | Don't do what I do, do as I say Prof. Dr. Aydan ERSÖZ <i>(Chair: Prof. Dr. Gonca YANGIN EKŞİ)</i> | | | |
| 11.00 -12:00 | Plenary Session (2) | Enriching English Language Teaching in Multilingual Multicultural Contexts Prof. Dr. Yasemin BAYYURT <i>(Chair: Prof. Dr. Gonca YANGIN EKŞİ)</i> | | | |
| 12:15 – 13:15 | Concurrent Sessions (1) | An Investigation into Primary Level Foreign Language Learners' Willingness to Communicate Ramazan YETKİN Semih EKİN Samed Yasin ÖZTÜRK <i>(Chair)</i> The Oral Use of Pragmatic Markers Across two Different Proficiency Levels in an EFL Context U. HAZAR Şenay IŞIK Erdem AKBAŞ English Language Teacher Training in Algeria: Realities, Challenges, and Perspectives Leila DJOUMIAA | Guiding language learners to become successful users of English in an online language learning environment through ELF lenses Jale SARICI Lale MARTI Investigation of Short-term Directed Motivational Currents in Freshman Students in ELT Departments Betül ÇİMENLİ Nurdan GÜRBÜZ European Profiling Grid for Language Teachers Deren Başak AKMAN YEŞİLEL <i>(Chair)</i> | L1-based associations in productive vocabulary: some implications for learning and teaching Maria Pilar AGUSTÍN LLACH Augmented Reality-Enhanced Reading Practices with Culinary Students for Learning English Vocabulary Gülün ZEYBEK İdil SAYIN <i>(Chair: Prof. Dr. Gonca YANGIN EKŞİ)</i> | Written Error Analysis of Turkish EFL Learners from Lexical and Grammatical Aspects Zühal AYAR Contribution of Curricular Activities to the Process of Learning English Ömer BUDANIR Hasan Emre ÇIRKAN Learners' perception of autonomy at the Algerian secondary school level Soraya MEZHOUD <i>(Chair: Murat ŞÜKÜR)</i> |
| 13:30 – 14:30 | Plenary Session (3) | The Discursive Turn in Language Teacher Education Research Olca SERT <i>(Chair: Asuman AŞIK)</i> | | | |
| 14:45 -15:45 | Concurrent Sessions (2) | Exploring Apology Strategies of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees: Gender and Context in Focus Burcu TURHAN Gamze EMİR <i>(Chair)</i> Language teachers' digital literacy and self-efficacy: Are they related? Pinar KAHVECİ The Effects of Sequencing Vocabulary From Productive to Receptive On Oral Fluency In ELT Classes Aslı BAYRAM | Requestive E-Mails of ELL Students in Turkey: Does Prep Class Education Make a Difference? Begüm BACAK Pre-Service Teachers' Perceptions Towards Teacher, Peer and Self-Feedback on Their Micro Teaching Nihan ERDEMİR <i>(Chair)</i> Sabahattin YEŞİLÇINAR Do the Language Learning Strategies Used By EFL Learners Differ in terms of the Success of Students? Aydan IRGATOĞLU | Promoting Self-Confidence in Speaking Classrooms: A University Context Dilşah KALAY Adding Fun in Language Teaching through Technology Aslı ALTUNTAŞ <i>(Chair)</i> A Novice EFL Instructor's Professional Journey: Increasing Awareness of Teacher Echo Esra YATAĞANBABA Prof. Dr. Nuray ALAGÖZLÜ | What are the suggestions for further research in Language Teacher Education? Asuman AŞIK <i>(Chair)</i> Burçak YILMAZ YAKIŞIK A Comparison of Three Vocabulary Learning Strategies in ESL Vocabulary Acquisition: Dictionary Definition, Use of Collocations and GIFs Mehtap GÜVEN Fatma O'neill Şebnem YALÇIN Review of Graduate Studies on Language Assessment and Evaluation in Turkey Ahmet YASTIBAŞ |
| 16:00 – 17:20 | Concurrent sessions (3) | Perceptions of EFL Teachers about the Influences of Cultural Familiarity of Literary Texts on Reading Development Yıldırım KURNAZ Erdem AKBAŞ Turkish pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about ELF-related issues Murat ŞÜKÜR <i>(Chair)</i> Exploring how a second language teacher strategically manages a chaotic classroom: A multi-semiotic perspective to an L2 academic speaking class Erdem AKBAŞ Dürdane TOR Almila Elif ALTAN Emine YAVUZ Use of Drama Technique "improvisation" in Speaking English as Target Language Hasan Emre ÇIRKAN | Vocabulary Learning Strategies of Turkish EFL Learners: A Focus on Gender Hatice OKYAR Insights into the Personal and Social Influences on Student Teachers' Identity Formation in the Practicum Mustafa AKIN GÜNGÖR Müzeyyen Nazlı GÜNGÖR <i>(Chair)</i> Student Perspectives on English Medium Instruction: A Case from Turkey Elifcan ÖZTEKİN Ecehan SÖNMEZ Yavuz KURT Yasemin BAYYURT Pronunciation Teaching of Lingua Franca Varieties: Challenges and Reconceptualizing ELT in Tunisia Aicha RAHAL | Exploring the Attitudes, Intentions and Practices of EFL Preparatory School Instructors Regarding Formative Assessment in a Turkish Context Seda ARDA ÖZKAN Özlem ZABITGİL GÜLSEREN Enhancing L2 oral proficiency through video-based shadowing practices Sultan MİCİK Filiz RIZAOĞLU A Picture of EFL Writing Process in Turkey's mainstream schools Yusuf Emre YEŞİLİYURT <i>(Chair)</i> English for Intercultural and Professional Communication: A Review of New ELT Practices Tatyana MIKHAILOVA | An Investigation of the Cyclical Organisation in the Algerian High School Textbooks and Its Effect on Developing Learners' Linguistic Proficiency Amel BENYAHIA In Pursuit of the Teacher as a Critical Thinker: How Do Pre-Service EFL Teachers Perceive Critical Thinking? Büşra ÇELEN <i>(Chair)</i> An Examination of Students and Teachers' Perceptions of Educational Setting: Representation of Space in Classroom Narratives Mustafa Zeki ÇIRAKLI |
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| 18:45 – 19:45 | Plenary Session (5) | Duo ethnography in Language Teacher Education: New possibilities for developing reflection? Dorota WERBINSKA <i>(Chair: Prof. Dr. Gonca YANGIN EKŞİ)</i> | | | |

2nd ILTERG CONFERENCE
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| 11:00 - 12:00 | <p>Facilitating Teachers' professional Development After a Curriculum Change</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Yasemin KIRKÖZ <i>(Chair: Prof. Dr. Gonca YANGIN EKŞİ)</i></p> | | | |
| 12:15 - 13:15 | <p>Corpus Analysis as a Diagnostic Tool for Syllabus Design in Writing Classes</p> <p>Mehasin TEKİN Derya YILDIZ Mustafa ÖZER Erdem AKBAŞ</p> <p>Willingness to Communicate in English Among Turkish EFL Learners</p> <p>Arzu SEVINÇ</p> <p>How Do Upper Intermediate Level EFL Students of Turkish L1 Background Respond to Compliments in Their L1 and L2? A Case of Pragmatic Transfer</p> <p>Cemre ÇİÇEK <i>(Chair: Yusuf Emre YEŞİLYURT)</i></p> | <p>Turkish EFL Students' Intercultural Awareness, Their Attitudes towards Integration of Culture into English Classes and the Relationship between Intercultural Awareness and Exam Success</p> <p>Yağmur DEMİR</p> <p>Evaluating Digital Literacy levels of Turkish EFL Students</p> <p>Tuğçenur KAVGACI ERDAL Ahmet Erdost YASTIBAŞ</p> <p>What is the Starting Eleven of your T.E.A.M. (Teaching English As Managers)?</p> <p>Kürşat CESUR <i>(Chair)</i></p> | <p>Technology Literacy of Turkish English Language Instructors</p> <p>Kenan KÖSEMEHMETOĞLU</p> <p>English Language Teacher's Awareness of English as a Lingua Franca in Iran, Turkey and Uzbekistan</p> <p>Mahsa FATHI</p> <p>A Case Study: The Perception & Reflection of Instructors in The Case of Multinational Class in The Preparatory School of Maltepe University</p> <p>Oya SERTTAŞ <i>(Chair: Murat ŞÜKÜR)</i></p> | <p>The Strategies Used by EFL Students in EMI and EAP courses</p> <p>Meltem BATURAY Ahmet YASTIBAŞ</p> <p>English Teacher Candidates' Reflections on the Multiple Activities for Teaching Language Skills Course</p> <p>Çağla ATMACA <i>(Chair)</i></p> <p>A new approach to Professional Development in Turkish Context: Reflection of protocol use in teacher development</p> <p>Tuba ARABACI ATLAMAZ</p> |
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| 19:45-20:00 | <p>Closing Remarks</p> <p>Prof. Dr. Gonca YANGIN EKŞİ</p> | | | |

FOREWORD

We are pleased to welcome you all to the 2nd ILTERG Conference. ILTERG (INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION RESEARCH GROUP) was founded four years ago as a part of an Erasmus + Project. Now, it continues as a non-profit group to foster collaboration in research. ILTERG Conference aims to bring together language teacher educators from all over the world who work in many different contexts to maximize opportunities for exchange and networking. We have been fortunate enough to gather a large number of colleagues and researcher from around the world, who will provide use with insights to their studies and thus exchange ideas, set up plans and projects for future study and research. The theme of the project is mainly Teacher education and Development and English Language Teaching. It is a priority of ILTERG Conference to bring together research, theory, and best practices from all contexts of language teacher education. We believe it is becoming more and more important to contribute to the continuing professional developments of language teachers. The conference also aims to contribute to English language teaching.

We would like to thank you all, academics, foreign language teachers, teacher trainers, graduate students in the field of English Language Teaching, who attend ILTERG Conference to present current research carried out in the areas of both Foreign Language Teaching and Teacher Education.

It is also an honor to host a number of distinguished speakers to present their research and scholarly papers. We would especially like to thank Aydan ERSÖZ, Yasemin BAYYURT, Yasemin KIRKGÖZ, Belgin AYDIN, Dorota WERBİNSKA, Luis GUERRA, Olcay SERT, Ceylan YANGIN ERSANLI, Sedat AKAYOĞLU for their invaluable contributions to the conference. We would also like to Express our gratitude to workshop presenters Benan GÜL PEKER, Bora DEMİR and Muzaffer ÖZDEMİR on behalf of LET-IN group and Ufuk GIRGIN, Yasemin ACAR, Erdem AKBAŞ, Emine YAVUZ, Almila Elif ALTAN, Murat BORAN, Durdane TOR and Gurkan MORALI on behalf of ERUMARG. We look forward to listening to them and all other participants, whose studies will be a feast of mind for us. We hope you can have fruitful and rewarding exchanges.

Prof. Dr. Gonca YANGIN EKŞİ
ILTERG Conference President

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THE EFFECTS OF SEQUENCING VOCABULARY FROM PRODUCTIVE TO RECEPTIVE ON ORAL FLUENCY IN ELT CLASSES

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ABSTRACT

Learning a language has always been being able to produce it. In an EFL environment the way learners perceive it as the skill of oral production has arisen questions of what may foster or hinder it. Having been put in the core of language learning, adequate vocabulary knowledge may ease the process of online speech production and inadequate vocabulary may break the flow of the speech. In both cases, vocabulary knowledge is of utmost importance and needs to be active and ready for production. Productive vocabulary sequenced before receptive may facilitate the readiness for immediate use of language. This study examines the relationship between productive vocabulary and fluent speech with a reversed sequence of productive to receptive vocabulary knowledge and its effects on oral fluency. A-quasi-experimental design was administered with two questionnaires of pre-survey and post-survey conducted to two novice to pre- intermediate level groups of learners at preparatory level of university education. Results from the study showed the impressions of learners that there is significant effect of learning vocabulary from productive to receptive on oral fluency. The capability to recognise a word may not mean it can be used in an online act of speech. Whichever word learned through receptive exposure may or may not be transferred to the productive use and if the word goes right into the productive vocabulary, the probability of its readiness to be retrieved for usage is higher.

Keywords: *vocabulary, speaking skill, productive vocabulary, receptive vocabulary, oral fluency*

INTRODUCTION

For decades language teaching professionals, curriculum developers and course book writers put a lot of emphasis on grammar and grammar-based methods of teaching. They believed grammar is what was needed to convey and comprehend meaning. This attitude neglected other aspects of why communication takes place; such as sociocultural and interactional aspects. The reasons why we use the language in the first place were ignored greatly, which are mainly negotiating meaning and getting things done by language. The shift from grammar as only one of the components of language competence and performance to the skills, which suggests the ability to use the language, put the use of the language either actively or passively front.

From Krashen's input hypothesis (1983) to Swain's output hypothesis (1995) it was a long way to see being exposed to the language does not necessarily ensure being a user of it. How babies acquire the language may not be similar to how second language acquisition takes place. In any case there must be instances to provide learners to use whatever language knowledge they have; turn the input into output. These theoretical changes have taken its toll on learners in foreign language learning environment. They seem to suffer from an 'I understand, but I cannot speak' phenomenon, especially in a Turkish ELT context. The needs to be able to become 'users' of the language rather than simply 'knowers' of its units have changed the beliefs in this domain and its impact in an EFL classroom can be observed.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Being the 'Speaker' of a Language

With the emphasis on using the language to be able to communicate with other speakers either native or non-native, oral performance has been perceived as of utmost importance. However, possessing the ability to use the language is not necessarily the same as performing it. It is then essential to make a distinction between knowledge and skill in the teaching of speaking (Bygate, 1987). Bygate (1987) believed simply possessing the knowledge but not using it would not be any different than 'learning how to drive without ever going out on the road' (p. 5). With a similar attitude towards this distinction, McNamara (1996) defined performance as "actual instances of language use in real time" (as cited in Koizumi, 2005, p. 81), which is why practising, opportunities and encouragement for production is required.

Being a good speaker of a language is usually associated with using it accurately and fluently. For a learner to reach a nativelike fluency is a really demanding process and it requires more than a fast flow of speech, which is how fluency is usually perceived. According to Möhle (1984) it is more related to a natural speed and frequency of pauses and hesitations while speaking (as cited in Schmidt, 1992, p. 359). Oral production is online and under the processing conditions the pressure is huge. One thing to ease this is having a good size of vocabulary knowledge as there is very little that can be conveyed without grammar but none without vocabulary (Susanto, 2017).

Vocabulary and Oral Production

Vocabulary has been at the centre of language teaching since The Lexical approach (Lewis, 1993) with its basis on the view that ‘language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar’ (Lewis, 1993). Lexis is considered to be in the core of communicative competence in the command of oral and written skills (Ramirez, 2012). Meara (1996) suggested that lexical competence contributes to almost all aspects of language proficiency significantly. It is widely accepted that without this contribution of vocabulary, oral production suffers a lot. Research has shown that lexical errors are more likely to impede comprehension more than grammatical errors, and natives rate lexical errors as more serious than grammatical errors (Schmitt, 2000, p. 155). Khan, Radzuan, Shahbaz, Ibrahim and Mustafa (2018) state that inadequate vocabulary is the main hindrance and has the greatest effect in lower speaking performance, which they see as the most important part of language mastery.

Receptive and Productive Vocabulary

Something to consider is which vocabulary and when to teach it. It depends greatly on whether the language is used passively or actively as each time different vocabulary storage is utilized- passive vocabulary and active vocabulary. Meara (1990) defines active vocabulary as vocabulary that can be accessed easily and can provide access to other parts of the system too. Passive vocabulary, on the other hand, which cannot be reached from other parts of the network, can only be recognised when seen, or heard, but cannot be brought to mind without this external support (p. 3).

Nation (2009) calls them receptive and productive vocabulary and makes a distinction between the two according to the skills they are made use of in the process. Receptive

vocabulary is needed for listening and reading to be able to comprehend the text and productive vocabulary is used by the learner in speaking and writing to produce the language (p. 45). In a receptive (reading/listening) activity, the learner sees the form and recalls its meaning; similarly, with the purpose of communicating the meaning of the word, retrieving its spoken or written form is what the learner does in a speaking/writing activity (Kacani & Cyfeku, 2015). Here the distinction is much clearer as this suggests that vocabulary which is known receptively gets activated with an 'external stimuli only' (Meara, 1990 as cited in Hajiyeva, 2015). This means they need to be seen in a text or heard to be retrieved. In contrast, productive vocabulary does not require any external stimulus but can be retrieved with the related vocabulary, which means they require different mental processing (Hajiyeva, 2015). Furthermore, learners' receptive vocabulary is usually much larger than their productive vocabulary. At most of the stages in language learning, 'learning a word for productive use requires more learning than for receptive use.' (Nation, 2008, p. 43).

Continuum or not

For some, such as Melka (1982), receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge is a continuum. That is, receptive knowledge moves towards productive knowledge in time. Whereas for Meara (1997), the two make different types of associations. They represent different types of knowledge, hence not a continuum. In his view, productively-known words have their connections to other productive words, but receptively-known words have no connections to any words in the lexicon. There is no natural process of transferring from a receptive to a productive state (as cited in Shanov, 2012).

On this matter Ellis (1999) argues although it is generally assumed that word knowledge is receptive at the beginning and then, in time, it becomes productive through frequent encounters and practice, it does not have to be the case. Being able to use a word productively, even if in a limited way, precedes complete mastery of its receptive aspects. Thus, productive knowledge does not necessarily come sequentially after receptive knowledge (Schmitt, 2000). It is also very possible to picture a learner with productive knowledge of a word without receptive knowledge (Ellis, 1999, p. 40). There may also be learners who can access a word receptively but not productively or who can access a word either for reception or production in the given time but not instantly (Ellis, 1999, p. 42). Thereby, there is no particular reason why receptive skills have to be sequenced before productive skills. Speaking about a topic can be a preparation for reading and there may be possible combinations of linked activities (Nation, 2008, p. 90).

This way, the new vocabulary may go straight into the learners' productive vocabulary without waiting to be recalled from their receptive vocabulary for production purposes (Nation, 1990, p 95).

Productive Vocabulary and Oral fluency

In Cambridge online dictionary being 'fluent' is defined as 'able to use a language without stopping or making many pauses'. In 1984 Möhle suggested fluent speech shows examples of pauses but their frequency, length and how much they are filled is in its features. According to him, the speech rate, repetitions and self-correction can be considered as measures of a fluent speech (as cited in Schmidt, 1992, p 359). Schmidt (1992) attempts to define fluency in oral production as automatic speech which does not require much attention or effort (p. 358). Furthermore, he tries to explain fluency through non-fluent speaker who show examples of effortful speech with great deal of attention and hesitation. Accessing the required vocabulary, and then articulating it is an automatic process for native speakers of the language. However, it is a greater difficulty for L2 speakers (as cited in Koizumi & In'nami, 2013). With poor vocabulary knowledge, appropriate words may not be able to found, or it may take longer to do so, which results in slow speed of speech (Koizumi & In'nami, 2013).

Present Study

The purpose of the present study is to see the relationship between learning productive aspects of a word before its receptive aspects and oral fluency. It is aimed to test out whether words learnt for productive use can improve speech speed and ease the burden of learners at the formulation and articulation stages and whether they may be readier to be retrieved for immediate use without dwelling in receptive word storage first. Articles on this matter are few. Articles on the relationships between oral skills and vocabulary are even fewer and it is difficult to find studies to analyse the contribution of vocabulary knowledge in speaking skill even though many previous studies focused on the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension (Ellis, 1999, p 33 & Koizumi, 2005 p. 81 & Oya, Manalo and Greenwood, 2009). For this aim, the following research question is going to be addressed in this study:

RQ1) What are the possible effects of sequencing vocabulary from productive to receptive on the oral fluency in ELT classes?

METHOD

Design of the Study

This study employed a quasi-experimental research with two intact groups of participants who were grouped together for reasons of studying English in their preparatory year of a university before they proceeded to their departments in the following year. They were not randomly grouped. Since this research aimed to explore the relationship between two variables of sequencing productive vocabulary before receptive and oral fluency, experiment was considered to be an appropriate way to collect data on students' impressions through questionnaires (Nunan,1992, p25). This research was conducted for ten meeting (4 weeks) and the steps of the research were as follows: pre-survey, giving the treatment, post-survey, data analysis and data interpretation (after experiment). The researcher had the placement test and standardised test scores on participants.

Participants

The participants consisted of 53 Preparatory School students, 33 of whom were females and 20 of whom were males, studying English at a private university in Istanbul. They were chosen from two elementary level (A1) classes in which the researcher actively practised teaching. Their ages ranged between 18 and 20. All had previous learning experience of the target language and were studying their first year at university. Both groups started as novice level of learners and continued to the level of pre-intermediate during the research.

Instrumentation

In this study, two questionnaires were conducted. The first one aimed to find out the perceptions of leaners on the hindrance they experience when speaking English most before the experiment, which is adapted from Nation's table of reasons for learners' reluctance to produce the language orally (2009, p. 112). It includes 5 questions and a-four-point Likert type scale with four options of 'strongly disagree', 'disagree', 'agree' and 'strongly agree'. The suggested 'neutral' option in this type of questionnaire was left out as it was believed not to yield useful data to begin the research.

The second questionnaire was conducted similarly, however with the experimental group only this time, with seven questions and a-five-point Likert scale options after the 10 hours of

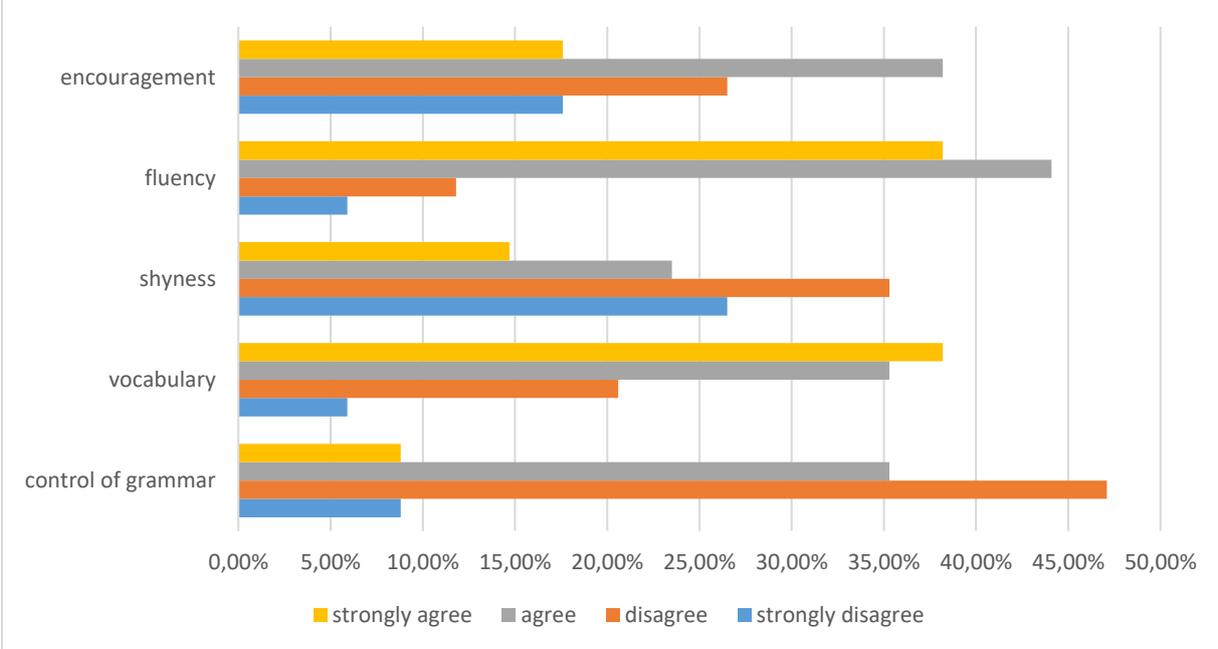
experimental teaching to see what the learners feel about their oral performance and the effectiveness of reversed sequencing. Both questionnaires were asked to be filled online and sent to the researcher due to its practicality and sensitivity to environmental issues.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

After data collection procedure, percentages were analysed to respond the research question RQ1. What are the possible effects of sequencing vocabulary from productive to receptive on the oral fluency? The quantitative data collected from the pre-survey were the answers of 34 learners who responded to the questionnaire. The data collected after the treatment were the answers of 20 learners responded to the post-survey and the percentages were interpreted firstly to see the impressions of the learners on the difficulties they experience during their speaking performance at the beginning of the research, secondly on the effectiveness of the reverse sequence at the end. The findings were analyzed statistically through descriptive statistics. The descriptive analysis results of the pre-survey have been shown in Table 1 and post-survey results have been shown in Table 2.

Table 1

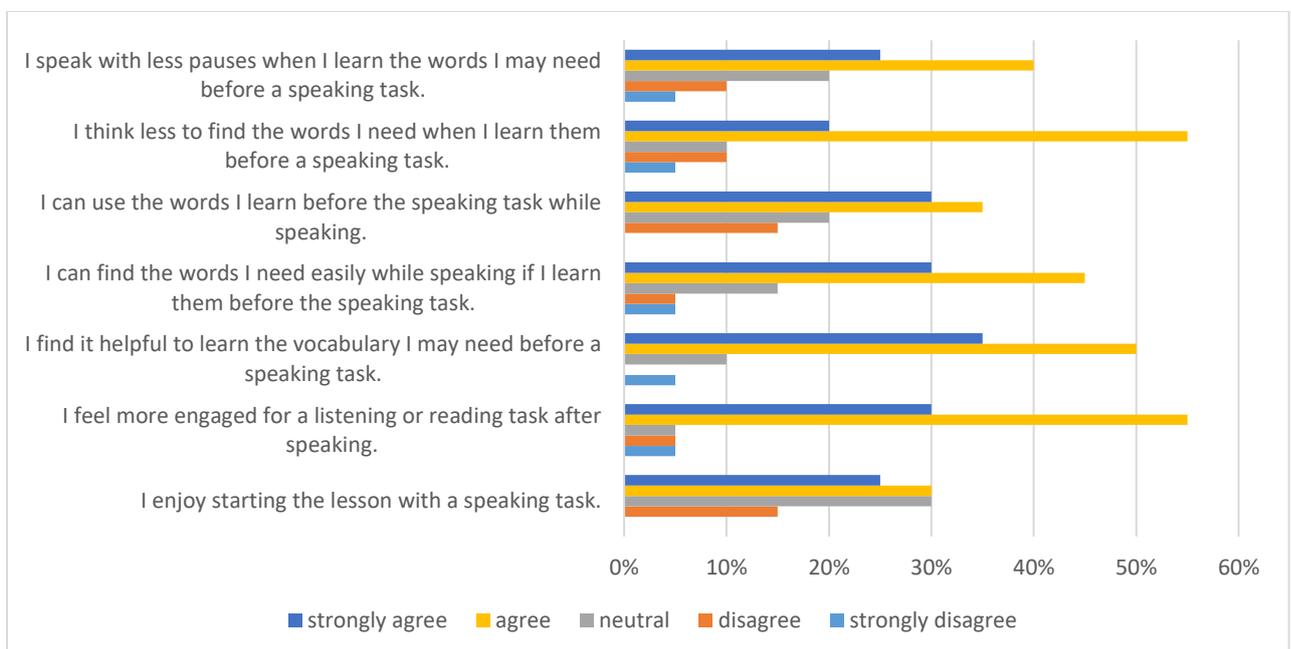
Reasons of learners’ reluctance to speak



Regarding to Table 1, results show that students believed the difficulty they experience most was speaking fluently with 44,1% agree and 38,2% strongly agree answers and in the second place inadequate vocabulary was what affects their performance negatively most with the percentages of 38,5 % strongly agree and 35,3 % of agree answers. Lack of encouragement was considered to be another important factor with 38,2% agree and 17,6% strongly agree answers. Grammar was in the fourth place with 35,3 % agree answers and 23,5% of the learners agreed shyness was the last reason.

Table 2

Effectiveness of sequencing vocabulary from productive to receptive



From the descriptive data in Table 2 it can be stated that half of the learners found learning vocabulary they may need to perform a speaking task right before the task itself helpful. More than half of the learners felt they made less effort to find the words required when they learned /retrieved them before the task. Almost half of the learners stated they spoke with less pauses when the productive vocabulary was presented before the task. They also agreed they found the receptive tasks, such as being exposed to a similar written or recorded task done by a different group, more engaging right after the speaking task performed by them and more motivating for further practice. However, 30% of the learners stated they were unsure about whether to start a lesson with a speaking task or not.

CONCLUSION

This research examined the effectiveness of sequencing productive vocabulary before receptive on oral fluency of novice to pre-intermediate level learners of preparatory year of university education after a ten-meeting-experiment. The data collected indicate that there is a significant effect.

Learners' need to produce the language orally is usually primary in learning a language. Being able to do so in a native-like manner in most cases associated with a fluent speech. Vocabulary knowledge of a learner seems to be a key factor to achieve this aim. Then the question of whether the capability to recognise a word may mean it can be used in an online act of speech or not must be answered. The literature shows that it may not be necessarily the case and a distinction made between the vocabulary that can be recognised and used supports the point. That is, whichever word learned through receptive exposure may or may not be transferred to the productive use. Furthermore, if the word goes right into the productive vocabulary, the probability of its readiness to be retrieved for usage is higher (Nation, 1990, p 95).

This research aimed to test when given the chance, the burden on learners' shoulders may be lightened during the process of trying or even waiting for the transfer of this knowledge to the ability to use it. From the findings it can be interpreted that learners felt inadequate vocabulary was the greatest hindrance of their speech fluency, however, its adequacy was also the remedy. Learners' impressions were that if presented before an oral performance task, vocabulary can support them in their effort for a fluent speech. Just over half of the learners found the reversed sequencing helpful in accessing the appropriate words while speaking.

Previous research has also shown that receptive knowledge exceeds productive knowledge and there is a huge gap and receptive knowledge grows faster (Laufer, 1998; Hajiyeva, 2014; Morgan & Oberdeck, 1930). When received more receptive vocabulary tasks, an increase in this storage is seen, which may account for the opposite. This means, in the case of more productive tasks received by the learners' productive vocabulary knowledge increases (Hajiyeva, 2014). Some researchers such as Webb (2009) also found out that productive learning may lead to an increase not only in productive but also receptive knowledge.

The results from this study, may lead to further application in other teaching contexts via designing lessons to cater for similar needs of the learners following a reversed order of skills. The intact group of learners chosen for the experiment may have been a significant factor on

why this study yielded particular findings. It may yield different findings with another group of learners with different level of English or in a state university. Further research may be conducted using oral performance or vocabulary tests.

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PROMOTING SELF-CONFIDENCE IN SPEAKING CLASSROOMS: A UNIVERSITY CONTEXT

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ABSTRACT

Foreign language teaching field accepts the presence of passive and silent learners in classrooms. However, with recent progress in globalization and the prevalence of English all over the world, being proficient in English - especially in terms of the speaking skill - has become a prerequisite for a decent education. Hence in schools, English lessons have come into prominence with a focus on oral competence. Keeping this trend in mind, the present action research has been designed and carried out in order to investigate the development of students' self-confidence with the help of additional speaking practice in line with pair/group work activities. 15 Turkish university students have taken part in this study. With the aim of boosting self-confidence, students have been involved in 40-min sessions devoted to the interviewing technique for 8 weeks. Prior to and following those 8 weeks, "Confidence in Speaking Questionnaire" designed by Griffe (1997) for university students has been administered. Moreover, the questionnaire results are triangulated by semi-structured interviews. The findings have revealed that students' self-confidence has developed dramatically thanks to the incorporation of additional speaking practice into the classrooms. Apart from these results, it can be asserted that seeing what is going on in classes from another perspective is crucial for teachers as a researcher with respect to not only personal development but also enhancement required for the teaching process. Therefore, action research appears to be a perfect option that can be resorted to.

Keywords: *Self-confidence, speaking competence, action research*

INTRODUCTION

In the second/foreign language teaching field, it is a well-acknowledged issue that speaking skill come to the forefront among others as speaking the target language will lead one to be proficient in that language (Egan, 1999; Hernandez, 2010; Tsou, 2005; Van den Branden et al., 2009; Doqaruni, 2014). According to Doqaruni, the cruciality of this skill is based on two dimensions. First, with speaking performance not only in the mother tongue but also in the target language, people reflect their own personality, perceptions/views, world knowledge, reasoning, and expressing their way of thinking. To be able to achieve these goals is one of the main purposes of stating learning another language. Second, in second/foreign language classrooms, speaking is an indicator of the active participation of learners. Through such active participation, learners' academic achievement gets higher (p. 2). According to Krupa-Kwiatkowski (1998);

"...interaction involves participation, personal engagement, and the taking of initiative in some way, activities that in turn are hypothesized to trigger cognitive processes conducive to language learning" (p. 133).

Bearing this importance in mind, Egan (1999) puts forward that the ability to speak should never be undervalued by either educators or language learners.

When my own teaching experience with language learners is concerned, my students prefer to be silent all through the lessons. They do never want to speak in English or sometimes they even do not respond to my questions in Turkish, which is their mother tongue. During speaking assessment processes, they are hesitant therefore cannot utter any word to express themselves. All these indicate that students are lack of necessary encouragement by teachers to guide/urge them to speak (Hue, 2010; Usioda, 2011). However, with recent progress in globalization and the prevalence of English all over the world, being proficient in English - especially in speaking skill - has become a prerequisite for decent education; hence in schools, English lessons come into prominence with the focus on oral competence (Chen, 2003; Liu & Jackson, 2009; Tong, 2010).

On the other hand, when the reluctance of students are concerned, in the literature why language learners are not willing to speak in the target language has been investigated and the findings revealed the following reasons; being mocked by peers; being incompetent in the target language; former negative feelings while speaking; cultural behaviors accepted as proper (e.g.,

keeping silence meaning paying obeisance to the teacher); habits (e.g., passive students); personality traits (e.g., introversion); and lack of confidence' (Doqaruni, 2014; p. 2).

Among these reasons, one of the important individual variations, *lack of confidence*, has been selected for investigation because of the limited number of empirical evidence (Doqaruni, 2014). Apart from that, as self-confidence is a factor varying among individuals (Liu & Jackson, 2009), with this action research it is attempted to scrutinize the development of confidence in EFL students while speaking in the target language in a Turkish context. All in all, the main purpose of this study is determined as the investigation of the development of self-confidence in EFL learners through various speaking activities carried out within 8 weeks.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Confidence in L2 Learning

In literature, confidence, motivation, and language learning are proved to be interrelated in the field of language acquisition (Dörnyei & Ushioda; 2013; Hughes, 2013; Doqaruni, 2014). That is to say, if one of these constructs increases, an increase in the other is directly observed, as well. Referring to this close relation, Yashima et. al. (2004) puts forward that researchers have to come up with '*a circular and interactive model*' focusing on the interaction between motivation, learning, confidence, and oral communication in order to investigate the development of learners' communicative skills and their confidence. Similarly, according to Doqaruni (2014), some tries have been made to examine confidence in separately; however, it is generally well-accepted that confidence is investigated with its relations to aforementioned affective variables, namely anxiety, and motivation.

Bearing all these in mind, many studies have been carried out on 'confidence and motivation'. For instance, Yashima (2002) found out in her study carried out with 297 university study that subjects who proved to have more motivation to participate in English conversations thanks to their positive feelings about the community own a higher level of confidence than learners weak in such motivation. In a similar vein, Clement et. al (1994) come up with adequate evidence to demonstrate the close relation between self-confidence and motivation not only in monocultural but also in multicultural communities.

When the relationship between self-confidence and anxiety is concerned, it is proposed that understanding the causes and effects of language anxiety might boost self-confidence with the help of some strategies and interventions adopted resulting in higher achievement in the

second/foreign language learning process (Zheng, 2008; p. 9). Keeping this in mind, Cheng et al. (1999) focuses on the direct relationship between low self-confidence and language-related anxiety. They point out that some language learners identified with high levels of anxiety might be basically influenced by their low levels of self-confidence in speaking in the target language (p. 436). From another perspective, in addition to direct relation with self-confidence, this anxiety may originate from the fear of losing L1 identity in the target language learning context. As Huang (2014) discusses, ‘...in the process of the development of L2 or FL identities or the reconstruction of L1 (old) identities, language learners might feel limited or do not feel like themselves, and language anxiety arises.’ (p. 73).

In addition to these concerns, students’ self-confidence is examined in relation to their speaking behavior, especially their willingness to communicate. As an example, MacIntyre et al. (1998) proposed that self-confidence makes a great contribution to students’ willingness to communicate in a foreign language. They maintain that willingness to communicate develops generally depending on affective factors like motivation, personality, and self-confidence, which is accepted as two-fold: self-confidence in the second language and state-dependent self-confidence in interaction. In a similar vein, Ghonsooly, Khajavy & Asadpour (2012) conducted a recent study on the L2 willingness to communicate (WTC) construct and its core reasons among non-native students of English in Iran. They have revealed that second language self-confidence and attitudes toward universal society were two indicators of L2 WTC in the Iranian context (p. 11).

As students’ lack of confidence in second language classrooms results in negative outcomes, some scholars attempted to look for some solutions for this problem. For example, Wong (2005) investigated the relationship between graduated pre-service teachers’ language learning strategies and their self-efficacy. She suggests that those learners need affective strategy instruction for fostering self-efficacy and motivation during the learning process. Apart from that, Burden (2004) focuses on enhancing cooperatively rather than competitively structured interactions between learners to boost self-confidence. In another study, Tong (2010) proposes the importance of an adequate amount of time given to the learners so as to organize their thoughts to form their responses.

Purpose of the Study

Referring to the literature and observing my classes during speaking lessons, I have found out that my students prefer not to participate actively and keep silent. Carrying out informal conversation with them, it has become evident that because of their speaking problems in English, they are not willing to be active participants during lessons. Believing that, this informal information doesn't seem to be enough to come up with direct conclusions, I have decided to carry out a needs analysis examining students' attitudes toward learning how to speaking in another language. The needs analysis questionnaire, developed by Doqaruni (2014), was administered to the students and the findings revealed that students believe in the significance of speaking while learning a language and claim that their inability to speak in English results from not only their lack of confidence but also the limited number of speaking opportunities provided to them throughout their language education.

Bearing this in mind, the following research question is posed to lead this action research: *Can language learners' confidence in speaking be facilitated through additional speaking materials as well as pair/group work speaking activities?*

METHODOLOGY

Participants

15 university students at Preparatory School of Kütahya Dumlupınar University participated in the present study. 5 of them were male whereas 10 of them were female. Their proficiency levels were determined as pre-intermediate with the placement test carried out by the School of Foreign Languages before the second semester.

Context and Setting

As mentioned above, this study was conducted at Kütahya Dumlupınar University, School of Foreign Languages (DPU – SFL). DPU is a Turkish - medium university and the English preparatory class is obligatory for the students of the Faculties of Western Languages (English Language and Literature), Education, Tourism, Econometrics, Electric and Electronic Engineering and International Trade. SFL gives English instruction to university students for two terms intensively. Novice students in the university are supposed to take a proficiency exam. The students whose average scores are 65 % or above pass the examination, and they

can start their education directly in their departments. Students who fail are required to take another exam for placement administered at the beginning of the academic year. They are placed at appropriate levels from beginner to elementary via this placement test. Students take an achievement test once every eight weeks, and two in total each semester. They also take pre-determined quizzes twice in a semester. There is not any proficiency exam during the semester break. When the students meet the requirements of their levels, they can pass the following level. There is not a specific exam for this procedure, either.

The courses the students take are categorized as follows: Language Focus, Core Skills, Academic Skills. Additionally, they take a 4-hour course for another language such as Russian, Spanish, French or German. The number of class hours is 22+4 hours weekly. The course book followed (Face2Face) is a communicative one, and especially gives importance to speaking and listening skills. The course book is supplemented by another book designed for grammar purposes (Grammar and Beyond) and other materials, designed especially for writing purposes. There is no explicit vocabulary teaching course during the semester; thus, since the medium of instruction is English, the students have opportunities to receive vocabulary input only by listening to lectures and reading the course materials assigned by the instructors.

Instrument

Needs Analysis Questionnaire

The needs analysis questionnaire is adapted from Nunan (1998) and Griffee (1997) by Doqaruni (2014). It is composed of 14 items asking questions on preferences and feelings of students in certain situations.

Confidence in Speaking Questionnaire

Confidence in Speaking Questionnaire, as a 5-point Likert scale with 12 items – responses changing from strongly disagree to strongly agree, is designed by Griffee (1997) for university students. According to Doqaruni (2014), it is one of the first questionnaires published specifically for second language confidence. Griffee (1997) determined three dimensions under confidence construct; namely *ability*, *assurance* and *willing engagement*. When the definitions of each of these dimensions are concerned, *ability* is described as the competency of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation; *assurance* is identified as sense of security while speaking in

English; *willing engagement* is defined as being happy to communicate in English with native speakers (Griffe, 1997; p. 187).

Speaking Extra

Speaking Extra is a resource book designed specifically for speaking purposes by Gammidge (2004). The book includes supplementary materials for speaking classes and as Gammidge (2004) claims it fosters learners' confidence with the help of '*social transactions*' (p. 7).

Speaking Extra chooses the way of '*interviewing*' as the only technique for speaking development. The activities put language learners in certain real-life situations that during the interviews, both interviewee and interviewer should use their imagination to come up with extra information for their conversations.

Procedure

First, Confidence in Speaking Questionnaire was administered to all 15 learners with great attention to anonymity in Week 5 of second semester (April – 2015). Then, additional speaking activities were incorporated into the lessons starting from the same week, that is Week 5, and these activities continued until the end of Week 14. Each week, the activities took 40 min-sessions to complete. Some of the activities depend on listening tracks while others are based on pictures, maps or mini texts.

After 8 weeks, the same Confidence in Speaking Questionnaire was administered again in order to investigate the changes in confidence of students after being exposed to intensive speaking activities during lessons.

In addition to second administration of the same questionnaire, semi-structured interviews have been carried out with 11 students among 15, who were more willing to participate in this study, in order to triangulate the collected as well as provide deeper insight and better understanding of the gathered information.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings of the gathered data have been analyzed, first, under 3 sets, namely ability, assurance and willing engagement through comparisons of questionnaire results of the first and second administration with reference to each item; then overall comparisons have been conducted to reach a conclusion on which dimension of confidence has become stronger over the 8 weeks.

Quantitative Results

Ability

Generally, the ability dimension under confidence has demonstrated a development when the students' reports were taken into consideration, as demonstrated in Table 1. That is to say, for item 1, only 6 students out of 15 agreed with the item in the first administration, about 40%, whereas after incorporation of extra speaking activities, 10 students accepted the statement, approximately 67%. It can be concluded that about 27% increase is observed for item 1. As for item 4, 2 students agreed with the item before the activities while 7 of them stated that they can discuss in English with native speakers, with an increase of 34%, which might suggest that recursive opportunities provided to the learners to defend their own opinions against non-native peers boosted their self-confidence in making discussion with native speakers of English, as well. Regarding item 7, 6 students noted to agree with the item in Week 5 but in Week 14, 8 students responded positively to the same item, resulting in 13% increase. On the other hand, for item 9, no change was observed with 47% rating at each administration, which might imply that voicing opinions require higher order skills including persuasive abilities in addition to speaking competence. Therefore, the learners may need much more time to develop with regard to those abilities. Overall, based on these results, additional speaking opportunities compounded with pair/group work activities prove to facilitate learners' self-confidence to speak English with respect to ability aspect.

Table 1

| Items for Ability | | 1. Admin. | 2. Admin. |
|--------------------------|--|----------------------|----------------------|
| Item 1 | I can be interviewed in English. | 40% | 67% |
| Item 4 | I can discuss in English with native speakers. | 13% | 47% |
| Item 7 | I can show an English speaking visitor around the campus and answer questions. | 40% | 53% |
| Item 9 | I can give my opinion in English when talking to a native speaker. | 47% | 47% |

Assurance

In general, when the students' reports were examined, a remarkable increase has been observed in terms of assurance dimension (Table 2). Just for item 3, no change was noted by the learners because for both first and second administration of the questionnaire, 12 out of 15 students presented that they like speaking in English, with high percentages. This might result from the fact that they are among the highest level students in the school and only ones who can explain themselves without much difficulty. Hence, this motivation may facilitate their feeling about speaking in English. As for item 6, the results showed 20% increase, suggesting that with intensive practice, students start to feel more comfortable in speaking English. Apart from that, the most salient item in this set was item 11. 3 students were positive about speaking to a group of people in English before incorporation of speaking activities whereas 9 of them agreed with this item at the end. When the difficulty of the action in item 11 is concerned, the low number of students responding positively at the beginning of the study seems reasonable. However, that noteworthy increase, exactly 40%, means that the process has boosted students' stage fright as well as fear of speaking English. Finally, item 12 reported 33% increase in positive feelings of the students. That is to say, while just 1 student agreed with the item at first, after the intensive speaking activities 6 learners stated that they are relaxed when speaking English. All in all, based on these results, learners' self-confidence in terms of assurance dimension has been developed with aforementioned activities.

Table 2

| Items for Assurance | | 1. Admin. | 2. Admin. |
|----------------------------|---|------------------|------------------|
| Item 3 | I like speaking English. | 80% | 80% |
| Item 6 | I can speak English easily. | 20% | 40% |
| Item 11 | I will speak to a group of people in English. | 20% | 60% |
| Item 12 | I am relaxed when speaking English. | 7% | 40% |

Willing Engagement

The willing engagement aspect has come up with totally different results than previous aspects. The percentages of all items decreased in the second administration except item 10 (Table 3). For Item 2, there was a huge decline, exactly 40%, after the activities were employed to the students, which might result from the fact that as the second administration of the questionnaire was conducted at the end of the second semester, they might have got tired because of intensive English course all over the year or from another perspective, maybe after such a year they start to think that they can have good language education in Turkey, as well; so they do not need to study in another country to learn English. However, what should be kept in mind is that those students changing their minds, that is 6 learners, didn't respond totally negatively but they prefer 'undecided' option for this item. As for Item 5, a similar decline was observed again. The decrease was proved to be 13%. These results should be analyzed with caution in that the students changing their ideas, again, responded with 'undecided' option rather than negative views. This finding might recall that these students have got tired of English as a whole. That is why they do not feel happy anymore. Regarding Item 8, 20% percent decrease has similar implication, as well. 11 students responded positively at first but after 8 weeks, this number decreased to 8, suggesting that students have given up uttering English words to each other everyday. As can be understood, the results of all 3 items signals that students do not want to have much interaction with English anymore because they feel fed-up. However, in spite of these findings, they do not give up looking for opportunities to speak English as Item 10 demonstrates. The findings with Item 10 illustrate approximately 6% increase in positive responses. Overall, even though some important decreases have been observed in the findings of willing engagement aspect of confidence – which seems to be irrespective of decrease in self-confidence, students seem to be determinant not to give up chasing opportunities to speak English.

Table 3

| | Items for Willing Engagement | 1. Admin. | 2. Admin. |
|----------------|---|------------------|------------------|
| Item 2 | I would like to study in an English speaking country. | 93% | 53% |
| Item 5 | When I speak English, I feel cheerful. | 80% | 67% |
| Item 8 | I say something to other people in English everyday. | 73% | 53% |
| Item 10 | I look for chances to speak English. | 47% | 53% |

Overall Questionnaire Results

When all these findings come together to reach a conclusion, it appears that ability aspect has indicated 25% increase after the planned incorporation of speaking activities, as a whole. In a similar vein, assurance aspect has shown 23% increase; however, last aspect – willingness to engagement – demonstrated a great decline, approximately 67%. As can be understood, the dimension gaining the highest levels of strength was ability.

In order to provide deeper insight and a better understanding of the findings, especially the decline in willingness to engage; semi-structured interviews have been carried out.

Qualitative Results

These interviews have been conducted with students whoever want to share their ideas for the sake of the study; therefore only 11 students participated in the interview process.

Significance of Speaking

First, all of the participant interviewees stated that the most important skill to be developed is speaking. The reason behind this significance is that the students believe a language can only be learnt by speaking:

‘...babies learn their language by listening and speaking; similarly, I believe that English is learnt by listening and speaking, that will be more influential...’ (Student 3)

Additionally, some other subjects noted their dreams of going abroad and study there with the help of some programs present in schools such as Erasmus or Farabi. To be able to survive, they believe that they need another language, which is English – to have better communication.

What is more, some students mentioned that speaking another language is important because people can only express themselves through speaking. It should be kept in mind that, as these are the highest level students in the schools, they are more respected than others in that they are the ones who can communicate in English, easily. Therefore, according to these students, to be able to speak in English helps them to gain privilege while expressing themselves.

Development in Speaking Skill

Out of 11 students, 10 students pointed out that they demonstrated appreciable improvement with respect to speaking skill. When they are asked to grade their speaking level out of 10, most of them gave themselves 7, which suggests that they believe in themselves and thus have high confidence so as to communicate/interact in English.

On the other hand, when asked how this development has occurred, what led them to be successful in speaking English, most of them talked about their native teachers, who are really addicted to teaching English. It appears that as these teachers devote themselves to teaching and as it is the real-life concern/need that urges learners to speak; the process results in productive outcomes.

Apart from native teachers, the attempts carried out by non-native teachers are also appreciated by the students. As an example, some students stated that pair/group work exercises were very helpful in developing speaking skill whereas some others acknowledged the debates and presentations as the most useful courses of action during speaking classes. For sure, games got the highest rating in the interviews as helpful tools to be integrated into language lessons.

'... I like the games, not boring; also some question-answer processes were helpful... and Özge Hoca guided us to have role-plays on the stage...' (Student 5)

On the other hand, the decline in the willingness of engagement aspect of the confidence scale is investigated with the interviews, as well. As mentioned before, most of the students presented that they got tired and bored throughout the semester so they need a holiday. Therefore, they stated they do not want to engage in either speaking or other kinds of activities at the time of the application of interviews.

'... I got bored with prep school, a very strict program is followed here and getting up early and all other issues... I am not able to addict myself to learning...' (Student 7)

Overall, students are content with the speaking implementation carried out in the Preparatory School of Kütahya Dumlupınar University.

CONCLUSION

Carrying out action research, I attempted to investigate whether my way of teaching speaking fosters my students' self-confidence. Looking at the results of both questionnaires and interviews, it has become evident that there is a success resulting from the implementation of

various speaking approaches in English lessons. Being a teacher as a researcher, I can suggest that seeing what is going on in classes from another perspective is crucial for not only personal development but also for enhancement required for the teaching process. Therefore, action research is a perfect option that can be resorted to.

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ADDING FUN IN LANGUAGE TEACHING THROUGH TECHNOLOGY

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ABSTRACT

Technology is in every aspect of life and it affects the way people live, work, play and most importantly learn. Therefore, the impact of the use of technology on young people is undeniable. They are born into a world of technology, so they crave technology-enhanced learning opportunities. If used correctly, technology helps prepare them for their future career. In this case, one of the biggest challenges most teachers face when teaching today's students is appealing to their expectations and demands in language learning. Hence, teachers have tried to adapt their teaching styles accordingly in order to help them engage in the lessons. Integrating technology into the classroom is an effective way to keep them stay engaged. There are various different reasons to integrate technology into the language classroom one of which is providing a fun teaching and learning atmosphere for the students. This presentation mainly focuses on real classroom practices enhanced with the use of different technological tools and applications which bring the fun element into the language classroom. In this presentation, firstly, the technological tools and applications used by the presenter will be introduced. Then, reflection from the students on how they benefit from these tools and whether they find them enjoyable; and also the teacher's reflections on whether these tools enhanced the teaching and learning process in a fun and enjoyable way will be shared with the audience.

Keywords: *language learning, technology, fun.*

INTRODUCTION

Technology is constantly emerging all around us, and is, for sure; part of every student's learning experience (Budhai & Taddei, 2015) and the impact of the use of technology on young people are undeniable. Therefore, various types of technologies have been used in education over the years, from the development of interactive multimedia resources through to the use of the Internet, and mobile and augmented technologies in recent years (Spector, Merrill, van Merriënboer, & Driscoll, 2008).

Technology is supposed to be successfully integrated into the teaching and learning processes when the use of technology provides student learning and establishes more effective, efficient and/or engaging classroom atmosphere. The way in which technology is integrated into education largely depends on the teacher (Marshall & Cox, 2008). For all that, it is vital to note that the integration of technology should always intend to focus on pedagogical goals rather than be supported by technological motives (Angeli & Valanides, 2009; Enochsson & Rizza, 2009). It is therefore important for teachers to keep the focus on learning while trying to integrate technology into the lesson as traditional methods for teaching are already going through a transformation to adapt to the needs of 21st-century students. This makes it necessary for teachers to ideally start with identifying the learning objectives (Eldred & Toner, 2003), knowledge and the needs of the students (Bruce, 1999), and familiarity with the programmatic and institutional settings (Francis, 2010) before considering which technologies to use and how to use them.

There are a large number of studies on the use of technology in the classroom across all grade levels from K-12 to university setting. However, these studies announce diverse results of effectiveness, but overall, the trend still promotes an increase in adopting the application of technological tools within the higher education classroom environment (Mansureh, 2010). Emerging technologies transform the way students and teachers communicate and interact with each other (Hirumi, 2014). The literature indicates that technologies have the potential to facilitate learning in a pedagogical environment (Patten, Sanchez, & Tangney, 2006).

The COVID-19 pandemic has had an unprecedented impact on the teaching and learning processes all around the world. With the application of distance education systems in many countries, there has been rapid, widespread and potentially permanent changes to modes of teaching and learning and therefore, the use of technological tools has become a crucial part of education. Supporting students during periods of distance learning is not just about technology; it is primarily about teaching. In fact, best practice in the integration of technology and

education is where pedagogy is at the forefront. While there are many educational technologies available, it is important for teachers to choose the best tools for their own experiences first, understand how to use them and then be involved in planning how it will fit with instructional needs. If used adequately, appropriately and in the correct place, technological tools, for sure, will enhance a positive, effective and fun teaching and learning environments.

This study aims at introducing some of these technological tools available. The tools will be suggested under two groups: ideas for virtual lessons and ideas for virtual assignments. Likewise, each tool is going to be introduced under three titles: ‘What is it?’, ‘Is it good for learning?’, and ‘How can a teacher teach with this tool?’

Ideas for Virtual Lessons

Nearpod

What is it?

Nearpod is a life-saver tool for interactive presentations and assessments. Both website and google slides add-on are available. Teachers use the site to create original multimedia presentations or choose and customize from an extensive, growing library of pre-made offerings, many of which are available free of charge and some at a cost. Teachers can upload videos, images, audio clips, and PDF files as well as embed multiple-choice quizzes and polls. Draw It (students write directly on a slide), collaboration boards, and open-ended questions provide plenty of variety to liven up their presentations. Teachers launch the presentation and monitor progress either from the website or through the application. Using the Nearpod app on their devices, teachers have three different options including live participation, in front of class and student-paced lesson. Students are supposed to enter the code their teacher provide and their names to access content and submit responses.

With Nearpod, teachers interact with students and view student responses in real time, enabling students to take ownership of their learning rather than passively viewing a teacher-directed whole-class presentation. It is possible to learn who is and who isn't viewing the presentation, which helps with classroom management and reinforces appropriate use of technology in the classroom.

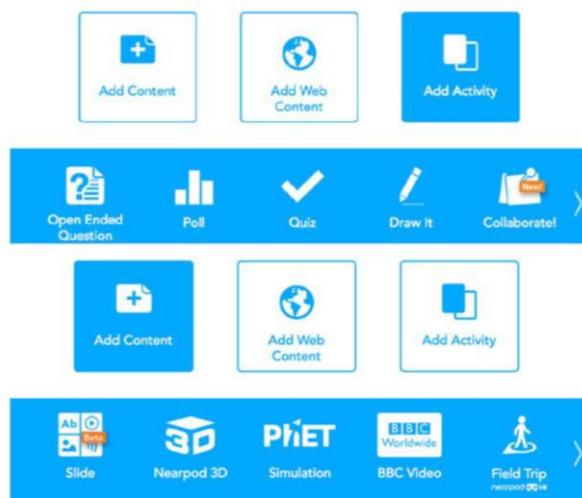


Figure 1. Question Types in Nearpod

Is it good for learning?

Nearpod provides immediate feedback and lets teachers know where reteaching would benefit students. Students have the opportunity to ask questions in the moment to correct errors or take notes to strengthen their understanding of the content when they receive their quiz scores. As a differentiation tool, students can move through content at their own pace, and teachers may choose to assign students different presentations according to their needs or give them a chance to create their own. Since collaboration boards show immediate results to polls, ideas, and images, students can engage in classroom discussion and up-voting. Nearpod is also useful as an assignment tool. Students can access self-paced assignments on their own device and respond to open-ended questions that the teacher can review online and use to prepare follow-up lessons accordingly. In online education, Nearpod offers an incredible choice to increase student engagement.

How can a teacher teach with this tool?

It is possible for teachers to use Nearpod to support student learning in a bunch of ways. They can give their students opportunities for interaction and immediate feedback by having them draw on a map or diagram, responding to a poll question, posting a note or image to a collaboration board, or taking a multiple-choice quiz. They can bring the world into their classroom by taking their students on a virtual field trip to a national park or to any place in a different country. They can help students review key learning concepts by watching videos,

reviewing notes, or taking their own notes. They can also allow their students to design their own slideshows and teach each other.

Whether students label planets in the solar system, respond to a poll question on how difficult or easy learning a language is, watch a video on how to introduce oneself in the target language, review notes on any grammar point, or submit an open-ended response analyzing a primary source, they're interacting with content in meaningful ways. Nearpod, too, has some advantages and disadvantages to use in the classroom. It is an advantage for teachers to receive valuable feedback on their students' learning while students actively participate in their education. Teachers might have to spend a lot of time creating and modifying presentations and at times using ready-made-lessons can get expensive; and some features may not even work on all devices. Still, it is an effective tool that leverages the capabilities of 1-to-1 environments and offers both teacher- and student-paced learning.

Pear Deck

What is it?

Pear Deck is an interactive presentation and lesson delivery tool designed to enhance an interactive, effective and fun way of learning as students move through a slideshow. Teacher-paced and student-paced options are available. Students can follow their teacher's slideshow in an online session or in the actual classroom, or they can complete student-paced decks in class or in their own time. Teachers can liven up their slideshows by adding one of several different question types, including drawing, dragging, text, number, and multiple choice. Teachers can view students' responses to these questions immediately, as well as share the results anonymously on-screen for all students to see.

On the setup side, it is necessary for teachers to spare some time to prepare slideshows and adding the interactive elements that make the platform engaging. Pear Deck has made this process somewhat easier for teachers. It provides the teachers with a huge repository of ideas and also makes it possible to integrate with Google Slides and Microsoft PowerPoint. Other partners such as Merriam-Webster and Newsela integrate with Pear Deck to enhance teachers to incorporate their content seamlessly.

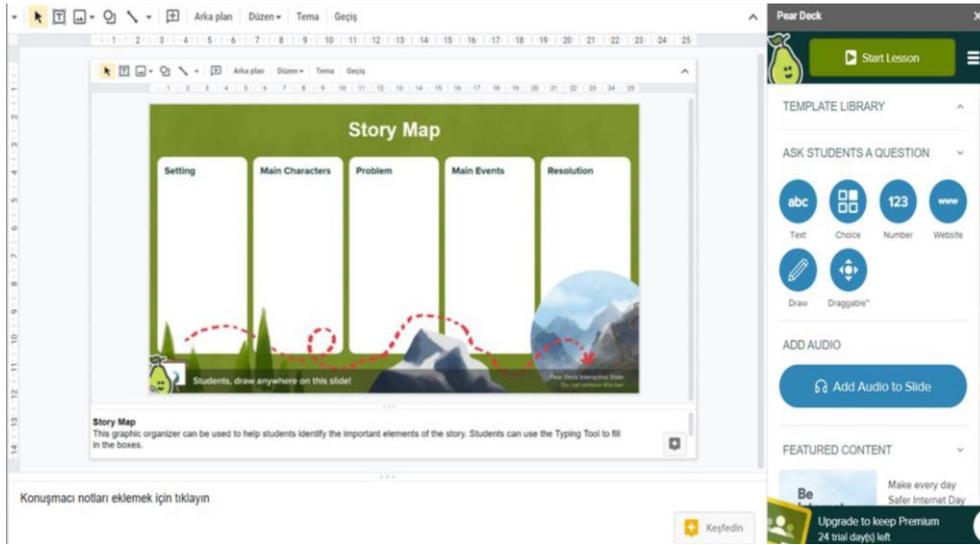
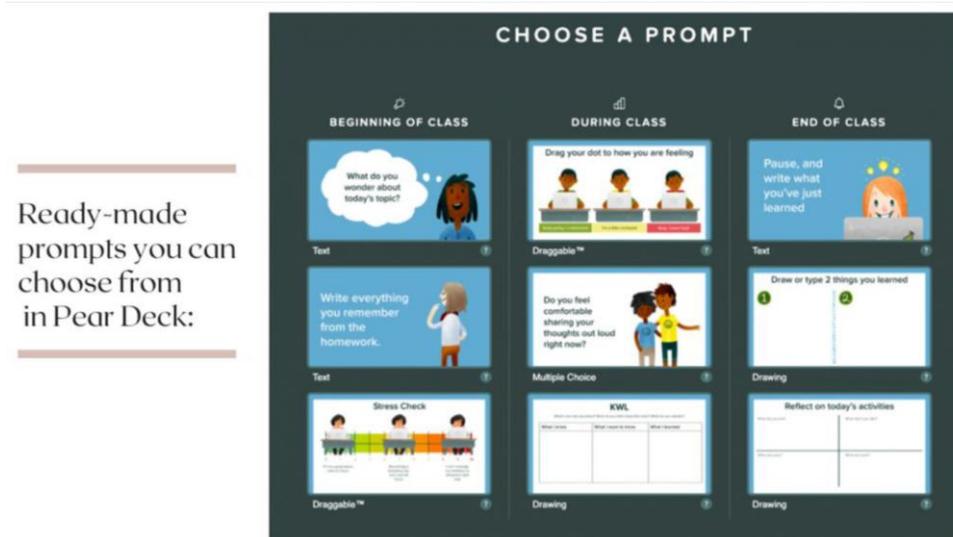


Figure 2. Pear Deck



Is it good for learning?

Pear Deck has a clean and simple interface. This helps the teachers to use it really easily. In order to get the most out of Pear Deck, teachers need to take time setting up the interactive elements which is the key to increasing students' engagement and understanding of the lessons. As with any type of technological tools, for Pear deck to be effective, a great deal depends on the teachers' lesson preparation, content choice, variety, the flow of the lesson and timing.

Answering the drawing questions and the ability to doodle out their answers can serve students with a variety of backgrounds and learning preferences, especially English language learners. When students respond to questions, the teacher would like to give immediate feedback, which may present challenges depending on the question type. While Pear Deck gives

satisfying feedback for teachers, but it is not the same for students. Teachers can share a report including all the slides and student answers, to further extend the learning. Teachers have editing options, so that they can leave comments for individual students. This might be some extra work for the teacher.

How can a teacher teach with this tool?

It will definitely be a good idea for teachers to start by converting one of their existing PowerPoint or Google Slides presentations into a Pear Deck presentation or copying one of the example decks on the site. It requires a bit of hard work. However, later on seeing the level of student engagement in the lesson is worth everything. The teacher can start a lesson with a slide using the Classroom Climate add-on to gauge their students' feelings about a topic. Then they can move to a poll question and discuss the results briefly before moving on to an open-ended question. It is a good option to for the teachers ask their students to draw or type their responses, and they can share some of the more creative ones on a whiteboard as a basis for teachable moments -- or merely to praise and thank to students who think outside the box. Besides all of these wonderful features, there is another feature called the Flashcard Factory to allow students to create sets of classroom flash cards and export them into Quizlet. Mixing up the question types using some of these features in their presentations will hold the students' attention more and the teachers are sure to keep their lessons lively and fresh. Pear Deck, by all means, has its own benefits and drawbacks. One of the most distinct benefits is its appealing, engaging presentation platform. This makes it possible for the teachers to collect on-the-spot data to measure student understanding. One limitation presented by this tool is that it lacks of built-in follow-ups to student answers, and there are few collaborative features. In contrast to its drawbacks, the handy and attractive presentation features provide awesome options for formative assessment from any device.

VoScreen

What is it?

VoScreen is a web and mobile application utilized in foreign language education. VoScreen has been developed to make up the deficiency of listening and pronunciation elements in foreign language education. VoScreen is a highly innovative way to help learners improve their English language skills on their own, without the express need for outside instruction. Moreover, it can

also provide teachers the tools needed to develop their students' language skills in an engaging, interactive and challenging way.

A huge number of video clips were offered by VoScreen which consist of various series, movies and advertisements. The videos last 15 seconds. At the end of each video, the dialogue shows up on the screen in the target language and the students are asked to find out the translation of the lines in their mother tongue by choosing the correct alternative. Every correct answer has been graded. Every wrong answer drops the total score. And speed is important, as well. The duration of time given to answer the questions, has been determined according to the length of the videos. Thanks to the scored points, it creates a sense of competition in practice by ranking the people who use the application all over the world. The users can see in detail what questions they answer, how many days they have practice, how many questions are correct and how many are wrong, and in which categories the questions are. Question types that appear on screen after each video clip are grouped in categories. One categorization has been made by grade levels; such as Beginner, Elementary, Intermediate, Upper and Advanced. In each level-category, questions related to the videos are offered on the selected level. Another categorization has been made according to language structures; such as, Am-Is-Are, Can, Will etc. and there are appropriate questions related to the videos for each subject in each grammar category.

Teachers can create playlists considering the level of their students and choosing from the grammatical structures they have just taught. They can later assign these playlists to their students and ask them to complete the task in their own time.

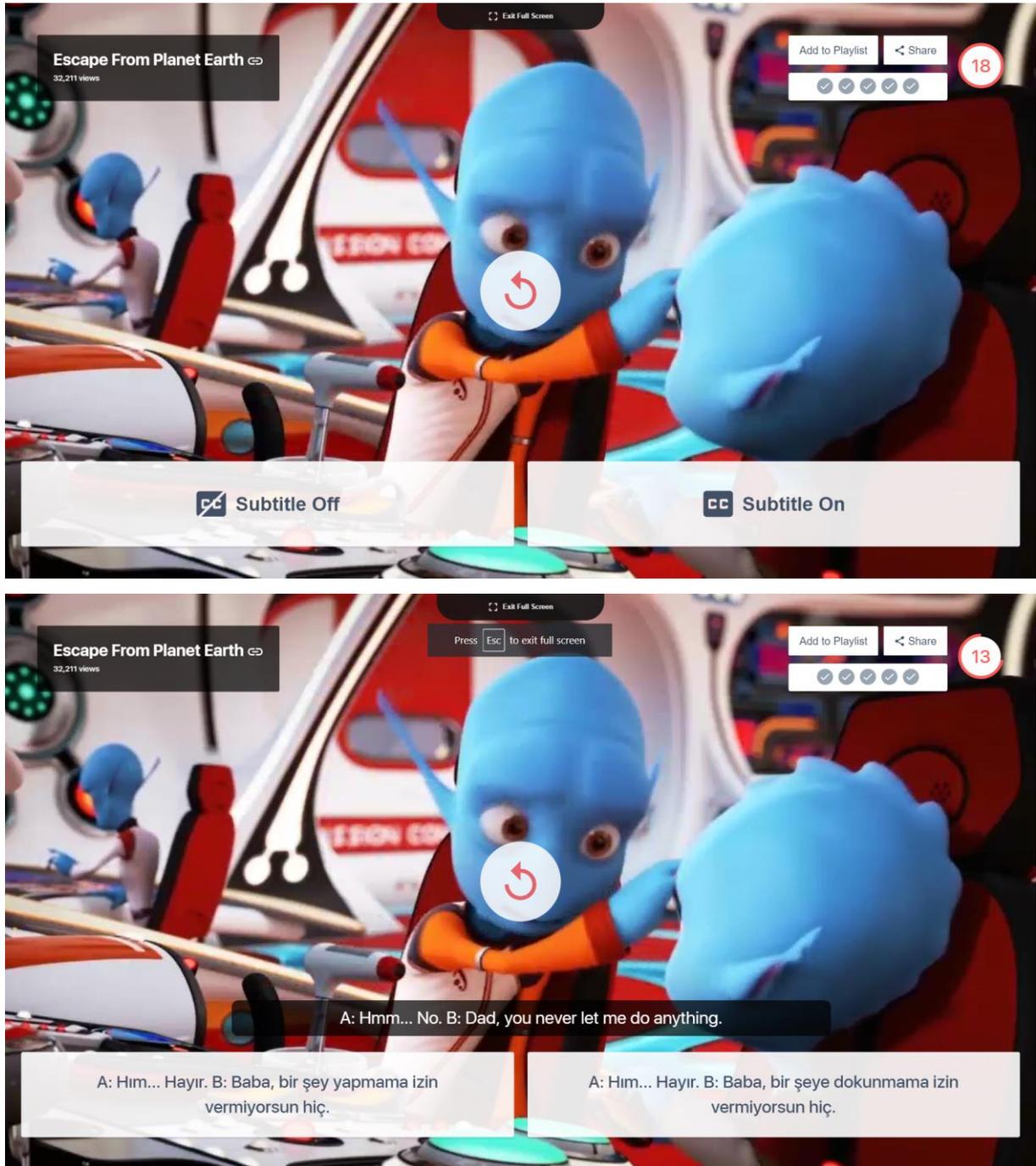


Figure 3. VoScreen

Is it good for learning?

Whether it is good for learning or not is a matter of the teachers' belief in using translation in their own teaching. If they do not prefer having their students translate dialogues from the target language into their own language, they can prepare some other types of activities. However, it can be time consuming for them. On the other hand, it is an appealing tool with a huge number of videos from movies, advertisements, etc. and dialogues from real life.

VoScreen is a potentially interesting application to attract the students. It aims to intrigue the students by movie scenes maybe they have watched before. It arouses students' interest to what the spoken text is, how it is pronounced and what it means. In this regard, students are provided with an environment in which is away from monotony and boredom. By the help of this tool, teachers can assess what they have or have not learnt and follow their progress by checking the number of questions they have answered and their true-false rates. It is possible to follow the level of the students regularly, and to measure the efficiency of the online teaching sessions this way.

How can a teacher teach with this tool?

A teacher can use this tool in a variety of ways. The first and suggested way by the tool is translating. However, with higher level students, the teachers can use it as a paraphrasing tool by changing the language settings from their mother tongue into the target language. This way, the tool will not offer translations. Another possibility is that the teacher can create a playlist of questions by choosing the question form in the structure category. Then their students can practice question types. Another type of activity can be 'What happened next?' They can play the videos and stop the video to ask what happened before or after the scenes. The teacher can also take some time to prepare some different activities for the playlists they have created. One possible exercise they can prepare is sentence completion. They can prepare a worksheet consisting of the lines from the video clips and they can ask their students to fill in the blanks with the correct vocabulary items or structures. Or they can ask the students to continue the lines for example with '.... because....'. the teachers can even ask their students to find three words they already know and three unknown words. Then maybe ask them to write a paragraph using those words. These are the activities that can be suggested by this paper. However, there are many more options that can be applied. It is a matter of creativity of the language teacher.

Edpuzzle

What is it?

Edpuzzle is a web-based formative assessment and interactive video tool that allows users to crop existing online videos and add content to target learning objectives. Teachers can search the extensive library or upload their own videos to customize them with embedded assessment questions, voice-overs, audio comments, and additional resources. They can use any of the three

question types available on the site to form their interactive videos. As the students watch the video, it will stop where the teacher has added the questions. The student answers the question. Then, it shows whether the student's answer is right or wrong, provides the correct answers and also allows the students to watch the related part again or continue with the rest of the video. There are other choices in the site's curriculum content, such as assigning due dates, and prohibiting students from fast-forwarding through videos. Teachers can view students' scores and progress over time, and the length of time students take to complete an assignment, as well. Data from the embedded quizzes is saved in Edpuzzle's dashboard; however, teachers can easily export and incorporate it into other grade- and course-management systems.

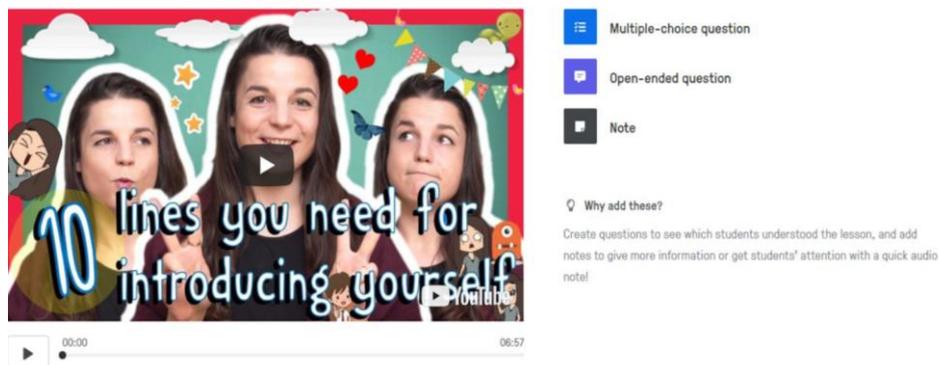


Figure 4. Edpuzzle

Is it good for learning?

Interactive videos Edpuzzle offers to teachers and students encourage more active learning. The originality of the videos and the ways teachers customize them affects the quality of learning will depend; however, teachers won't have to look too hard to find lots of high-quality options to use as starting points. Teachers who choose or create informative, engaging videos can add voice-overs, audio notes, and interactive quizzes to create a much more learner-centered experience and one that encourages students to be more and more involved in the process.

Watching online videos passively may require only lower-level thinking skills. However, the ability to encourage interaction with the most important aspects of a video increases the relevance of content and depth of learning, especially when teachers take advantage of the options to put additional links and supplemental resources. What is more, critical thinking skills such as analysis and information seeking can lead students to a transformation of knowledge they are allowed to research, create, and share their own video lessons.

As every technological tool, Edpuzzle has some pros and cons, as well. Intuitive video editor's including the ability for both teachers and students to add voice-overs, comments, resources, and quizzes to existing online videos is an advantage of this tool. However, going through uninspiring video content can be discouraging, and one can find many alternate versions of the same videos in the site which s/he has to go over maybe all to find the most suitable one for their own experience. After all, as a flipped classroom tool, there are lots of opportunities for online classroom use, but teachers will need to be creative if they want their students to engage.

How can a teacher teach with this tool?

The teachers can start their lesson with Edpuzzle videos for the purpose of pre-teaching, perhaps pairing videos with text in any content area where students might need scaffolding or supports. They can also use the voice-over feature to add a few quick checks to read-aloud videos to engage and support struggling readers, introducing vocabulary words (pronunciation, meaning, synonyms). They can record themselves teaching a concept, and have their students stop for practice and submit their answers. Do the teachers want to flip their classroom? They can allow their students to use the tool to create a video lesson, and choose some of the best for their peers to complete on their own. Then, they can go into depth in class to expand upon what students learned from remixing their videos.

If they are using other teachers' content as a starting point, Edpuzzle's search will suggest high-quality videos from sites such as YouTube, Khan Academy, TED Talks, and Vimeo. There's the option to choose content from the curriculum library, which includes a collection of videos organized by content area, as well. Yet, you should be aware that editing the videos won't alter them in any way, and it is a good idea to preview all video content for appropriateness.

Padlet

What is it?

Padlet is a website and application which allows students to curate information onto virtual bulletin boards using a simple drag-and-drop system. Students can start with a template or a blank page and add videos, text, links, documents, images -- basically anything -- to the wall and organize it, like a page full of Post-it notes. Likewise, the teacher can prepare a page with questions on a Padlet page and ask their students to answer the question or questions adding post-its and putting their names on. They can answer a question, write comments on their classmates' posts, add related videos, links and the like. They can add as many notes to a wall as they like; it scrolls in all directions. Teachers can opt to turn on profanity filters, comments, and voting features for more collaboration. As added checks, teachers can moderate all posts or require that students display their names on the board. This helps avoid without the use of any bad or inappropriate language by the students.

Students can also upload documents they've created, such as class notes or completed assignments. More than one person can contribute to a Padlet wall, which leads to teamwork and group projects. Once the students create a wall, they can share it through the usual social media channels (Facebook, Twitter), export it to a file, embed it in a blog or website, or turn it into a QR code. There's also the option to keep walls private, of course. There are lots of places to get support, including social media pages, a fun blog, a FAQ section, and lots of use cases. A paid upgrade to Padlet Backpack offers features specific to educators' needs, including LMS integration, student portfolios, and extra layers of privacy and security. However, the free version offers a lot, as well. Though, it will only give them the chance to create three Padlet walls at a time. Teachers will have to download them as PDF files or as an image. Then, delete them in order to be able to create new ones.

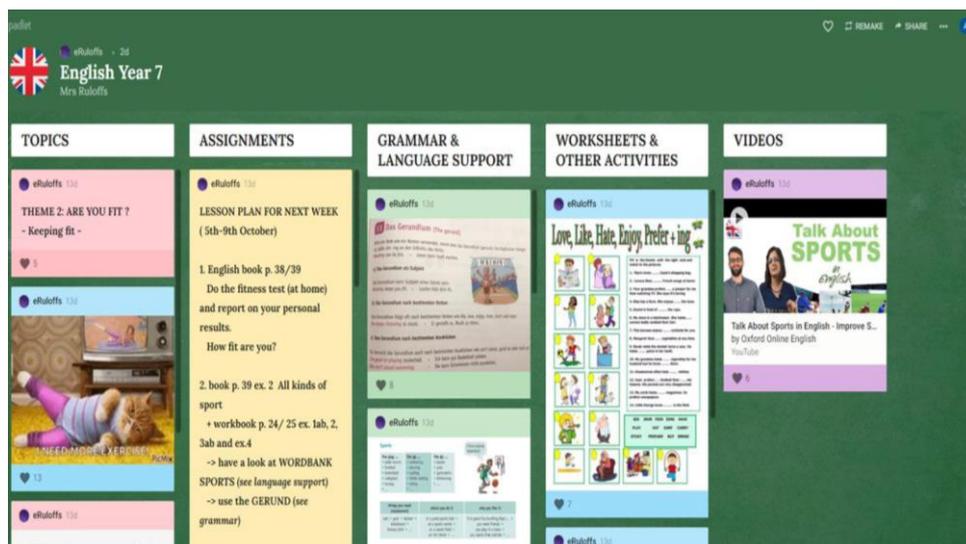


Figure 5. Padlet

Is it good for learning?

Padlet is a great place for gathering ideas, sharing them and modifying them later. It is interactive and encourages collaboration. It is also an effective way for students who miss a lesson to still participate in the learning process. In addition, there are many more ways to use Padlet to promote active learning.

There are plenty of websites which offer online bulletin boards; however, Padlet is one of the most intuitive and appealing tools for students. The colorful backgrounds and customization options that it offers allows students to add personality to walls, and gives some opportunities to engage with other students through voting. The depth of the site depends on what you put into it, yet teachers can find lots of helpful examples on the developer's website and social media pages.

The students do not have privacy on the Padlet wall as all the students and the teacher can see everyone's posts in real time, but with a watchful eye, there's great potential for collaboration and teamwork here. Padlet walls are an awesome opportunity for study groups, class projects, and discussions. For teachers, the walls provide the chance to see student learning at a glance and feedback from peers. However, students should be taught how to give appropriate feedback.

How can a teacher teach with this tool?

Padlet can be used on any device and the students do not need to register in order to complete a Padlet wall their teacher creates. It can be used in various types of activities. At the beginning of the term or year, teachers can use a Padlet wall to get to know their students by having them post a selfie or video discussing what makes them unique. A Padlet wall can be used as a warm up activity or any type of activity in fact; such as, for a reading or listening. What the teachers need to do is just write the questions on a Padlet wall and watch their students to answer and comment on each other's posts.

Padlet is a great tool for group projects. Divide the class into small groups, and have them work together at home to research a particular. Each student could devote research to a type of supported media (video, audio, photo, or text), add it to the group's shared wall, and then present the findings in class. Teachers can alternatively allow their students to pool notes together in class for a virtual group study session. The site's blog and social media pages showcase many examples of how teachers are using Padlet to enhance learning for more inspirational ideas.

Mentimeter

What is it?

Mentimeter is an interactive presentation tool that allows users to engage their audiences in real time. Teachers can try Mentimeter for free, but on the free version unlimited audience, unlimited presentations, but up to two question slides and up to five quiz slides. It also has basic and pro versions for which they have to pay. Exporting capabilities aren't available in the free version, so teachers who want to view data trends can either upgrade to Basic or use another tool -- such as Google Forms -- for questions where data collection is a priority.

Teachers sign up using an email address or via Google or Facebook logins. After choosing Presenter or Audience paced modes to get started, teachers simply click a button to begin designing a presentation. Students can choose from a variety of events, selecting from options such as questions, polls, word clouds, reactions, and more. Students join from the application or via menti.com and enter a six-digit join code in order to see and respond to the questions. They do not have to install anything or register the website.

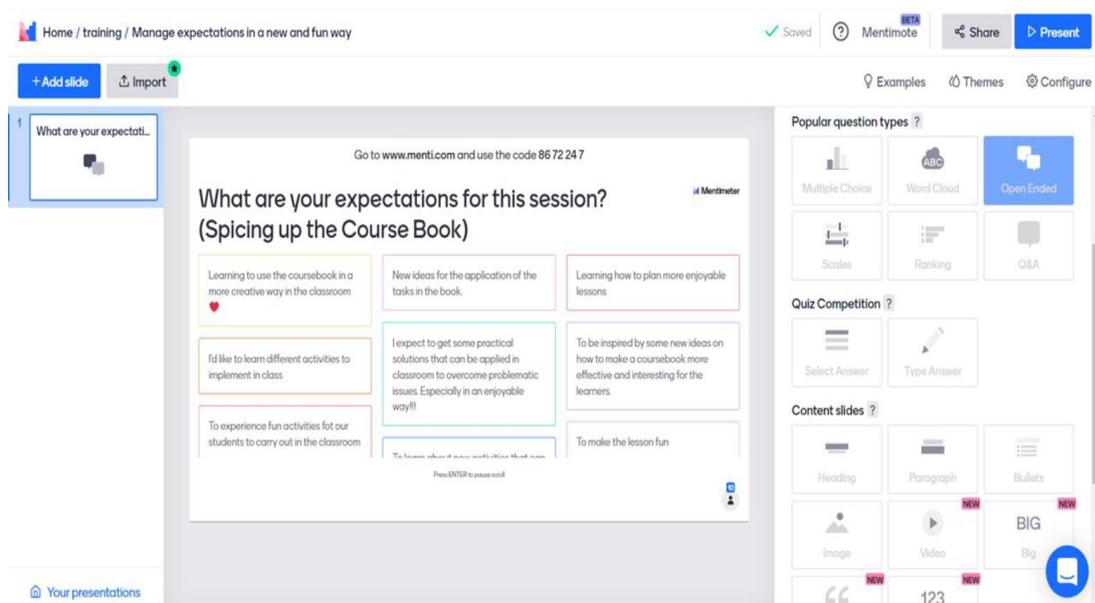


Figure 6. Mentimeter

Is it good for learning?

Mentimeter helps to solve teachers' problem of always having to call students one by one for getting feedback in a lesson. Mentimeter makes it easier to get feedback from the entire class at the same time. With Mentimeter teachers can start their lessons with a class poll to gauge the students' mood, they can use it as a warm up activity, or to ask an essential question related the topic of the lesson. It, for sure, includes some excitement and interactivity, as well as providing the teacher with invaluable feedback from students in real time. The ability to create presentations where students can vote on questions, and take polls, allows teachers to involve their students in ways that a traditional presentation can't. Having students submit questions as the teacher teaches during the lessons, using the Upvote feature as a gauge, they can use class time more effectively and can address the needs of their students. The variation of question types along with the ability to have students respond, see responses, and ask questions in real time, enables students to make relevant connections during a lesson.

The limitations of events in the free version can be frustrating. However, teachers can overcome this problem by creating multiple presentations in order to increase interaction. It is possible via a one-click copy feature. It would be nice if users could upload slides or presentations from other platforms, lessening the burden of re-creating the wheel. Nonetheless, PowerPoint users can add a Mentimeter plug-in, which allows them to add events directly into their presentations.

How can a teacher teach with this tool?

Mentimeter is a great tool for language teachers. It can be used as a warm-up activity arousing students' interest in the topic of the day by asking their ideas in different question types and showing them the results in real time. Similarly, it can be used as a post activity for discussions and for revision. Mentimeter also has a language template which is a perfect tool to incorporate into the lessons. This language template can be used to test the students on vocabulary, grammar or any other language skills. It is an easy and simple way to conduct a pop quiz or vocab test and minimize the use of paper but getting the students to answer via their smartphones or laptops. Students can also get the results straight and that means less marking for the teachers!

This template is awesome to review content that has been spoken about and discussed in class. Recognize topics and subjects that need to be revised. Besides, Mentimeter makes it easier to reinforce what students have learnt by recapping and going over topics to enhance the retention of information.

It is also possible for students to ask questions anonymously without feeling any pressure and give their opinions. This can help to improve student participation and learning as even the quietest students can have their say. This way, the teacher is able to increase student engagement as all class members can easily participate in a relaxed way.

Mentimeter is a flexible tool which enables teachers to create dynamic presentations and supports teachers in striking a balance between information and interaction. The opportunity to generate questions, get image feedback, assign polls, create matrices prevents shortage of options to engage students during class time. This is one of the most important benefits of this tool. Not having import options requires teachers to spend some time creating presentations, and the free version's two-question limit can prevent interactivity.

Ideas for Virtual Assignments

Wizer

What is it?

Wizer is a website where especially K-12 teachers can create augmented digital worksheets in any subject area. The Wizer worksheet builder enables teachers to create a wide variety of question types; such as, open-ended questions, multiple choice, matching

pairs, fill in the blanks, fill on an image, table completion, etc. Once users sign up for an account, they can immediately start browsing or creating worksheets.

Wizer is a platform where teachers build beautiful, engaging *online worksheets*. It allows teachers to create quick, easy, and fun digital *worksheets*, to share them with fellow teachers, and assign them to their students to be dealt with in their own time. These *interactive worksheets* will enable teachers to easily leverage a social and gamified learning experience.

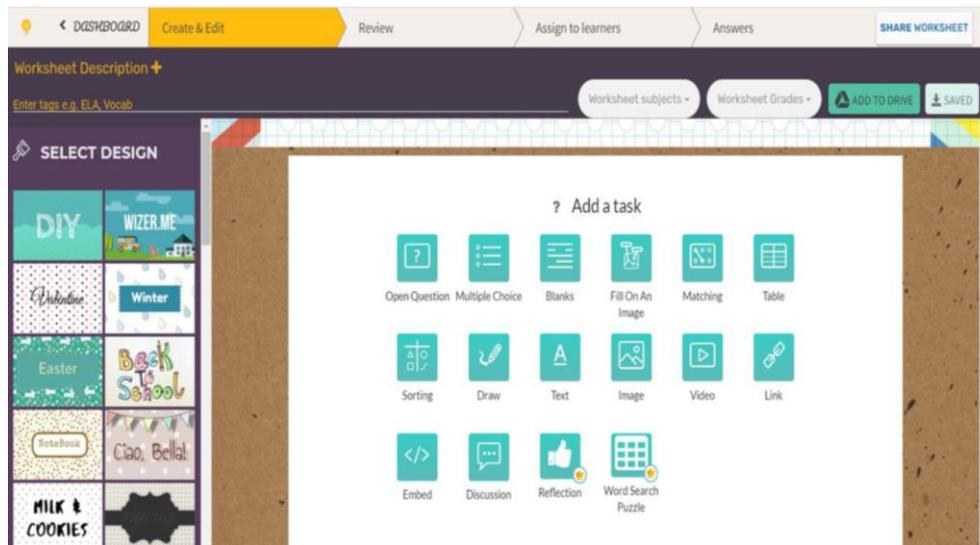


Figure 7. Wizer

Is it good for learning?

Wizer worksheets engage students more deeply in learning and are likely to spend more time thoughtfully interacting as these worksheets are visually appealing and easy to use for students. Wizer worksheets are beautifully designed and teachers can choose from a variety of backgrounds and themes.

Wizer allows teachers to easily add any video clips, audio files, or images directly to the interactive worksheet. These enriched media files can captivate the mind for learning or practicing new skills and stimulating imagination for creative tasks.

Wizer is also a real time-saver for teachers who are already very busy with preparing lessons, doing exams and grading papers. Wizer aims at helping teachers to spend all their time and energy nurturing young minds – instead of spending their time on preparing worksheets and dealing with technology. Wizer is built to save teachers as much time as possible.

How can a teacher assign homework with this tool?

Wizer is a teacher-friendly platform that offer great help to teachers in these challenging times and enable them to create and provide more opportunities for their students. Teachers can start creating digital worksheets in Wizer by uploading an image or PDF worksheet and digitize the whole paper worksheet in less than a minute. In order to do this, they should choose the ‘fill on an image’ widget. Then they should upload a pdf or an image and click to convert. When it finishes uploading and converting the file, the teacher should edit the title and instructions. Finally, they need to place hot spots on the image and fill in the correct answers and click ‘save’. Teachers can turn their ordinary worksheets into digital worksheets so easily so that they can save time with auto grading.

Besides creating attractive, interactive and fun worksheets, teachers can also search the Wizer gallery for inspiration and also save time with free access to a collection of over one million inspiring, engaging, and interactive worksheets created by other teachers. They can just browse by subject or grade level to find inspiration for what they can do with Wizer. When they find a worksheet that they like and think is suitable for their own teaching experience, they can reach the worksheet by just clicking ‘use’, customize the worksheet according to their students’ needs if needed and make a free copy for themselves to use it with their students.

Choice Board

What is it?

A choice board is a graphic organizer that allows students to choose different ways to learn about a particular concept. It offers a number of alternative activities to students to choose from. It simply means giving the responsibility of the students’ learning in their own hands so that they feel some kind of ownership of their learning as they get to choose which activity they want to complete for the day or week. Furthermore, choice boards let personalize learning. Choice boards are set up in a grid, which comprise of different amounts of squares; generally, with 9 in one grid. The teacher can include more or fewer activities.

A choice board usually looks like a Bingo board that has a *different* activity inside each of the squares. The teacher can add an image representing each activity. All the squares should be hyperlinked to the actual activity.

The activities can appeal to a wide variety of learning styles. Each choice board should focus on a particular concept. Some examples of choice boards can have (preferably digital) vocabulary or grammar revision worksheets, reading or listening activities, writing prompts (they should write maybe on google docs and hand in to their teacher), speaking prompts (they should record their voice and send it over to their teacher) or any kind of activity to appeal all different learning styles. The activities help students learn or practice a primary concept, while allowing them a choice. Students can be instructed to choose one or more of these activities to complete. They can progress from one activity to another either in an organized or random order. Choice boards are a way to visualize assignments and make them more appealing.



Figure 8. Choice Boards

Is it good for learning?

Choice boards are definitely the greatest way to assign homework to students at the same time to give them choices. This is very good to help students become autonomous learners. That way, they will learn what they need and what topics and skills they should work on more.

Choice boards let teachers keep everything in one place. If they work on google slides and keep their files sorted out in Google classroom, for example, then they can reach every file with ease on every device. All the activities which take place on the choice board requires hyperlinks so that the students can quickly and easily navigate to various websites and applications.

Another good thing about choice boards is that digital choice boards are paperless. Students are less likely to lose their board or their work. They can

even continue to work on their choice board at different times, and on different devices. Similarly, it is excellent for teachers as this makes grading and giving feedback effortless. Digital choice boards in Google Drive makes giving feedback and grading a much easier. They can open any student's presentation from practically any device to check on their progress as well as grade their work. Teachers are advised to leave encouraging and helpful comments for students so they know they are on the right track or need to go back to rethink certain concepts. If a teacher doesn't have the energy to create a digital choice board from scratch, they have awesome editable, ready-to-use Choice Board templates on the web (e.g. Slidesmania). Teachers just need to plug in their activities, and assign the work to their students. The use of Choice Boards helps to improve student motivation, engagement and learning by empowering them to learn to the best of their ability.

How can a teacher assign homework with this tool?

A choice board is just what it sounds like, a board of choices. As discussed before, the choices might be questions to answer or activities to complete related to a reading text or a listening exercise, vocabulary revision, a video activity, a writing or speaking task, or a song activity. The possibilities are endless.

When creating the boards, it is vital to have activities that cater to different learning styles; such as visual, auditory, and different skills; such as reading, writing, listening and speaking. Boards can be created for weekly tasks, assignments, projects and even assessments. Detailed instructions and requirements can be given for each task. An extra credit slot can be included to encourage students to better their learning.

The board should revolve around a particular concept or learning goal and each activity is structured to stimulate learning, practice or mastery of that subject. The first step in designing a Choice Board is to identify the core concept or academic goal that the students need to complete. Second, the teacher needs to plan the activities so that it provides students with a variety of mediums or methods for learning the concept. To do this, first of all the teacher should identify the students' interests, preferences and even levels of readiness. The activities can be at different levels of complexity and can be arranged on the board in an increasing order of difficulty. Additional instructions for each task can be included and students are instructed to

perform the tasks either as individual activities or in groups. One square can also be a “free choice” allowing students to create and perform an activity of their own choice.

The formatting and directions for choice boards are also flexible. The teacher might prefer to create a 3×3 board and ask the students to make “tic-tac-toe” by completing any three choices in a row, column, or diagonally. In this method the “free choice” square can be in the middle. They could create a 5×5 board and ask students to make “BINGO” by completing any five choices in a row, column, or diagonally. They can also make a choice board of any size and require students to complete a certain number of choices from each row or column, or a total number from the board as a whole.

Virtual Library

What is it?

As the pandemic has caused education in most parts of the world to be carried out online, teachers across the world have been adjusting to radically different learning environments. With millions of students learning on screens, many teachers have been trying new ways to connect virtually with their students. Teachers have been creating Bitmoji and interactive classrooms, and also developing virtual classroom libraries to ensure that their students are able to access books digitally and are able to read from home.

Teachers are advised to set up their library based on what they think works best for their students. It can be a good idea for teachers to survey their students to find out what they want and use that to help them organize their books.



Figure 9. Virtual Library

Is it good for learning?

Reading offers students a wide range of vocabulary and grammar. What is more, it is a skill that supports and feeds the brain with the correct language structures. Because learning is facilitated by visual cues, reading enhances the brain to remember these language structures as the learner connects an image to the word it represents. Therefore, it is fascinating to help students read and follow their progress over time. Students may have difficulty buying or acquiring books in these extraordinary times. Virtual libraries assure student reading.

How can a teacher assign homework with this tool?

The virtual library can be organized with different digital “sections”. The sections may include virtual categories for independent reading levels (A-Z depending on the age and levels of the students), as well categories for series books, poetry, mentor texts, humor books, magazines, podcasts, read-alouds, and more. When students click on a digital section in the virtual library, they are taken to a Google document that has a list of book titles, and students can click on the book they want to read. The titles are hyperlinked, so that when a student clicks on the link, they are brought to digital version of the book. The digital books are housed on platforms such as Epic, Unite For Literacy, Storyline Online, and more. The virtual library can live inside a virtual classroom and can be accessed with a link on Google Classroom and other platforms. Or the teacher could place book cover images on the shelves in their virtual classroom and hyperlink the digital book files for each week or month. When the students click on the book cover, they can reach the digital file of the book they would like to read.

CONCLUSION

This study does not have any tangible data due to the pandemic the research could not be carried out. It is to introduce a number of technological tools that can be used throughout distance education process in order to enhance interaction among students, help make lessons interactive and more effective.

The whole world has been experiencing a totally new and unusual experience since distance education came into use. Most definitions of distance education include the use of technology. Therefore, teachers need to gain some new skills and incorporate the use of technological tools in their teaching.

Surely, the dynamics between face-to-face education and distance education are totally different. It is harder to keep the students' attention on the lesson and have them participate in the lesson in distance education than in the actual classroom setting. For that reason, most teachers feel the need to go beyond the call of duty and employ some technology tools in their lesson plans. The most important thing to consider at this stage is to determine the objectives of the lesson, prepare for it accordingly and choose a suitable technology tool for the lesson. It is important for the teacher to choose the tools they will feel the most comfortable using. The tools introduced in this paper are just to give an idea to those who are seeking for support. Every teacher should find the best tools which best fit their students needs and interests.

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HOW DO UPPER INTERMEDIATE LEVEL EFL STUDENTS OF TURKISH L1 BACKGROUND RESPOND TO COMPLIMENTS IN THEIR L1 AND L2? A CASE OF PRAGMATIC TRANSFER

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ABSTRACT

The present study aims to find out whether native speakers of American English and upper-intermediate level EFL learners of Turkish L1 background prefer different compliment response strategies (CRS) for English compliments and if EFL learners transfer their pragmatic knowledge from Turkish to English. The participants of the study included 39 EFL learners from a preparatory school of a foundation university in Ankara and 12 native speakers of American English. A quantitative research design was employed in order to answer the research questions. Firstly, both groups' responses to English compliments on various types from compliment givers who share different power status with the participants (teachers – high power and peers – equal power) were collected via 6-item discourse completion test (DCT) method. Afterwards, EFL learners were asked to respond to the Turkish version of the same DCT. The data was analyzed by categorizing the CRS of both groups via Cheng's (2011) schema. Later, the frequencies of the CRS of the participants were examined through SPSS. The significance of the frequency differences was tested via chi-square tests. The results showed that Turkish and American English native speakers use particular CRS in their native languages. However, according to the findings except from two DCT items, EFL learners were able to modify their CR strategies according to the language they speak. The results may support what CEFR states: upper-intermediate EFL learners are able to sustain successful communication with native speakers.

Keywords: *SLA, pragmatic transfer, compliment responses.*

INTRODUCTION

Being social creatures, humans, innately, have an urge to communicate with others. Sari (2013) defines communication as “a process by which we assign and convey meanings in attempt to create shared understanding; both the speaker and hearer should hold to general rules or principles and thereby use certain strategies” (p. 1). Therefore, in order to initiate and maintain a smooth communication, people usually apply several strategies which vary from culture to culture, as well as language to language.

Today, being competent in English has become fundamental in order to communicate with people from all around the world. Therefore, the field of English language teaching has also shifted to communicative methods in which learners are expected to take an active role in their target language (L2). Thus, since 1970s, foreign language teaching field has attached importance to pragmatics.

On the other hand, in spite of the importance of pragmatics on conveying messages internationally, one area in which learners find especially hard to acquire can be the pragmatic aspects of a specific language because, usually, pragmatic rules of a language is embedded in the daily life of the native speakers of the language (Thomas, 1995). Thus, unlike the grammatical rules which learners can learn via consulting to language books, pragmatic rules require special attention and effort. Furthermore, since they are hidden, sometimes learners ignore the fact that languages employ several different pragmatic strategies and face some failures (Thomas, 1983) when communicating in their L2 since they depend on their already acquired pragmatic strategies while the target language expects different strategies, which can be referred as ‘negative pragmatic transfer’ (Blum-Kulka, 1993).

In the light of the needs of our era, guiding learners to pay attention to the pragmatic aspects of the language that they are learning is inevitable. Therefore, conducting research in this area is also essential to find out whether learners’ transfer their pragmatic knowledge and if so, how pragmatic transfer occurs to take the necessary precautions and improve the quality of foreign language teaching methods and strategies. Generally, pragmatic transfer is examined through speech acts (Grice, 1957; Austin, 1962; Searle 1969). Hence, the present study focuses on the compliment responses of upper-intermediate – according to CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001), level EFL learners of Turkish L1 background in both Turkish and English to find out whether learners transfer their pragmatic knowledge into English.

The research questions this paper aims to answer are:

1. How do native speakers of Turkish respond to compliments in Turkish?
2. How do native speakers of Turkish respond to compliments in English?
3. How do native speakers of English respond to compliments in English?
4. Is there a difference between the English compliment response strategies of Turkish native speakers and English native speakers?
5. Is there a difference between the Turkish native speakers' compliment response strategies in both Turkish and English?

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Politeness

A fundamental aspect to consider in order to understand how people maintain communication with people around them successfully and establish a relationship is politeness. Politeness, as an interest of pragmatics, is a phenomenon which is believed to be universal (Lakoff, 1973; Leech 1983); although, each culture applies various strategies to maintain their politeness (Wolfson, 1981; Holmes & Brown, 1987). The roots of politeness go back to Grice (1975) who puts forward 'Cooperative Principle' which relies on the fact that in order to have a successful communication, both parties in a conversation are expected to cooperate.

Brown and Levinson (1987), define politeness as maintaining one's and societies face within a society. Although the concept of 'face' may sound familiar to many, it can be a complicated phenomenon when it comes to defining it. Goffman (1967) defines it as "... the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact" (p. 5). Brown and Levinson (1987) by building on Goffman's (1967) definition, explain face as concept which consists of two folds: negative and positive face. While negative face represents individuals' desire to be free and unimpeded by others, positive face represents the desire to be accepted and appreciated by others. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), face can be 'saved', 'threatened' and 'lost'.

One of the areas that politeness strategies can be observed is the speech acts in a language (Grice, 1957; Austin, 1962; Searle 1969). While people request, complain about, reject, and compliment on something, they employ several strategies to protect their and others' positive and negative faces (Brown & Levinson 1987). Thus, studying speech acts in a language can

shed light to the strategies that a culture employs in protecting their face and maintaining politeness which results in achieving having successful conversation with others.

Compliment Responses

Compliment can be described as “a speech act which explicitly or implicitly attributes credit to someone other than the speaker, usually the person addressed, for some ‘good’ (possession, characteristic, skill, etc.) which is positively valued by the speaker and the hearer” (Holmes, 1988 p. 446),

As well as compliments, compliment responses (CRs) are also worth attention as responding to compliments paid require someone to choose from several strategies to save their own and others’ faces depending on different cultures and languages (Wolfson, 1981; Yu, 2003).

There are several variables when it comes to analyzing CRs. The first variable could be the level of distance or the hierarchical status between the compliment payer and the compliment receiver (Golato, 2002). Finding out the strategies employed depending on the power relation variable might shed light to many other conclusions for a language such as how distance between people is kept or removed via language and how face is protected. Secondly, gender variable can be an important factor in CRs (Herbert, 1990; Holmes 1988; Sari, 2013; Wolfson 1984). Finally, various compliment types may call for different CRs. For instance, for a compliment on physical appearance, one can respond by ‘not accepting’ it, but for a compliment on ability, one can simply accept it by thanking (Golato 2002).

Pragmatic Transfer

Pragmatic transfer refers to “the influence exerted by learners’ pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production and learning of L2 pragmatic information” (Kasper, 1992 p. 207).

According to Kasper (1992) Leech’s (1983) distinction between pragmalinguistic, which refers to “the particular resources which a given language provides for conveying particular illocutions” (Leech,1983 p.11) and sociopragmatics, which refers to “sociological interface of pragmatics” (Leech, 1983 p.10) can affect pragmatic transfer separately. Hence, according to Thomas (1983) pragmalinguistic transfer refers to “the inappropriate transfer of speech act

strategies from one language to another, or transferring from the mother tongue to the target language of utterances which are semantically/syntactically equivalent, but which, because of different ‘interpreter bias’, tend to convey a different pragmatic force in the target language” (p. 101). On the other hand, sociopragmatic transfer, refers to the transfer of learners’ perceptions on how to perform speech acts in terms of certain sociological variables such as power, gender etc. from their mother tongue to the language that they are learning (Olshtain and Cohen, 1989).

Apart from the distinction between pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic transfer, another distinction of pragmatic transfer has also been suggested. According to Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) positive pragmatic transfer refers to the contexts where the usages and strategies of certain speech acts are similar in one’s L1 and L2. Such issues of transfer have not really been attractive to the scholars as it usually provides successful communication (Blum-Kulka, 1982; House and Kasper, 1987; Faerch and Kasper, 1989). On the contrary, negative pragmatic transfer, which happens when the pragmatic rules and strategies of learners’ L1 and L2 are different and the learners rely on the norms acceptable in their L1 (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993), has become more popular since it has yielded interesting results (Kasper, 1981; House, 1988; Garcia, 1989; Beebe et al., 1990)

LITERATURE REVIEW

Research studies based on the speech act of compliment responses have focused on many aspects such as the mostly accepted CR strategies of a specific culture and language, comparing various languages in terms of their CR strategies and finding out whether learners of a specific language transfer their CR strategies available in their L1 to their L2, which is also referred as interlanguage pragmatic studies. However, since the scope of the current research paper is limited to CR strategies of B2 level English learners of Turkish L1 background both in their L1 and L2, as well as comparing them to native speakers of American English to find out possible pragmatic transfer, literature reviewed under this section is restricted to CR studies in Turkish, comparative CR studies and interlanguage pragmatics studies in CR strategies.

Compliment Response Studies in Turkish

Istifci (2008) researched on the comparison between Turkish and English native speakers compliment response strategies as well as examining both groups in detail. For her data, 50

native Turkish and 25 native English speakers participated. Her results indicated that Turkish people usually utilized combined strategies and they usually combine thanking strategy with explaining, joking and credit shifting. Additionally, she stated that both groups varied visibly in terms of their CR strategies.

Kyzy (2012) compared compliment responses among Russian and Turkish speakers via 30 participants by asking them to complete written DCTs which include 12 questions on 4 types, which are appearance, ability, possession and characteristics. The study found that both languages differed in terms of the most frequent CR strategies they prefer and thus pointed to the possibility of a potential pragmatic transfer.

Sucuoğlu & Bahçelerli (2015) compared compliment responses among Native English speakers (6 participants) and Turkish ELT students (6 participants) via 12 participants by asking them to complete 6-item written DCTs which included several social situations. The paper found out that the CR strategies of the two groups differed in terms of non-linguistic sociological variables such as gender, power and status. The paper also concluded that the strategies the two groups employed were different. Consequently, the paper warned ELT publishers and teachers about the occurrence of potential pragmatic transfer.

Istifci (2017), in her study worked with 70 Intermediate level, 68 low-intermediate level Turkish and Chinese EFL students separately (total 276 students) and 25 Native English speakers. she used a 10-item written DCTs in English which include items on appearance, possession and ability. She firstly compared Turkish and Chinese low intermediate and intermediate level EFL students within themselves in terms of their strategies on CRs in English. She found out that the levels did not make up a difference within the EFL students of the same first language. Secondly, she compared Chinese and Turkish EFL learners' compliment response strategies in English. Her results contradicted with Istifci (2008) as her results showed that both Chinese and Turkish EFL learners employed acceptance strategy more frequently. Finally, the researcher also compared Chinese and Turkish EFL learners and English native speakers in terms of the differences and the similarities in the strategies they employ in CRs. According to her results non-native group and native group employed different strategies in terms of CRs in English.

Comparative Compliment Response Studies

Shahsavari et. al. (2014) analyzed native American English speakers and Iranian EFL learners' application of CRs in English via naturalistic role plays and retrospective interviews. Their results were also compatible with other comparative studies on CRs in that both groups differed in their utilization of CRs. The researchers believed that this was due to the fact that the EFL learners did not have access to enough cultural background as well as linguistic forms in order for them to achieve native-like production of CRs in English.

Shabani and Zeinali (2015) compared Persians and Canadians' use of CR strategies. In order to compare, they employed 30 Iranian native Persian speakers and 26 Canadian native English speakers and asked them to complete a DCT questionnaire. Their results revealed that there was a significant difference in the CR strategies applied by Persians and Canadians.

Tamimi Sa'd (2015) studied CR strategies of Iranian EFL learners within the scope of gender and power issues. His results indicated that irrespective of gender, the participants preferred 'acceptance', 'combination' and 'amendment' which were affected by their first language cultural norms. His qualitative results also argued that Iranian EFL learners wanted to refrain from threatening the positive face of others by accepting their compliments.

Cedar and Setiadi (2016) compared the use of Thai and Indonesian EFL learners' use of CRs in English by making use of a set of DCT questionnaires. Their results demonstrated significant differences in the CR strategies of the two groups: whereas Thai people found to accept compliments, Indonesians found to reject them. Therefore, the researchers suggested that their use of CRs in their L2 was mainly affected by the differences in their L1 culture.

Zanella (2017) compared American English speakers and Brazilian Portuguese speakers' preferences on CRs in their native languages through a set of DCT questionnaire in which many types and discourses were included. Her results showed differences between the two groups as Brazilians mostly preferred 'explanation' as a CR strategy while Americans chose either to accept or reject the compliments paid.

Although several researches have been conducted on CRs in numerous languages, as it can be observed not many of them focused on Turkish language. Therefore, I aim to examine the CR strategies of upper-intermediate level EFL learners of Turkish L1 background in both English and Turkish and compare their CR strategies to native speakers of American English to investigate potential pragmatic transfer to fill the gap in the literature.

METHODOLOGY

Quantitative research design was used to conduct this research and answer the research questions in order to (1) statistically analyze the most frequent CR strategies employed by different L1 users (i.e. Turkish and American English), (2) compare the CR strategies of Turkish native speakers in Turkish and English, and (3) examine the differences and similarities of CR strategies of both Turkish and American English speakers in English compliments.

Participants

This study included 46 participants at a preparatory school of a foundation university in Ankara, Turkey and 12 native American English speakers – 58 participants in total (Table 1). Native speakers were employed as a base-line data in order to account for a possible pragmatic transfer. Since English is spoken among various communities, choosing a specific variety is found to be better to compare non-native speakers' English usage. Furthermore, as contacting speakers of American English was more convenient for me, I employed convenience sampling method while employing native speaker participants. (Dörnyei, 2007).

Table 1

Demographic information of all the participants

| | Upper Intermediate Level EFL learners of Turkish L1 Background | | Native American English Speakers | |
|----------|--|-------|----------------------------------|------|
| | Female | Male | Female | Male |
| Number | 23 | 23 | 8 | 4 |
| Mean Age | 18.43 | 18.86 | 26.5 | 26.5 |

On the other hand, while selecting non-native participants, in order to make sure that all the participants meet the requirements, purposive sampling method (Patton, 2002) was applied. Therefore, firstly I asked only to upper-intermediate learners of English at the institution whose proficiency levels had been determined by the testing unit of the same institution. The reason why I worked with B2 level EFL learners is the fact that according to CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001), B2 level is seen as the level where learners are expected to sustain successful communication with the native speakers of their target language with confidence.

Furthermore, according to Odlin's (1989) definition of transfer, any language that is available to learners can affect pragmatic transfer issue, also learners who can speak a language at the B2 level or above can communicate with the native speakers successfully. Hence, as this research aimed to focus on pragmatic transfer of EFL learners who were Turkish native

speakers, their language background is of high importance. Thus, through a language background questionnaire I asked the participants whether they speak another foreign language and if so, what their proficiency level is. In addition, research on study/stay abroad context show that staying at a country where the target language is spoken for 6 months or more has an effect on one's pragmatic acquisition (Beltran 2014; Ren, 2019). Therefore, I also asked the participants whether they stayed in a foreign country and if so for how long. In the end, I had to remove 3 female participants and 4 male participants due to either their language background or stay abroad situation. Therefore, 12 native speakers of American English for the baseline data, 20 females and 19 males for the non-native English, native Turkish speaker participants (51 in total) were included for the data analysis (Table 2).

Table 2

Demographic information of the participants

| | Upper Intermediate Level EFL learners of Turkish L1 Background | | Native American English Speakers | |
|----------|--|-------|----------------------------------|------|
| | Female | Male | Female | Male |
| Number | 20 | 19 | 8 | 4 |
| Mean Age | 18.45 | 18.78 | 26.5 | 26.5 |

The departments and the majors of the participants vary; however, as all of them learn English at the preparatory school before starting their university education, I did not consider it to be a confounding variable.

Materials and Procedures

To collect data, I prepared a set of English written DCT questionnaire consisting of three compliment types for each type of compliment giver: peers (equal power) and teacher (high power). Compliment types for each compliment giver were decided upon conducting a pilot study prior to the present study in order to find out compliment types the learners are paid the most frequently. Accordingly, the compliment types included success, characteristics and classroom behavior from teachers, and physical appearance, characteristics and success from peers, respectively. When it comes to the gender issue, in order to let all the participants respond to DCTs by imagining the same gender, I asked participants both as written and orally to think of a female teacher who is between 30 to 35 years old since most of the teachers they come across every day at the institution consist of such instructors, and peers who share the same

gender with the participants. In order not to cause any confusion among participants originating from variables, I ordered the DCT items firstly by power relation (teacher and peer), then by compliment types.

DCTs as a data collection tool are criticized as some researchers believe that DCTs do not reflect the actual spoken language and they limit respondents to the space given for a response and consequently the data gathered results in being less detailed and shorter in length (Tran, 2006). On the other hand, DCTs allow researchers to gather a good amount of data in a short time, and also the researchers have an opportunity to control the social variables (Billmyer & Varghese, 2000). Therefore, DCT method was chosen deliberately since (1) collecting data naturally in school discourse on CR strategies would require me to make observations for years, (2) not many researches have been conducted in this area and DCTs may provide what the general perception of CR strategies are (3) it allowed me to work on power relation and compliment type variables.

As research mainly focuses on pragmatic transfer, the participants were asked to fill in two DCTs which were consisted of the same DCT items in two different languages. Originally the DCT items were written in English. Later, they were translated into Turkish by the researcher and two other English language instructors at the same institution, whose native language is also Turkish, separately in order to make sure the translation is successful. Consequently, the Turkish participants first completed the English version of the DCT questionnaire upon signing the informed consent form and two weeks later they did the Turkish version. This order (L2 before L1) was followed because writing in L1 first might have facilitated translation and recollection of strategies utilized in the L2 task (Hirose, 2003; Roca de Larios, Marín & Murphy, 2001). Native American English speakers received only the online version of the English version of the DCT questionnaire.

Data Analysis

Cheng's (2011) schema was utilized to analyze the data as it is the most recent one in the literature and it was tested before. Therefore, each participants' answers for the DCT items were analyzed by the researcher and two other knowledgeable instructors in order to make sure the analysis was reliable and free from researcher bias.

Upon deciding on the strategies of each CR of the participants, a nominal value was assigned for each micro strategy and they were entered manually using Statistical Package for

Social Sciences (SPSS) 23.0. In order to find out the most frequent CR strategies among Turkish and American English native speakers in their native languages as well as Turkish native speakers' CR strategies in their target language, I utilized frequency analyses. Then, in order to find out whether both groups' CR strategies in English differ significantly from each other, chi-square analysis was run.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

CR strategies employed by Turkish native speakers in Turkish

In order to find out the most frequent CR strategies employed by the Turkish native speakers for Turkish compliments, I employed frequency analysis via SPSS (Table 3). The results show that they most frequently utilized 'appreciation' micro strategy under 'acceptance' macro strategy for the compliments paid by their teachers regardless of the compliment type. On the other hand, for compliments they received from their peers, they preferred 'combination' macro strategy mostly, again regardless of the compliment type. Therefore, one can deduce that the compliment giver was more significant than compliment type as a variable, for the participants. Furthermore, this result shows as that speakers modify their CR strategies according to several social variables, as Sucuoğlu & Bahçelerli (2015) suggests.

Table 3

CR strategy frequencies of Turkish native speakers in Turkish

| | | DCT ITEMS | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------|-------------------|-----------|------|----|------|----|------|----|------|----|------|----|------|
| | | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | 5 | | 6 | |
| Macro Skills | Micro Skills | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % |
| Acceptance | Appreciation | 20 | 51,3 | 12 | 30,8 | 17 | 43,6 | 10 | 25,6 | 12 | 30,8 | 4 | 10,3 |
| | Agreeing | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2 | 5,1 | - | - | 2 | 5,1 |
| | Downgrading | - | - | 1 | 2,6 | 1 | 2,6 | - | - | 1 | 2,6 | 4 | 10,3 |
| | Qualifying | - | - | 1 | 2,6 | 3 | 7,7 | 2 | 5,1 | - | - | - | - |
| | Returning | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | 2,6 | - | - |
| | Non-idiomatic | - | - | 1 | 2,6 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Evasion | Credit Shifting | - | - | - | - | 2 | 5,1 | - | - | 1 | 2,6 | 1 | 2,6 |
| | Commenting | - | - | 4 | 10,3 | - | - | 2 | 5,1 | - | - | 1 | 2,6 |
| | Reassuring | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | 2,6 |
| | Offering | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| | Ignoring/Giggling | 6 | 15,4 | 10 | 25,6 | 6 | 15,4 | 2 | 5,1 | 1 | 2,6 | 6 | 15,4 |
| Combination | | 13 | 33,3 | 10 | 25,6 | 10 | 25,6 | 21 | 53,8 | 23 | 59 | 20 | 51,3 |

1-3 represent DCT items for high power

4-6 represent DCT items for equal power

Ruhi (2006) and Istifci (2008) both examined compliment exchanges of EFL learners of Turkish L1 background and they found that their participants tend to use the acceptance

strategies the most, as well. Hence, although it can be said that their results partially go hand in hand with present data, the frequent use of combination strategy of the learners for their peers seems to be unforeseen. Furthermore, when the micro strategies that constitute combination strategy which was used while responding to compliments paid by learners' peers were analyzed further, it can be observed that the type of the compliment actually played a role in choosing various multiple micro strategies as they employed (1) 'appreciation + offering' for compliments they received from their peers on their success such as 'teşekkürler, istersen bir sonraki sınav için beraber çalışabiliriz (Thanks, if you like we can study together for the next quiz)'; (2) 'appreciation + returning' for compliments they got on their physical appearance such as 'teşekkürler, senin de öyle (thanks, so is yours)'; and (3) 'appreciation + downgrading' for compliments they were paid on their characteristics such as 'teşekkürler, kim olsa aynı şeyi yapardı (thanks, everyone would do the same)'. Thus, it can be inferred that in order not to act too arrogant by simply accepting the compliments of their peers by thanking, learners might have preferred to explain further by combining different strategies for different compliment types and save both their and their peers' faces (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

CR strategies employed by Turkish native speakers in English

Another frequency analysis was run via SPSS so that I could examine the most frequent CR strategies employed by Upper-intermediate level EFL learners of Turkish L1 background in English (Table 4). Findings indicate that for the first DCT item which was on their success from their teacher, the learners utilized 'appreciation' micro strategy (71,8%) under 'acceptance' macro strategy (76,9%). For the second item which was on their characteristics from their teacher, the learners preferred 'ignoring/giggling' micro strategy (33,3%) under 'evasion' macro strategy (53,8%). Finally, for the third item which was on their classroom behavior from their teacher, they chose 'combination' strategy (30,8%) the most. Furthermore, for the DCT items 4-6 which were from their peers on their success, physical appearance and characteristics respectively, the learners used 'combination' macro strategy the most.

Table 4

CR strategy frequencies of Turkish native speakers in English

| | | DCT ITEMS | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------|-------------------|-----------|------|----|------|----|------|----|------|----|------|----|------|
| | | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | 5 | | 6 | |
| Macro Skills | Micro Skills | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % |
| Acceptance | Appreciation | 28 | 71,8 | 4 | 10,3 | 10 | 25,6 | 10 | 25,6 | 10 | 25,6 | 9 | 23,1 |
| | Agreeing | 2 | 5,1 | 3 | 7,7 | 1 | 2,6 | - | - | - | - | 1 | 2,6 |
| | Downgrading | - | - | 1 | 2,6 | 1 | 2,6 | - | - | 1 | 2,6 | 3 | 7,7 |
| | Qualifying | - | - | 1 | 2,6 | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | 2,6 |
| | Returning | - | - | - | - | 1 | 2,6 | - | - | 2 | 5,1 | - | - |
| | Non-idiomatic | - | - | 6 | 15,4 | 2 | 5,1 | 1 | 2,6 | - | - | 1 | 2,6 |
| Evasion | Credit Shifting | - | - | 7 | 17,9 | 2 | 5,1 | - | - | 1 | 2,6 | 2 | 5,1 |
| | Commenting | - | - | 1 | 2,6 | 2 | 5,1 | - | - | - | - | 1 | 2,6 |
| | Reassuring | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | 2,6 | - | - | - | - |
| | Offering | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | 2,6 |
| | Ignoring/Giggling | 1 | 2,6 | 13 | 33,3 | 8 | 20,5 | 3 | 7,7 | - | - | 1 | 2,6 |
| Combination | | 8 | 20,5 | 3 | 7,7 | 12 | 30,8 | 24 | 61,5 | 25 | 64,1 | 19 | 48,7 |

1-3 represent DCT items for high power

4-6 represent DCT items for equal power

In contrast to the learners' most frequent CR strategies in Turkish, in English, they tend to utilize various strategies for the compliments from their teachers who are higher from them in terms of power. One way to explain this situation could be learners' insufficient pragmalinguistic (Thomas, 1983) or sociolinguistic knowledge (Olshtain and Cohen, 1989) as they kept silent either by ignoring or giggling; whereas they chose to appreciate the same compliment's Turkish version. Furthermore, they tend to combine '*appreciation + qualifying*' micro strategies to respond to the compliment on their classroom behavior from their teacher. One possible way to elaborate this situation would be that learners' might have felt appreciated and therefore had an urge to continue expressing themselves.

CR strategies employed by American English speakers in English

One final frequency analysis was conducted to observe how native American English speakers respond to CRs most frequently (Table 5). The data demonstrated that they utilized 'appreciation' micro strategy most frequently for the compliments from their teachers, except from the 2nd DCT item which was on their characteristics since they used '*credit shifting*' micro strategy (58,3%) under '*Evasion*' macro strategy (83,3%).

Moreover, for the compliments from their peers, they chose '*Appreciation*' micro strategy (66,7%) under '*Acceptance*' macro strategy (75%) for compliment on their success, and '*combination*' macro strategy (50%) for the compliment on their physical appearance. For the

compliment on their characteristics from their peers; however, the CR strategies seemed complicated. Although ‘*combination*’ macro strategy looked as if it was the most frequent CR strategy (33,3), when ‘*appreciation*’ and ‘*downgrading*’ micro strategies under ‘*Acceptance*’ macro strategy (50%), the latter turned out to be the most frequent macro strategy.

Usually in American English, compliments serve as formulas to function as greetings, thanking and even apologies in which the compliment giver tries to create or maintain rapport with the hearer (Wolfson, 1983, 1986; Manes 1983; Manes & Wolfson 1981); thus, Americans mostly tend to accept compliments as they are aware of the real function of the compliments (Istifci, 2017). However, the result of the present study contradicts with this fact. The reason behind this situation might be due to the school discourse in which all the DCT items were written and the power relation between the participants as well as the compliment givers (teacher – high power and peers – equal power).

Table 5

CR strategy frequencies of native speakers of American English in English

| | | DCT ITEMS | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------|-------------------|-----------|------|---|------|----|-----|---|------|---|------|---|------|
| | | 1 | | 2 | | 3 | | 4 | | 5 | | 6 | |
| Macro Skills | Micro Skills | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % | F | % |
| Acceptance | Appreciation | 11 | 91,7 | 1 | 8,3 | 12 | 100 | 8 | 66,7 | 5 | 41,7 | 3 | 25 |
| | Agreeing | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| | Downgrading | - | - | 1 | 8,3 | - | - | 1 | 8,3 | - | - | 3 | 25 |
| | Qualifying | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| | Returning | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | 8,3 | - | - |
| | Non-idiomatic | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Evasion | Credit Shifting | - | - | 7 | 58,3 | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2 | 16,7 |
| | Commenting | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| | Reassuring | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| | Offering | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| | Ignoring/Giggling | - | - | 3 | 25 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Combination | | 1 | 8,3 | - | - | - | - | 3 | 25 | 6 | 50 | 4 | 33,3 |

1-3 represent DCT items for high power

4-6 represent DCT items for equal power

Differences in English CR strategies of Turkish L1 and English L1 speakers

When the most frequent CR strategies for each DCT item in English in both groups analyzed carefully it can be seen that although for the first, fifth and sixth items both groups mostly preferred the same CR strategies, for the rest of them they chose different ones (Table 6).

Table 6

The most frequent CR strategy differences between two groups in English

| | DCT Items | | | | | |
|-----------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| EFL Group | Appreciation (71,8%) | Ignoring/giggling (33%) | Combination (30,8%) | Combination (61,5%) | Combination (64,1%) | Combination (48,7%) |
| Native Speakers | Appreciation (91%) | Credit shifting (58%) | Appreciation (100%) | Appreciation (66,7%) | Combination (50%) | Combination (33,3%) |

Furthermore, in order to test whether the frequencies of different CR strategies of the two groups for the same DCT items were significant, three chi-square analyses for items 2, 3 and 4 were conducted via SPSS. The results indicated that (1) for the 2nd DCT item there was not a significant difference between the frequencies of the different CR strategies of the two groups ($X^2= 10.776$, $df= 8$, $p= .215$); (2) for the 3rd DCT item there was a significant difference between the frequencies of the different CR strategies of the two groups ($X^2= 20.685$, $df= 8$, $p= .008$) and (3) for the 4th DCT item there was again a significant difference between the frequencies of the different CR strategies of the two groups ($X^2= 11.479$, $df= 5$, $p= .043$).

For the 2nd DCT item which was on participants' characteristics from their teacher, although Turkish EFL learners' and native American English speakers' mostly preferred CR strategies seem to be different, one can further observe that both of those micro strategies in fact belong to the same macro strategy, which is 'evasion' macro strategy. Hence, this fact can explain why the frequency difference did not turn out to be significant for this DCT item. When it comes to the CR differences for the 3rd and 4th DCT items, which were on their classroom behavior from their teachers and success from their peers, respectively, it can be inferred that the learners did not have enough sociopragmatic (Olshtain and Cohen, 1989) or pragmalinguistic (Thomas, 1983) information on how to respond to compliments on above mentioned types by above mentioned people. Therefore, as Shahsavari (2014) suggests, exposing learners to authentic texts and conversations and scaffold their intake of the sociocultural norms of the target language would be one of the efficient ways to improve this situation.

Differences in CR strategies of Turkish L1 speakers in both Turkish and English

One further way to explain the different CR strategy use of the two groups for the same DCT items in English could be pragmatic transfer (Kasper, 1992). Therefore, as a final analysis

I compared how Turkish L1 speakers responded to the same compliments in Turkish as well as in English (Table 7).

Table 7

The most frequent CR strategy differences of Turkish L1 speakers in Turkish and English

| Languages | DCT Items | | | | | |
|-----------|-------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| ENG | Appreciation (71,8%) | Ignoring/giggling (33%) | Combination (30,8%) | Combination (61,5%) | Combination (64,1%) | Combination (48,7%) |
| TR | Appreciation (51,3%) | Appreciation (30,8%) | Appreciation (43,6%) | Combination (53,8%) | Combination (59%) | Combination (51,3%) |

As it can be seen from table 7, except from the second and the third items, EFL learners utilized the same CR strategies most frequently. At first glance, this situation might be interpreted as a sign for pragmatic transfer (Kasper, 1992). However, when the CR usages of both groups in English DCT (Table 6) is examined again, it can be seen that, there was a significant difference only between the third and the fourth items. Hence, for the rest of the items one can conclude that EFL learners positively transferred their pragmatic knowledge from their mother tongue (Turkish) to target language (English) (Kasper and Blum-Kulka, 1993)

On the other hand, the third DCT item, which was on EFL learners' classroom behavior from their teacher, yields an interesting finding. Even though they attempted to employ different strategies for different languages, the strategy they employed for English was not in line with the native norms. Quite interestingly, however, if learners had responded the same way as they did so in Turkish, they could have achieved using native norms in their CRs. Therefore, this can be interpreted as such: though it is clear that learners could not adopt native norms while speaking in their target language, it could still be promising in that they are aware of the fact that they need to modify their strategies depending on the language they speak (Wolfson, 1981; Holmes & Brown, 1987).

Finally, the fourth DCT item which was on learners' success from their peers could be interpreted as negative pragmatic transfer (Kasper and Blum-Kulka, 1993) as EFL learners tend to employ the same strategy both in Turkish and English version of same item (Table 7), whereas native speakers utilized another strategy (Table 5). Although observing one instance of pragmatic transfer in six DCT items on several types from two sources should not be considered as a disappointing result, it must still be improved. This result might indicate that learners lack the necessary information on how to respond to that type of compliment specifically. Moreover, since instances of using the target norms appropriately has also been

observed, the fact learners negatively transferred their pragmatic knowledge for this particular DCT item can be as a result of insufficient sociopragmatic (Olshtain and Cohen, 1989) information on how to respond to compliments on their success from peers.

CONCLUSION

The present study aimed to find out whether upper-intermediate level EFL learners of Turkish L1 background transfer their pragmatic knowledge from Turkish – their native language – to English – their target language – through analyzing their CR strategies both in Turkish and English and comparing the latter with the CR strategies of native speakers of American English. Therefore, 39 EFL learners' (20 females, 19 males) and 12 native speakers' (8 females, 4 males) responses to compliments on various types from compliment givers who share different power status with the participants (teachers – high power and peers – equal power) were collected via DCT. Then, the data was analyzed by categorizing the CRs via Cheng's (2011) schema, examining the frequencies of the CR strategies of the participants through SPSS and testing if the frequency differences between two groups are significant by running chi-square analyses.

The results proved that speakers of different languages employ particular CR strategies for the compliments they receive in order to protect their and society's face (Wolfson, 1981; Holmes & Brown, 1987). Furthermore, the findings also demonstrated that participants operated various CR strategies for several social variables, such as the power relation between the compliment giver and receiver and compliment type (Sucuoğlu & Bahçelerli, 2015).

When it comes to the case of pragmatic transfer, the results showed that except from two items, EFL learners were able to modify their CR strategies according to the language they speak, which contradicts with the findings of Istifci (2008, 2017), Sucuoğlu & Bahçelerli (2015) and Kyzy (2012) who found out that Turkish EFL learners tend to transfer their pragmatic knowledge which usually result in pragmatic failure. This fact might mean that they are able to sustain successful communication with native speakers and it can be related with learners' proficiency level in English since according to CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) upper-intermediate level is seen as the threshold level in which learners are expected to communicate with the native speakers without communication breakdowns for the first time.

Before concluding, the limitations of this research should also be addressed. This study adopted quantitative methodology only for data analysis. However, through combining it with

qualitative data, the present study would be able to enrich its data and draw conclusions which rely on participants' statements on their motivation in learning English, how they learnt English, whether pragmatics was in their curriculum and if so if they received pragmatics education by implicit or explicit teaching methods, rather than researchers presuppositions and background knowledge. Moreover, the scope of the study was limited to one institution and 39 EFL students, Therefore, further research should pay attention to these limitations.

All in all, the results of the present paper might support language teachers in terms of finding out the areas in which learners need further help. Therefore, the findings might lead teachers to be more aware of the learners' L1 background and modify their instruction techniques accordingly for the areas where learners' L1 and L2 differ in terms of pragmatic norms and provide their learners with real-life like tasks and media to create awareness. On the other hand, as English is spoken widely in today's world, it is inevitable that there are varieties among English. Thus, different perceptions of politeness and usages of speech act strategies might be tolerated more rather than being judgmental and expecting language learners to produce native-like strategies. Finally, based on the results of the current research, further research can compare several EFL learners from various proficiency levels or conduct a longitudinal study with the same participants to observe whether pragmatic transfer occurs more in lower levels and pragmatic competence develops in according with learners' proficiency level.

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**TURKISH EFL STUDENTS' INTERCULTURAL AWARENESS, THEIR
ATTITUDES TOWARDS INTEGRATION OF CULTURE INTO ENGLISH CLASSES
AND THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTERCULTURAL AWARENESS AND
EXAM SUCCESS**

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed to investigate Turkish EFL students' perception of culture, their cultural awareness, their attitudes towards the integration of culture and the relationship between cultural awareness and exam success. The participants included 52 Turkish EFL students studying at a private university in Ankara, Turkey. The data were collected via a questionnaire with 25 items consisting of multiple-choice questions, open ended questions and 5-point Likert-scale items and via 3 quiz scores of the participants. To analyse the data gathered from the questionnaire, both quantitative and qualitative methods were utilized. The results indicated that students conceptualized culture in its *sociological sense*. They had a high cultural awareness. Accordingly, they showed positive attitudes towards the integration of culture into their language classes, preferably via visuals and discussions. However, their positive views shifted when it came to culture assessment. Finally, no relationship was observed between students' cultural awareness and exam success. Based on the literature and these results, it can be argued that it is highly important to integrate cultural components into language teaching. The current study includes several indications regarding students' ideas about culture teaching such as what to learn, how to learn or why to learn culture.

Keywords: *EFL students, culture perception, (inter)cultural awareness, (inter)cultural competence, exam success*

INTRODUCTION

The highly globalized world we live in brings along the necessity to communicate efficiently and effectively in a multilingual and multicultural environment. As a result of this necessity, playing a curial role from global trade to education, English has become the international language of our age, i.e. *lingua franca* (Alptekin, 2002; Jenkins, 2015). So much so that, now there are more L2 users of English who come from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds than native speakers of English (Crystal, 2008). Both one of the reasons and consequences of this interesting situation is that English has been taught as a foreign language in many levels of education all around the world. Turkey is among the countries implementing English language teaching as an essential part of their educational systems. Several universities in Turkey have adopted English as their medium of education (e.g. Boğaziçi University and Middle East Technical University), and these universities offer students a year of intensive English language preparation before their departmental education. For a majority of students, this one year is the time when they are exposed to English the most. Although Sifakis (2014) suggests that education programs should leave behind the traditional EFL perspectives and methods and apply ones that are more appropriate to this new era, Turkish preparatory schools' curricula still mainly focus on traditional grammar and skills building.

The question educators and language learners should ask is that “Is good grammatical knowledge or a rich lexical repertoire adequate for successful intercultural communication in this new world?”. The key element here, which was identified as “the fifth language skill” by Tomalin (2008) and thus needs to be paid more attention, is culture. The role of culture, cultural awareness and intercultural communicative competence have been widely investigated in language teaching for the past couple of decades (Alptekin, 2002; Baker, 2011; Byram, 1997; Kramsch, 1993; Tomalin & Stempleski, 1993). As Bennet (1993) says “Learning a language without its culture makes a person a fluent fool who speaks a language well but does not understand the social or philosophical content of that language.” (p.16). In order not to be “fluent fools”, students need to realize that a good proficiency of language skills and rules does not guarantee the full mastery of target language; intercultural awareness is an important ingredient of this recipe as well. Despite the fact that there have been many studies detailing Turkish pre-service or in-service teachers' intercultural awareness and their attitudes towards integration of culture into language teaching (Bayyurt, 2006; Bayyurt, 2017; Bektaş-Çetinkaya & Çelik, 2013; Belli, 2018; Çamlıbel, 1998; Hatipoğlu, 2012; Hismanoğlu, 2011; Önalın, 2004; Yeşil & Demiröz, 2017), to the best of the author's knowledge, little research has been

conducted on Turkish preparatory school students' point of views on the same matter (Çalışkan, 2009; Güven, 2015) For this reason, the current study aims to fill this gap in the literature. It is believed that investigating this issue can help to understand where Turkish EFL students stand regarding cultural awareness and their readiness to learn target culture, and hence, it can help teachers to have a perspective on when and how to integrate cultural content into their language classes. Also, whether there is a relationship between cultural awareness and exam success is another point that has not yet been dealt in the literature. Therefore, to address these needs, the present study aims to answer the following questions:

RQ1: How do Turkish EFL students define culture?

RQ2: What is the attitude of EFL students towards culture?

RQ3: What are Turkish EFL students' views on the integration of culture into English language classes?

RQ4: Is there a relationship between students' intercultural awareness and their exam success?

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Definition of culture

The very nature of culture makes it rather difficult to qualify and define. As Moran (2001) suggests, the fact that each discipline approaches culture from a different viewpoint makes the matter even more complex. Moreover, considering that a nation can consist of diverse populations, ethnic groups and generations whose cultural values and practices may vary, attributing culture to a nation is also a problematic issue when it comes to the definition of it (Bayyurt, 2006). However, going into details of different disciplinary perspectives and cultural diversities is beyond the scope of this paper.

Quite a number of scholars in the literature have put forward different categorizations and descriptions of culture with a variety of focus (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010; Kramsch, 1993; Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952; Matsumoto, 1996; Spencer-Oatey, 2008; Tylor, 1871). Accordingly, the definition and perception of culture has drastically changed over the years. It appears that it has moved from a more static angle to a more dynamic one. While the earlier approaches considered culture as a set of values, traditions and moral principles passing through

generations of a nation, more recent approaches take into account the effect of communication and regard culture as a living and co-constructed organism (Bayyurt, 2006; 2017).

Adaskou, Britten & Fahsi (1990) characterize culture as a notion comprising of four dimensions. *The aesthetic sense* (i.e. culture with a capital C) refers to more tangible aspects of culture, or cultural products, such as literature, media, music and cinema. Contrary to the aesthetic sense, *the sociological sense* (i.e. culture with a small c) is about the unseen part of the iceberg. It is not possible to directly see it, a careful observation and spending some time in that culture is necessary. Some examples of the sociological sense are customs, norms, interpersonal and family relations. Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis contributes *the semantic sense* of culture. It deals with the perceptions and thought processes. Finally, *the pragmatic (sociolinguistic) sense* is about the appropriacy of the language used in a particular culture. Even though it is a challenging term to conceptualize, Adaskou et al. (1990) provide a comprehensive and integrative definition of culture, and it will be used as the framework in this study to analyse the answers of the first research question.

(Inter)cultural Awareness

Baker (2012) basically explicates cultural awareness (CA) as cognizance of the essential role of culture in interaction, communication and language learning, both in the contexts of first and foreign languages. CA underlies the skills of communicative competence and successful intercultural communication. Thus, it promotes the idea that culture should not be disregarded in language classes, and learners should become aware of the constituents of their culture and other cultures. Intercultural awareness (ICA) is pretty much in line with CA concepts, while also recognizing the needs of the globalized world where English is the lingua franca. According to Baker (2012), ICA is “ a conscious understanding of the role culturally based forms, practices, and frames of understanding can have in intercultural communication, and an ability to put these conceptions into practice in a flexible and context specific manner in real time communication.” (p. 66). Baker (2012) also provides the components of ICA consisting of 3 levels and 12 items (see p. 66). These levels are presented as starting from the realization of the relationship between culture and language specifically in L1 (Level 1), moving to awareness of multiple perspectives within the same culture (Level 2), and finally to the dynamic understanding of international communication required within the ELF context (Level 3).

To gain ICA, language learners need to avoid ethnocentric attitudes, be open-minded about varieties of cultural norms and be supporters of the equality of cultures together with their similarities and differences. It is vital to raise the “perspective consciousness” of learners (Tseng, 2012, p. 12), so that learners can improve their abilities of negotiation and mediation when encounter with different cultural frames and communication modes, which is integral for intercultural communication (Baker, 2011). However, it is not always easy to develop ICA in the EFL classrooms because of constraints such as curricula lacking time dedicated to culture teaching and teachers lacking cultural knowledge or knowledge of how to implement it (Ho, 2009). It is also important which aspect of culture is integrated into syllabuses and language books. It seems that it is mostly aesthetic sense of culture included in language classes and books; yet, considering that they are more instrumental for the development of ICA, the other senses of culture (e.g. sociological, semantic and pragmatic) also need to be included in EFL classes as much as possible (Tomalin & Stempleski, 1993).

Intercultural (communicative) Competence

Everyone has an adequate level of communicative competence in their native language allowing them to communicate without a major misunderstanding. Similarly, to be able to communicate with native speakers of a language which has been learned as an L2, or in an international context where people have different cultural values, intercultural communicative competence (ICC) should be developed as well (Fantini & Tirmizi, 2006). However, this successful intercultural communication cannot be merely achieved with the mastery of phonological, lexical and syntactic features of a language, as mentioned in the previous, CA and ICA constitute the backbone of it (Baker, 2015; Spencer-Oatey & Franklin, 2009).

Byram (1997) provides one of the most extensive frameworks of ICC. He proposes 5 factors leading to ICC, and thus, he proposes that they can be implemented into language classes and ICC assessment of learners. He puts *critical cultural awareness* at the centre of this framework. The rest of the factors, *attitudes, knowledge, skills of interpreting and relating, and skills of discovery and interaction*, are aligned around the core. Firstly, he claims that learners need to avoid prejudices, stereotypes, and both negative and positive attitudes towards other cultures and cultural values in order to create successful interaction. They simply need to be curious, open and ready to ignore their pre-existing perceptions and judgements towards their interlocutors’ beliefs, ideas and behaviours, but instead, to try to empathize with them, which is also called the ability to ‘decentre’ (Kohlberg, Levine, & Hower, 1983). Furthermore, due to

the natural process of socialization, it is inevitable that learners will bring along their knowledge of cultural values and practices, and principles of social interaction both in their own country and in their interlocutors' country into an intercultural interaction. Hence, it is important for learners to be aware of the fact that this knowledge and perceptions about other cultures may not always match the reality. Finally, Byram suggests learners to have the skills of identifying ethnocentric perspectives and areas of dysfunction in an intercultural interaction, acquiring new knowledge of others' cultural practices, and modifying and mediating them during interactions between speakers of their culture and foreign culture.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A review of the literature has shown that culture and the aspects related to it have been investigated for a while now. It seems that both pre-service and in-service EFL teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards culture, integration of culture into language classes, and their (inter)cultural awareness and competence have been among topics which have been considerably studied in the Turkish context. On the other hand, there is a scarcity of research on the topics in the same vein from the perspective of ELF language learners.

In both of her studies, Bayyurt (2006, 2017) inquires the perspectives of non-native EFL teachers on culture. Pursuing a qualitative research method, Bayyurt (2006) conducted semi-structured interviews with 12 ELF teachers who had been working at both private and state high schools. The analysis of the interviews indicated that almost all the teachers were aware of the crucial relationship between culture and language. However, the level of the integration of culture and the content of culture related issues covered in their classes varied. With similar research questions, in her second study, Bayyurt (2017) analysed 12 non-native English teachers' conceptualization of culture and how they relate culture into their practices by means of semi-structured and focus group interviews. The data showed that apart from the sociolinguistic sense, the participants mentioned all the other aspects of culture. Furthermore, even though the coursebook and materials that they are required to follow in the classroom do not support it, the participants stated that they gave importance to the improvement of their students' ICA, and they utilized some classroom activities for this purpose. As well as exploring English language teachers' perceptions of culture teaching, Yeşil & Demiröz (2017), examined their perceptions about the effect of culture teaching on student motivation. The results collected through semi-structured surveys with 7 language teachers working at School of Foreign Languages of universities demonstrated that the lack of time allocated in the curricula

was a major setback for their endeavour of culture teaching, and the participants considered that culture teaching had positive influence on their students' willingness to learn more about the language itself and its cultural background. Additionally, Karabınar & Güler (2012) conducted a questionnaire to 155 EFL instructors (123 Turkish, 32 native speakers) teaching at preparatory schools of state or private universities. They investigated the attitudes of teachers towards culture by taking into account 1) the type of the institution they teach, 2) being NEST or non-NEST, 3) the training courses on teaching culture they have taken, and 4) the professional development activities they have participated in. For the first two variables, no significant difference was revealed. However, for the other two variables, the results revealed that they had significant effect on the participants' attitudes.

Belli (2018) researched ELT students' cultural awareness and their approach to incorporation of target culture into language instruction. A quantitative research method and analysis was applied. It was found out that the participants were mostly culturally aware and had positive approach to culture and its incorporation. While variables such as their birthplace, the type of high school, and the experience abroad did not have a significant influence on this positive attitude, female participants showed more positive attitude towards culture than males. In her mix-method study, Atay (2005) questioned the opportunities of prospective English teachers to gain and enhance their knowledge about the target language cultures, and their reflection on cultural content offered in their coursebooks. Almost all of the participants remarked that the available opportunities to learn about target cultures were unsatisfactory. Therefore, this situation caused them to feel inadequate while dealing with cultural issues in the class. Nevertheless, only few of them were willing to take action to improve their cultural awareness and their practices of culture teaching in language classrooms. Differently from the previous researchers, in his thesis, Kaçar (2019) explored the views of pre-service teachers on the integration of Turkish cultural content into English language classes, and the place of Turkish culture in their intercultural training. The study carried out with 80 pre-service teachers who were studying at the ELT department of a state university in Ankara. Despite that they were in favour of the integration of Turkish cultural elements into EFL classes, and they believed in that it can have a considerable positive effect on the intercultural competence development of learners, their own intercultural competence failed to satisfy due to the fact that their departmental courses did not offer sufficient practices to raise their CA and ICA.

On the other hand, for their master's theses, Çalışkan (2009) and Güven (2015) implemented their instruments on preparatory school students with the intention of discovering

their ICA and views on learning culture in class. Also, they studied whether there was any effect of different factors (e.g. gender, age, reasons for learning English, having been abroad etc.) on students' attitude towards culture and culture learning. Similar to pre-service and in-service teachers' perceptions, English language learners showed a positive approach to target culture and the inclusion of cultural components into their classes. While in Çalışkan's research age and gender were influencing factors, in Güven's research, students' reasons for learning the language played a significant role.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study included 52 Turkish EFL students studying at a private university in Ankara, Turkey. At the time of the data collection, all the participants were A2 level students in the preparatory school of this university. Elementary level students were chosen for the current study because previous similar studies did not analyse this level. The number of female ($N= 25$) and male ($N= 27$) students was almost equal. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 23 ($M= 19$). Prior to preparatory school, students had studied English for several years: 1 to 4 years ($N= 15$), 5 to 8 years ($N= 16$), 9 to 12 years ($N= 14$), and 13+ years ($N= 7$). Around one third of the participants had been abroad for various reasons (e.g. travelling, family visit, parental business trips), but none of them spent more than 2 months in any of the visited countries. The participants were also asked to state 3 reasons why they were learning English. Their reasons to learn English were considered as either intrinsic or extrinsic (Deci & Ryan, 2000). It became evident that a great majority of the participants (82.5%) had extrinsic motivations (e.g. professional or educational requirement). Moreover, they were asked to order a few language components (grammar, speaking, listening, reading, writing, vocabulary, pronunciation, culture) according to their importance. While speaking was ranked as the most important component for language acquisition by 25 participants, culture was the least important for 20 participants.

Data Collection Instrument

The data for this study were collected via a questionnaire with 25 items and 3 quiz scores of the participants.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire used in this study was adapted from Çalışkan (2009) and Güven's (2015) studies, both of which had similar research topics. The instrument consisted of 25 items and 4 parts in order to obtain information about the participants' backgrounds and answer each research question: 1) personal information, 2) definition of culture (RQ1), 3) cultural awareness (RQ2) and 4) integration of culture into English classes (RQ3). The second part included only 1 open-ended question. Except 1 multiple-choice question at the beginning, 14 items of the third part were in 5-point Likert scale format (1-Strongly disagree, 2-Disagree, 3-Undecided, 4-Agree, 5-Strongly agree). Four of the scale items were phrased to reflect low ICA (i.e. reverse items: 4, 9, 12, 16) The internal reliability of this Likert scale was tested with Cronbach's Alpha coefficient (Cronbach, 1951). According to George and Mallery (2003), the Alpha score of .78 confirmed that the scale was reliable. The final part included 2 open-ended and 7 multiple choice questions each with several options. At the end of these multiple-choice questions, the option of 'other' was provided as well, which gave participants the freedom of adding their ideas if they deemed necessary. Keeping in mind that the English level of the participants might have an effect on their comprehension of the items, a Turkish version of this instrument was provided. Since both English and Turkish versions of the items were available in Çalışkan and Güven's theses, there was no need of translation from English to Turkish. Lastly, a native speaker of Turkish who was also interested in similar research topics was consulted to examine the wording and comprehensibility of the items.

Quiz Content

With the purpose of investigating the relationship between students' intercultural awareness and their exam success, the mean scores of the students' 3 quiz results were analysed. These quizzes were administered in 3 consecutive weeks at their preparatory school as a part of the curriculum. They consisted of 4 parts and tested students' grammar, vocabulary, writing and either reading or listening skills (2 reading and 1 listening tests for these particular quizzes). Lasting one class hour (45 minutes), each quiz had a cumulative nature. Also, except the writing parts, all the questions were multiple chose. The highest possible total score was 60.

Data Collection and Analysis

The data for the study were collected from 3 classes where the researcher had been teaching at that time. The students in these classes were informed about the scope and aim of the present study. The participation was on voluntary basis, and those who were willing to take part were provided with the consent form and the data collection instrument. In case that they needed further clarifications regarding the items, the researcher remained in the classroom while the volunteers were filling out the questionnaire.

To analyse the data gathered from the questionnaire, both quantitative and qualitative methods were utilized. While the Likert scale items and multiple-choice questions were analysed with quantitative method, the 3 open-ended questions and the ‘other’ options of the multiple-choice questions were analysed with qualitative method. The quantitative responses were computed with SPSS software version 25. Percentages and mean scores of the Likert scale items, and frequencies of the multiple-choice questions were examined. Finally, for the 3 open-ended questions, as Taylor and Bogdan (1984) suggests the “constant comparative method” was applied. Thus, there were no pre-determined codes or categories. By thorough and repeated examination of the answers, comprehensive codes emerged, and their frequencies were calculated.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, each research question will be investigated in the light of the data gathered via the data collection instrument and will be discussed in relation to the literature.

How do Turkish EFL students define culture?

In order to answer this question, the participants were asked to provide a brief definition of culture or write the first thoughts that come to their minds when they hear/think of the term. Although three of the students opted not to answer this question and two of them gave a definition of being cultured rather than culture, a variety of definitions were given. It should be noted that the definitions of culture were coded thematically, and since almost all of the students referred to more than one aspect of culture in their responses, the total number of codes ($N=87$) exceeds the number of the participants. Among the key words used to describe culture, the most frequent ones were “traditions and customs” ($f=15$), “common set of values passing through

generations” ($f= 16$) and “common lifestyle/daily life” ($f= 10$). Similar to the results of Kaçar’s study (2019) as it can be seen in the examples below (participants 13 & 25), it seems that for most of the students, culture was a society-bound, static concept lack of change and dynamism. Only five of the students mentioned that culture can be fluid and changeable (participant 52).

Participant 13:

Culture is the lifestyle, traditions and customs of a nation that have been passed on since the existence of that nation.

Participant 25:

Culture is a part of a country or a society carrying national values and passing through generations.

Participant 52:

I think, culture is people’s expression of their own manner of life. This manner of life is bound to change because our current culture is not the same as 50 years ago.

When aforementioned codes were analysed within the framework proposed by Adaskou et al. (1990), it is evident that the great majority of the students’ definitions (67.8 %) conceptualized culture in the *sociological sense*. In these definitions, the elements related to small c culture such as “values”, “traditions”, “behaviours”, “habits”, “belief system” and “differences among nations” were uttered repeatedly by the EFL students. This result appears to be parallel with the findings of the studies conducted by Bayyurt (2006), Hatipoğlu (2012), Kaçar (2019) and Önalın (2004) who explored pre-service and in-service teachers’ perceptions about culture. Even though some studies show that capital C (aesthetic sense) and small c (sociological sense) themes are distributed almost equally in the EFL coursebooks used in Turkey (Böcü & Razi, 2016), only 4.6 % of the student definitions dealt culture in its *aesthetic sense*. Quite similar to Hatipoğlu’s (2012) findings, none of the those included any forms of art, literature or architecture, the only capital C element mentioned was “common history”. 12.6 % of the definitions mentioned clothes and food, which Adaskou et al. (1990) indicate that they can be considered as culturally distinctive examples of *semantic sense*. Despite the fact that it was one of the least prominent aspects in the previous research with pre-service teachers (Hatipoğlu, 2012; Kaçar, 2019), *pragmatic sense* was the second most frequent aspect of culture mentioned by the ELF students (15%). Several students defined culture as “a nation’s common language” and specified that “language is a manifestation of culture” and “culture involves how people communicate in a particular way”. This can be interpreted as a positive indicator for the participants’ intercultural awareness.

What is the attitude of EFL students towards culture?

In order to answer the second research question, the participants were asked to rate a 5-point Likert scale consisting of 14 items in the third part of the questionnaire. Before this scale, in an attempt to explore what is students' perception of target culture, a multiple-choice question was incorporated as well. Students ticked off the cultures that came to their minds when they thought of English language. Only 4 answers out of 95 indicated that "no particular country's culture" came to mind. The results showed that the students associated English language primarily with "British culture" ($f= 38$). This association may stem from the coursebook used in the classroom. It belongs to a world-famous British publishing company and by extension, has a rich content of British-related culture. The second most popular answer was "American culture" ($f = 26$). Turkish EFL students' familiarity with American culture and its association with English language may result from the worldwide popularity of American TV shows and movies (see also the next section, item 25). "Culture of other countries where English is the native language" were chosen 14 times. Finally, the least popular cultural links of English language were with "culture of countries where English is spoken as a foreign language" ($f= 7$) and "culture of countries where English is the official language" ($f= 6$). It was promising in terms of their ICA that some of the students were aware that English language does not fall under the hegemony of British or American cultures.

The mean scores of the Likert scale items were examined to find out EFL students' perception regarding culture. Descriptive analysis showed that apart from the fifth item ($M= 3.00$), the mean scores of each item were above 3, which stands for "undecided" ($M_{total}= 4.14$, $SD_{total}= .46$). Overall, this can be interpreted as a positive orientation towards culture. Nevertheless, One-sample T-test was run for the mean scores of each item and total mean score to determine whether this assumption was statistically supported as well. Firstly, to check the assumption of normality, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was employed. It turned out that the data was normally distributed ($p > .05$), and indeed, there was a significant difference between the total mean score and the test value of 3 ($t(51)= 17.57$, $p < 0001$). The detailed descriptive and One-sample T-test analyses of each item appear in Appendix A.

These results revealed that the students were conscious of the corner stones needed for ICA and ICC. First and foremost, they know that there is a strong bond between language and culture (item 6), and English is the lingua franca of our age (item 3). As it is supported with their answers in the matter of which culture they associate with English language, the students rejected the idea that English language reflects only one country's cultural values (item 4);

moreover, they expect to be introduced cultural elements of different world countries (item 7). However, they were undecided whether it is necessary to know about the target countries' cultures in order to speak English well (item 5). The underlying reason for this indecision may be due to the fact that when it comes to speaking achievement, they place more emphasis on the other language components such as grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation than culture (see section 4.1). Furthermore, as Tseng (2012) suggests, based on their desire to get familiar with the similarities and differences between their culture and other cultures (item 8 & 14), it can be argued that the students have attained a certain level of 'perspective consciousness'. Lastly, the high mean scores of the items 10, 13 and 15 point out that they have also recognized culture as a crucial factor for successful intercultural communication (Baker, 2011; Byram, 1997).

What are Turkish EFL Students' Views on the Integration of Culture into English Language Classes?

In consequence of their high ICA, the students were also rather positive about the integration of culture into their classes (item 17). Only 23% of the them were against this integration. Among the reasons provided, they were of the opinion that some cultural issues could negatively affect Turkish culture ($f= 6$), cultural topics were controversial in their nature ($f= 5$) and their departments did not require cultural knowledge ($f= 5$). One of the students questioned on the "other" section whether it would be appropriate or beneficial to teach target culture in an education system where even the local culture has not been taught. Another student specified that it was a pointless endeavour teaching culture in EFL classes because it should be experienced not taught (Table 1). Overall, the participants' positive view on the integration of culture into English classes supports the findings of the previous studies (Belli, 2018; Çalışkan, 2009). Nonetheless, it is apparent that it is necessary to create a safe environment in language classes where students can discuss both LC and TC freely; to emphasize the connection between language and culture; and to inform them about study abroad opportunities.

Table 1

Whether cultural elements should be included in language classes

| Category | N | Codes | f |
|---------------|----|--|----|
| A. Yes | 40 | | |
| B. No | 12 | 1. Some topics may influence Turkish culture negatively | 6 |
| | | 2. Some cultural topics are not appropriate for classroom environment | 1 |
| | | 3. I do not feel comfortable while talking about some cultural topics | 1 |
| | | 4. I am having hard time understanding some cultural topics | 1 |
| | | 5. Since some cultural topics are open to discussion, it is hard to find a consensus | 5 |
| | | 6. My department does not require it | 4 |
| | | 7. Other: There is no local culture teaching either | 1 |
| | | Other: Culture cannot be taught | 1 |
| | | Total | 20 |

The participants' preferences about what kind of cultural information should be included in ELT classrooms (item 18) were parallel to their culture definitions. Out of 156 answers (Table 2), the most frequent one was "daily lifestyle, free time activities and entertainment styles" ($f=41$). Considering that the great majority of the students defined culture with the elements of small c culture, this result was not unexpected. In addition, it seems that students agree with some scholars who recommend that owing to their potential to foster ICC, textbooks need to give more emphasis on small c themes scholars (Pulverness, 1995; Tomalin & Stempleski, 1993; Xiao, 2010). In addition, since it was the second most frequent choice ($f=27$), pragmatic sense of culture was supported with the students' preference for "communicative aspects like body language and idioms" as well. The students' interest in both sociological and communicative aspects of culture may be the result of their ICA. Unlike the findings in the culture definitions, the elements of aesthetic sense such as architecture literature music and art were the third most frequent cultural information that the students wanted to be included in their English classes ($f=21$).

Table 2

What kind of cultural information should be included in ELT classes

| Codes | <i>f</i> |
|--|----------|
| 1. Regional and general differences in target English | 18 |
| 2. Customs and traditions in the American/British community. | 19 |
| 3. Institutions in target culture | 1 |
| 4. Daily lifestyle, leisure activities and entertainment style | 41 |
| 5. Food and dressing culture | 12 |
| 6. Architecture, literature, music and art | 21 |
| 7. Communicative aspects like body language and idioms | 27 |
| 8. Social and historical aspects such as national holidays and national heroes | 9 |
| 9. Political problems in the USA/UK | 4 |
| 10. Information on religious practices in the US/UK | 3 |
| 11. Other | 0 |
| Total | 155 |

Participants were asked to indicate in what ways (materials and activities) they would like to be introduced cultural topics through item 19. In accordance with the literature (Belli, 2018; Çalışkan, 2009; Güven, 2015), out of 151 answers (Table 3), the two most frequently marked ways were “video films and documentaries” ($f= 44$) and “discussions of cultural experiences” ($f= 34$). These results are crucial for instructors as they can enlighten how they can incorporate cultural elements into their lessons and syllabi. Instructors in this technological age are lucky because it is quite easy to access free video-sharing websites full of cultural content. They can be used to introduce cultural topics and differences between cultures with various activities. Also, with the help of video chat applications, teleconferences can be arranged with people from different cultures so that students can ask questions in their minds regarding that particular culture and have informative and stimulating discussions as well.

Table 3

Materials and activities to introduce culture

| Codes | <i>f</i> |
|--|----------|
| 1. Through the content of course books | 11 |
| 2. Using novels and short stories. | 17 |
| 3. Discussions of cultural experiences | 34 |
| 4. Pictures and posters | 15 |
| 5. Video films and documentaries | 44 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| 6. Newspapers and magazines. | 8 |
| 7. Daily used articles such as menus and tickets | 20 |
| 8. Other: School trips to other countries | 1 |
| Other: Through digital games | 1 |
| Total | 151 |

The participants' answers to item 20 pointed out that they strongly believe that the main aim of presenting cultural information in language learning should be for "more successful communication" ($N= 31$, Table 4). In line with Byram's ICC framework (1997), this mean that with the help of English classes, the students in this study who have already gained some *critical cultural competence* desire to improve their *skills of interpreting and relating, and skills of discovery and interaction*. Having said that, since culture instruction is supposed to be purposive, students' desires should also be taken into account by instructors while determining objectives of a lesson focusing on teaching culture (Çalışkan, 2009).

Table 4

The main purpose of presenting cultural information in language learning

| Codes | N |
|---|----|
| 1. Developing an awareness of other cultures and people | 9 |
| 2. Insight into one's own culture | 3 |
| 3. Intellectual development | 5 |
| 4. Ability to compare own and other cultures | 4 |
| 5. More successful communication | 31 |
| 6. Other | 0 |
| Total | 52 |

Item 21 inquired students' perceptions about the role of teachers in the process of creating cultural awareness in English classes. Except seeing teachers as a "provider of cultural information when needed", students mentioned the other 4 options frequently. The results indicated that the students expect their teachers to "present the differences and similarities between their culture and the target culture" ($f= 35$). Following this, the option 2, "to encourage students to respect the target culture", was found to be the second most frequently chosen option by 52 students (Table 5). Turkish EFL classes are predominantly taught by non-native (Turkish) instructors. These instructors may not always feel comfortable teaching target culture since they may assume that they are not culturally well-equipped. The conundrum of native vs. non-native

teacher is still valid in many aspects of language teaching including culture. However, as supported by the results, and as Byram, Gribkova and Starkey (2002) and Medgyes (1999) highlight, when it comes to the role of teachers in terms of teaching intercultural dimension, being a native or non-native teacher does not matter as long as they are aware of the relationship between other cultures and their own culture, and they can succeed in being intercultural interpreters.

Table 5

The role of the teacher in raising awareness of the target culture

| Codes | <i>f</i> |
|---|----------|
| 1. Presenting the differences and similarities between local and the target culture | 35 |
| 2. Encouraging students to respect the target culture | 24 |
| 3. Increasing interest to other cultures | 18 |
| 4. Sharing personal information about target cultures | 21 |
| 5. Providing cultural information only when necessary | 2 |
| 6. Other | 0 |
| Total | 100 |

In the matter of when it would be appropriate to provide cultural information in EFL classes (item 22), similar to Çalışkan (2009) and Belli's (2018) findings, approximately half of the students agreed that it should be introduced in the intermediate level classes ($N= 22$). The underlying reason is that they believe a better understanding of culture occur after obtaining a certain level of linguistic ability ($f= 12$). In addition, 11 students argued that beginner level would be more suitable to introduce culture as the earlier they are exposed to it the better (Table 6).

Contrary to the participants' high ICA and positive attitude towards integration of culture into their English classes, similar to Çalışkan (2009) and Önalın's (2004) findings, 33 of them did not support the idea that cultural information should be assessed (item 23). As to why they held this belief, half of them ($N= 17$) advocated that "they need to improve their speaking, reading, writing and listening skills, not cultural knowledge". This may be a result of students' extrinsic motivations to learn English language. Besides, the students' averseness of culture assessment may stem from their mostly negative attitude towards tests and examinations (Çalışkan, 2009). On the other hand, assessment supporters ($N= 19$) asserted that "anything taught should be tested" and "culture and language are inseparable" (Table 7). As well as these

participants, several researchers emphasized the importance of the assessment of culture due to the fact that language, culture and ICC teaching and evaluation are strongly intertwined, and they provided techniques and suggestions how to assess culture (Byram, 1997; Fantini, 2009; Lessard-Clouston, 1992; Valette, 1986).

Table 6

The appropriate English level to provide cultural information

| Category | N | Codes | f |
|------------------------------|----|--|----|
| A. Beginner | 11 | 1. To learn it from the beginning | 5 |
| | | 2. To conceptualize “culture” immediately | 1 |
| | | 3. Since language cannot be learned without culture | 2 |
| B. Intermediate | 22 | 1. To increase students’ language interests | 2 |
| | | 2. To have a better understanding of culture after obtaining a certain level of linguistic ability | 12 |
| | | 3. Since it would be more beneficial at this level | 2 |
| C. Advanced | 10 | 1. To understand culture better after the mastery of other linguistic abilities | 7 |
| | | 2. Since first levels should focus on skills | 1 |
| | | 3. Since culture teaching can demotivate beginner/intermediate learners | 1 |
| D. It does not matter | 9 | | |
| | | Total | 33 |

Table 7

Whether cultural information should be assessed

| Category | N | Codes | f |
|------------------------|----|---|---|
| A. Yes, because | 19 | 1. Anything taught should be tested | 7 |
| | | 2. Culture and language are inseparable | 7 |
| | | 3. Other: Lessons would be more interesting/encouraging | 3 |
| | | Other: It is necessary to check how students synthesize what they learn | 1 |
| | | Other: Teaching culture is for personal growth | 1 |

| | | | |
|-----------------------|----|---|-----------|
| B. No, because | 33 | 1. The main purpose of learning language is to learn the linguistic aspects. | 6 |
| | | 2. I need to improve speaking, reading, writing and listening, not cultural knowledge. | 17 |
| | | 3. Other: It is more burden/study load | 3 |
| | | Other: Everyone may not be interested in culture | 2 |
| | | Other: Culture cannot be learned by assessment but by curiosity | 3 |
| | | Other: Learning culture cannot be obligatory | 1 |
| | | Other: A normal test also assess culture anyway as culture and language are inseparable | 1 |
| | | Total | 52 |

The last two items of the questionnaire intended to discover whether there is any culture teaching in the participants' current English classes (item 24), and whether they do anything to improve their target culture knowledge (item 25). Table 8 shows that most of the students ($N=32$) believed that they have been receiving some cultural information in their classes in the form of lifestyle/daily life of other cultures ($f=20$) and interesting cultural information taking place in the videos/texts of their coursebook ($f=13$).

Table 8

What students do to improve their target culture

| Codes | <i>f</i> |
|--|-----------|
| 1. Listening English songs | 4 |
| 2. Reading in English | 11 |
| 3. Watching English shows/movies/videos/documentaries | 32 |
| 4. Chatting with natives/foreigners | 4 |
| 5. Getting information on the internet or social media | 6 |
| 6. Travelling | 3 |
| 7. Getting information from experienced people | 1 |
| 8. Trying to improve pronunciation | 1 |
| 9. Nothing | 11 |
| Total | 73 |

Finally, the most common out-of-class activity to improve cultural knowledge was watching TV shows or movies in English ($f=32$). Considering the unstoppable rise of American/British shows and movies and that the study takes place in an EFL context, it is an expected way to procure cultural information (Table 9).

Table 9

Whether there is culture teaching in the participants' current EFL classroom

| Category | N | Codes |
|----------|----|--|
| A. Yes | 32 | 1. How to communicate 2. Teachers' own cultural experiences 3. Lifestyles of other cultures 4. Interesting cultural information taking place in the videos/texts of their coursebook 5. Important people 6. Important historical places |
| B. No | 16 | |
| | | Total |

Is There a Relationship between Students' Intercultural Awareness and Their Exam Success?

As it is discussed in the previous sections, intercultural awareness of students and teachers have been studied notably. However, to the best of the author's knowledge, whether there is a relationship between ICA and exam success has not been addressed before. To address this issue, a Pearson's correlation analysis was carried out with the data acquired from the Likert scale and the mean scores of 3 quizzes. The correlation between ICA and exam success found to be non-significant ($r(52) = .16, p = .25$). Thus, it is possible to claim that students' having high or low ICA do not relate their English language exam achievement neither positively nor negatively.

CONCLUSION

This study aimed to investigate Turkish EFL students' perception of culture, their cultural awareness, their attitudes towards the integration of culture and the relationship between ICA and exam success. Overall, the findings suggest that students tend to conceptualize culture in its sociological sense. They are aware that culture is integral for successful ICC. Consequently, considering that the main purpose of culture learning should be enabling more successful communication, students show positive attitudes towards the integration of culture into their language classes, preferably via visuals and discussions. However, their positive views seem to

shift when it comes to culture assessment. Also, no relationship was observed between students' ICA and exam success.

Based on the literature and these results, it can be argued that it is highly important to integrate cultural components into language teaching. The current study includes several indications regarding students' ideas about culture teaching such as what to learn, how to learn or why to learn culture. Hence, policy makers and educators are supposed to consider EFL students' perspectives and attitudes on the matter and set the goals accordingly. Our aim should be not to educate "fluent fools", but to educate learners who are culturally aware and have intercultural communicative competence. Additionally, it should not be forgotten that ICA and ICC are strongly interrelated with pragmatic competence. Learners who are lack of ICA and ICC may fail to acquire pragmatic competence as well, and they may face pragmatic failures which can lead major communicative breakdowns (Thomas, 1983)

Lastly, the limitations of the present study should be addressed. This study only comprises perceptions and attitudes of a particular level (A2) of Turkish EFL students. A bigger participant sample consisting of several English levels and age groups can be more comprehensive, and thus it can shed a light on the matter better. Besides, collecting some qualitative data from the participants via group interviews can give participants an opportunity to express themselves without the constraints of a questionnaire and provides researchers a deeper understanding of their perceptions/attitudes and the reasons behind them. Consequently, further studies need to pay regard to these issues.

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APPENDIX A

Table 1

Descriptive analysis of each item

| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|-------|----|--------|----------------|-----------------|
| Q3 | 52 | 4.83 | .382 | .053 |
| Q4R* | 52 | 3.8077 | 1.13826 | .15785 |
| Q5 | 52 | 3.00 | 1.268 | .176 |
| Q6 | 52 | 4.29 | .776 | .108 |
| Q7 | 52 | 3.73 | 1.069 | .148 |
| Q8 | 52 | 4.33 | .785 | .109 |
| Q9R* | 52 | 4.2692 | .97247 | .13486 |
| Q10 | 52 | 4.40 | .664 | .092 |
| Q11 | 52 | 4.08 | .947 | .131 |
| Q12R* | 52 | 4.1154 | 1.00301 | .13909 |
| Q13 | 52 | 4.31 | .829 | .115 |
| Q14 | 52 | 4.02 | .960 | .133 |
| Q15 | 52 | 4.38 | .599 | .083 |
| Q16R* | 52 | 4.4038 | .99528 | .13802 |

* R signifies the reversed items

Table 2

One-Sample T-test analysis of each item

| Test Value = 3 | | | | | | |
|----------------|--------|----|-----------------|-----------------|---|--------|
| | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Q3 | 34.487 | 51 | .000 | 1.827 | 1.72 | 1.93 |
| Q4R | 5.117 | 51 | .000 | .80769 | .4908 | 1.1246 |
| Q5 | .000 | 51 | 1.000 | .000 | -.35 | .35 |
| Q6 | 11.981 | 51 | .000 | 1.288 | 1.07 | 1.50 |
| Q7 | 4.932 | 51 | .000 | .731 | .43 | 1.03 |
| Q8 | 12.186 | 51 | .000 | 1.327 | 1.11 | 1.55 |
| Q9R | 9.412 | 51 | .000 | 1.26923 | .9985 | 1.5400 |
| Q10 | 15.235 | 51 | .000 | 1.404 | 1.22 | 1.59 |
| Q11 | 8.204 | 51 | .000 | 1.077 | .81 | 1.34 |
| Q12R | 8.019 | 51 | .000 | 1.11538 | .8361 | 1.3946 |
| Q13 | 11.371 | 51 | .000 | 1.308 | 1.08 | 1.54 |
| Q14 | 7.658 | 51 | .000 | 1.019 | .75 | 1.29 |
| Q15 | 16.665 | 51 | .000 | 1.385 | 1.22 | 1.55 |
| Q16R | 10.171 | 51 | .000 | 1.40385 | 1.1268 | 1.6809 |

**THE USE OF DISCOURSE MARKERS IN PROBLEM SOLUTION PARAGRAPHS
OF INTERMEDIATE LEVEL EFL LEARNERS FROM TURKISH L1
BACKGROUND: A CORPUS BASED CASE STUDY**

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ABSTRACT

This study aims at investigating which discourse markers are preferred by 62 intermediate level EFL learners from Turkish L1 background at a preparatory school of a foundation university in Ankara according to Fraser's (1999) taxonomy as well as analyzing the frequencies of those discourse markers and finding out the most frequently used discourse marker type. The students, as a part of their end of the course test requirement, were asked to write a problem solution paragraph in the first term of the academic year of 2017-2018. All the students' paragraphs were collected with the permission of the preparatory school administration and then compiled into a corpus which consists of 8504 words. Hence, the full competence of the learners' discourse marker usage was examined. Later, the data were analyzed via #Lancsbox 4.5 (Brezina, Timperley & McEnery, 2018) to find out the types and the frequencies of the discourse markers via Key Word in Context (KWIC) and frequency analyses. The results demonstrated that 252 discourse markers in total were used by intermediate-level EFL learners. Moreover, the data showed that the most frequent type of discourse markers were inferential markers (40.94%), followed by elaborative (26.77%), contrastive (18.89%) and temporal (13.38%) types respectively. Furthermore, it was found that for each type of discourse markers, the learners used only a limited amount of discourse markers and among those they usually utilized the ones which are below their current levels more than their level appropriate counterparts. Overall, the findings suggest that maintaining cohesion within a text and use of discourse markers seem challenging for the learners. Thus, language teachers should highlight the significance of discourse markers and guide learners through different methods such as data-driven learning and making use of native corpora to be able provide authentic examples to their learners.

Keywords: *corpus-based study, discourse markers, cohesion in a text, genre-specific writing*

INTRODUCTION

With the rise of English being the new lingua franca, being competent in English has become a prerequisite for various professions. Hence, many institutions have begun to offer EFL/ESL classes for English learners so that they can pursue their education and profession. While those institutions' scope and curricula may vary, most of them include skills in which the learner can use the language in order to function in that language actively. This ability is usually referred as 'communicative competence' which requires a learner to be competent in grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic areas. (Canale and Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972). As a part of communicative competence, the objectives of many institutions and especially universities have also started to include written discourse competence, which contains genre appropriate writing, using the language appropriately, providing relevant and valid ideas in a coherent way as they appear to be inevitable when it comes to one's academic success.

In the academic context, one of the written discourses which L2 English learners need to be competent in is considered to be problem-solution discourse. This discourse requires learners to think about the reasons behind the problem critically in order to put forward reasonable solution(s). The solution(s) presented should also be elaborated by the writer in terms of the implications and possible consequences.

Moreover, as Prommas and Sinwongsuwat (2011) argue, writing does not only include writing grammatical sentences one after the other and thus, cohesion and coherence within the text are highly significant factors in determining one's overall written discourse competence. On the other hand, several studies have also found out that maintaining cohesion and coherence is highly demanding for L2 learners as it requires them to focus on several different aspects (Field and Yip, 1992; Gilquin and Paquot, 2008; Granger and Tyson, 1996; Lorenz, 1999). Therefore, investigating learners' journey through accomplishing these significant elements in written discourse competence is quite crucial for language teachers to investigate and find the most common problems, and guide their learners accordingly. One way to do so is to examine the use of discourse markers (DMs, henceforth) of the L2 English users in their writings.

Several researches have been conducted on DMs usage of L2 English users from various different L1 backgrounds, such as German, Chinese and French (Rahimi, 2011) and proficiency levels. However, Turkish as an L1 background have not been studied sufficiently and most of them have focused on argumentation discourse in which writers are expected to elaborate on a

controversial idea by refuting to the opposing idea to support his/her opinion together with relevant evidence and examples (Coirier, Andriessen & Chanquay, 1999).

Hence, this study examines the use of DMs in the writings of intermediate (B1) learners of English who have L1 Turkish background in problem-solution genre. The reason why B1 level L2 English learners were chosen is the fact that it is seen as the threshold level in which learners, for the first time, have the ability to “write straightforward connected texts on familiar topics” according to Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).

For the purpose of the study the research questions (RQ) below are answered:

RQ1: Which discourse markers are utilized by intermediate EFL learners from Turkish L1 background in their problem solution paragraphs according to Fraser’s (1999) taxonomy?

RQ2: What are the frequencies of the discourse markers used in problem solution paragraphs of intermediate EFL students from Turkish L1 background?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Corpus Linguistics

In the field of linguistics, corpus, refers to collection of any body of texts which contain a large amount natural (written or spoken) data as they occur in the real world, which in turn provides the researchers with the opportunity to examine the actual language in use, as well as expanding the scope of the earlier studies by taking advantage of the large data (McEnery and Wilson, 2001).

In order to name any collection of text as ‘corpus’; however, there are some criteria. Firstly, a corpus should be computerized to make searching its components systemically possible. According to Biber, Conrad & Reppen (1998) the characteristics of corpus-based research “result in a scope and reliability analysis not otherwise possible” (p.4). Therefore, with the help of computerized data, it is possible to store, group and analyze large amount of data as well as annotating them. Furthermore, thanks to computerized data, more consistent and reliable data analyses can be conducted as humans can get tired or distracted from time to time in the process of data analysis, especially when they deal with large amount of data. Secondly, a corpus should be representative. In other words, the aims of compiling or deciding on a corpus and research questions should match (Biber, 1993). Moreover, the size of the corpus is another important factor. Although there is not a fit amount (Carter and McCarthy, 2001) and the size is dependent

on representativeness and practicality issues (Biber, 1990), one of the best determiners of the adequate size is again dependent on one's research aims and the data available in the language (Tognini-Bonelli, 2001).

Corpus linguistics has shed light to many research areas such as *grammar* in order to come up with descriptive, reliable and generalizable results with much bigger data and more importantly with language in use; *lexicology* to find out the most frequent words, create wordlists and compile dictionaries through the natural data; *discourse analysis* to compare several different discourses via big and natural data; *pragmatics* in order to investigate how language is used to create meaning through already existing natural data and *sociolinguistics* to spot grammatical and lexical differences among various language varieties (O'Keeffe & McCarthy, 2012).

Learner Corpus Research

Learner corpus refers to a corpus built on the spoken or written data from the learners of a specific language. The data represented are usually dependent on some criteria in terms of language learners' age, proficiency levels, educational background and native language(s) as well as the task type (Nesselhauf, 2004). Usually, studies based on learner corpora are analyzed through corpus linguistics methodologies combined with contrastive analysis (CA), which require a reference native corpus of the same kind and Error analysis (EA), which needs error-tagged data (Díaz-Negrillo and Fernandez-Dominguez, 2006).

Main aims behind compiling learner corpus are examining how language learners conceptualize several aspects of the language, which may aid the field of second language acquisition and observe some patterns on how they use their target language. Moreover, Tono (1999) argues that via learner corpora and native corpora comparison, a researcher can examine the possible language transfer, the developmental stages of language learners, and over/underuse of some linguistic features through big data, which in turn enable more generalizable results to emerge. As a result, language teachers may benefit from learner corpora in terms of conducting needs analysis in turn as well as accommodation their learners' needs in a more systematic way (Granger, Hung, & Petch-Tyson, 2002). Furthermore, according to the results, better language materials and language textbooks can be provided (Granger, 2004).

Discourse Analysis

According to Scriffin, Tannen and Hamilton (2001), one definition of discourse analysis is the study of language beyond sentences. In addition, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) define the term as “an instance of spoken or written language that has describable internal relationships of form and meaning (e.g. words, structure, cohesion) that relate coherently to an external communicative function or purpose and a given audience [or] interlocutor” (p.4). Therefore, one aim of discourse analysis is to figure out how sentences and utterances come together and create meaning in a systematical way.

Since the present study seeks information on how B1 level EFL learners of Turkish L1 background achieve this skill in academic problem-solution discourse in relation to DM usage within the text, this study can also be considered as discourse analysis study.

Discourse Analysis in Corpus Linguistics

Being mostly qualitative in nature, the combination of discourse analysis and corpus linguistics may sound a little odd. However, corpus linguistics brings discourse analysis another perspective by providing the opportunity to reach out more data in terms of quantity, to eliminate the researcher bias by allowing systematical research to come into play and conduct more reliable results (Baker, 2006). For example, Baker, Gabrielatos & McEnery (2013) investigated how Islam has been presented in the British media by analyzing their corpus built via various British newspaper articles on Islam for several years and conducting concordance and frequency analyses.

Some analyses that are used for discourse analysis can be *concordance analysis* to investigate how some aspects such as boosters, hedges and DMs are utilized in texts, *keywords* to characterize differences in terms of themes in a discourse or different discourses, *collocates* to investigate how themes represent the phenomena and *key clusters* to observe pattern and word selection in terms of stance, power, gender and so on. Moreover, several different discourses (spoken vs. written, formal vs. informal etc.) can also be compared to observe the noticeable differences in terms of word choice and the use of grammar.

Written Discourse Analysis

The organization of written texts are not random. Instead, the criteria that shape their style, register and genre are predetermined by the culture of the target language (Kaplan, 1967). Therefore, the goal of written discourse analysis is to examine the rules and norms that shape the way people write texts and let the language learners benefit from the results to lead them to write successful writings in the target language (Bazerman and Prior, 2004).

Cohesion and coherence in a text

The question of how sentences written one after the other form meaningful texts, which can be defined by Halliday and Hasan (1976) as “any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole” (p.3) has been asked by many researchers. Although research on the issue has yielded many perspectives in coherence and cohesion, researchers agree upon the fact that both terms refer to different aspects. Whereas cohesion is related to syntactic and semantic connectivity of linguistic structures on the textual level (Connor & Johns, 1990; Crystal, 1991; Halliday & Hasan, 1976) and is the determining source to differentiate texts from irrelevant sentences (Sadeghi and Kargar, 2014), coherence is related to context and the organization connectivity in the paragraph and discourse level, which are above the textual level (Jin, 1998). Brown and Yule (1983) define coherence as “what people bring to the interpretation of linguistic messages” (p.224) and Witte and Faigley (1981) define it as the background information needed by the writer to convey his/her message through the text and by the reader to be able to interpret it as it is meant. According to many researchers, neither cohesion nor coherence are prerequisites for each other. In other words, a paragraph can be coherent without cohesion, or vice versa (Carrell, 1982; Halliday, 1985; Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Hellman, 1995; Hoey, 1991). Hence, focusing one of them without elaborating on the other is possible. Therefore, this present study focuses on the cohesion aspect as it is mainly interested in the use of DMs which can be considered as the tools to maintain cohesion.

Discourse Markers

To be able to maintain cohesion within a text, several strategies are employed by the writers and those strategies have been investigated in the field of pragmatics considerably (Müller, 2005). However, the way those strategies have been named and classified vary among many researchers. Fraser (1999) who names those strategies as *discourse markers* also touches upon

the problematic and controversial nature of them by listing the various terms in the literature as:

cue phrases (Knott and Dale, 1994), *discourse connectives* (Blakemore, 1992), *discourse markers* (Schiffrin, 1987), *discourse operators* (Redeker, 1991), *discourse particles* (Schorup, 1985), *discourse signaling devices* (Polanyi and Scha, 1983), *logical connectors* (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999) *phatic connectives* (Bazanella, 1990), *pragmatic connectives* (vanDijk, 1980) *pragmatic expressions* (Erman, 1992), *pragmatic operators* (Ariel, 1994), *pragmatic particles* (Östman, 1995), *semantic conjuncts* (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985) and *sentence connectives* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

Consequently, each term listed above has looked at the lexical items that determine cohesion within the text from several perspectives. However, as the definition of Fraser (1999) best fits the aims of the present research, his definition will be adopted to analyze the DMs in problem solution paragraphs (PSP, henceforth) of intermediate level EFL learners of Turkish L1 background.

According to Fraser (1999), DMs are “a class of lexical expressions drawn primarily from the syntactic classes of conjunctions, adverbs, and prepositional phrases [that] signal a relationship between the interpretation of the segment they introduce and the prior segment” (p. 931). According to his taxonomy (Fraser, 1999), which is adopted while analyzing DMs used by intermediate level EFL learners of Turkish L1 background, DMs can point one of four types of relationship which are contrastive, elaborative, inferential and temporal (Table 1).

Table 1

Fraser’s (1999) Taxonomy of Discourse Markers

| | |
|---------------------|--|
| Contrastive Markers | alternatively, (al)though, but, contrariwise, contrary to expectations, contrary to this/that, conversely, despite (doing) this/that, even so, however, in comparison (with/to this/that), in contrast (with/to this/that), in spite of (doing) this/that, instead (of (doing) this/that), nevertheless, nonetheless, notwithstanding, on the contrary, on the other hand, rather (than (do) this/that), regardless, still, whereas, yet |
| Elaborative Markers | above all, also, alternatively, analogously, for example, for instance, equally, for another thing, further(more), in addition, in any event, in other words, in particular, I mean, likewise, more accurately, more importantly, more precisely, more to the point, moreover, namely, on that basis, on top of it all, or, otherwise, similarly, rather, that is (to say), to cap it all off, too, well, what is more |
| Inferential Markers | accordingly, after all, all things considered, as a (logical) consequence/conclusion, as a result, because (of this/that), consequently, for |

this/that reason, hence, it follows that, in any case, in this/that case, it can be concluded that, of course, on that condition, on these/those grounds, so, then, therefore, thus

| | |
|------------------|--|
| Temporal Markers | then, after, as soon as, before, eventually, finally, first, immediately, afterwards, meantime, meanwhile, originally, second, subsequently, when. |
|------------------|--|

Previous Studies on Discourse Markers

So far, DMs have been studied in several different discourses such as argumentative essays/paragraphs, from various language learners who are from different L1 backgrounds and proficiency levels. These studies can be reviewed under three categories in terms of their aims: (1) to find out the frequency of DMs in language learners' essays/paragraphs through a framework, (2) how the DMs are used in language learners' essays/paragraphs and (3) the relationship between DMs utilized and the quality of the essay/paragraph. Therefore, studies reviewed here are also collected under these three terms.

Firstly, when it comes to the first category, Connor (1984) is worth mentioning. She examined six argumentative essays written both by native speakers and non-native English learners within the framework of Halliday and Hasan (1976) to find out whether there had been a significant difference in terms of the frequency of DM use. However, she could not find any significant differences. Similarly, Field and Yip (1992), compared 67 argumentative essays from students from Hong Kong and 29 argumentative essays from Australian students. They found that non-native speakers used more conjunctions and they usually used them in sentence-initial position differently from native speakers. Also, Prommas and Sinwongsuwat (2011) compared DMs in argumentative essays of Thai undergraduates and English native speakers via corpus-based methodology. The researchers collected 24 essays from third year English major students and 20 native speaker essays were taken from LOCNESS corpus. Having analyzed their data within the taxonomy adopted from Halliday and Hasan (1976), Biber, Johanson, Leech, Conrad & Finegan (1999) and Cowan (2008), the researchers found similar types of DMs in both groups, but frequencies differed. Moreover, Likewise, Jalilifar (2008) examined the DMs in 90 junior and senior Iranian EFL students in descriptive compositions within the framework of Fraser (1999). The researcher found out that elaborative markers were the most frequently used DMs. Finally, Aysu (2017) investigated DMs used by 104 elementary level EFL students' in their paragraphs through corpus-based research. By conducting the frequencies of the DMs within Fraser's taxonomy (1999), she found that, similar to Jalilifar (2008), elaborative markers were the most frequently used DMs.

When it comes to the second category, Liu and Braine (2005) examined the use of DMs in argumentative compositions of 50 Chinese undergraduate students whose majors are not related to English within Halliday and Hassan's taxonomy (1976) in term of quantity as well as quality. Their result reported that additive devices were the most frequently utilized and the items with the most frequency were 'and', 'also' and 'or'. Furthermore, Bell (2010) investigated three contrastive DMs: 'nevertheless', 'still' and 'yet' by adapting a corpus-based research. The researcher used a corpus that contains 8-million words of fiction, news and academic spoken and written English. According to the results, 'yet' had the largest and 'nevertheless' had the most limited scopes.

For the last category, Allard and Ulatowska (1991), investigated the use of DMs in the writings of 30 fifth-grade native speakers of English. They found that there was a strong correlation between the DM use and the overall quality of the students' writings. On the contrary, Zhang (2000) could not find any significant correlation between the writing quality and the use of DMs in the expository compositions of 107 Chinese undergraduate students within the framework of Halliday and Hasan (1976). Also, Intraprawat and Steffensen (1995) looked at persuasive essays of ESL university learners. They grouped the essays into two groups in terms of their grades and compared them in terms of the number of DMs used. Then, they conducted a correlation analysis and found out that the essays that received better grades contained more DMs as well. In addition, Rahimi (2011) in his research examined the frequency and the type of DMs used in argumentative and expository writings of Iranian EFL learners as well as their writing quality. While the results indicated that the most frequently used DMs were elaborative ones, the researcher could not find any significant correlation between DM use and the writing quality. Finally, Lahuerta Martinez (2004) analyzed DMs in 78 Spanish L2 English learners' expository essays through Fraser's (1999) taxonomy. Her findings indicated that the learners utilized elaborative markers mostly. However, she could not find any significant correlation between the use of DMs and writing quality, either.

All in all, one can clearly observe that there is still a need to examine the use of DMs in Turkish context via data from various proficiency levels as the research conducted in this area is not sufficient enough to make comparisons and draw significant conclusions. Therefore, in order to fill the gap in the literature, B1 level EFL learners of Turkish L1 background are chosen as intermediate level learners are expected to write cohesive paragraphs for the first time according to CEFR. Moreover, problem-solution paragraph was chosen as a writing genre as it has not been studied before.

METHODOLOGY

The present study aims both to identify and quantify the DMs in the PSP of B1 level English EFL learners of Turkish L1 background through Fraser's (1999) taxonomy by corpus-based research.

Corpus

Since the aim of the present study was to investigate the PSP of a specific group of learners, and a corpus for this specific group of learners and genre was not available to me, I compiled my own small-size specialized corpus via 62 learners' PSP on the topic of "*What can be done to solve the problem of traffic jam?*" which contains 62 texts from 62 participants and 8054 total running words. Although there are different views on the reliability, representativeness and overall usefulness of small size corpora among scholars, Sinclair (2004) states 'small is not beautiful is just a limitation' (p. 189). In addition, Carter and McCarthy (1995) also suggest that it allows a much closer link between the corpus and the context(s) in which the corpus was produced. Therefore, qualitative analyses can be more in-depth. Furthermore, Flowerdew (2002, 2004) states that smaller corpora which have been set up for a specific research or pedagogical purpose are much likely to yield insights that are directly relevant for teaching and learning for specific purposes. Therefore, for ESP and EAP small size corpora can even be more advantageous than larger corpora as according to Tribble (2002) large corpora do not meet the needs of teachers and learners because the latter are usually too large to concentrate on an aspect of a language in a deeper way.

In addition, since the current research paper focused only on the DM usage of B1 level English EFL learners of Turkish L1 background in their PSP, none of the grammatical mistakes were neither corrected (Feng, 2010) nor annotated.

Sampling

The number of samples within a corpus is dependent on many issues and it is not easy to consider it without the issue of representativeness which is highly linked to the research aims (Meyer, 2002). According to the aims of the present study which is to find out the DMs utilized by B1 level EFL learners in PSP in the case-study approach (Creswell, 2013), all the 62 PSP

written by B1 level EFL learners for end of the course test at a preparatory school in the first quarter of 2017-2018 academic year have been compiled into a corpus upon getting permission from the administration of the school of foreign languages at a foundation university in Ankara. Getting permission from each learner whose PSP were analyzed was not possible as they have already left the preparatory school at the time of data analyses.

In order to investigate the full competence and performance of learners to ensure the reliability of the results and ecological validity (Brewer, 2000; Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002), which can be defined as the resemblance of the setting and methodology of a study to real life, the use of PSP which had already been a part of course requirement was analyzed for this study. Hence, the paragraphs which were written as the written component of the ‘end of the course test’ in which learners need to obtain 60 points or above to be able to continue to the higher levels were chosen purposefully.

Participants

62 students whose PSPs were used were all in their first quarter in the preparatory school, which has four quarters within an academic year. Despite their various majors, all the students’ English proficiency level was B1, which was determined by the level test given to students at the beginning of the year by the testing unit of the preparatory school. All the participants were also young adults whose ages were between 18 to 25.

Data Analysis

The present study aimed at answering two research questions:

RQ1: Which discourse markers are utilized by intermediate EFL learners from Turkish L1 background in their problem solution paragraphs according to Fraser’s (1999) taxonomy?

RQ2: What are the frequencies of the discourse markers used in problem solution paragraphs of intermediate EFL students from Turkish L1 background?

Hence, firstly, the PSPs of B1 level EFL learners from Turkish background was typed and transferred into a computer in *.txt* format separately without including the personal information of the learners. Then all the 62 files were uploaded onto #LancsBox 4.5 tool (Brezina, Timperley & McEnery, 2018). and the corpus was built. The tool was chosen because it was free and easily available online.

To answer the above-mentioned research questions the corpus was analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. For the former analysis, I conducted Key Word in Context (KWIC) analysis and searched for each DM in Fraser's (1999) taxonomy to find out which ones were utilized by the learners.

KWIC analysis was also used in order to determine if the DMs were used appropriately and accurately by analyzing the concordance lines manually. Although none of the DMs were used inaccurately, some of them were used for different functions such as adverbs as in the case of (1) **so** + adj [so fast], (2) 'there will be friends to talk **so that** you won't feel bored' and (3) '... and they start to drive **immediately**'; frozen chunks as in 'last **but** not least' and linking words as in 'trains **or** busses'. Therefore, such occurrences were disregarded in data analysis processes.

Upon obtaining the information of the DMs used, for the latter analysis, frequency analysis was conducted to observe the frequency of the DMs and the types of DMs used by B1 level EFL learners of Turkish L1 background in their PSPs. Later, their relative frequencies were calculated to present more comprehensible results and finally I investigated DMs' dispersion through the texts to make sure they were utilized in several different texts.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Discourse Markers in Problem Solution Paragraphs of the Learners

In order to find out the use of DMs utilized by B1 level EFL learners from Turkish L1 background in their PSPs, KWIC analysis were conducted by searching for each DM on Fraser's (1999) taxonomy (Table 2). According to the analysis, 6 out of 24 contrastive markers, 7 out of 32 elaborative markers, 6 out of 20 inferential markers and 3 out of 15 temporal markers were utilized by the learners (Table 2).

252 occurrences (types) of DMs in total out of 8504 tokens in the entire corpus were found to be used by the learners. This result is promising since Aysu (2017) who worked on Elementary level EFL learners' descriptive paragraphs found 180 occurrences of DMs in total and the number of total DMs found in the present study is more than 180 occurrences, which may indicate the learners' increasing achievement in maintaining cohesion in their writings because the amount of DM use may indicate a more successful texts in terms of cohesion (Ulatowska, 1991).

Table 2

DMs Used by B1 level EFL learners' PSPs according to Fraser's (1999) Taxonomy

| | |
|---------------------|---|
| Contrastive Markers | although, but, however, instead, on the other hand, rather |
| Elaborative Markers | also, for example, for instance, in addition, I mean, or, too |
| Inferential Markers | as a result, because (of this/that), for this reason, so, then, therefore |
| Temporal Markers | eventually, finally, when |

By comparing the total amount of items in each category of DMs according to Fraser's (1999) taxonomy and the DMs used by intermediate level EFL learners from Turkish L1 background, one can observe that learners utilized less than a half of what was available in the taxonomy. This finding is similar to Rahimi (2011) who also found out that Iranian students do not prefer to utilize a wide range of DMs in their writings. However, this situation might create some cohesion problems by making the paragraphs less interesting because of the repetitive use of a small number of DMs (Witte and Faigley, 1981). Also, Lahuerta's (2004) who found out that the better writers usually were among those who used a variety of DMs in their writings results confirm the significance of the use of a variety of DMs.

One reason why learners tend to use limited amount of DMs can be the fact that students are not taught all of DMs in the taxonomy (Prommas and Sinwongsuwat, 2011). Aysu (2007) and Rahimi (2011) suggest that learners need to be exposed to several DMs and writing tasks on different genres so that they can learn more about DMs and which genre requires which type of DMs. Thus, in order to encourage learners to use a wider and various DMs, language teachers might try to create opportunities to expose EFL learners to native paragraphs of various genres by using authentic texts. One way to do so is utilizing native corpora to create corpus-based materials or introducing data driven learning to learners' so that they have a chance to discover various DMs and their usages, as well as finding out particular DMs for different genres by themselves (De Cock 2000; Tanko, 2004).

The Frequencies of DMs Used in Learners' Problem Solution Paragraphs

Frequency analyses were conducted so that I could find out the number of occurrences of the DMs used in learners' PSPs. The analyses yielded various frequencies of the DMs utilized by B1 level EFL learners of Turkish background in their PSP (Table 3).

According to the results, inferential markers (40.94%) were used most frequently, followed by elaborative markers (26.77%), contrastive markers (18.89%) and temporal markers (13.38%) respectively. These results contradict with the findings of Jalilifar (2008) and Aysu (2017) both of whose data were based on descriptive writings and Lahuerta (2004) who based her data on expository writings of Spanish first year Chemistry students at an English-medium department. Their analyses pointed out that elaborative markers were the most utilized type according to Fraser’s (1999) taxonomy. Jalilifar (2008) explains that the use of elaborative markers was necessary for argumentative genre in that “descriptive writing in general requires elaboration of ideas which depends on the use of elaborative markers” (p.116). Similarly, Lahuerta (2004) states that “expository writing in general requires elaboration of ideas which depends on the use of quasi parallel relationships between segments which are signaled by elaborative markers” (p. 77) and mentions the need for research on other genres to find out whether the frequencies of the types of DMs would change. Luckily, the present study can accommodate the need for analyzing a different genre in terms of DM usage. Werlich (1982) argues that different text genres require different type of link among sentences, and the findings of the present study support the idea. The writing genre was problem solution which requires finding relevant solutions, explaining them and most importantly stating the possible results of the solutions presented. Thus, making use of inferential markers the most and elaborative markers the second for problem solution genre might show that learners are aware of the usages of DMs and are able to use them to maintain cohesion in their paragraphs as expected from them.

Table 3

Frequencies of DMs Used by B1 Level EFL Learners in PSP

| Types of DMs | DMs | Frequency | RF* | %** | Dispersion |
|----------------------------------|--------------------|-----------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| | although | 6 | 7.06 | 9.67 | 6/62 |
| Contrastive Markers 18.89% | but | 24 | 28.22 | 30.64 | 19/62 |
| | however | 6 | 7.06 | 8.06 | 5/62 |
| | instead | 5 | 5.87 | 8.06 | 5/62 |
| | on the other hand | 2 | 2.35 | 3.22 | 2/62 |
| | rather | 3 | 3.52 | 3.22 | 2/62 |
| Elaborative Markers | also | 21 | 24.69 | 30.64 | 19/62 |
| | for example | 35 | 41.15 | 41.93 | 26/62 |

| | | | | | |
|-------------|---------------------|-----------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| 26.77% | for instance | 5 | 5.87 | 8.06 | 5/62 |
| | in addition | 1 | 1.17 | 1.61 | 1/62 |
| | I mean | 2 | 2.35 | 3.22 | 2/62 |
| | or | 2 | 2.35 | 3.22 | 2/62 |
| | too | 2 | 2.35 | 3.22 | 2/62 |
| | as a result | 10 | 11,75 | 14.51 | 9/62 |
| | because (of) | 49 | 57.61 | 50 | 31/62 |
| Inferential | for this reason | 2 | 2.35 | 1.61 | 1/62 |
| Markers | so | 32 | 37.62 | 41.93 | 26/62 |
| 40,94% | then | 3 | 3.52 | 4.83 | 3/62 |
| | therefore | 8 | 9.40 | 11.29 | 7/62 |
| Temporal | eventually | 1 | 1.17 | 1.61 | 1/62 |
| Markers | finally | 15 | 17.63 | 24.19 | 15/62 |
| 13.38% | when | 18 | 21.16 | 19.35 | 12/62 |

*Relative Frequency, (per 10.000 tokens) **Frequency percentages

One last finding of the frequency analysis is the fact that learners tend to use the DMs that they have been exposed to for a longer period of time for each type of DMs (Table 3). For instance, instead of making use of ‘however’ or ‘although’, which they come across and learnt in B1 level at the institution that the paragraphs were collected, more, they mostly preferred using ‘but’, which learners learnt when they were in A1 levels, much more for contrastive markers. This finding may demonstrate the fact that learners still feel more confident using the lower level items and therefore underuse the level appropriate counterparts of the items in each category. This might be due to the fact that they are not confident in how to use the level appropriate DMs effectively and appropriately. Hence, by urging students to utilize the DMs suitable for their levels, teachers may again provide students more examples via native corpora or give effective feedback on the usages of higher-level DMs. Furthermore, According to Dilidüzgün (2013) another way to promote advanced DM use is to utilize reading texts, which naturally contain level appropriate DMs, not only for the purpose of reading comprehension, but also to investigate how the text is written in terms of cohesion, coherence and its overall aim.

CONCLUSION

The present study focused on DMs, the types of DMs and the frequency of DMs used by intermediate level EFL learners of Turkish L1 background in their PSP via corpus-based methodology since the use of DMs is a significant element of one's overall communicative competence (Hymes, 1972). The results indicated that 252 DMs in total out of 8504 tokens in the corpus were used by the learners, which seem promising. However, learners utilized a small portion of the all DM types in Fraser's (1999) taxonomy. Moreover, frequency analyses depicted two important results. Firstly, they showed that inferential markers (40.94%) were utilized the most, which suggests that learners were able to write genre-appropriate DMs. Secondly, they demonstrated that students tend to use the lower level DMs more than level appropriate ones, which can imply the learners' hesitancy on utilizing the latter ones due to their lack of knowledge of their usages.

Overall, the results of this study might be beneficial to fill the gap in the literature since the number of studies on this topic in the Turkish context seems limited. Besides, language teachers might analyze the findings and it might lead to the preparation of more effective teaching of DMs in a genre-specific and genre-appropriate way through making use of native writings on several types as written discourse competence is considered to be one of the fundamental indicators of one's overall proficiency in a target language.

This study focused only on 62 intermediate level EFL learners at an institution. Moreover, they had been learning English at the institution for only 2 months when they produced the paragraphs from which the corpus, consisting of 8504 words, was compiled. Therefore, it is not plausible to make any generalizations over all intermediate level EFL learners due to the small amount of corpus and the participants. In order to make generalizations, further studies might build a corpus from several institutions and with larger number of participants. Additionally, comparing the participants' achievement in maintaining cohesion in their writings via longitudinal studies could be really valuable as well. Therefore, further research on this field might collect data from lower level students and continue collecting relevant data while they are learning English further. Finally, comparing the non-native usages of DMs with native counterparts via comparing different corpora might aid EFL learners to achieve more native like proficiency on achieving cohesion in their writings.

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DYSLEXIA FOR TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE: PROJECTS, TIPS AND TECHNOLOGICAL TOOLS

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ABSTRACT

Developmental dyslexia is a very common developmental disorder as all around the world as in Turkey. According to University of Michigan Health department experts, dyslexia is the most common learning disability. In fact, 80 percent of students with learning difficulties have dyslexia. The International Dyslexia Association estimates that 15 to 20 percent of the US population has some dyslexic symptoms, such as slow or incorrect reading, bad spelling, bad writing, or mixing similar words. There are thousands of studies on teaching English to young learners, teenagers, adults or so on. Teaching English to a person with Dyslexia could sound horrible. However, as teachers of English as a Foreign Language we can face students with this condition. Whether it is defined as a specific learning difference or a disorder or a condition or a difficulty, it is crucial to know how to deal with it. Since there are much more people than predicted, we should be aware of it in terms of methods and special techniques. Should we follow the procedure we're familiar with from ELT methodology? What are the differences and similarities? In this study, first dyslexia will be defined, some specific methods and techniques such as for linguistic awareness, choosing the appropriate texts and practicing the pronunciation will be mentioned. What kinds of studies are done around the world? There are so many technological tools for teaching, how about dyslexia? What do Dyslang, DysTefl or Orton-Gillingham Approach refer to?

Keywords: *dyslexia, TEFL, learning disability.*

INTRODUCTION

When definitions of reading have been examined, Dökmen has mentioned two fundamentals on reading skills of high school and university students, namely, reading speed and comprehension (Dökmen, 1990: 395). Reading is defined as a dynamic meaning-making process that requires active and effective communication between readers (Kuru, Kaşkaya, & Calp, 2017: 73 as cited in Akyol). Reading is the comprehension of a written text, reading the known characters with or without sound, feeling in the text and the thoughts (Karatay, 2018: iii). Reading a text by word, a relevant understanding is expected in the mind. Kurudayıoğlu (2015: 15) explains the return of different definitions of reading as the main reason for the act of reading in a complex invisible to the eye. In addition, he made the definition of reading in the most general way as "the act of understanding, comprehending and interpreting written symbols (Avccıoğlu, Kurudayıoğlu, 2015: 16). Pennac (2019) took it further and stated that it is "an act of continuous creation".

As can be understood from the aforementioned definitions, the reason why reading skill is seen as a process can be mentioned. In this context, reading skill is a content issue that includes multiple and different fields. For this reason, it is important to examine the situations in which the reading skill is not developed or have difficulty developing as well as the development of the reading skill because reading has an undeniable place in both daily life and academic life. Also, from a utilitarian perspective, reading is an invitation to enjoy life, as Gonzalez points out (Gonzalez, 2020). What is the situation for those who cannot enjoy this pleasure for some reason and have reading difficulties?

While scanning studies on reading disorders, many unclear and interchangeable concepts were encountered. Some of these are reading difficulties, reading impairments and specific learning difficulties. In fact, there is a concept in the field of psychology that takes place as a specific learning disability. For this reason, it will be tried to provide clarity by including definitions of the concepts related to disorders and difficulties.

Dyslexia, dysorthography, dysgraphia, and dyscalculia form a heterogeneous group of developmental disabilities known as Specific Learning Disabilities (SLD). The main feature of these difficulties is that they are 'specific', that is, they affect a particular range of abilities in a significant but selective way, and the overall intellectual functioning remains intact. Other features of SLD are:

- They are developmental in nature: their neural structures are constantly evolving and specific learning difficulties arise only when a child is subjected to reading, writing and calculating.
- They are expressed differently at different stages of development: specific learning difficulties cannot be cured as there is no disease, but they can be compensated for 'Child disorders are changing disorders in changing people' (Cairella, 1989).
- Almost always associated with each other and / or other difficulties such as language impairment, dyspraxia, attention deficit disorder with or without hyperactivity.
- They are very heterogeneous in their individual appearance and occurrence. In other words, it can manifest differently in each individual.

SLD cannot be attributed or attributed to either a cognitive deficit or a sensory deficit or adverse environmental conditions. These include a discrepancy between reading and / or writing and / or computational performance tests compared to the educational and intellectual level (measure of inconsistency). Therefore, the difficulties that arise are unexpected if one takes into account other aspects of the development of the subject.

While explaining key terms, Field (2004) used the concept of “disorder” under the title of language disorders and made the distinction of all of them clearly. In an organic disorder, when there is a neurological or physiological cause; in function, there are psychological processing problems. Language impairments affect intake, production, or both. Especially in aphasia, the condition can be limited only to receptive aphasia or generative aphasia. In productive disorders, a distinction is made between speech disorders that sometimes affect phonology and language disorders that involve the lexicon and syntax system. However, there is a more appropriate distinction between disorders affecting performance at the phonetic and graphic level and those affecting the underlying system (phonological, graphological, semantic, or syntactic).

Developmental disorder is a disorder that manifests itself during first language acquisition. It can be caused by language processing problems, such as dyslexia and dysgraphia, or it has emotional causes, such as in cases of stuttering. The term also includes the effects on language of learning difficulties associated with Autism, Down's Syndrome, or Williams Syndrome, and cases of delayed language acquisition known as specific language impairment (SLI Specific Language Impairment). In principle, a developmental disorder has three possible effects:

- Delay in the normal language acquisition process.

- May change the order in which elements / items are acquired.
- It may result in a language development different from that observed in normal language development.

The difference between acquired and developmental disorders is sometimes marked by the use of different terms: sample dys- meets a developmental, a- acquired state. Thus, acquired dysphasia of aphasia; alexia's acquired dyslexia. It is understood that agraphi means acquired dysgraphia. For this reason, dyslexia, which is encountered in the literature and is our subject of study, is developmental dyslexia.

Dyslexia

It is known that many students at the literacy learning level, that is, at the primary education level, have reading difficulties. In his work titled "Reading Difficulties" in 1982, Razon defined reading as vocalizing written or printed signs by following certain rules. He stated that knowing how to read is to grasp the ideas, feelings and thoughts hidden by a written passage (Razon, 1982: 19). Based on all this, reading is not just an easy way to analyze signs; he saw the whole organism as a running endeavor. Considering that visual and listening functions and mental skills that are activated during reading with the organism are used; It turns out that the act of reading is a complex process (Razon, 1982: 19). The health status, neurological and physiological structure, mental, emotional and social development of an individual who is ready to learn this complex process, and the environmental conditions he / she lives in are of great importance. Effective factors for reading are vision, hearing, intelligence, language development, neurological maturity. Cerebral dominance and lateralization are among the main factors affecting reading learning, general mobility, environmental factors and gender. Considering that any of these factors affect the reading activity when a problem is experienced, it can be more acceptable how ordinary people who have difficulty in reading actually are.

While the cognitive-processing model was used in the determination and treatment of reading difficulties in the 1980s, the first topic that was discussed was on the definition of dyslexia. The reason for the discussion is that there are different views on the concept of dyslexia. The first description of developmental dyslexia was published in 1896 by the British Doctor W.P. Formulated by Morgan. Morgan defined dyslexia as "congenital word blindness". Since then, many definitions have been given progressively more prominent. Because according to Stanovich (1988) who stated that there are two types of poor readers, weak readers

are also divided into two. In the first group, ordinary poor readers with parallel IQ and reading levels are defined; The second group is defined as poor readers whose IQ and reading levels are incompatible. Dyslexia is in the second of these groups because reading performances of such readers are below what their IQ requires (Tracey & Morrow, 2017: 173). Although this contrast is the criterion used in dyslexia diagnoses, Stanovich (2000) revealed that this criterion is an incorrect way to diagnose dyslexia with his research (as cited in Stanovich, Tracey & Morrow, 2017: 174). In the aforementioned study, the most important criterion for the diagnosis of dyslexia was determined as deficiencies in phonological cognitive functions. In other words, phonological competence refers to the individual's awareness and ability of hearing and using sounds within words. He defines dyslexia as a type of learning disability that occurs with literacy learning and arises from deficiencies in other areas of cognitive functions, and emphasizes that behind these deficiencies is a phonological-processing deficiency. According to Altun, Ekiz and Odabaşı, dyslexia is defined as a learning difficulty; reading disability is also a term defined within "special learning disability" (2011: 82).

Dyslexia is a difference in the acquisition of reading, spelling and writing skills of neurological origin, according to the European Dyslexia Association. The cognitive difficulties that cause these differences can also affect organizational skills and computational abilities. It may result from the combination of difficulties of automating phonological processing, working memory, rapid naming, sequencing, and basic skills. Developmental dyslexia is a specific learning disability of neurobiological origin. It manifests itself with difficulties in recognizing correct and/or fluent written words and poor spelling and decoding skills (Lyon, Shaywitz, & Shaywitz, 2003: 2). Various neurobiological studies by scientists around the world have documented the deterioration of nervous systems that transcend languages and cultures for reading in dyslexia (Lyon et al., 2003: 4 as cited in S. Shaywitz). Zooming of evidence using functional brain imaging of adult dyslexic readers and normal readers showed that the left hemisphere posterior brain systems did not function properly during reading (see Figure 1).

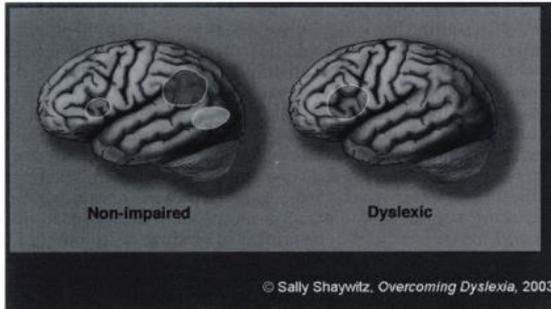


Figure 1. Dyslectic Reader Brain and Normal Reader Brain

Dyslexia Symptoms

Symptoms that can be observed in dyslectic individuals can be listed as reading disorder, writing disorder, learning disorder - learning disability, comprehension disorder and conflict in the general act process.

- Reading impairment: They have reading difficulties such as reading words backwards, skipping words, skipping syllables, mixing syllables, mixing letters, hesitating.
- Writing disorder (Dysgraphia): When they want to write, it is possible for them to write letters in reverse, to confuse some letters with numbers, in short, to mix similar symbols and use them incorrectly. Example: They may write the letter "E" backwards or use the number "3" instead of "E". Especially lowercase letters "d" and "b", dotted letters and undotted letters are often confused.
- Learning impairment - Learning disabilities: They may not be able to follow simple commands and may have learning difficulties. Example: They can confuse their right and left, and they can wear their shoes inside out. Such situations cause them to fall behind their peers.
- Comprehension: This part is also about attention. Children with dyslexia may have difficulty maintaining attention. It is possible that attention disorder and dyslexia can be observed together. For these reasons, they may encounter problems with comprehension.
- Contradiction: They can perform better than their peers by performing surprisingly in areas such as painting, music and math.

Dyslectic children are children with special abilities. This situation can confuse you; It can lead you to false thoughts such as "doing it willingly". In fact, reading disorder is not related to intelligence. Since dyslexic children have difficulty using the left frontal lobe of the brain, it is

not enough to "want". They must be supported. All these symptoms are powerful clues that can be considered as learning disability symptoms. These dyslexia symptoms do not always coexist, or dyslexia is not diagnosed for all such disorders. In order to be diagnosed with dyslexia in a child, there should be no problems at the level of intelligence. In other words, children who are successful in other fields like their peers or who have language (reading, writing, speaking) problems although they are more skillful than their peers can be diagnosed with dyslexia. Diagnosing dyslexia is also the duty of specialist doctors. Therefore, parents who have "Is my child dyslexic?" question in mind should consult their child psychiatrist.

Difficulties Experienced by Dyslectic Individuals

Judit Kormos, the teacher, researcher and trainer of the dyslexic students who studied the full participation of students in foreign or second language classes, used a running track metaphor to empathize with dyslexic individuals. Imagine putting all the students on the running track, but people with dyslexia have obstacles that only they can see. While dyslectic individuals struggle by getting up and getting caught in obstacles, other students cannot understand why these individuals fell. In this context, these imaginary obstacles experienced by dyslexic individuals are as follows. In real life, we can come across these obstacles in different dimensions.

- Reading - Reading comprehension
- Write
- Spelling
- Attention Time
- Time management
- Editing Skills
- Time Required for Learning Activities
- Self-Confidence and Self-Esteem Problems
- Social Skills and Relationships
- Finger recognition
- Right-left discrimination

- Ranking skills
- Time reading
- Establishing spatial relationships,

Dyslectic individuals are constantly confronted with these problematic areas both in daily life and in academic life. They have problems in understanding instructions, completing learning activities on time, communicating and managing time. These problems do not mean that they will not show high skills in other fields. Although the phenomenon of contradiction, which we encounter as one of the symptoms, sometimes causes problems in both diagnosing and understanding correctly, it is also useful to look at the areas in which they show superior characteristics.

Strengths of Dyslectic Individuals

Imagine you want a student to bring the map in the right corner ahead of the class, struggling with this simple instruction. However, the same student solves the problem of daily life that the whole class cannot solve, with one glance and a broad perspective, surprisingly quickly. The strengths of dyslectic individuals can be listed as follows:

- Creative
- Visual-spatial skills (3-dimensional thinking)
- To have an effective visual thinking ability
- Seeing the bigger picture from the detail
- Visual arts
- Seeing unexpected connections
- People who can think differently
- People with problem solving skills
- Writing poetry
- Emotional intelligence
- Politics, arts, science, law, business and teaching

In this context, the dyslectic individuals who have used their strengths with the necessary support and instruction and have been very successful today are Steven Spielberg, Muhammed Ali, Steve Jobs, Albert Einstein and Thomas Edison. The main feature of these people is that they are not only successful but also rich. In fact, many of the world's self-made millionaires are dyslexic. Most of these people were diagnosed too late or completed most of their lives without getting diagnosed.

So is there a relationship between an individual's mother tongue and dyslexia? Do the child whose mother tongue is Spanish and the child who is Turkish experience the same situations?

- Dyslexia can affect all people, regardless of origin. However, a person's mother tongue can play an important role in being dyslexic or developing in this condition. As Berninger et al. (2008) mentioned, features such as phonation, phonological awareness, orthography of that language and morphological awareness should also be taken into account in determining the mistakes related to the writing and reading process in developmental dyslexia (Berninger et al., As cited in Ay, Bekâr and Ergenç, 2011).

- A language with consistent grammar rules such as Italian and Spanish may be easier for a person with mild to moderate dyslexia because there is a clear connection between how any word is written and its phonetic counterpart in these two languages.

- Languages such as English, where there is no clear connection between the written form and sound, as with the words "cough" and "dough" can be much more difficult for a person with dyslexia. Therefore, the problems faced by a dyslexic patient who speaks Turkish as a mother tongue, which is very difficult to learn, may be more difficult than those who speak other languages.

Institutions and Associations

There are institutions such as unions and associations related to dyslexia both at the national and international level. The European Dyslexia Association organizes different events every year in Europe. The annual Autumn Seminars are a way to meet researchers and other dyslexic people from all over Europe to discuss the latest findings on dyslexia. A larger European Dyslexia Conference is held every three years, and there is also a Youth Camp that takes place during the summer months where dyslexic individuals between 18 and 28 can attend. Finally, spreading the Dyslexia Awareness day and week is one of its greatest goals. The conference to be held for the year 2020 will be held on 2-4 October 2020, for example.

Additionally, the British Dyslexia Association (B.D.A.) aims to create a dyslexia friendly society. For this general purpose, B.D.A. works towards the following goals:

1. To create awareness of dyslexia in all segments of society.
2. Identifying dyslexic difficulties early for everyone in the community.
3. To provide effective and appropriate education for all dyslexic children and adults.
4. Availability of appropriate assessments for all dyslexic children and adults.
5. Reasonable arrangements for dyslexic individuals in all sectors of society (including education, employment, education and criminal justice services).
6. Information should be available for age ranges and individuals with dyslexia in sectors and their supporters, on effective strategies to help overcome the difficulties associated with dyslexia and how to maximize the strengths of dyslexic individuals.

B.D.A.'s educational activities are an important part of the work in the above areas. From early screening training to information for education professionals, to informing employers about how to make reasonable adjustments for dyslexia workers and empowerment strategies for dyslexic individuals, B.D.A. educational activities try to help increase the awareness of dyslexia in all age ranges and sectors of the society. It organizes about 400 training events a year. In addition, the association has prepared a booklet with provisions for open, face-to-face and distance education. This booklet includes information on daily or longer courses on Dyslexia at different levels. As seen in Figure 2, there are both awareness raising and dyslexia courses for different needs. For example, while gaining general awareness, as well as teaching-oriented practices were included in the daily course prepared for lecturers at higher education level. Thus, those who attend the course will have learned teaching methods and techniques.

Open Training

| | |
|---|----|
| Practical Solutions for Dyslexia for Primary Teachers and T.A.s | 10 |
| Practical Solutions for Dyslexia in Secondary and F.E. | 11 |
| Practical Solutions for Dyslexia in Higher Education | 12 |
| Dyslexia and the Early Years Foundation Stage | 13 |
| Screening for Dyslexia (Pre-16s) | 14 |
| Screening for Dyslexia (post-16 and Adults)..... | 15 |
| Practical Solutions Plus (Reading) | 16 |
| Practical Solutions Plus (Spelling) | 17 |
| Practical Solutions plus (Writing) | 18 |
| Dyscalculia Awareness and Support—Day 1: Identifying Dyscalculia | 19 |
| Dyscalculia Awareness and Support—Days 2 and 3: Supporting Students with Dyscalculia | 20 |
| Practical Solutions for Music Learning and Dyslexia | 21 |
| SASC Accredited Courses for Specialist Assessors | 22 |

Figure 2. Daily course content

The International Dyslexia Association was founded in 1949 by Dr. Orton. It was established by the Orton Association on behalf of Orton to serve dyslexic individuals, their families and experts in the field. The association has 42 branches in the USA and Canada and more than 9000 members. Again, in the handbook called *Dyslexia in the Classroom Environment* prepared by the International Dyslexia Association, teachers are asked about the definition and symptoms of dyslexia. There are clues about the techniques that can be applied in the classroom.

Experiences of the Dyslectic Individual

Information was obtained from the students of the Faculty of Engineering at Gazi University School of Foreign Languages through interview questions with the student who is currently studying in the College of Foreign Languages and has Dyslexia. Since formal education could not be continued due to the Covid-19 pandemic, the data were received by email. 4 questions were asked to the student in the form:

1. When and how were you diagnosed with dyslexia? What were your difficulties in primary school? Do you meet other people with the same situation?
2. In what situations or when the conditions are met, can you be successful?

3. What are the other effects of having dyslexia? (Does it have other social, emotional, economic effects?)

4. What did you experience while learning English? Under what conditions could learning be easier?

The answers given by the student were as follows.

1. I was born in Konya on May 2, 2000. My primary school teacher was my mother. I remember the difficulties of my life started in this period. I don't remember having many friends before I started primary school. I could not spend time with my peers. I was with my grandfather in general. I spent time with his friends and I remember having fun. I hadn't noticed anything strange about this until I started primary school. I had a very serious adjustment problem in primary school. My friends would never want to involve me in their games. I remember that while playing the ball, I could never calculate the direction of the ball coming and the distance. When we started learning to read and write, I had extreme difficulty. I was always mixing up letters. I was very successful in mathematics. About 2 years before starting school, my aunt taught things like 4 operations and arithmetic averages. My mother was also very surprised by this inconsistency between my lessons. But since I was a child who never worked at home, my failure in Turkish lessons was hitting my laziness. I remember reading that I never wanted to read anything, it made me dizzy. I noticed my interest in poetry during my primary school years when I was encouraged to read books. Maybe it was tempting to me because it was not difficult to read poetry books. I have had an elementary school life that was not very good in terms of both social and literacy, as you can understand. I was a successful kid when I moved to middle school, but I don't remember studying at all. I couldn't listen much in the lesson. I was subjected to an intelligence test by a teacher who noticed this and found out that I was gifted. My family always thought I was smart, but after learning this I was accused of laziness in every failure I have experienced. Yes, I was not studying, but it was not in my hand, I got bored with everything I did. The lesson was one of them. I have maintained my current performance without working until a certain age. Socially, I changed a lot after primary school and suddenly I turned into a person with a lot of friends when I had no friends. This increasingly continued in high school. I was the head of the school and I was loved by everyone. Even though I stayed away from everything as a kid, this changed in high school. But in the 11th grade, things changed a lot with the stress of the exam. My circle of friends consisted of extremely hardworking people. Like them, I wanted to work hard and be more successful. But I could not listen or work. Things got worse in the 12th grade, now I have only one connection with the lesson, and that is a

remorse. And at the end of the year, my test score came well below what I had targeted. My friends knew that I was always a little different. I had a friend and he was dyslexic one day, while I was getting into trouble, I told him about my childhood experiences. He said he was very similar to his own experience and referred me to his mother, who was a psychiatrist. During a long conversation with her mother, she was diagnosed with dyslexia and attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder. (the answer to the first question I am sending piece by piece)

2. People with dyslexia are usually people with attention deficit and I am one of them. Since there are too many distractions during the lesson, it cannot be said that I can listen to lessons at school. The environment in which I study should always be very little furnished. I don't really understand when someone says something slowly. I get distracted very quickly. In general, my understanding does not fit well with my classmates. My visual intelligence is stronger than what I listen to, and what I see and touch remain more in my mind.

3. Being dyslexic is sometimes very tiring for me and sometimes it can open many different doors. Sometimes I can look in a way no one else can. But I find it hard to do some jobs that people can do very easily. For example, I learned to tie my laces for a very long time before starting university. I can never write on paper while doing a transaction. I cannot describe directions and many things like that ... I had a lot of emotional difficulties as a child because the children were not very nice to those who were different, but in later years I cannot say that I had much emotional distress.

4. English has always been very important to me. To be honest, I don't have much ability to learn languages. But our English teacher in middle school and high school was foreign. Learning English from native speakers was very useful for me. I am for learning by speaking rather than learning grammar. As a person with dyslexia, I believe it is easier to learn by experiencing everything. I can answer if you have any further questions

note: there may be some disconnection in the sentences due to my focus problems.

In general terms, we can summarize the points that can be taken from the writings of the dyslexic individual is as follows. First of all, we accept that every learner learns differently with dyslexia; it can be seen as a learning style, not a learning disability. Because each dyslexic individual has unique strengths and different learning styles. Generalization cannot be made. In addition, since the student's writings are conveyed as they are without correction, although they are written on the computer, there are both thought level and grammatical problems. As evidence that they have problems with short-term memory, these problems are encountered as

general harmony and order problems in real life. This situation, which Stanovich put forward as the Matthew Effect in Reading and reflects the academic results of dyslexia, is a situation that the student is also exposed to. The problems of children with reading difficulties are initially related to phonological awareness. However, it spreads later, that is, it begins to generalize and spread over time. Because students who have reading difficulties read later and therefore read less. This causes an increase in cognitive difference with other students (as cited in Stanovich, Tracey & Morrow, 2017: 174).

In addition to providing students with a diagnosis of dyslexia for example where Turkey is also seen how important social support is expected. Considering the extent of peer influence at the primary school level, it may be vital to raise the awareness of not only teachers, parents and dyslexic individuals but also other children at school.

Studies on Reading Difficulties

In the article, which was examined as a subtype of specific learning disorders, different definitions of dyslexia and dyslexia for dyslexia and the causes of dyslexia were discussed, some of the symptoms that change with age in children with dyslexia were summarized according to grade levels. In addition, short, practical information about classroom management and educational techniques was provided for classroom teachers (Babür, 2018: 67). Observable behavioral characteristics in dyslectic students are listed as phonological awareness (sound awareness), reading aloud, naming speed (automatization), orthographic awareness, working memory, morphological awareness and language development. However, it was emphasized that even if dyslexic children show similarities in terms of their academic difficulties, the degree of these difficulties will be different in each individual.

Bekâr, Ergenç, Ay, and Gürkan (2013) described the “repetition” errors observed in the reading processes of children with dyslexia and healthy children. The mistakes made are as follows:

(1) Word Repeat

child child = "child"

ready ready ready = "ready"

(2) Repetition in the First Voice (s)

so on the street = "on the street"

Bah to those in the garden of the garden = "to those in the garden"

(3) Correction

squeezer seller = "seller"

felt the pill = "felt"

It can be said that the length of the text has an effect between the experimental and control groups.

In the study, which measured whether lexical awareness made a difference between dyslexic students and non-dyslexic students in reading Chinese characters, non-verbal intelligence, Chinese character reading, cognitive linguistics skills and lexical awareness of the 2nd, 4th and 6th grade participants were tested. Results revealed that dyslexic participants showed a later developmental cap than non-dyslexic participants. It has also shown that lexical awareness can be used as a criterion to distinguish children with dyslexia from those without dyslexia at all primary education levels (Li-Chih et al., 2017: 203).

In a study (Rastatter et al., 2007: 266), which investigated the effect of frequency altered feedback on the reading abilities of students with reading difficulties and students who did not have reading difficulties (Rastatter et al., 2007: 266), the participants were given third, sixth and ninth grade materials aloud in two situations (frequency modified feedback and normal conditions). Although no change was observed in participants who had no reading difficulties; it was revealed that the participants with reading difficulties made fewer mistakes under the modified feedback conditions. The development of reading skills in children consists of the coordination of several interrelated but independent sub-processes. Evidence suggests that phonological processing capabilities are essential for word analysis, letter naming, and typographical naming. For this reason, reading disorders should be examined carefully to find out which sub-process deficiency or inadequacy is caused. When difficult areas are identified, an intervention can be planned for a treatment month that will provide high-level benefits in this plan. It has been observed that changes in auditory feedback have a positive effect on neurobiological functions related to phonological processing and reading skills of children with reading difficulties. For this reason, it became more meaningful that the reading skills of dyslexic students improved with the feedback whose frequency was changed. However, in the study in which the effect of frequency-modified feedback on adults' reading comprehension skills was examined, the frequency-modified feedback had a positive effect on adults with

reading difficulties; It has been concluded that it has a harmful effect on normal adults without reading difficulties (Carter, Rastatter, Walker, and O'Brien, 2009: 69).

In another study, the contribution of the 3P (Pause, Prompt, Praise) method and the gap completion (cloze) technique to improve the word recognition and reading skills of a student studying in the fifth grade of primary school, who had reading difficulties. In the study, narrative texts were used as a data collection tool to measure the reading level and reading comprehension skill of the student who was found to have reading difficulties and in activities aimed at improving the reading skill of the student. The frequency of the mistakes made by the student during reading was analyzed with descriptive data and it was observed that the reading level of the student improved from the anxiety level to the instructional level (Dağ, 2010: 65). The 3P method is one of the one-to-one learning programs. It involves a one-to-one operative process with either the teacher, parent or peer. The method has two basic elements. First, the provision of appropriate reading material; the other is the feedback given by the teacher to the student in the form of "hesitation, directing and praising". During the pause phase, the student is given enough time to find the word that is suitable for the context and correct the error.

Technology has of course found its place in studies on dyslexia today, where technology has made great progress. Technological tools have the potential to effectively support learning performance in children and are therefore considered useful for children with special needs such as reading disorders. In this study (Görge et al., 2020: 2), the effectiveness of a new digital game-based reading education conducted at home during a short education period of eight to eleven weeks in second and third grade children with reading impairment was investigated. The results showed a significant improvement in reading performance for the trained vocabulary material and a trend towards transferring to untrained words. It has also been found that digital game-based reading training is highly motivating and applicable for use in the home environment. This study expands on existing knowledge about digital game-based reading support and highlights that using a multi-component reading approach combined with flow principles is beneficial for children with reading impairment. In addition, the program evaluated appears to be a promising support for children who do not have access to individual reading support.

Learning Disabilities 'often under the name' Attention Deficit and Hyperactivity Disorder which accompanied the 'developmental dyslexia', as all around the world, is a developmental disorder which is very common in Turkey. Dyslexia is the most common learning disability, according to University of Michigan Health department experts. In fact, 80 percent of students

with learning difficulties have dyslexia. The International Dyslexia Association estimates that 15 to 20 percent of the US population has some dyslexic symptoms, such as slow or incorrect reading, bad spelling, poor writing, or mixing similar words. In Turkey, Ankara 2nd and 4th grade students in developmental dyslexia rates in studies of investigated a total of 1129 children in the classrooms of subjects (514 female, 615 male) occurring within the student population, 34 (3%), one reading troubled child was found. 8 (1.6%) of them are girls and 26 (4.2%) are boys (Bingöl, 2003: 75).

As Bekar et al. (2013) also stated, dyslexia is not related to mental deficiency / retardation. "Developmental Dyslexia", defined as a neurologically based learning disorder, is a problem that can only be overcome by the development of awareness of those who are both learners and instructors in the education process. Since it is a very common developmental disorder, it is thought that it is very important for individuals who are educators to develop awareness on this issue, both for the early diagnosis of children with this disorder and for the children who have been diagnosed to develop learning strategies.

Reading Difficulties and Their Reflections on Foreign Language Teaching

They have specific learning difficulties diagnosed as dyslexic individuals in Turkey, may be exempt from foreign language courses if they wish. However, this does not mean that dyslexic individuals cannot learn a foreign language. Considering the studies conducted with dyslectic individuals, it is a fact that they can learn more than one foreign language (Yurttabir, 2019: 103).

The first case was the DYSLANG project; Turkey was a partner as well, which started to be implemented in 2012-2013. The project was carried out by the European Union within the scope of Lifelong Learning. The studies carried out with the countries of Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Italy, Switzerland, England and Wales aim to support the dyslexic individual in learning an additional curriculum language. In this project, both local and other general studies were carried out for partner countries and module-booklets were published as products.

The statements of a student learning a foreign language with this project are as follows:

"I'm a 21-year-old dyslexic hedonist. Before I wrote this article to you, I designed it from my mind many times, but since I could not collect any of these designs in a proper text, it took time to write and send it. To explain more, although I have many thoughts that I would like to write down, they all keep turning in my mind. "I can't control my thoughts". There is a little

experiment I have done to compare myself with those around me. I tell my friends to think of a straight line in their mind. Although my friends had no difficulty in doing this, I could not succeed at all. I always had difficulties in explaining myself, being motivated, writing, and programming. Although I had the same difficulty studying, I had no difficulty learning English or Japanese; The foreign materials I watched (anime, manga series, cartoons) allowed me to learn more with less difficulty, as they made these languages pass through my mind without forcing me. Besides, although it was difficult to control what I was thinking, it was quite easy to control how I was thinking. Even if it's a word, I slowly translated my mind first to English and then to Japanese. When I first started learning Japanese, I was thinking in three languages. Currently, I do not feel any difference between thinking in Turkish, English or Japanese (Yurttabir 2019: 104 as cited in Özel).

The same project shared sample lesson plans and included more specific techniques. For example, in the lesson plan prepared to raise phonological and orthographic awareness, by giving lists of English sounds; service has been made according to the rules (See. Appendix-1). DYSLANG, also supported by the European Union Commission, started with the belief that dyslexic students would not show academic progress without the necessary intervention. It is another project owned by the British Dyslexia Association. Supporting multilingual dyslexic individuals was considered difficult due to the multiplicity of individual linguistic backgrounds and the apparent complexity of the identification process. However, over time, the importance of the approach that is important in solving this problem has emerged to support the difficulties faced by the child rather than the source of the problem. This shift in paradigm has revealed the potential to provide appropriate intervention and support without labeling. The aim of the Dyslang project is to develop and implement a distance learning course and to support multilingual dyslexic individuals in learning an additional curriculum language by preparing a guide for teachers and parents.

This is not just a situation experienced by foreign language teachers. In a study whose objectives were to determine reading difficulties the teachers encounter and what they do to resolve these difficulties. The data were collected with 10 classroom teachers in the 3 provinces in the northeastern Turkey' via semi-structured interviews According to the results of the research, it was determined that classroom teachers faced with many reading difficulties and applied various practices to overcome them. It has been determined that teachers consider their practices partially effective but do not see themselves fully sufficient (Altun, Durmuş & Odabaşı, 2011: 96). In this context, when referring to the classroom teaching curriculum, the

content of the 4th term “Teaching Turkish” lesson on reading difficulties includes “Modern methods and techniques that can be used in teaching Turkish; improving reading, writing, listening, speaking, visual reading and presentation, comprehension skills; diagnosis and elimination of reading difficulties; structure of reading texts; teaching informative and narrative texts, intertextual reading and writing; making meaning from texts, questions about texts and their types; developing critical thinking through reading and writing; speed reading and techniques; main idea teaching and methods; purposes, types and rules of reading; evaluation of reading, writing, listening, speaking and understanding; examination of the primary school Turkish curriculum, its relationship with other lessons, sample activity applications related to the program.” has been included. Within the scope of curriculum development studies, the "Special Education" course can be added to the program to raise awareness especially for teachers in primary education.

Some approaches and techniques that can be used in the context of Foreign Language Teaching will be mentioned below:

Orton-Gillingham Approach and Techniques

The approach is named after Samuel Torrey Orton and Anna Gillingham. Samuel Torrey Orton is an American doctor who pioneered learning disability studies. He studied the causes and treatment of dyslexia. Context suggestions were helpful for all those who had difficulties. Anna Gillingham is an educator and psychologist known for her contributions to the Orton-Gillingham method for teaching children with dyslexia to read. The Orton-Gillingham Approach is a direct, clear, multidimensional, structured, sequential, diagnostic, and prescriptive way of teaching literacy while reading, writing, and spelling. It is understood and applied as an approach, not as a method, program or system. Its most basic feature is that it has a multisensory approach.

- International Professional Association Dr. It was founded in the name of Orton because he is one of the pioneers in reading difficulties.
- There are many institutions around the world that apply this approach.



Figure 3. Vocabulary Cards

- a. Visual exercise - word cards: These cards are rich content cards where letters are presented together with images. For example, he introduces the -U-sound as the first sound of the word umbrella and the umbrella image is seen in the corner of the card.
- b. Sensory exercise-sand tray: Letters can be practiced by finger on the tray with sand inside. With the activation of different senses by touching, it offers a multi-sensory environment for dyslexic individuals. These trays, which are also used by the Montessori approach, can also be prepared with lentils and rice so that they can be prepared at home.
- c. Blending exercise: Blending involves blending different senses with each other. Like writing by listening, writing by touching.
- d. Concentrated Sounds: It is the study of problematic or target sounds within a certain plan. It is realized by studying the same sounds in a concentrated way.

Spelling (Spelling) Teaching

This technique, taken from the examples prepared by a mother whose dyslectic child goes to primary school for her child's development on a whiteboard in the morning, can also be applied at the classroom level. First, a target sound is determined and then the target sound is focused on. While doing this concentration, both color and visual usage were provided. For example, when teaching the “-igh-” sound in English, words containing the sound are written with the target part in red and the remaining letters are written with a black pen. The word is visualized in blue to create a picture in the student's mind. In the first example, the word “light”, which contains the sound of “igh”, is associated with lightbulb and the following image appears.

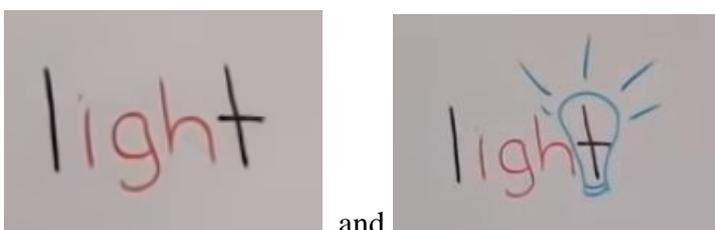


Figure 4 & 5. Spelling Teaching Samples

As the second example, the same process is followed for the word “might” in the noun form. Therefore, again, the target sound is visualized with red, others black and again with a blue pen.

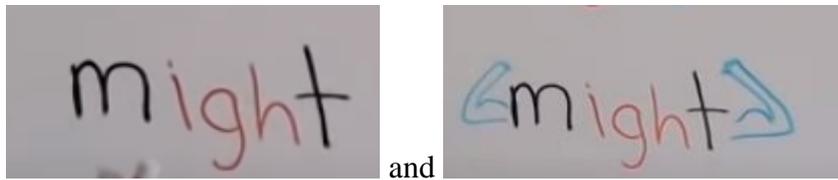


Figure 6 & 7. Spelling Teaching Samples 2

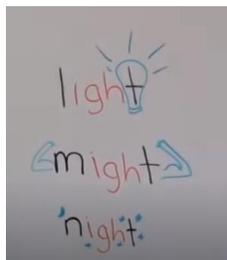


Figure 8. Complex Word Spelling Examples

In the case of more complex words, since the word “night” is taught first, it is combined so that the visual of this word remains constant.



Figure 9. Complex Word Spelling Examples

As seen in Figure 7, w-ee-k eeler is written in red for the word "weeknight". In fact, it is not the target here, but the previously learned word is written in red for purpose again. It can be mentioned here that the consistency between words and images is as important as the use of visuals, because following the same pattern also provides convenience for dyslectic individuals. In addition, long words can be learned more easily by dividing them into parts. (See Appendix-1 for more examples)

This technique may not always be applicable for every word, but in case of difficulties, clipart or images on the internet can be used to give an idea.

In general, the basic principle in the techniques of dyslexic individuals is to associate words with visuals and to employ more than one sense. Although these techniques are difficult to prepare and time-consuming, they are vitally important in terms of helping dyslexic individuals. As a teacher of the course, it can be considered and used as a technique to be prepared for different learning styles. The important thing is to be able to find facilitating ways without focusing on the problem by tagging.

Special Ways to be Used in Teaching Foreign Language to Dyslectic Individuals

There are special ways to teach foreign languages to students diagnosed with Dyslexia, which is defined under special learning difficulties. Some of these are as follows:

- Using technological tools (such as computer, CD player),
- Simplifying the written instruction,
- Providing little information, tasks, instructions at once,
- Blocking distracting stimuli,
- Highlighting only the important parts,
- Providing additional, supportive exercises,
- Preparing a guide for reading,
- Instruction repetition.

In fact, these ways, which are similar to general principles, can be used both in the acquisition of dyslexic individuals and in effective teaching of a foreign language.

Technology and Dyslexia

Of course, developing and changing learning tools thanks to the developing technology are also customized and used for dyslexia. There are websites and applications that can be used for different skills and challenges. For example, with Time Timer, a time keeping application that can be used in regulation, it can help dyslexic individuals with both visual time depiction and audible stimuli. Again, with the MindMeister site, dyslexic individuals can create, view and

edit mind maps with the online mind mapping tool that enables visual capture, development and sharing of ideas. Can be used for brainstorming, note taking, project planning and many other creative tasks, MindMeister is completely web-based, meaning no downloads and updates. With Popplet, online mind maps can be created that will help dyslexic students organize their thoughts and structure the basics of texts such as essays and letters. In addition to editing skills, we can list the technological tools to be used in literacy-spelling as follows: Storykit, Pocket Phonics, First Words Deluxe, See Read Say, ABC Spelling Magic 1, ABC Spelling Magic 2, ABC Spelling Magic 3, ABC Spelling Magic 4. Dyslectic students can also be supported through Spy Sam Reading Series, Sentence Maker, Learn to Read, Write and Spell, Clicker Books (from Crick software) and many other software, websites and applications (See Annex.2). For example, Storykit is a multimedia storytelling mobile application. It allows its users to create electronic storybooks and share them with others. They can illustrate by creating a story and drawing on the screen, taking a picture of something they saw or drawing on paper, and then photographing the paper or adding photos from their album. Storykit is a practical tool for teachers who can use it to create their own storytelling books and share them with their students. All of them are free and anyone can use them easily. Storykit is compatible with iPod touch, iPhone touch and iPad. In this context, editing, reading, writing, vocabulary learning, phonological awareness auxiliary applications; speech-to-text or text-to-speech transfer tools; it is possible to access the sites to access videos and songs. (See Appendix-3 for updated useful site, software and application list).

CONCLUSION

Reading difficulties, which are considered within the scope of learning difficulties, which are referred to with concepts such as disorder, difficulty, and disability, affect children in the literacy learning process. Since the difficulty is experienced differently in each individual, it is named as specific learning disability. Considering the prevalence of dyslexia as one of the reading difficulties both at the primary school level and in the society, it is of great importance to know the symptoms for its diagnosis. Although it varies from person to person, it can be listed as reading disorder, writing disorder, learning disorder - learning disability, comprehension disorder and conflict in the general act process. The problem that is meant by contradiction in this section is that the individual has a high level of success in certain skills while having problems in other areas. This is because the reading and writing problems observed in dyslexia are associated with laziness or unwillingness. Because dyslexic

individuals are creative, visual-spatial skills (3-dimensional thinking, having an effective visual thinking ability, seeing the big picture from detail, visual arts, seeing unexpected connections, people who can think differently, people with problem solving skills, writing poetry, emotional They are highly skilled in the fields of intelligence, politics, arts, science, law, business and teaching, in this context, it is very important for dyslexic individuals to gain awareness as both parents and teachers.

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APPENDIX 1

Sample Lesson Plan



UNIT 6. Techniques for developing phonological and orthographic awareness

Sound-letter relationship (orthographic awareness) training

- chance
- change
- check
- child
- choice
- china
- chapter
- chop

List 1



- chance
- change
- check
- child
- choice
- china
- chapter
- chop

List 1



- chance
- change
- check
- child
- choice
- china
- chapter
- chop

List 1



- chance
- change
- check
- child
- choice
- china
- chapter
- chop

List 1



Sandwich

such

Shadow

Sandwich

Starfish

bath

bath

sparkle

margin

carpet

farther

garbage

charming

APPENDIX 3

Technological Tools, Softwares and Websites

| WEBSITES, APPS SUITABLE FOR STUDENTS WITH DYSLEXIA – 2020 | | |
|---|---|---|
| Type/Title | Description (descriptions adapted from apps' websites) | Links |
| ORGANIZATION | | |
| Time Timer | Time tracking app. Time management with a visual depiction of time, also audible signals. | https://www.tsheets.com/pages/app-two-part?utm_source=Bine&utm_medium=pay-per-click&utm_campaign=Clock_in_Out_RLSA&utm_term=best%20app%20for%20clocking%20in%20and%20out&utm_content=Clock_in_App&msclkid=67401a6a3839181cc7624601e974a72a |
| MindMeister | Online mind mapping tool that lets you capture, develop and share ideas visually. Create, view and edit mind maps. For brainstorming, note taking, project planning and tons of other creative tasks. MindMeister is completely web-based, which means there's no download and no updating! | https://www.mindmeister.com/?utm_source=bin&utm_medium=ppc&utm_campaign=world_en_search&utm_content=mm&msclkid=45d02665022d142865a27a0ed3e12a77&utm_term=mindmeister |
| Popplet | You can create mind maps online that can help dyslexic students organize their thoughts or structure the foundation of essays, letters etc. | www.popplet.com |
| READING/WRITING/SPELLING | | |
| StoryKit | Storykit is a multimedia storytelling mobile app. It allows its users to create electronic storybooks and share them with others. Create a story and illustrate by drawing on the screen, taking a photograph of something you see, or drawing on paper and then photographing the paper, or attaching photos from your album. Storykit is a practical tool for teachers who can use it to create their own storytelling books and share them with their students. It is all free and anyone can use it easily. Storykit is compatible with iPod touch, iPhone touch, and iPad. | https://www.educatorstechnology.com/2011/05/storykit-free-mobile-multimedia.html |

| | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|--|
| | own grids and texts with a range of features. It is available as an app and as software, too. | |
| British Council – Learn English Teens | Teaches how to write a story. | http://bit.ly/LETeensStory2 http://bit.ly/LETeensStory1 |
| First step reading | It is for young students under 12. online video lessons, mainly songs to teach young students to read through practicing sounds, phonics and blending. | www.firststepreading.com |
| Reading A-Z | Thousands of downloadable, projectable, printable teachers' materials, covering all the skills necessary for effective reading instruction. | https://www.readinga-z.com/ |
| Make Beliefs Comix | Website for creating comics. | http://www.makebeliefscomix.com/comix/ |
| Teach your monster to read | The groundbreaking game that makes learning to read fun <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Covers everything from letters and sounds to reading full sentences. Designed in collaboration with leading academics. Complements all synthetic phonics programmes used in schools. Computer version is 100% free. | www.teachyourmonstertoread.com |
| Wikipanion | Access Wikipedia with an online dictionary from any word in the article. It is the best and fastest Wikipedia browsing application for iOS. Can be used when reading books online and facing unfamiliar words. | http://www.wikipanion.net/ |
| Vocabulary Spelling City | Teaching, learning spelling, phonics and vocabulary through games and activities. | www.spellingcity.com |
| Newsela | Digital reading experiences supercharge reading engagement and learning in every subject. Teachers at PRO schools and districts get access to dedicated Newsela specialists and can unlock a variety of Professional Learning resources to effectively implement Newsela PRO and drive learning. | https://newsela.com/ |
| Dvolver movie maker | Tool to practice writing. Students can make a short "movie" choosing among different characters, backgrounds and movements, than they have to write the dialogue. At the end you will see your "movie" as a cartoon with balloon dialogues. | http://www.dvolver.com/moviemaker/make.html |
| VOCABULARY LEARNING | | |

| | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| Pocket Phonics | The Pocket Phonics Stories application is a program to teach students (4 to 7 year-olds) to read using phonics. It is designed to be used with individual or multiple students and is great for classroom or group use. | https://www.educationalappstore.com/app/pocketphonics-stories |
| First Words Deluxe | Reading game for kids, phonics. First Words Deluxe provides endless fun for the toddlers, giving the child a head start on learning their letters and learning to spell words. | https://www.commonsemia.org/app-reviews/first-words-deluxe |
| See Read Say | Did you know before children finish first grade, they should be able to read all the Dolch sight words? This list of 220 words, prepared by E.W. Dolch, generally made up from 50 to 75 percent of the reading material encountered by students. These words are generally known as Dolch words, high-frequency words, or "sight words". | https://appadvice.com/app/see-read-say/322313775 |
| ABC Spelling Magic 1 | Teaches the sounds of the letters, helps your child learn the sounds of the alphabet and how to build words. This app indirectly teaches the essential reading skill of segmenting as well. Two levels of challenge are available. | https://sites.google.com/site/interactwithmyboard/jpad-apps-and-appivities/language-development-apps/abcspellingmagic123 |
| ABC Spelling Magic-2 | This level focuses on teaching consonant blends. | |
| ABC Spelling Magic 3 | Gives the opportunity to practice building 4-7 letter words that contain two or more syllables. | https://appadvice.com/app/abc-spelling-magic-4/598794973 |
| ABC Spelling Magic 4 | This app will help children gain mastery with words that contain silent final e. | |
| Spy Sam Reading Series | This multi-book adventure starts with a few simple words on each page. Gradually the simplistic cartoon façade falls away to reveal a thought-provoking plot that champions loyalty and determination. You can download 3 books. | http://www.soyam.com/ |
| Sentence Maker | It is a simple sentence-forming app that can help kids learn the basics of word pairing and sentence structure. This app can be helpful for kids who have difficulty with spoken and written expression. | https://www.commonsemia.org/app-reviews/sentence-maker |
| Learn to Read, Write and Spell | Teaches young users foundational literacy skills. | https://appreview.com/app/learn-to-read-write-and-spell-2/ |
| Clicker Books (from Crick software) | Supporting writing and reading for learners of English, French & Spanish. Images and sound are incorporated into texts. Teachers and learners can create their | https://appadvice.com/app/clicker-books/645936237 |

PLICKERS®: A TEACHER-FRIENDLY DIGITAL TOOL FOR LANGUAGE EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Language teachers must adapt themselves to the pace of developing technology hence equip themselves with digital literacy skills in order to understand the ‘language’ of ‘digital natives’ (Prensky, 2001), that is, their students. Language teachers’ methods for teaching and assessment can greatly be changed through digital tools such as Plickers, a teacher-friendly and student-engaging educational tool for learning, teaching, and assessment. Possessing an aspect of gamification, Plickers can be personalized vis-à-vis students’ needs and interests and utilized in reading, listening, grammar, and vocabulary teaching and assessment. All these variations enable teachers to provide and receive instant feedback and learners to interact in a motivated environment thanks to the competitive nature of Plickers. This paper aims to provide comprehensive background information about Plickers and its applications to foreign language education in relation to learning, teaching, and assessment.

Keywords: *Plickers, student response system, digital natives, language assessment, language learning*

INTRODUCTION

The 21st century has brought with itself some changes and advances in our lives and made educators, curriculum designers, assessors and examiners take on some new responsibilities in order to pace up with the innovations in relation to education. One thing that all these educators, program developers and assessors have in common is the fact that they have been in a way forced to incorporate technology into their curricula, teaching, and assessment otherwise they will fall behind with the innovations that students have already become a part of. Although the prospects for teachers' use of technology depends on a number of factors such as beliefs and attitudes (Kennedy & Kennedy, 1996) and intrinsic factors (Zammit, 1992; Gardner et al., 1993; George & Camarata, 1998), avoidance of technology utilization in the classroom may affect student achievement (OTA, 1995). In other words, it can be argued that the integration of technology into the classrooms is more likely to increase learning opportunities and improve the quality of teaching.

Introduced in the 1960s, clicker-based technologies have evolved in terms of forms, capabilities, and availability (Hunsu et al., 2016) and gained immense recognition from many educators and researchers (Elliott, 2003; Barnett, 2006; Crossgrove & Curran, 2008; Mayer et al., 2013; Hunsu et al., 2016) with regard to active student participation and learner engagement. However, more recently, these technologies have come to be termed differently such as student response system (Anthis, 2011) and electronic feedback system (Brady et al., 2013). No matter how they are termed, teachers expect students to respond to their questions through several means including raising their hands (Mayer et al., 2009; Bartsch & Murphy, 2011) or raising response cards (Stowell et al., 2010; Fallon & Forrest, 2011). One of the types of student response systems, Plickers is a tailored digital tool for formative assessment that can be utilized by teachers asking for instant feedback through response cards. The fact that it is a real time-saver makes it more available for teachers who are technologically-friendly and look for instant feedback from their students before, during, and even after task completion or performance delivery. In brief, Plickers can be utilized in many aspects in terms of language learning and teaching.

Although much research was conducted on student response systems including descriptions and comparisons (Robertson, 2000; Burnstein & Lederman, 2003; Penuel et al., 2004), research on Plickers touched upon perceptions (Wood et al., 2017) and assessment tool in physical education (Krause et al., 2017). To the best of my knowledge, there is no research yet conducted on the utilization of Plickers in foreign language learning and teaching. Bearing all this in mind,

the present paper intends to provide a comprehensive description of Plickers, explain its implementations to foreign language settings, and raise some concerns about it.

What is Plickers?

As an online and mobile application, Plickers provides teachers with many opportunities ranging from checking student comprehension to receiving instant feedback on a specific task. It also helps students engage in classroom activities in a stress-free atmosphere – or subconsciously – and enable teachers to concentrate more on teaching and assessment and less on task or activity preparation. Due to its competitive nature, Plickers allows students to have the chance to think critically on key concepts and help them maintain their motivation levels high for a period of time. It is cost-efficient because it does not require students to possess a smartphone, tablet, or a computer, only teachers must have one of these devices along with the Internet connection to utilize this application.

How to Use Plickers

The application must be downloaded on a mobile phone or a computer. Following the download, teachers must get an account in the name of their classes. After signing up, teachers can have access to their accounts where they can do a variety of actions. Plickers cards, each representing a different student like a barcode, must then be printed off. These cards must be assigned to students and kept by each student as long as this application is utilized. It must be reminded here that these cards have unique visual codes and must be assigned to students individually. However, one set of cards can also be used in other classrooms hence there is no need to print them off multiple times.

Stage 1: Sign up for a Class Account

Before teachers utilize this application in their classrooms, they need to get an account for their class. By simply typing the website (<http://plickers.com>) into the browser, they can reach the website registration page as can be seen in Figure 1 below.

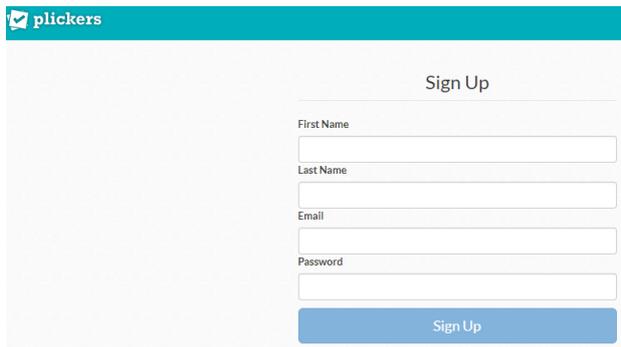


Figure 1. Sign-up page for Plickers

It is very easy to download and sign up for this application as it is time-efficient. After signing up, the page where account details of the user are displayed on the screen as in Figure 2.



Figure 2. Account Details on Plickers

On the top bar of the webpage, there are several options including *Library*, *Reports*, *Classes*, *Live View*, *Cards*, *Help*, and your account name. Teachers can perform a number of activities by just clicking on one of these bars.

Stage 2: Adding a Class

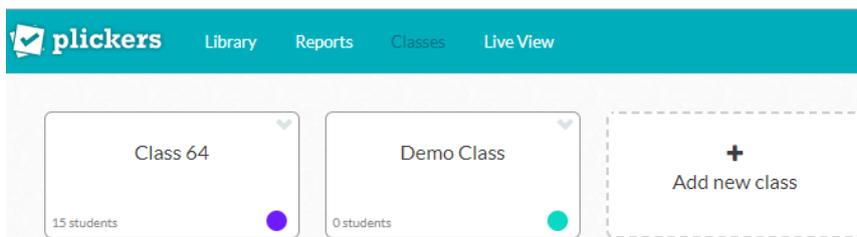


Figure 3. Class on Plickers

Following the registration process, teachers need to form a class by just clicking *Add new class*. When a new class is added, the system provides many options for teachers including class name, year, subject, and class color. Completion of these steps will help create the new class. After typing in the necessary information, teachers must click on their class name to assign a unique visual code (a piece of Plickers cards) for each individual student as can be seen in Figure 4 below.

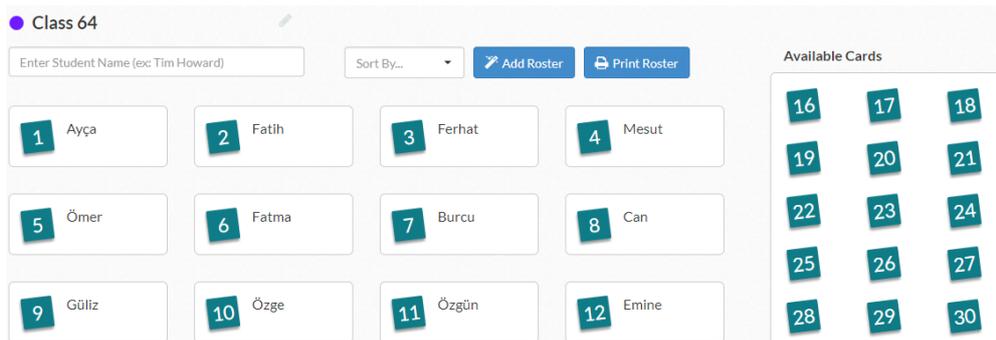


Figure 4. Class set-up on Plickers

Typing in a student name, teachers can give each student a different number and thus a different piece of Plickers cards. On the right side of the assigned numbers, teachers can also see available cards for other classes. Finishing the assignment of students, teachers can now print the roster which they can sort by first or last name to have a complete list of the students in the classroom.

Stage 3: Adding Questions to Library

By clicking on *Library*, teachers access to a page as shown in Figure 5 below.

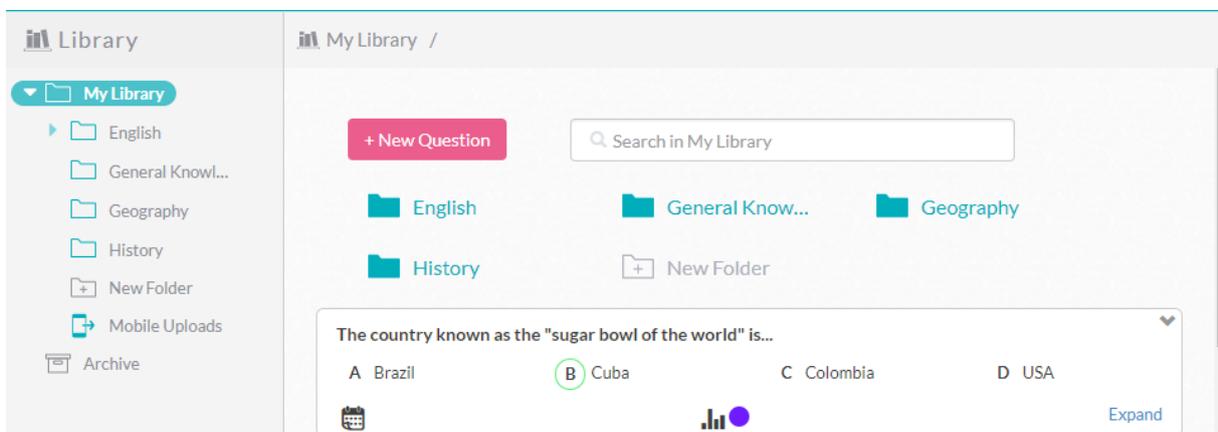


Figure 5. Plickers library

In the *Library* section, teachers can create folders under different names such as English, History, or General Knowledge, etc. Teachers can prepare multiple-choice questions on any subjects and add them to the queue of a chosen class by just clicking on *Expand*. On the right side of the questions, teachers can see the questions listed in queue. This means that they can see which question will appear first or last in this section.

Stage 4: Print off Plickers Cards

In fact, this stage can be performed before adding questions to the library as well. Once teachers assign each student a number, cards for each student are formed instantly and can be reached in the *Cards* section for printing. By clicking on the *Cards* section, teachers are provided with a number of options such as set of Plickers and number of cards per sheet along with the information about which classroom size that card set is suitable for. A sample of a piece of Plickers cards is illustrated in Figure 6 below.

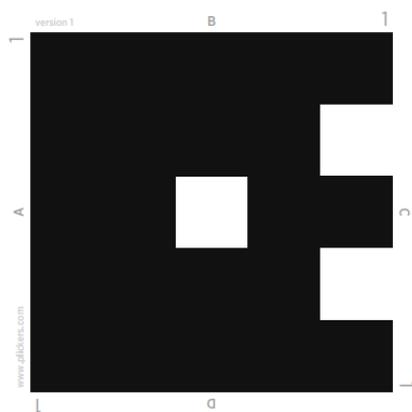


Figure 6. Plickers card

As can be seen in Figure 6, a piece of Plickers card – just like the others – has got a number and letters on different sides. The number indicates an individual student while the letters (A, B, C, D) display the options for a question. Positioning the card on one side, students can easily show their answers by simply raising the card on that direction.

Stage 5: Set out and Live View

After teachers have prepared the quizzes and printed off the Plickers cards for students, they are ready to begin. Teachers must click on *Live View* to start the quiz. They must then select

the class and put the questions in the queue to project to the class. Once the questions appear on the screen, one by one, students take their positions and raise their cards accordingly. Teachers hold their mobile device overlooking the cards raised by students. The rest is done by the application as it scans the responses of the students and transfers them to the system. Upon the completion of a quiz, teachers can go to *Reports* section where they can access to *Question History* and *Scoresheet*. *Question History*, as the name suggests, provides teachers with a history of the questions asked before along with the statistical data regarding student responses.



Figure 7. Question history on Plickers

Here teachers can see the percentages of students' correct answers and the distribution of responses by option. This way they can take actions for students who have got the question wrong and give immediate feedback for them either during or at the end of the quiz. For a more comprehensive history of student responses, teachers must click on *Scoresheet* as illustrated in Figure 8 below.

| Class: ● Class 64 | | Wednesday, Oct. 26 - Saturday, Nov 26 ● Class 64 ✔ 37% 38 questions | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--------------|--|--|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|--|---|--|-------------------------------------|--|--|
| Card # | Student Name | Total % | The country known as the "sugar bowl..." | The largest ocean in the world is... | The volcano Vesuvius is located in... | The city also known as "City of Canals" | The largest coffee-growing country in... | What is the capital city that stands... | What is the length of the English cha... | The world's oldest known city is... | Which sea does river Jordan flow into? | What is the largest island in the Med... |
| | | 37% | 0% | 0% | 30% | 70% | 20% | 20% | 10% | 30% | 33% | 50% |
| 1 | Ayça | 56% | — | — | A | C | A | A | B | A | A | A |
| 2 | Fatih | 35% | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| 3 | Ferhat | 45% | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| 4 | Mesut | 32% | — | — | C | C | A | B | C | C | C | A |
| 5 | Ömer | 49% | C | — | D | C | A | B | C | B | B | A |

Figure 8. Plickers score sheet

This feature of Plickers is very specific and practical for teachers in that they can have a quick access to the overall performance reports of their students. This is one of the quickest and smartest versions of formative assessment with which teachers have the chance to see the

overall percentage of correct answers by each student along with the options students have selected for each question on a given quiz. Simply entering a specific date interval and clicking on *Apply* will bring teachers the scoresheet of student responses given on that specific date interval.

Implementations of Plickers in Foreign Language Education

There is a number of ways to benefit from this online and mobile digital educational tool in foreign language education. Being time- and cost-efficient, Plickers is tailored for teachers who are looking for innovation and motivation in their classrooms along with instant feedback. Plickers has two question modes: multiple choice and true/false. In addition, teachers have the chance to add images to the questions. By categorizing their questions in a folder, they can have a collection of ready-made quizzes to be tested in the classrooms to find out whether some key terms and concepts have been learnt or to increase student participation and engagement thanks to the application's competitive and motivating nature.

Teaching with Plickers

In foreign language education, Plickers can be utilized in several ways. First of all, course books used by teachers in various institutions include long reading texts of which students tend to get bored. To overcome this problem, teachers can divide reading texts into paragraphs and take the picture of each paragraph or take a completely new picture relating to the content of the reading text to add to a question. They can ask multiple choice or true/false questions according to the content of the paragraphs. Teaching reading in visual context facilitates learning as students learn better from words and pictures rather than words alone (Mayer, 2002).

Secondly, listening questions in course books can be adapted to the virtual setting – on Plickers – just to divert students' attention from task performance. This allows them to focus on the so-called 'game' rather than answering the questions solely, which usually results in stress-free environment appropriate for learning. In other words, it is expected that students' affective filters (Krashen, 1982) are lowered when they compete with each other to answer the questions, which is hoped to promote subconscious learning. The fact that not being able to add audio files to Plickers is a drawback that needs to be overcome. However, adding the questions and listening to the recordings on computer can be the solution to this problem for now.

Thirdly, grammar structures might be taught through Plickers while students are having fun at the same time. Upon the contextualized teaching of grammar in the classroom, teachers may want to check student comprehension of the target structure. One of the best and fun ways to do this is adding key structure forms on Plickers and receiving immediate feedback on students' understanding of the target grammar structure. This method of teaching, testing grammar more specifically, through games was also supported in the literature in that it helps increase student motivation (Tuan & Doan, 2010; Sobhani & Bagheri, 2014) since it clears away the dull atmosphere of teaching grammar.

Fourthly, segmental features of English may also be taught with Plickers. Many students find it difficult to differentiate between some core sounds such as /ϕ/ and /ə/ (Derwing & Munro, 2005; Demirezen, 2010) therefore such core sounds can be adapted to Plickers and students may be asked to choose among the options after they listen to the sound(s) on the computer. Utilizing technology through Plickers in pronunciation classes for comprehension checks is one of the advantages of this application to be benefited by teachers. Along with the instant feedback advantage, Plickers can also offer a fun environment for the testing of key segmental features of English or other foreign languages, which will distract students' attention from the complex nature of phonetics and phonology (Derwing & Rossiter, 2003; Derwing & Munro, 2005).

Last but not least, vocabulary is another area of foreign language that can be taught through Plickers. Considering the significance of teaching vocabulary through games (Huyen & Nga, 2003; Yip & Kwan, 2006) and visuals (Mansourzadeh, 2014), teachers can benefit a lot from teaching target words through Plickers since they can add visuals to the application and provide students with a gamified environment where they can compete with other students to answer, enabling teachers to see the whole picture at the end of the quiz or activity.

Learning through Plickers

Taking into consideration the positive attitudes of students towards student response systems in higher education (Fies & Marshall, 2006; Hu et al. 2006; Caldwell, 2007), teachers can benefit a lot from this in terms of effective teaching and potential learning outcomes. In order for learning to take place, students must give their full attention to the lecture given by teachers. It was reported in several studies that student response systems increase students' attention (D'inverno et al., 2003; Caldwell, 2007) which must be benefited by teachers as that period of time when student attention is fully attracted is the most precious time period for

teachers to help their students learn the target subject. When Plickers is utilized in the classroom, student interaction becomes more positive because of the relaxing atmosphere created by the gamification aspects of this application. Students can also make quality discussions upon the completion of a quiz or task prepared through Plickers. It was asserted in several studies that the quality and quantity of class discussions increase especially when peer instruction strategy is employed (Jones et al., 2001; Brewer, 2004).

When compared to traditional lecture forms, learning through student response systems such as Plickers help students have better learning performances (Horowitz, 2006; Caldwell, 2007). The dull environment of traditional classrooms cannot be completely removed through technology, yet can be improved from many aspects including student engagement and better learning outcomes as previously mentioned. Plickers, with its friendly and competitive nature along with gamification aspect, increases learners' motivation levels and active participation. It must be noted here, however, that the whole lesson plans of a subject, cannot of course – be solely based on a single digital tool. Therefore, Plickers can be best benefited when used appropriately at certain periods of time for the evaluation of certain concepts and key terms of a target structure in foreign language education.

Assessment by Plickers

One of the benefits of Plickers is the reception of instant feedback from students. Considering the fact that there are multiple means of receiving feedback from students in classrooms (Draper et al., 2002; McCabe, 2006) and the potential disadvantages brought by them such as anonymity (Hay & LeSage, 2009), Plickers can offer a lot in terms of formative assessment maintaining confidentiality on part of students. For this, there can be a contract made between teachers and students. Students can identify some nicknames or numbers that only they know and give them to teachers, hiding who these nicknames and numbers represent in order to avoid any negative comments or feedback from their peers. Plickers, as other types of student response systems, enable instant feedback efficiently by keeping anonymity and preventing any cheating among students.

In relation to formative assessment, which is utilized to evaluate student comprehension without grading and determine the unclear points thus change the way of teaching, Plickers – as other student response systems – can help teachers have the overall student comprehension instantly. It would be hard to check student understanding without the help of student response

systems like Plickers otherwise. By the immediate feedback teachers get through Plickers, they can arrange or modify the way they teach (Hay & LeSage, 2009). The benefit of effective formative assessment of student response systems such as Plickers was also supported by a large body of research in the literature (Elliott, 2003; Draper & Brown, 2004; Hatch et al., 2005; Siau et al., 2006; Simpson & Oliver, 2007). Bearing this in mind, it is plausible to assert that Plickers can be an effective and efficient digital tool of formative assessment that teachers can make use of in their classes.

Considerations for Plickers

Along with the advantages of Plickers, there can be a number of issues to consider. The first thing is about the physical qualities of Plickers, that is, the application must be improved so that other types of media (audio, video, etc.) can also be added to the questions. Also, the variety of question types must be increased as there are only two types; multiple choice and true/false. The second issue to be considered is about the technological challenges such as lack of internet connection or other devices through which Plickers can be utilized. Classrooms must be furnished with technological equipment that could support the use of Plickers. However, that should not be the case in the 21st century classrooms and teachers.

Another issue to be considered is teacher-related. In theory, the idea of utilizing Plickers and other types of student response systems might work well, but there is little research conducted on how it actually works in practice (Hay & LeSage, 2009). In other words, such digital tools might provide teachers with instant feedback, but how well teachers respond to these pieces of feedback is yet unclear. Such digital tools were also criticized for not covering the whole content (Burnstein & Lederman, 2001; D'inverno et al., 2003; Beatty et al., 2006). However, Plickers does not possess any such claims as to the coverage of whole content. It can solely be utilized by teachers who ask for the integration of gamification and instant feedback; therefore, this criticism might be ignored from this aspect. Another issue to be considered is student-related. Some students may react negatively to the utilization of any technological tools in the classroom, and therefore may resist or display stress or frustration (Fagan et. al., 2002, Boyle, 2006). It must be stated here that the use of Plickers or any other types of student response systems is not mandatory and hence its use can be determined upon the agreement between teachers and students. It must also be noted that there will not be many examples of discouraged or involuntary students who do not want the inclusion of Plickers in their learning process.

CONCLUSION

In this digital age we live in, the integration of technology in our education systems have been inescapable. Now with the generations being ‘digital natives’ (Prensky, 2001), classrooms divorced from digital tools for learning seem and sound illogical. Plickers, as one type of student response systems, provides a lot of opportunities of teaching, learning, and assessment in foreign language education. Being time- and cost-efficient, this online and mobile application enables teachers to receive instant feedback and learners to compete in a friendly manner with their peers and interact actively. Just following a few simple steps, teachers can benefit a lot from this digital educational tool.

It was concluded in this paper that foreign language teachers can utilize Plickers in a number of ways. They can adapt their teaching materials to Plickers and test the comprehension levels of their students instantly through immediate feedback. It was also manifested that Plickers might be used as it creates a stress-free environment where students can get motivated by the gamified aspect of the tool and compete with each other in a friendly manner. Teaching with Plickers, learning through Plickers, and assessment by Plickers in foreign language education were explained and discussed in this paper along with some considerations about this educational tool. It is believed that the integration of Plickers in foreign language classes will increase with the improvements that can be made such as the inclusion of other media types and some other features that teachers can benefit from.

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EFL TEACHERS' PRAGMATIC AWARENESS AND THEIR TEACHING THE PRAGMATIC FEATURES

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ABSTRACT

In an effective communication based, interwoven globe, a vital question arises whether sociopragmatic competence may be left up to the chances after making sure of grammatical competence or not. In the sense of seeking an answer to the inquiry, this paper discusses Turkish EFL teachers' insights about teaching the pragmatic functions of English after reflecting upon their pragmatic competence. With this aim to make room for self-assessment and raising of pragmatic awareness, a Discourse Completion Test (DCT) on apology speech act realization was proposed to the participating MA students in ELT department of a state university who are EFL teachers at the same time. Coded discourse test performances of the main group of the investigation were compared with a group of native-English speaking teachers. After the process of analysis and reflection by the participants themselves, a reflection form including the interview step was projected to bridge towards revealing the participants' notions about teaching pragmatic functions of English. From this point forth, during the paper, a bond among EFL teachers' pragmatic awareness, reflection on their competence and insights about teaching pragmatics are aimed to be established and presented.

Keywords: *sociopragmatic competence, teaching pragmatics, speech acts, apology speech act, discourse completion test.*

INTRODUCTION

The paramount interest of language learning and teaching appears to have been efficient communication in the target language since the term of communicative competence proved its significance both in the literature and reality. As this goal may not be attained without consideration of and as in an alienated form from the society, where the need for interaction in the target language sets out; the native norms and terms of a foreign language stands out as one of the basis to teach and learn. Apparently, the indispensable part of communicative competence; pragmatic competence has been an integral knowledge to display the native-like communication skills with regards to conveying the appropriate message in suitable forms and terms. Under the realm of pragmatic competence, speech act theory and various forms of these acts' use, as the indicators of competence in question, have been the areas operationalized and researched heavily, particularly in English as a foreign language (EFL) or English as a second language (ESL) contexts in views of interlanguage / transfer issues, the effects of different teaching techniques or convergences and divergences of the participants in different proficiency levels. Despite the substantial number of studies in abovementioned sub fields, till only to 2000s, a relatively little attention was paid to the issue of language teachers' awareness and education about the pragmatic features of the target language. EFL teachers' not being informed and taught the socio pragmatic part of English would sound peculiar in an era technology paving all the ways for a more connected and social globe. Likewise, recently, with emerging communicative platforms and devices, pragmatic competence should attract the most attention of all times. To this end, the requirement for investigating the current situation of pragmatics teaching in EFL setting and possible reformations considering the findings emerge as fields of research calling for the interested.

As a combination of the considerations above, EFL teachers' apology strategies as an indicator of their pragmatic awareness were chosen to be investigated in this paper since they include culture specific motives, face threatening features and various decision points as politeness, social distance and so on. By means of EFL teachers' reflections on their performance on a written discourse test and their interview views about the teaching part of the pragmatics, a bond between the knowledge and practice is aimed to be established. From this point, the related questions emerged to be inquired and expounded during the paper:

1. Which apology strategies are utilized / preferred by Turkish EFL teachers?
2. What do they think about their use of apology strategies as a reflection of their performance in the DCT of apology strategies?

3. What do they ponder over teaching apology strategies specifically, and instruction of pragmatic functions, in general?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Communicative and Socio-pragmatic Competence

Is it possible we could regard pragmatics teaching as the icing on the ginger bread which is to be kept to only after the perfect grammatical competence? (Thomas, 1983, p. 109-110). The answer for this version of the question posed by Thomas as early as 1983 would be an absolute “No” considering today’s conditions. He considers linguistic competence as the stem carrying two branches of grammatical competence and pragmatic competence (ibid., p. 92). In this division, he regards the pragmatically competent individual is the one who could avoid being unintentionally offensive first in his own language (ibid., p. 95). Harlow (1990) takes a step further than the individual and asserts socio pragmatic competence constitutes more than the pure linguistic and lexical knowledge. To Harlow (1990), the speaker with socio pragmatic competence can employ the appropriate speech act strategies by varying when needed with regards to the situational and social variables at the course of the communication. He mentions the nature of the communication as being propositional, conventional, structured, interactional, and its being subject to social appropriateness. Parallel with this view, Hymes (1972) suggests “A normal child acquires knowledge of sentences not only grammatical, but also as appropriate.” (p. 272). As known the father of the communicative competence term, he further describes it as knowing what to say, to whom, where, when and in which style (ibid.). With the same emphasis on appropriate use of language, the ability to communicate effectively requires these four sub-competencies according to Canale and Swain (1980): grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competencies. To this end, sociolinguistic or socio pragmatic competency appears to be a well-acknowledged sub field of communicative competence without the knowledge of which practice of communicative competence is hard to be realized.

Speech Acts and Apology Speech Act

Speech acts are considered highly sophisticated communicative devices as for its successful realization, all the elements of pragmatic, linguistic and social knowledge should go hand in hand (Harlow, 1990). In its broadest term, speech acts may be defined as all the acts

we perform to speak, all the things we do at the time of speaking (Schmidt & Richards, 1980). In the widely accepted version, which was introduced by Austin (1962) and further developed by Searle (1969, 1976), speech acts could be considered according to the levels they're performed. Basically, they are categorized as locutionary acts, illocutionary acts and perlocutionary acts. Perlocutionary acts are the ones producing an effect on the hearer in such cases as persuading, convincing or scaring. Locutionary acts could be considered as telling something with a certain meaning in a traditional sense. Illocutionary acts upon which a great majority of speech act studies have been conducted, also the acts investigated during this paper, can be explained as the speaker's intent by what's said with its most concise form (Austin, 1962). From this point, determining the need for, which, how to use and responding to the statements with illocutionary acts could be regarded as indicators of communicative competence or vice versa as communication breakdown.

Apart from the pure knowledge of the terminology and theoretical knowledge, another inquiry arises as what constitutes the situation for which the use of speech act is required. Because in the paper, speech acts of apology are in question and utilized as the indicators and catalyzers of pragmatic awareness, it's better to identify what constitutes the need for an apology, initially. Basically, an apology is required when a violation of a social norm has been performed and the speaker in this condition acknowledges s/he is involved in even if it's partially (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). Therefore, the hardship in the realization of the speech act of apologizing stems from the very nature of the acts in that they're post-event and involve loss of face for the speaker and support for the hearer the other way around (ibid.). The learner, who could overcome this difficulty, also, should be able to assess the severity of the case in the sociocultural context and provide the harmony in the optimum manner to be evaluated as having the pragmatic competence to apologize (Limberg, 2015). About how to apologize there are some formulaic speech act sets. Among these, despite a wealth of its adapted and developed versions, the most widely used apology speech act formula for coding across the languages comprises the five main strategies of Cohen and Olshtain (1981) as follows:

- a) An expression of an apology (I'm sorry),
- b) An explanation of account (The bus was late),
- c) An acknowledgement of responsibility (It's my fault),
- d) An offer of repair (I'll compensate for the damage),

e) A promise of forbearance (It won't happen again).

Although they're presented as categorical traditionally, the combination of different strategies is performed in the course of communication, especially in oral communication.

Teaching Pragmatic Features of EFL

The benefits of pragmatics instruction have been consolidated by a considerable number of articles. From this angle, the dichotomy of the interlanguage pragmatics' being teachable or not appears to have come to an end in favor of their being learnable or teachable (Jianda, 2006). After this agreement, different techniques of teaching pragmatic knowledge and their effectiveness have been studied in various studies in the international context especially in EFL settings.

In their study Zohreh, Abbas ESLami-Rasekh and Azizollah Fatahi (2004) with their 4th year student participants in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) Department wanted to explore the efficiency of explicit metapragmatic instruction through such activities as teacher-fronted discussions, cooperative grouping or role play. The results indicate the speech act performance of the group taking the instruction improved significantly when compared with the control group. Another important study with similar results, but with EFL teacher participants this time, in Japan, suggests the development of a cognition to implement pragmatics focused instruction after a seminar on Pragmatics (Ishihara, 2011). For the pragmatics instruction's implication for teacher education, Povolna's study can be exemplified in that the study conducted with teacher candidates again in a TEFL setting documents a course of Pragmatics generated highly favorable notions among the prospective English teachers to do with embedding the socio pragmatic elements of English into their own future courses (2012).

As suggested by Rose (1994), the pragmatic consciousness raising approach by sensitizing the language learners to the variations of the language across different social variables was also utilized in Kondo's research in a Japan setting and the method demonstrated to be successful in such a manner that learners became aware of several pragmatic aspects of intercultural understanding after analyzing their own speech act performance (2008, p. 153).

With the evolving social context, namely the society, revitalized teaching techniques of pragmatics have emerged. Some conventional techniques of skills teaching have been revisited in combination with teaching other language skills. To embody this, translation regarded as a

cross-cultural social practice by House (2008, p. 135- 152) has been restaged and it's argued translation encompasses the knowledge of both cultures of the original and target language apart from the pure linguistic knowledge and the work translator does also encompasses some pieces of 'cultural work'.

A highly interesting and up to date suggestion of embedding pragmatics into language teaching was studied by González-Lloret (2008, p. 114-132) with the student participants from Spanish language in the University of Hawaii. The students achieved to acquire a complex socio pragmatic knowledge of Spanish addressivity by interacting with Spanish speakers from University Jaume I in Spain, on Yahoo! Messenger; a Synchronous Computer-Mediated Communication (SCMC) platform. The study has implications for pragmatics teaching via computer-mediated learning since the interaction on this platform may necessitate the use of both formal and informal forms together with different contexts and interlocutors.

METHODOLOGY

Context

Two groups of participants were involved into the data collection process.

First and main population of the inquiry is MA students group in an ELT Department of one of the state universities in Turkey. For the participants choice process, purposive and convenience sampling applied; purposive by its nature as the participants carry the flags of being both students (learners) and teachers (practitioners of their learnings); convenient as they are accessible to collaborate with. Hence, as learners; their performance and as teachers; their insights about teaching would be benefited during the research project. After taking their consents, the participating group for the first round of data collection comprised of 8 volunteering MA students who are teaching in public and private schools or practicing private tutoring. In the following procedures of reflections and interviews, the 7 participants of the same group were included.

4 native teachers of English were requested to fill the Discourse Completion Test to form the baseline data enabling the main participants to compare their performance with. They're chosen on conditions that their native land is either England or USA since in Turkey, we're taking these sources of English as the target forms and norms. They don't attend the other procedures of the data collection.

Data Collection Tools and Procedures

Discourse Completion Test (DCT)

DCT, as a structured written data collection instrument, is a method of data gathering highly consulted in linguistics and socio pragmatic language studies (Tuncel, 1999). DCT can be defined as a production questionnaire in which the participant responds to a given prompt. They are utilized with the aim of eliciting responses as much close as can be in the real life within the scopes of given prompts for different situations (Hua & Sweeney, 2016). The DCT of apology strategies employed during the study was taken from Tuncel (1999) who also developed his own version by adapting situations from the other reliable and widely used DCTs and found the reliability of this version as 75 % (see Appendix A for DCT). This version of DCT was used to investigate the different strategy use of both non-native and native participants. 8 situations among 14 were decided to be analyzed as applied also by İstifçi (2009).

Apology strategies were determined to be inquired on purpose because of the apology's complex nature. There are two reasons of DCT use in the research. First and explicit one is to evaluate whether there's a significant divergency between the native and non-native performances. The second and implicit reason is to raise the non-native participants' awareness towards the context-based variations in the target language use and eventually propelling them to think about teaching pragmatic functions of English as applied in the other research projects (Rose, 1994; Eslami-Rasekh, 2005; Kondo, 2008).

Reflection Form

The form was directed to the participants who filled DCTs and checked and compared their performances with the native ones via the analysis sent afterwards. In the form there are demographic questions about the level and school they are working for. The 2 main reflective questions interrogated the participants insights about their own apology strategies' use in the DCT and possibility of their teaching the same ones. The last question of the apology strategies' teachability was put to select the interviewees by leading them to the interview questions section when they answered the question favorably.

Interview

6 participants who considered apology strategies are teachable became the participants for the next procedure.

Interview questions were embedded into the reflection form in a separate section. The framework of the questions was as follows:

- Preferred methods of teaching the apology strategies,
- Description of a scene / activity for teaching apology strategies,
- Considerations about applications of pragmatics' instruction.

Data Collection Procedure

Data collection procedure was composed of three rounds or steps of application. In the first round, DCTs were sent to both groups of non-native and native participants. In the second round, the DCTs of both groups were analyzed. Each non-native participant's DCT analysis, depicting which apology speech act strategies they consulted, was sent to themselves together with the native participants' altogether analysis. Hence, they could evaluate their own DCT performance by comparing with the natives' performances.

During the third round, after their evaluation of themselves, reflective questions and interview questions as embedded to the reflection form were offered to be responded. The following figure depicts the data collection procedure:

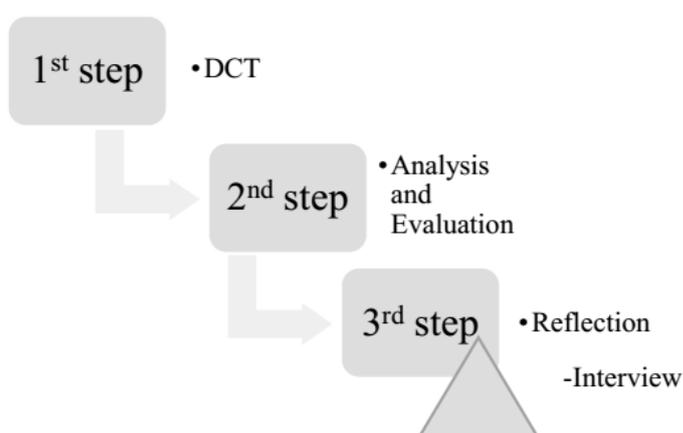


Figure 1. Data Collection Procedure

Data Analysis

Qualitative case study design was consulted during the research. Hence, the analysis was conducted by qualitative data analysis methods. DCTs were analyzed according to the adapted version of Tuncel's coding schema (Tuncel, 1999). The adaptation, namely adding some other coding categories to the set, was applied to make the coding more inclusive, not to miss any detail by benefiting from the other coding sets which could encompass the strategies used by the participants of this research (Cohen & Olshtain, 1986; Holmes, 1989; Çetinavcı, 2012). A new strategy was invented and coined as 'EMPATHY' in the light of native participants' use of apologies by the researcher. The last version of coding could be seen in the Appendices part (see Appendix B for the coding scheme of apologies).

Reflection forms and written forms of interviews were analyzed according to qualitative content analysis method. Main themes were determined by use of 'analytic memos' while looking for the categorizations to be associated with each other.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Discourse Completion Tests

The apology strategies of non-native, namely main group were coded initially as participant to participant, one by one, to enable the students to assess themselves separately at the reflection procedure (see Tables and Figures section for each participant's apology strategies use). Then pools of total strategies by both native and non-native participants were formed to see the resemblances and discrepancies of the main strategies. As the basic aim with this procedure is to understand which apology strategies were utilized by the non-native EFL teachers and to make room for their own socio pragmatic and linguistic discoveries as also applied by Lieske (2010), a detailed situation-based comparison between and among the groups won't be mentioned.

The frequencies of the apology strategies were calculated for both groups as depicted with Figure 2 and Figure 3 below. After the main strategy uses of the both groups were investigated, the most frequent formulas for each group happened to be the same. The most preferred strategies preferred by the participants were Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID), an offer of repair (REPR), an explanation of the account (EXPL), an acknowledgement of responsibility for the offense (RESP), use of exclamations or exclamative words (EXL), a question about the health and well being of the interlocutor (HEALTH).

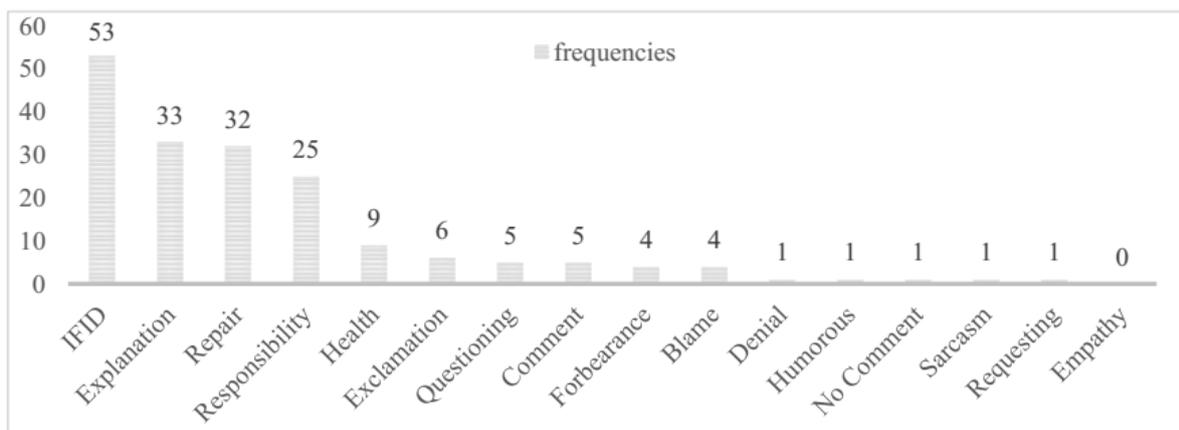


Figure 2. Total apology strategy frequencies of non-native EFL teachers group

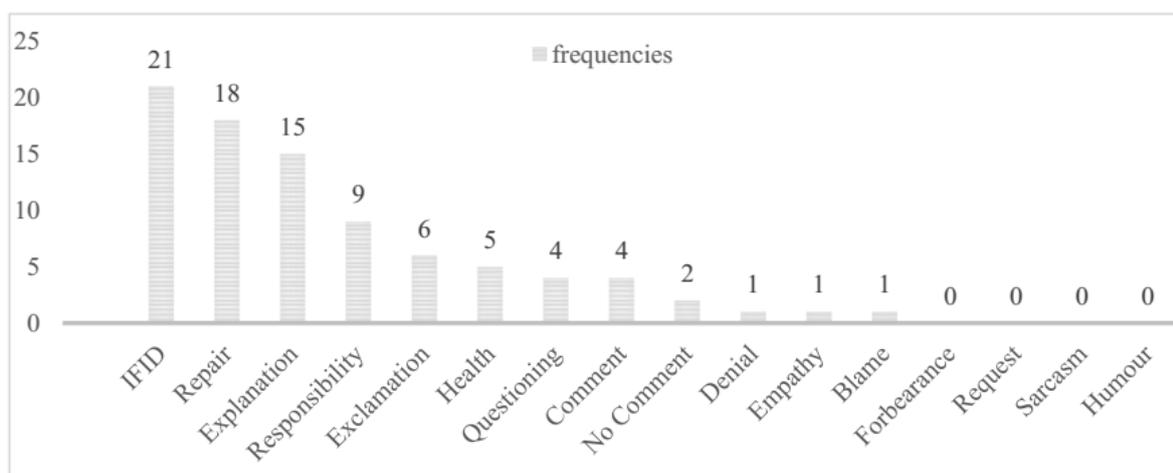


Figure 3. Total apology strategy frequencies of native-speaking English teachers group

When the similarities of both groups and the appropriate uses of apology strategies are evaluated, Turkish EFL teachers can be considered to embody their awareness and knowledge of pragmatic competence in English. Some of the Turkish participants even may be claimed to display a highly complex combinations of formulas as P2 embodied in “Oh my God! Couldn’t see. I’m sorry. Really sorry. You’re okay, right? If you’re okay, I’ll handle that situation as soon as possible. Oh! thanks God you’re alright!” for the 4th situation of running into a car which was coded as EXL (Exclamation) + EXPL + IFID + HEALTH + REPR + Comment.

Another example of Turkish EFL teacher group’s target language’s pragmatic functions could be exemplified with their appropriate word choice for the 6th situation in which they call the well-dressed elderly lady they bumped into as “Madam”.

However, Turkish EFL teachers displayed some discrepancies when compared with the native group and in participant basis. Two strategies coded as Humor (HUM) and Sarcasm

(SARC) were stated by two participants. Participant (P) 8's usage of humor in "...I'm so stressed nowadays. I am afraid I will lose my way home." for the 2nd situation about forgetting and P4's sarcastic apology in "I'm sorry, Mr. Angry...", for hitting a car in the 4th situation could be explained by different ways. The apology formulas of HUM and SARC weren't utilized by the native participants of English and they are employed for apology situations in Turkish as also used by Çetinavcı (2012). The use of formulas not existent among the native ones' may suggest they may have resorted to interlanguage pragmatic or linguistic formulas they may have developed (Selinker, 1972; İstifçi, 2009) or applied negative pragmatic transfer as evaluation of the apology situations' severity could be affected by the cultural differences as emphasized by Tuncel (2011) and Erçetin (cited in Tuncel 2011).

Reflection Forms

After checking and evaluating their own DCT performances comparatively with the native ones', Turkish EFL teachers had a chance to reflect on the first procedure and answered the reflective questions. By this procedure, a metaphoric bridge was intended to be laid between the participants' pragmatic competence and their teaching pragmatic functions of English. To put it clearly, it's aimed to propel them into thinking about the teaching part.

The first interrogation was about the reasons why they think they employed some apology strategies more often than others. When the answers are thematized, it becomes possible to argue the participants associate their choice of apology formulas a lot more with their personalities, identities or emotions rather than their knowledge of apology pragmatic function in English. Some participants' views are presented as follows:

"I believe that it is something related to the personalities of people. Certain strategies could be learned but the fact that I employed some strategies was unconscious and a piece of my personality." (Participant 8)

"I think I am a polite person and I do not want to make other people upset so, I try to fix the situation according to myself." (Participant 4)

"I often use ' I am so sorry or sorry ' because I think that I should compensate my fault and utter my upset about the situation which is realized due to me." (Participant 6)

In parallel with their explanations for apology strategies preferences, most of the participants were in two minds about teaching the same apology strategies they preferred in

DCT situations more frequently (see Figure 2). Out of 7 participants, 4 participants agreed 'Maybe' while 3 participants chose 'Yes'.

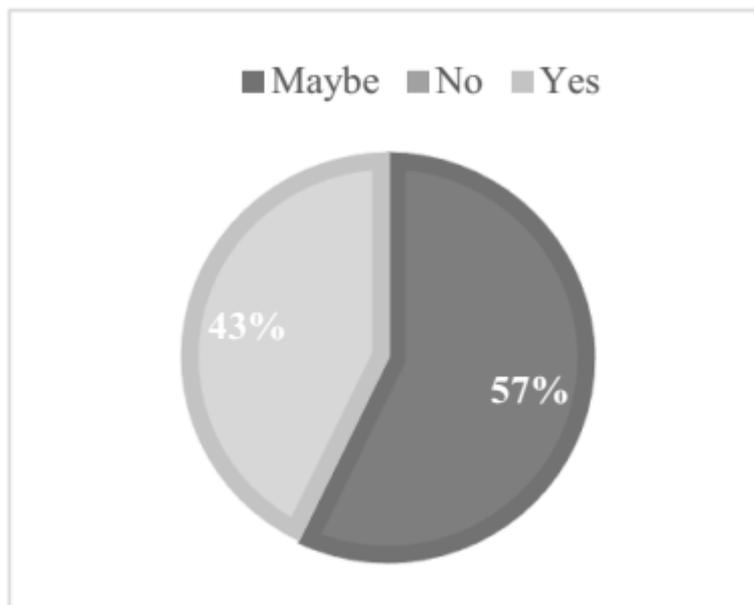


Figure 4. Would you teach the same strategies to your students?

Last question of reflection step was posed to investigate whether the participants consider the apology strategies are teachable or not. Most of them (4 participants) thought they're teachable, while 2 participants chose 'Maybe'. Only 1 participant (Participant 2) deemed the apology strategies are not teachable (see figure 3). Participant 2 already displayed her disposition about the issue by telling the reason for her preference of specific apology strategies in DCT was linked to her feelings.

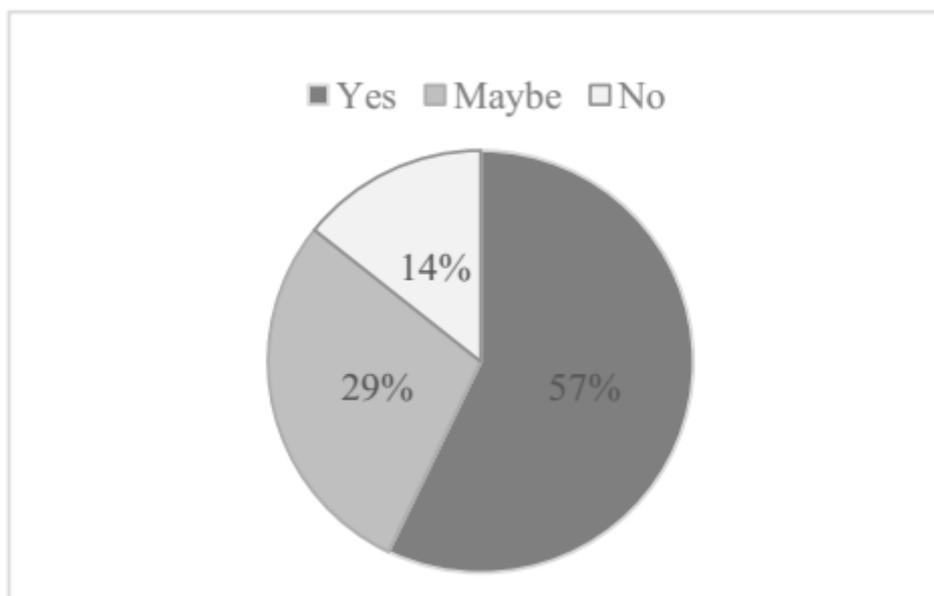


Figure 5. Do you think the apology strategies are teachable?

The participants not being full-heartedly sure of the teaching part of the apology strategies and associating their preferences only with their personalities may be explained by their own language learning process. More sensitivity and emphasis have been paid to development of grammatical competence rather than pragmatic competence in foreign language classrooms as the case in many other research articles (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998). This situation may have given rise to the doubts over the teachability of apology strategies in question specifically, pragmatic functions of English in general.

Interviews

In the interview part, the participants considering the apology strategies teachable or maybe teachable were further asked about their ideas of teaching apology strategies and pragmatics instruction in English classes.

Preferred Methods of Teaching Apology Strategies

The most frequently uttered favourite methods of teaching the apology strategies by the participants consist of role-plays, simulations, short videos, short stories, act outs, dialogue writing and movies. Although these were regarded as the conventional methods by the participants, a consensus was reached about benefiting from authentic and real time materials

such as the true stories from the news and social media extracts in which students are given chances to discover the apology required situations themselves.

From all these suggestions of making the students write dialogues, act them out, speak about an apology including movie scene or read and discuss after a topic related short story, we could grasp the idea that pragmatics instruction is also possible to be achieved by integrating different language skills as suggested by Limberg (2015). He exemplifies writing a letter of apology, e-mailing a friend in English as writing skill integrated pragmatics instruction activities in his article.

Description of an Apology Strategies Teaching Scene or an Activity

The optional second question aiming to discover the interviewees' insights about forming the scenes or activities for the apology strategies achieved to elicit quite colorful and creative ideas.

Mostly, participants conceived role giving scenes in which prompts of offence is demonstrated overtly as in "A customer has just shown you a dirty spoon." suggested by the Participant 6. From another angle, alternative scenarios with varying statues, severities or formalities are proposed. Exemplary scenarios including such elements as suggested by a participant is reflected below:

"A student who is late for submitting homework, a driver scratching another car, apologizing for a misunderstanding, apologizing to a police-officer for violating red light, apologizing to someone superior although you know that you are right." (Participant 8)

Another striking example of an apology scene creation was about the real apology situations happening in the classrooms. Especially for young learners, highly suited activities were expressed by another interviewee as follows:

"...I would probably observe such a scene might come up (if you're teaching young learners, it's easier to witness their interactions which might require a bit apology strategies). When it comes, I would turn the class' direction into the issue. They could learn something 'must' rather than shouting at each other, fighting or quarrelling..." (Participant 2)

Thoughts on Pragmatics Instruction

As the last question, the participants were posed a general question to elicit their ideas about teaching the pragmatic functions of English such as speech acts, politeness and conversational implicatures. Interviewees' remarks may be grouped under 4 main topics to do with the nature of teaching pragmatics as depicted in the figure 4 below. They think pragmatic functions of a language should be taught in its all forms of formality as inclusive as it happens in the real life:

“...teaching the very formal versions of these functions that you would only encounter at a five o'clock tea around posh people may not really help learners when they communicate with ordinary people in the streets. Therefore, these functions should be as authentic and relevant as possible for the target group.” (Participant 8)

Participants agree that pragmatic competence is one of the basics and indicator of communicative competence aside from the pure grammar competence and teaching speech acts among the pragmatic formulas should be allocated emphasis, too. These ideas are apparent in one of the interviewees judgments below:

“In today's world knowing all the grammar rules of a language is not enough. Learners also should develop their communicative competence to fully function in a language and speech acts are important marker of communicative competence. Therefore, EFL teachers should take some time to emphasize the importance of speech acts in their classrooms.” (Participant 1)

From another angle, a very distinctive and useful point was touched, addressed by one of the interviews about the very nature of pragmatics that is its bearing universal motives and values as could be interpreted from his own remarks as follows:

“These are the basic human features which are supposed to be owned by every individual. So, teaching them to students is crucial for their behaviors in the outside World” (Participant 7)

Pragmatic functions encapsulate teaching the target language's societal and socio pragmatic norms. Therefore, socio pragmatic competence gaining activities should be intertwined with both cultures of native and target language to form a cross cultural atmosphere during the teaching and particularly awareness raising process. In one of the accounts of interviews, these views were laid bare in a such manner that:

“...I believe speech acts, like many things, change across languages and cultures. For instance, a native language belonging to an African clan will probably show little similarities with the global language English and "I'm sorry"...Let's take students with Turkish natives. Some people may abstain from apologies for different reasons; considering an apology as something inferior, damaging their reputation/image, or something spoiling their prides...”
(Participant 2)

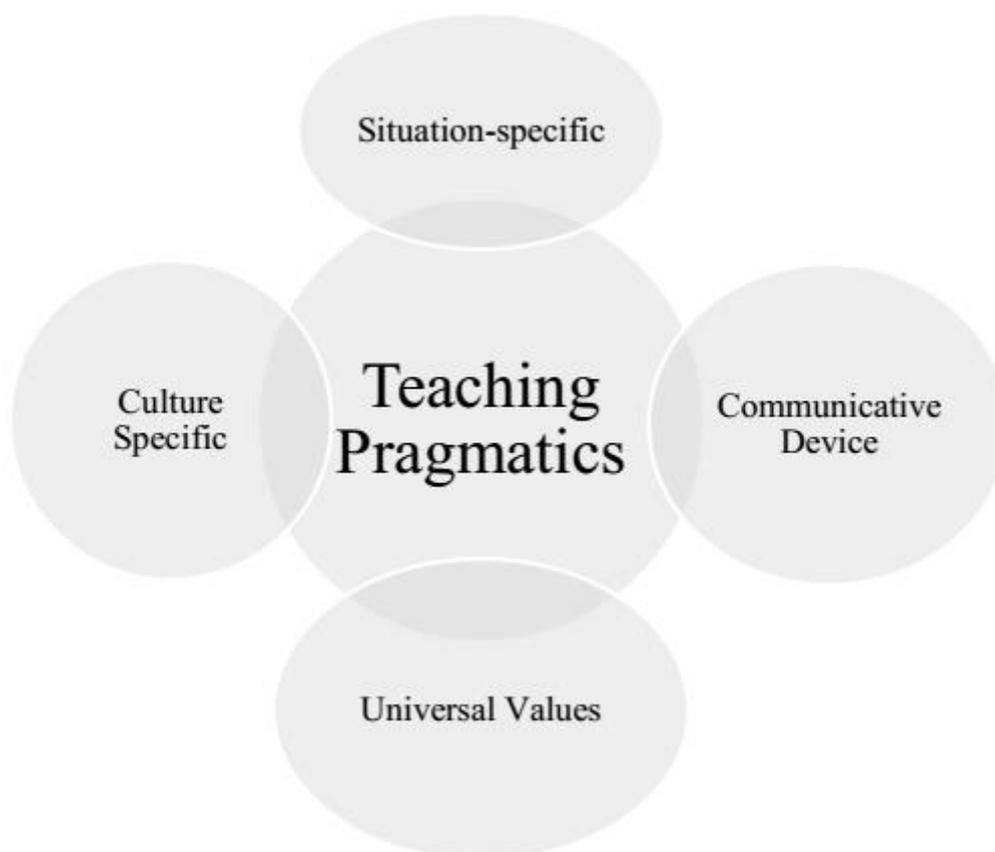


Figure 6. Components of teaching pragmatic functions of English addressed by the participants

A surprising contradiction attracts the attention during the interview process in that although the participants had doubts over teachability of the apology strategies in their reflections, when the questions of pragmatics instruction were asked overtly during the interview process, they regarded pragmatics teaching as a fundamental part of communicative competence and necessary for teaching.

CONCLUSION

An English saying goes “Sorry is the hardest word” as if it has been invented to prove that apologizing may sound already difficult with its face threatening nature. In the case of our

study when DCTs - as a both sensitivity and awareness raising activity - were analyzed, it appeared the MA student EFL teacher participants of this study had the socio pragmatic competence of apologizing in the targeted forms of the target language. Certain deviances of some of the participants from the targeted speech act formulas could be accounted by either negative transfer from Turkish or development of their own interlanguage pragmatic formulas (İstifçi, 2009; Tuncel, 2011). The results indicated that the participants were in two minds about the teachability or teaching target apology strategies in the reflection process though they demonstrated highly favorable attitudes and eventually suggestions for inventing teaching methods or activities during the interview process. The methods exposing the students to authentic, real time pragmatic elements were on the agenda together with the conventional skills integrated methods as role-plays, simulations, act-outs, dialogue writing, discussing over a short movie or reading and interpreting a short story.

Two relevant questions come to the minds at this point: “Could the participants associate apology speech acts with pragmatic functions of English?” or “Do they really teach or find pragmatics teaching as mandatory as in their written accounts?” In the light of these queries on mind, English learning process of the participants may be thought to be effective in their judgements of practice, as grammatical competence was overemphasized in many classical language classrooms particularly in assessment methods (Hardovi-Barlig & Dörnyei, 1998). When regarded from another perspective, neither language learners nor practitioners could be forced to behave pragmatically just like the native speakers of the target language or they may just not wish to display target language’s socio pragmatic motives (Washburn, 2001).

Further studies on the efficiency of revitalized versions of conventional practices or social media and computer-mediated communication platforms on pragmatics teaching may be conducted. The study’s limited participant number and social desirability bias formed because of the familiarity may have affected the results. In the light of this information, the participants’ actual performances may be observed for the further.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Discourse Completion Test: An Investigation of Native and Non-native Speech Act Realizations

Instructions: Please respond to the following role-play situations as you would in a real situation. After each situation you will be asked to write a response in the blank after “you:” Give the first thing that comes to your mind, considering the person to whom you are speaking.

1. You are at a meeting and you say something that one of the participants interprets as a personal insult to him.

He: “I feel that your last remark was directed at me and I take offense.”

You:

2. You completely forget a crucial meeting at the office with your boss. An hour later you call him to apologize. The problem is that this is the second time you’ve forgotten such a meeting. Your boss gets on the line and asks:

Boss: “What happened to you?”

You:

3. You forget a get-together with a friend. You call him to apologize. This is really the second time you’ve forgotten such a meeting. Your friend asks over the telephone: Friend:” What happened?”

You:

4. Backing out of a parking place, you run into the side of another car. It was clearly your fault. You dent in the side door slightly. The driver gets out and comes over to you angrily.

Driver: “Can’t you look where you’re going? See what you’ve done!”

You:

5. You promised to return a textbook to your classmate within a day or two, after xeroxing a chapter. You held onto it for almost two weeks. Classmate: I’m really upset about the book because I needed it to prepare for last week’s class.

You:

6. You accidentally bump into a well-dressed elderly lady at an elegant department store, causing her to spill her packages all over the floor. You hurt her leg, too. It’s clearly your fault and you want to apologize profusely.

You:

7. Spending an evening at a friend's apartment, you accidentally break a small ornament belonging to her.

You:

8. You agreed to attend a colleague's farewell party, but at the last-minute family business prevented you from going. The next day you call her to explain why you didn't show up.

You:

9. Rushing to get to class on time, you run around the corner and bump into one of your fellow students who was waiting there, almost knocking him down.

You:

10. You and a friend have arranged to go to a concert together. You promised to buy the tickets. But when your friend comes around on the evening of the concert, you realize that you have forgotten to get the tickets.

You:

11. You are at a restaurant with a friend. The waiter takes your and your friend's order. A few minutes later, you change your mind about the food and call the waiter for a new order.

Waiter: Yes sir, how can I help you?

You:

12. You have forgotten to return the book you borrowed from your professor. On the staff corridor you come across your professor.

You:

13. You borrowed a book from your friend and poured coffee over it. (When you give it back you say:)

You:

14. You have had an accident with a car you borrowed from your friend. (When you give it back you say :)

You:

Please answer the questions below by circling, underlying or writing the correct option for you:

1. What's your gender Female Male
2. What's the highest level of education you've completed and which program?
BA (Bachelor's Degree)

MA (Master's Degree)

PhD (Postgraduate Doctoral Degree)

3. How many years of teaching experience do you have?

1-5 years 5-10 years 10-15 years 15- 20 years 20+

4. In what languages can you speak fluently?

.....

5. What's your longest length of residence in the country where English is spoken?

less than 6 months 6 months – 1 year 1 – 2 years 2 – 5 years 5+

6. Have you studied abroad? If yes, where and for which degree?

No

Yes:

7. Have you taught English abroad? If yes, where and for which level?

No

Yes:

8. Which level of students have you taught so far?

A1 A2 B1 B2 C1 C2

9. Which level of students are you teaching during the academic year 2018-2019?

A1 A2 B1 B2 C1 C2

10. How would you describe your contact with the native speakers of English?

Never Rarely Frequently Always

Appendix B

Coding Scheme of Apologies

IFID: Illocutionary Force Indicating Device which includes apology speech acts such as “I’m sorry”, “Excuse me”,

“Forgive me”, “I’m terribly sorry”.

REPR: an offer of repair or redress or compensation for the damage (e.g. I’ll pay for your damage, I’ll buy you another one).

EXPL: giving explanation, cause or reason (e.g. I took my daughter to hospital, I completely forgot about meeting).

RESP: acknowledging responsibility for the offense (e.g. It was my fault, what an absent-minded person I am!).

FORB: a promise of forbearance; promising for not repeating the action again (e.g. I'll never forget to meet you again).

DENIAL: denial of fault or offense (e.g. I did not cause the accident, I never said such a thing, It's not my fault. I didn't mean to).

BLAME: putting the blame on the other person (e.g. Why didn't you remind me? You parked your car in the middle of the road!).

HEALTH: after an undesired behavior asking the health of the person (e.g. Are you all right? I can take you to hospital).

REQUEST: asking for something politely (e.g. Could you give me the book for a few days?).

EXL! using words that show surprise (e.g. Oh!, Oops!).

QUESTIONING: asking a question (e.g. Is it sth important? Do you have an idea about it?).

COMMENT: making comments about self, about others, and about situations (e.g. This is the first time something like this has ever happened).

HUMOUR: making humorous comments or making fun of the situations (e.g. What can I do, you didn't have the luck!).

SARCASM: making sarcastic comments about the situations or teasing with the interlocutor (e.g. Nice things aren't the results of obligations).

EMPATHY: making empathetic comments, displaying understanding of the situations' severity (e.g. I can understand why you are upset!).

Tables and Figures

Table 1

Frequencies of Participant 1's Apology Strategies Use

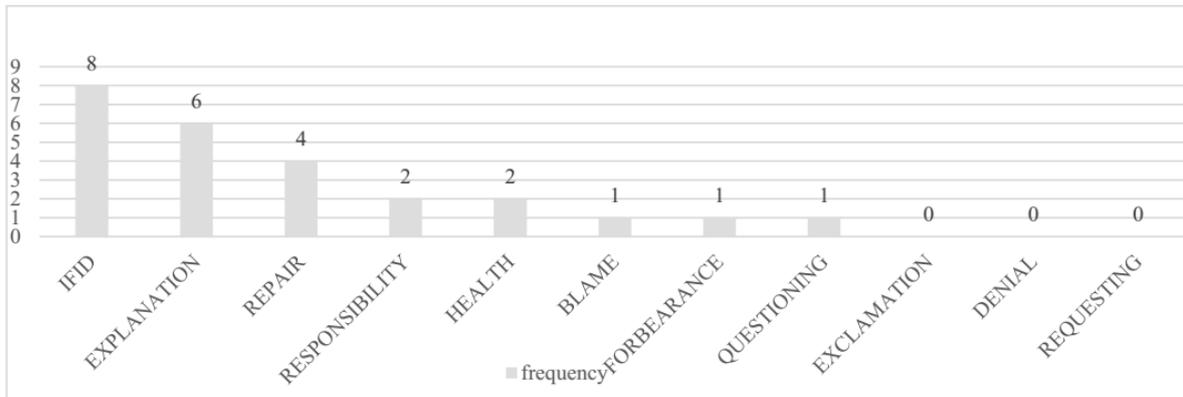


Table 2

Frequencies of Participant 2's Apology Strategies Use

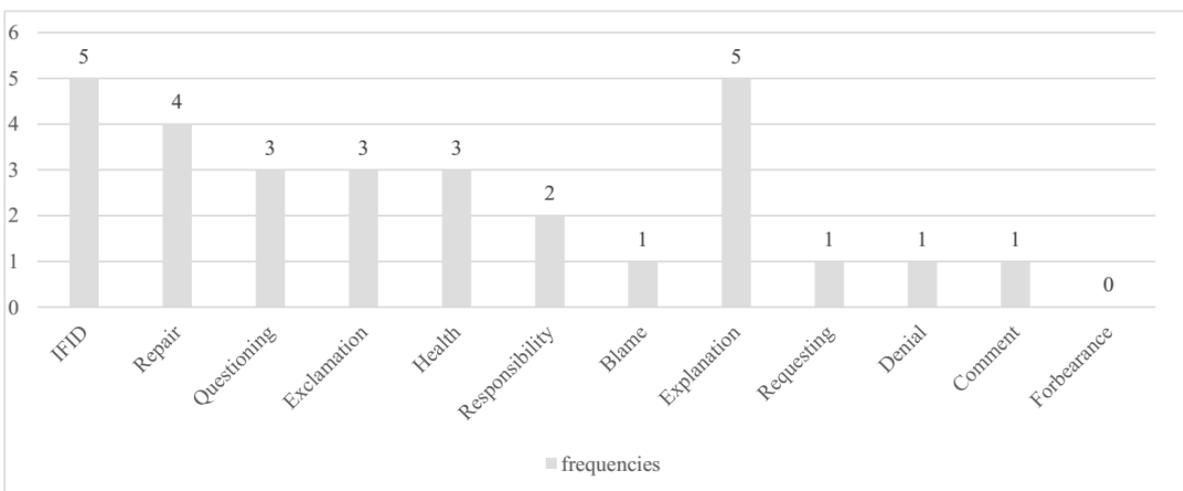


Table 3

Frequencies of Participant 3's Apology Strategies Use

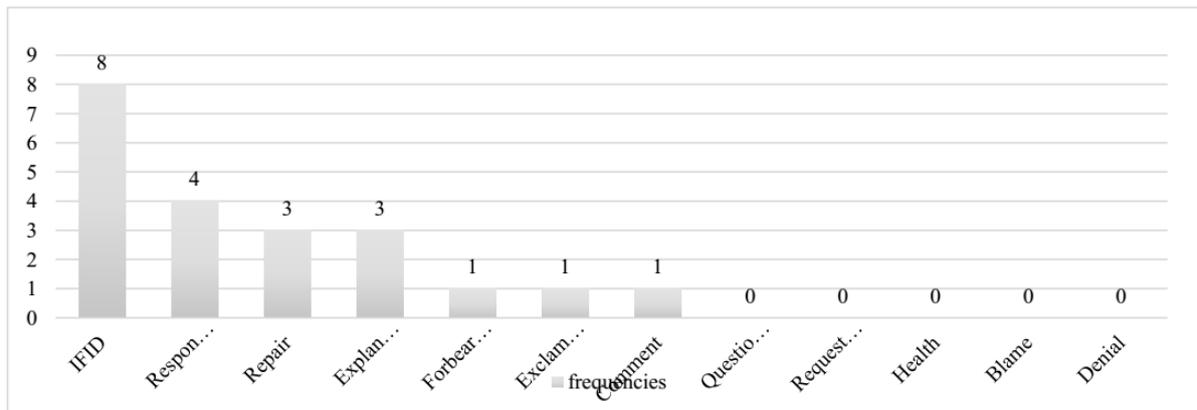


Table 4

Frequencies of Participant 4's Apology Strategies Use

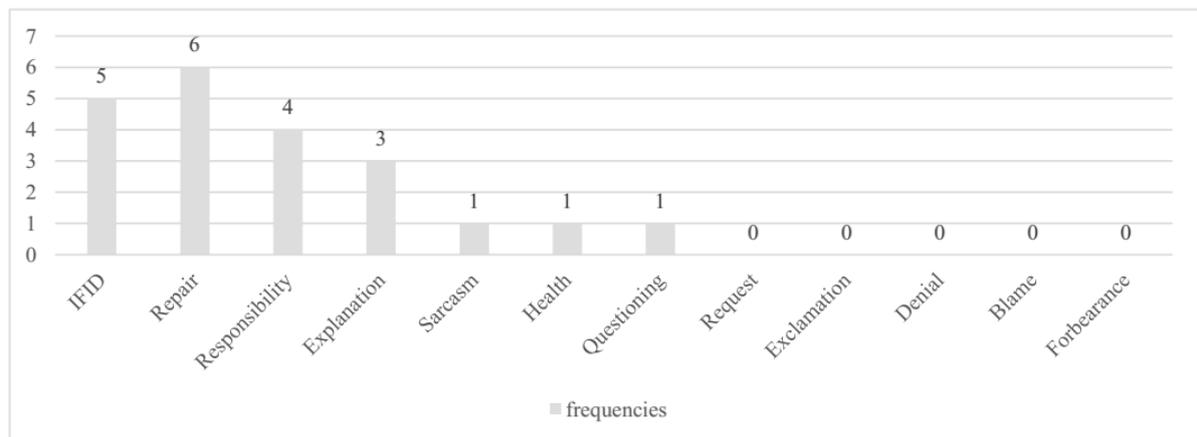


Table 5

Frequencies of Participant 5's Apology Strategies Use

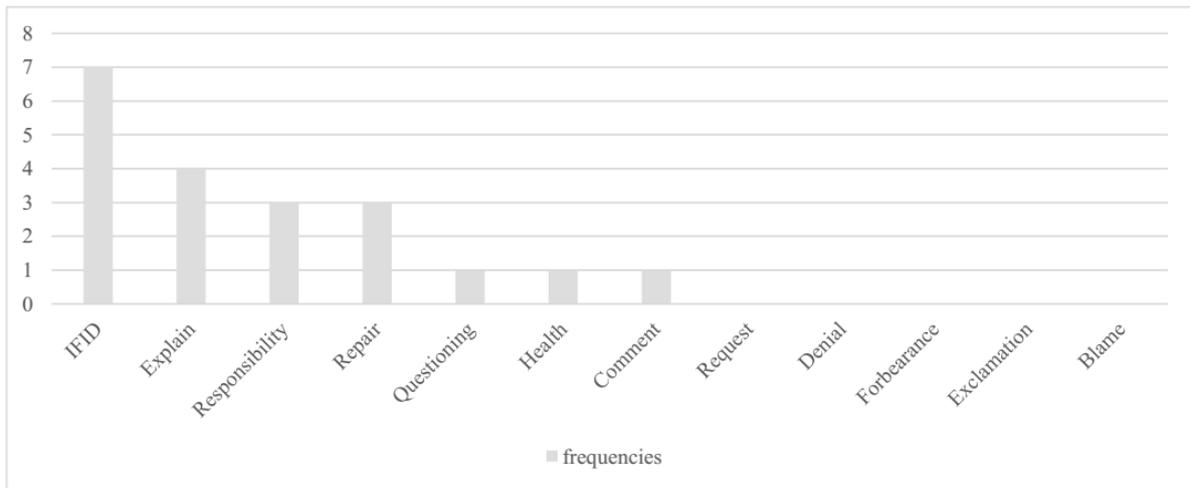


Table 6

Frequencies of Participant 6's Apology Strategies Use

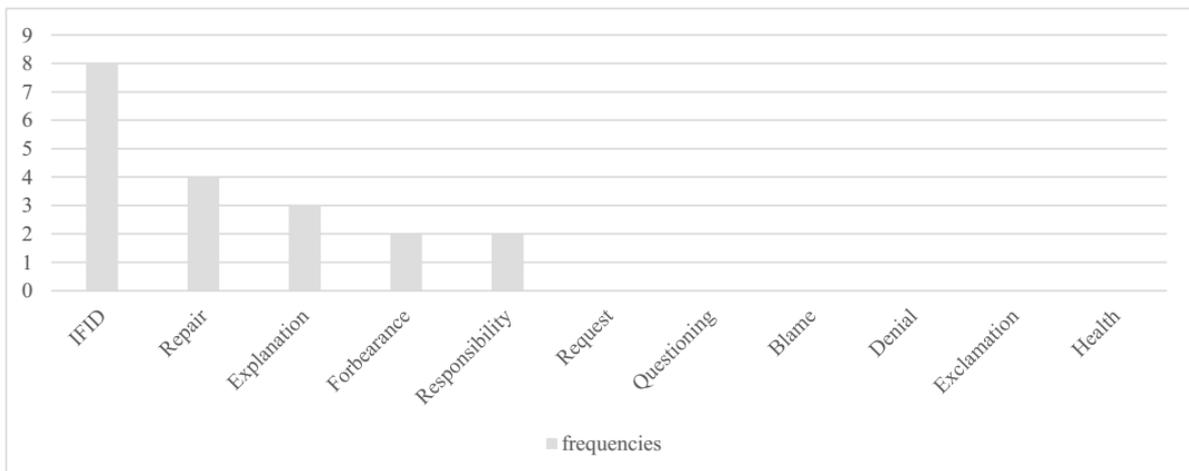


Table 7

Frequencies of Participant 7's Apology Strategies Use

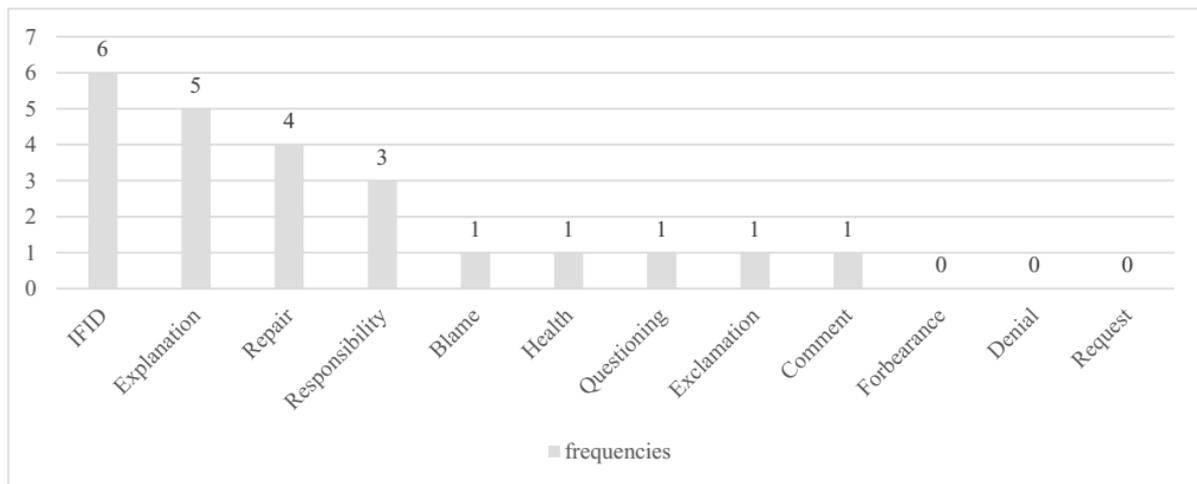
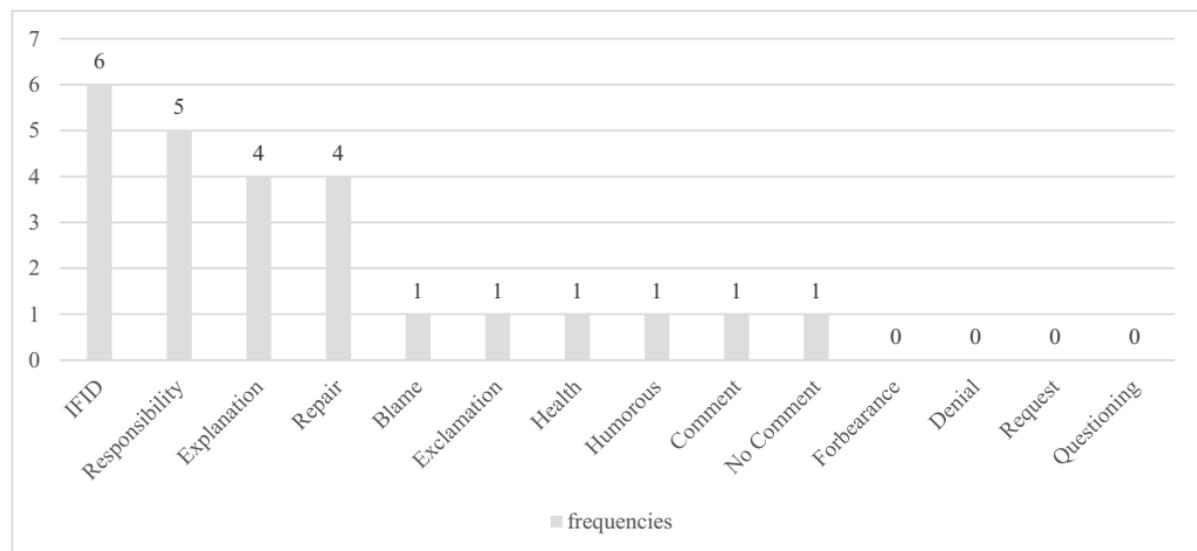


Table 8

Frequencies of Participant 8's Apology Strategies Use



TECHNOLOGY-ENHANCED TEACHING OF ENGLISH TO YOUNG LEARNERS: PERCEPTIONS OF JUNIOR PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH-AS-A-FOREIGN- LANGUAGE TEACHERS

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ABSTRACT

The exponential growth in the world of technology over the past few decades has brought about the need for reconsidering the way English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) teaching has been conducted, akin to the cases of teaching of other subject areas. The effect the use of technology exerts on EFL teaching is likely to vary depending on the age of students. Literature review reveals that pre-service EFL teachers' (PSEFLT's) views about the integration of technology into teaching English to young learners (TEYLs) have not been investigated heretofore. For this reason, this qualitative case study targets unravelling junior PSEFLT's' ($N = 82$) perceptions concerning the benefits and drawbacks of incorporating technology into TEYLs. The data collected from a questionnaire consisting of one closed-ended and two open-ended questions were analyzed adopting inductive content analysis. The findings demonstrated that though the participants raised a number of issues relating to the use of technology in TEYLs, all the participants favored technology integration in that they construed the benefits of the use of technology in TEYLs outweighed the drawbacks it had. Since PSEFLT's' prospective instructional practices will not be independent of their perceptions, English language teacher educators could take advantage of the findings in this study and might address the issues highlighted by the study participants as covering the topic of the integration of technology into English language teaching.

Keywords: *PSEFLT's, PSEFLT's' perceptions, technology use, TEYLs, young learners*

INTRODUCTION

The integration of technology into classroom teaching has been considered to be holding a central place in the 21st century classroom learning (Sang, Tondeur, Chai & Dong, 2016) primarily due to its “flexibility and versatility” (Hu & McGrath, 2011, p. 42). Technology use in language teaching has also been inevitable over the last few years as a result of a set of reasons involving but not restricted to technological development. For instance, the COVID-19 pandemic all the world has been suffering from for nearly a year has engendered compulsory distance education. In addition, technology has been incorporated into language teaching with an eye to supplementing face-to-face teaching, rooted in the requirements of language teaching programs and/or personal preference of language teachers wishing to enhance their teaching by virtue of the affordances of applying technology.

Considering the precedence given to technology integration into language teaching, not only in-service EFL teachers but also PSEFLT's should be supported in acquiring the knowledge of how to use technology in language teaching. That is to say, pre-service teacher education could be postulated to be a platform for EFL teacher educators to prepare PSEFLT's for technology integration into EFL teaching. Since teachers' perceptions in regard to any method and technique have the potential to determine their instructional practices, PSEFLT's' perceptions regarding the use of technology in TEYLs will shape the way they will use technology to accompany their teaching in young learner classes. The review of extant research on PSEFLT's and technology incorporation into TEYLs unveils that PSEFLT's' perceptions concerning the use of technology in young learners classes is a topic that has not been investigated thus far. Thus, the purpose of this study is exploring PSEFLT's' conceptions of the use of technology in TEYLs.

Why Use Technology in Language Learning and Teaching?

The benefits of technology use in language learning have been explored in a great deal of research in the literature (e.g., Lang & Liao, 2018; Laughlin, Sydorenko & Daurio, 2020; Zou & Xie, 2019). Hoopingarner (2009) maintains that the incorporation of technology in language teaching offers opportunities for language practice and enhances the input. Nonetheless, Hoopingarner (ibid) also claims that a teacher cannot be replaced by technology and technology use does not convert bad teachers into good ones. The integration of technology into language teaching is also conceived to be a medium for increasing learner interest and motivation,

helping students easily access language input and increasing opportunities for interaction and feedback (Golonka, 2014). Additionally, it is considered that technology use provides flexibility to language learners (Golonka, *ibid*; White, Zhang & Skyrme, 2020), and increases intellectual capacity and creativity (Chun, Kern & Smith, 2016).

Technology integration into foreign language classes could provide substantial benefits for teaching as well as the benefits it provides for language learning. According to Golonka (*ibid*), technology integration enables language teachers to organize course content in a more efficient way and to interact with multiple students. Nevertheless, the use of technology in foreign language teaching is not free of problems. For instance, there might be problems with the appropriacy of input, accuracy of feedback and it may not lead to genuine interaction; moreover, students may be distracted from the task and the mode of delivery might be overestimated at the expense of learning objectives (Golonka, *ibid*). Furthermore, the incorporation of technology is alleged to be detrimental to young learners' thinking and literacy (Bauerlein, 2009; Carr, 2010).

Technology and Language Teaching Pedagogy in Young Learner Classes

Prior to delving into the use of technology in young learner English classes, it is important to take into consideration young learner characteristics. According to Cameron (2001):

- Young learners are more enthusiastic and lively as learners.
- They want to please their teachers rather than their peer groups.
- They have the desire to do an activity even if they do not understand why and how.
- There is lack of inhibition amongst young learners.
- They have a tendency to learn by playing, their explorations, and talking to others.
- They learn indirectly and holistically.
- They lose interest more quickly and are less able to remain motivated while working on difficult tasks.
- It is difficult for young learners to use language to talk about language.
- They have limited world knowledge.

A set of criteria such as learning objectives, students' abilities and interests, available resources and institutional expectations induce how to integrate a specific form of technology into teaching (Chun, Kern & Smith, 2016). Teachers also play a significant role in the success in the use of technology in young learner classes (Taghizadeh & Yourdshahi, 2019). Young learners grow up using mobile technologies at home as learning tools (Chik, 2014), which could pave the way for English teachers of young learners to integrate technology into their teaching. The impact of technology use on young learner English language learning has been the subject of a number of studies. To illustrate, the study by Sun et al. (2017) revealed that young learners assisted by mobile learning improved their speaking fluency more than those not assisted by mobile language learning.

Pre-Service Teachers' Views on the Use of Technology in Language Teaching

Teacher roles have changed in this era witnessing rapid advances in technology (Quintana, Sagredo & Lytras, 2017). The importance of training teachers in how to incorporate technology in their teaching is highlighted in the literature (e.g., Al-Hazza, 2017; Xue & Churchill, 2020). Likewise, the significance of initial teacher education programs in enhancing pre-service teachers' skills of integrating digital technologies into teaching practices is accentuated in Lemon's and Garvis's (2016) and Park's and Son's (2020) research. Pre-service teachers' increased engagement with the use of technology to design materials is considered to help them increase their abilities to use technology (Tokmak, 2015).

Teachers' attitudes towards integrating technology into teaching are influential in the extent to which they would incorporate technology into their instructional practices (Regan et al., 2016); for this reason, their conceptions of technology use in teaching and assessment have been examined heretofore. For instance, pre-service teachers had positive views about the use of digital badges as assessment tools in Baçal's and Kaynak's (2020) study. Pre-service teachers' perceptions regarding the use of technology in teaching are affected by certain factors. To exemplify, the research conducted by Teo, Sang, Mei and Hoi (2019) revealed that factors of perceived usefulness, perceived enjoyment, technological pedagogical content knowledge and facilitating conditions affected pre-service teachers' intention to use technology. The results in the study by Teo and Noyes (2014) demonstrated that perceived easiness of using technology resulted in a tendency among pre-service teachers to use it.

In view of the lack of research in the literature into pre-service teachers' conceptions of the use of technology in TEYLs, this study targets adding to it by seeking answers the following research questions:

- Are PSEFLT's for or against the use of technology in TEYLs?
- What do PSEFLT's think about the benefits of the use of technology in TEYLs?
- What do PSEFLT's think about the drawbacks of the use of technology in TEYLs?

METHODOLOGY

Research design and the context

This qualitative case study aims to reveal PSEFLT's perceptions of the use of technology in TEYLs. The objective of the research reveals the rationale behind the research design because qualitative research is conducted to investigate people's emotions, perceptions, behaviors and lived experiences (Strauss & Corbin, 1996), and to produce knowledge based on human experience (Sandelowski, 2004). Moreover, qualitative research is undertaken with an eye to learning about participants' views about a phenomenon (Creswell, 2012). In the context of this study, PSEFLT's take TEYLs I course in the fall term of the third academic year in the program and TEYLs II course in the spring term of the same academic year. The purpose of offering TEYL I and II courses in the program is helping PSEFLT's gain knowledge of the characteristics of young learners and how to teach English to them.

Participants

A cohort of 82 junior PSEFLT's took part in the study. 63 of the participants were female and the remaining 19 were male. The mean age of the participants was 21.8. All the participants had taken and successfully passed TEYLs I course and were enrolled in TEYLs II course when this study was carried out. The study participants are numbered (PSEFLT 1, PSEFLT 2...), and the assigned numbers will be used throughout the study rather than mentioning participants' names as presenting quotes from their responses to the research questions in an effort to protect their privacy and maintain anonymity.

Data Collection Tool and Analysis

Questionnaire

A questionnaire developed by the researcher and containing one closed-ended and two open-ended questions was used to find answers to the research questions. The questionnaire was e-mailed to two English language teacher educators to ensure its validity and to make sure the questions were not leading. Peer debriefing was used to increase the credibility of the research. A pre-service English language teacher educator checked all the steps followed in the study. To conduct content analysis, the collected data were coded following the six steps proposed by Creswell (2012, pp. 244-245).

- All responses were read to get a sense of them.
- One of the questionnaires was randomly chosen and what was meant in the responses was written in the margins.
- Coding was done.
- A list of codes was prepared, and then, the number of codes was reduced to avoid redundancy.
- In light of the list of codes, the questionnaires were gone through and quotes from participants' responses were circled to support the codes.
- Themes were developed from the codes.

FINDINGS

Are PSEFLT's for or against the use of technology in TEYLs?

The analysis of the data on whether or not the participants supported the use of technology in TEYLs revealed that all the participants opted for technology integration into TEYLs. Participants' responses to the research question of what the benefits of the use of technology in TEYLs are delineate why all the participants favored technology incorporation in TEYLs.

Benefits of the use of technology in TEYLs

It promotes young learner English language learning

Participants' responses to the benefits of the use of technology in TEYLs led to the development of the theme of "it promotes young learner English language learning". One of the codes leading to the development of the theme is "appealing to young learners with different learning styles". PSEFLT 23 stated: *Young learners' learning styles can be different, but I believe that English teachers could reach lots of activities and materials suitable for young learners with different learning styles.* Another code contributing to the emergence of the theme is the code of "easy access to the teacher". The research participants highlighted in their responses that young learners could easily get in touch with their teachers through the medium of technological products. They also stressed young learners needed to be scaffolded by the teacher, and owing to the scaffold provided by the teacher through technological products, their English language learning could be improved. The participants also emphasized that the use of technology in young learner English classes helped young learners enhance their learning in that it provided opportunities for practice outside the classroom, which enabled them to consolidate what was covered in the lesson. PSEFLT 42 stated:

Young learners are growing up with technology. They have spent their entire lives by using tablet computers, video games, digital music player, mobile phones etc. For students, the use of technology provides a chance to practice English outside of a lesson and offers exposure to English culture. Opportunities for practicing English in a real-life setting are available on the internet. This can be through social media or visit online forums.

The participants also stated that young learner English language learning is promoted through the medium of the use of technology as it afforded online collaborative activities. They accentuated that technology incorporation encouraged young learner creativity and working on collaborative activities with their classmates and peers could improve their proficiency in language skills. PSEFLT 5 stated: *Technology can encourage online collaboration with students in the same classroom or school. So, young learners learn from their peers and develop their speaking, reading, writing and listening skills.* Similarly, PSEFLT 34 emphasized: *Students may communicate more when they collaborate with their classmates and the teacher on the internet.*

The participants also expounded that technology incorporation helped teachers teach engaging lessons, motivate young learners and support them in learning English. PSEFLT 68 stated in her response: *By using technology effectively, good teachers can make lessons*

enjoyable, encourage students to learn English, boost their motivation and make each student an active player in the learning process. Stressing the importance of TEYLs via using colorful materials, PSEFLT 4 stated: Technology use can help young learners develop their speaking, listening, reading and writing skills by providing colorful materials because young learners like colorful materials.

Drawbacks of the Use of Technology in Young Learner Classes

The analysis of PSEFLT's responses to the research question of what drawbacks the use of technology has in TEYLs developed the following themes.

Inadequacy of Teacher Knowledge of How to Use Technology

The participants stated that English teachers with more teaching experience lacked the knowledge of how to integrate technology into TEYLs; hence, they might abstain from using it to enhance their teaching. PSEFLT 71 expressed: *Teachers may be reluctant to use technology and this may be caused by not knowing how to use technology and even by being scared of it.* In addition, the participants emphasized the significance of training English teachers in developing their skills of using technology in young learner classes.

Distracting Young Learners' Attention

The participants stated that young learners' attention could be distracted easily as a result of the use of technology, and for this reason, they might leave working on the assigned task. PSEFLT 36 stated: *Teachers should not forget that technology can distract young learners' attention. Because of that, they should integrate technology in a planned and purposeful manner.*

DISCUSSION

The results of the study demonstrated that all the participants valued the use of technology in TEYLs. Participants' responses to the question of what the benefits of technology incorporation into TEYLs revealed that it prompted young learner English language learning for the participants stated that it could motivate young learners by addressing their diverse needs

and encouraging the language practice outside the classroom either individually or in collaboration with the teacher, their classmates or overseas students instead of constraining English language learning to classroom teaching. These findings are in line with a number of studies in the literature (Golonka, 2014; Hoopingarner, 2009; Hu & McGrath 2011; White, Zhang & Skyrme, 2020). Another point highlighted by the participants was that language integration into young learner classes was congruent with their daily lives as they were surrounded by technology at home; in other words, they continue their informal learning at home as is posited by Chick (2014). The findings revealed that the participants had contradictory conceptions of the relationship between technology integration into TEYLs and young learners' short attention span. While there were participants conceiving that technology use could be a panacea for young learners' short attention span owing to the colorful content it has, there were participants believing that it could distract young learners' attention easily taking into account their short attention span.

The disadvantages of the use of technology in TEYLs involved teachers' low degree of skill in using technology in TEYLs, and as a result, they needed to be trained for a mastery of basic skills in technology use. These findings parallel the ones in the studies by Al-Hazza (2017) and Xue and Churchill (2020). In view of the assumption that teachers' attitudes towards technology integration into TEYLs could predict their classroom practices (Regan et al., 2016), the study participants are highly likely to use technology as teaching English to their future young learners.

CONCLUSIONS

This research examined third-year PSEFLT's perceptions concerning the use of technology in TEYLs. The results indicated that the participants deemed the incorporation of technology in TEYLs as effective in that it stimulated young learners' English language learning. This study suggests equipping PSEFLT's with the knowledge and skills of technology use in TEYLs, which they could apply in their microteaching and while teaching real students in teaching practicum. However, further research needs to be carried out with a view to investigating how PSEFLT's integrate technology into young learner classes, which can be realized by observing their classroom practices in teaching practicum and their microteaching in the courses they take. Further, perceptions of PSEFLT's with different years of study need to be investigated in prospective studies inasmuch as only junior PSEFLT's' views about the use of technology in TEYLs were explored in this research.

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ENGLISH TEACHER CANDIDATES' REFLECTIONS ON THE MULTIPLE INTERVENTIONS FOR TEACHING LANGUAGE SKILLS COURSE

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed to find out the reflections of ELT students upon the multiple interventions employed in Teaching Language Skills course during a term. The study followed a mixed methods research design and there were 40 participants (28 females, 12 males; 18 seniors, 22 juniors). In this regard, the participants filled in a survey with 27 items and responded three open-ended questions. In light of the results, it was found out that the average mean score of the survey was 4,18 out of 5. It can be said that the participants mostly agreed or strongly agreed with the statements. When we look at the lowest and highest mean scores, it is seen that the item *The course promotes flexibility in using different teaching practices for different situations* had the highest average mean score (4,63) while the item *I liked writing questions for the upcoming topics every week* had the lowest average mean score (3,25). Only two students indicated that knowing the terms and practices related to teaching language skills is not important due to the uniqueness of educational contexts whereas the rest (N: 38) accepted the importance of knowing these terms and practices in terms of learning various teaching activities, classroom management, gaining teaching experience, preparing different materials, gaining awareness about integrated skills. In addition, 15 reported that all the course activities were useful while 18 reported micro-teaching activities as the most useful course activities. However, 16 stated that making theoretical presentations as a group was the least useful activity

Keywords: *pre-service teacher education, micro-teaching, English teacher training, multiple interventions, teacher beliefs.*

INTRODUCTION

Microteaching

Teacher cognition focuses on understanding what teachers think, know, and believe. It is influenced by various factors, acts like a filter and effects teachers' practices based on their past experiences (Borg, 2003; Pajares, 1992) and among these experiences, microteaching occupies a prominent place in teacher education.

Microteaching was defined as a scaled down actual teaching encounter with a specific focus which includes less complexities of real teaching environments but more feedback level to the teacher. It includes a teacher, a micro class with less number of students compared to the real classroom settings, a shorter lesson span with previously determined learning objectives. It is associated with both pre-service and in-service teacher training with a focus on greater awareness of strong and weak aspects of teaching, increasing opportunities for successful teaching practices, creating a safe environment for both novice and experienced teachers, testing the effectiveness of new curriculum and instructional strategies, contributing to professional growth, and offering flexibility (Allen & Eve, 1968).

Microteaching, consisting of planning, teaching, observation and criticism, re-planning, re-teaching, and re-observation, is stated to be beneficial in terms of improving teaching competencies of pre-service teachers with a focus on a limited content, time and less students (Allen & Ryan, 1969, as cited in Arsal, 2015), helping them develop a number of communication, critical thinking and problem solving skills (Popovich & Katz, 2009), enabling them to see theory-practice bridge, and thus cultivating their professional growth (Fernandez, 2005). Also, involvement in microteaching activities has the potential to effect pre-service teachers' critical thinking dispositions positively (Arsal, 2015) and enhance their self-efficacy in teaching (Arsal, 2014). Last but not least, involvement in microteaching activities can improve preservice teachers' teaching practices and a richer understanding of these practices when combined with lesson planning, discussion, support from advisors. Since they can reflect upon their practices, they can gain awareness about alternative viewpoints and reframe their lessons accordingly. Thus, all these gains have the potential to shape their future teaching practices (Fernández, 2010).

Technology Integration into Teacher Training

Preservice teachers' beliefs upon technology integration can be enhanced when they are introduced to technology, have first-hand learning experiences by skilled teachers with meaningful learning approaches and they believe in the utility and importance of technology (Nelson & Hawk, 2020).

Using videos during microteaching activities can become a source of professional development for student teachers. In this regard, Walshe and Driver (2019) concluded that using 360-degree videos is promising in cultivating a more in-depth understanding of microteaching activities, improving self-efficacy towards teaching profession and reflective teaching practices, which, in turn, can result in a more student-centred approach in pre-service teacher education. Integrating feature films into micro-teaching activities also has several advantages such as enhancing awareness about theory-practice bridge, using authentic material, functional language in different contexts, teaching some cultural issues, paralanguage features and idioms (Yaylı, 2009), conversational exchange, filling expressions, colloquial English, non-verbal communication (Seferoğlu, 2008). Additionally, videos and peer feedback can be utilised to develop self-confidence, reflective practices, presentation abilities, communicative competence of pre-service teachers and decrease their communication anxiety (Bower, Cavanagh, Moloney, & Dao, 2011). Despite these benefits, some teacher educators may encounter some problems because of institutional barriers, course contents and personal priorities (Christ, Arya, & Chiu, 2017).

In a study conducted upon English teacher candidates, it was found out that the participating student teachers reported that videos, when combined with guided reflection and peer dialogue, had a great potential in assisting them to establish a bridge between theory and practice and offer opportunities for gaining more awareness about their own teaching practices in terms of classroom language, error correction and student-centred activities (Kourieos, 2016).

The Role of Reflection in Teacher Education

The term reflective practice covers the stages of observation, analysis and reflection. It is considered to be an important tool for meeting some objectives of teacher education programmes, transforming teaching practices and improving student and teacher motivation (Belvis, Pineda, Armengol, & Moreno, 2013). When teachers are involved in reflection during (reflection-in-action) and after (reflection-on-action) teaching, they can gain consciousness

about their strong and weak points, which gives them the opportunity to make some changes and take precautions for their next teaching practices. In these ways, teachers can look back and think about what they have done and form their procedural knowledge based on their practices (Schön, 1983, 1987). They can also be involved in adaptive reflections including internal and self-critical reflection types, which suggests micro-improvisation for identifying improvisatory teaching practices (Anderson, 2019).

On the other hand, receiving expert feedback in addition to peer feedback can enhance pre-service teachers' classroom management skills. Thus, teacher educators' feedback, as a form of expert feedback, on pre-service teachers is valuable to guide their professional development (Weber, Gold, Prilop, & Kleinknecht, 2018). Reflective pre-service and in-service teachers are possible with the existence of reflective teacher educators. For this purpose, Cautreels (2003) proposed using scenario writing like writing coherent small role-plays with different scenarios in order to promote reflective competencies of teacher educators because teacher educators' professional development is important in teacher education and they are the ones who are expected to contribute to the professional development of pre-service and in-service teachers who in turn will contribute to the understanding and knowledge of their students. Thus, teacher educators are an important link in the chain of teacher education.

Aim of the Study

Based on the relevant literature, it appears that although there exist numerous studies upon the effectiveness of microteaching, reflective practices and technology integration into teacher education, there is still a need for examining the effects of multiple interventions on pre-service teachers in the form of longitudinal studies. Thus, this study fills an important niche in teacher education field by considering English teachers' perspectives upon multiple interventions in the form of various activities including microteaching conducted within the scope of Teaching Language Skills-I course during the Fall term of 2018-2019 academic year via a mixed-method research design.

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This study adopted a mixed-method research design to benefit from the complementary purposes of words and numbers and draw more complete conclusions (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003; Dörnyei, 2007; McKay, 2006). For this purpose, the researcher referred to both numerical and non-numerical data via a survey and a written interview form and attempted to combine quantitative and qualitative research procedures.

Participants

There were 40 ELT students participating in the study on voluntary basis. 28 were females and 12 were males; 18 were seniors and 22 were juniors. They were aged between 20-30 and the average age was 21,7. 31 of them stated that they had no prior teaching experience while the rest stated that they had 6 months (N:4), 1 year (N:1), 2 years (N:3) or 2,5 years (N:1) of teaching experience. The participants' responses were collected in Teaching Language Skills I course during the fall term of 2018-2019 academic year. The participants were the students of the researcher. Thus, convenience sampling was used to reach the participants (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The participants were given +10 points for their final score in return for their full participation in the study.

Data Collection Tools

There were two data collection tools in the study, a survey and a written interview. The survey was prepared by the researcher based on the relevant literature analysis and course activities. The researcher came across a study which examined the views of teacher candidates upon developing materials (Koparan, 2017) and in this study a survey was used as one of the data collection tools. The researcher took inspiration from this study in terms of survey items, contacted the author and took permission to refer to the survey. She consulted two lecturers in the ELT Department at the same institution to get expert opinion about the survey and the interview form to be used in the study. Based on the revisions, the survey and interview form were given their final shapes. The survey had 27 items with 5 anchors: (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, 3 (neutral), (4) agree, (5) strongly agree. The written interview form had 3 open-ended question items about their perspectives regarding the importance of knowing terms and

practices about the course content, professional contribution of the course and ordering the importance level of course activities. The survey was uploaded on Educational Support System (ESS) of the course where the researcher made announcements, uploaded course materials and presentations. The participants filled in the survey and interview form and uploaded them on ESS at the end of the term.

Data Analysis

Various data analysis means were employed to analyse the numerical and textual data due to the mixed methods research design of the study (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). The quantitative data, that is, the responses given to the survey were analysed via SPSS to display the descriptive statistics of the items and content analysis was employed to code and categorise the emerging themes in the written interview part. The researcher was involved in a recursive process while analysing the interview responses because each statement was compared against the previous and next statement to set more established and standard path and to be consistent. Thus, the researcher moved back and forth and followed a zigzag pattern while coding the qualitative data (Glaser & Strauss, 1980; Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

RESULTS

First the results of the survey are given and then emerging themes in the interviews are exemplified with some of the participant quotations.

Survey Results

Table 1

Descriptive statistics of the survey items

| Item | Statement | N | Min. | Max. | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|------|---|----|------|------|------|----------------|
| TS1 | The course has a good linkage between different ELT courses. | 40 | 3 | 5 | 4,50 | ,555 |
| TS2 | The course avoids overlapping information between different ELT courses | 40 | 1 | 5 | 3,45 | ,986 |
| TS3 | The course gave me adequate training in English. | 40 | 2 | 5 | 4,25 | ,776 |
| TS4 | The course gave me adequate training in teaching skills. | 40 | 3 | 5 | 4,47 | ,679 |
| TS5 | The course gave me adequate training for the needs of Turkish EFL context. | 40 | 2 | 5 | 4,05 | ,714 |
| TS6 | The topics covered in the course are up-to-date. | 40 | 1 | 5 | 4,30 | ,911 |
| TS7 | The course encouraged me to reflect on my past experiences as a language learner. | 40 | 3 | 5 | 4,47 | ,679 |
| TS8 | The course encouraged me to be a reflective teacher (when I start teaching). | 40 | 2 | 5 | 4,40 | ,744 |
| TS9 | The course promotes flexibility in using different teaching practices for different situations. | 40 | 2 | 5 | 4,63 | ,667 |
| TS10 | The course introduces teacher-centred and student-centred learning. | 40 | 3 | 5 | 4,20 | ,608 |
| TS11 | The course taught me how to teach English. | 40 | 2 | 5 | 4,25 | ,776 |
| TS12 | The course taught me how to evaluate myself as a teacher. | 40 | 2 | 5 | 4,42 | ,813 |
| TS13 | The course taught me how to <i>use</i> foreign language teaching materials | 40 | 3 | 5 | 4,22 | ,660 |
| TS14 | The course taught me how to <i>adapt</i> foreign language teaching materials | 40 | 3 | 5 | 4,25 | ,670 |
| TS15 | The course taught me classroom management skills. | 40 | 1 | 5 | 4,13 | 1,017 |
| TS16 | The course increased my powers of self-evaluation. | 40 | 2 | 5 | 4,23 | ,660 |
| TS17 | The course is relevant to my needs. | 40 | 1 | 5 | 4,28 | ,816 |
| TS18 | The course has a good balance between the teaching of: English, teaching skills, and classroom management skills. | 40 | 3 | 5 | 4,32 | ,616 |
| TS19 | The course prepared me to teach English in the classroom. | 40 | 1 | 5 | 4,18 | ,844 |
| TS20 | The course met my needs. | 40 | 1 | 5 | 3,98 | ,862 |
| TS21 | By the end of the course, I will be ready to teach English. | 40 | 1 | 5 | 4,00 | ,987 |
| TS22 | I liked writing questions for the upcoming topics every week. | 40 | 1 | 5 | 3,25 | 1,214 |
| TS23 | I liked discussing the previous week's topic via our questions. | 40 | 1 | 5 | 4,23 | ,974 |

| | | | | | | |
|------|---|----|---|---|------|-------|
| TS24 | I liked making oral presentations collaboratively with my classmates. | 40 | 1 | 5 | 3,98 | 1,000 |
| TS25 | I liked making a lesson plan and related materials. | 40 | 1 | 5 | 4,00 | ,877 |
| TS26 | I liked making a micro-teaching activity in the class. | 40 | 1 | 5 | 4,18 | ,903 |
| TS27 | I became familiar with the terms related to teaching language skills. | 40 | 2 | 5 | 4,40 | ,744 |

The average mean score of the survey was 4,18 out of 5. It can be said that the participants mostly agreed or strongly agreed with the statements. When we look at the lowest and highest mean scores, it is seen that the item 9 (*The course promotes flexibility in using different teaching practices for different situations*) had the highest average mean score (4,63) while the item 22 (*I liked writing questions for the upcoming topics every week*) had the lowest average mean score (3,25). Thus, it can be claimed that the course was regarded to be useful in promoting flexibility in using different teaching practices for different situations, building links with some other courses in the department, gives adequate training, promoting reflective teaching, improving classroom management skills, promoting self-assessment, preparing materials and lesson plans, being relevant to the needs of the student teachers. However, the participants did not favour writing questions in advance for the upcoming topics every week and some did not like making oral presentations collaboratively with their classmates.

Interview Results

When we look at the interview results, it was found out that two students reported that knowing the terms and practices related to teaching language skills is not important due to the uniqueness of educational contexts whereas the rest (N: 38) accepted the importance of knowing these terms and practices in terms of learning various teaching activities, classroom management, gaining teaching experience, preparing different materials, gaining awareness about integrated skills. Additionally, 15 indicated that all the course activities were useful and 18 indicated micro-teaching activities as the most useful course activities. However, 16 reported that making theoretical presentations as a group was the least useful activity in the course.

The first question item was about the importance of knowing the terms and practices related to teaching language skills. Some participant quotations are given below to exemplify the emerging themes. P represents participant and the following number represents the order of participation.

Table 2

Emerging themes of the first interview question

| Emerging theme | Frequency |
|-------------------------------|-----------|
| Professional requirement | 15 |
| Effective teaching | 7 |
| Teaching experience | 6 |
| Classroom management | 6 |
| Integrated skills | 5 |
| Different teaching activities | 5 |
| Preparing materials | 4 |
| Metalinguistic awareness | 2 |
| Metacognitive awareness | 2 |

According to Table 2, the most frequently cited domain was the professional requirement of English language teaching (N:15), and this is followed by effective teaching (N: 7), gaining teaching experience (N:6) and classroom management (N: 6). The other emerging themes were learning about integrated skills (N: 5), applying different teaching activities (N: 5), preparing materials (N: 4), gaining metalinguistic awareness (N: 2) and metacognitive awareness (N: 2). Some participant quotations are as in the following.

P5 (male): *Teaching skills is a different process, it is not like teaching formulas, rules etc. This process is mostly about cognitive issues and teachers should know something about that process to teach skills in an effective way. As teacher candidates, if we do not know the terminologies like extensive reading/listening or if we do not have enough knowledge about what is metalinguistic awareness or short/long term memory, there will be lots of problems about teaching skills. We should know the terms first to understand the process and to have some knowledge about our learners, then we should familiar with the practices/activities, when we understand the process and know our students' cognitive development and what are learners' deficiencies about the skills, there is only one thing to do, making practice. If we do not know different types of activities, then how can we help learners to achieve. Teachers should apply different activities to teach different things that is why we should improve ourselves in this area because this process is like, there is an aim and there are lots of ways to go there, these paths refer to practices here, if do not know which path should we follow, we cannot able to reach that aim.*

P5 points out the need for knowing related terms about teaching language skills to serve students' needs better and reach lesson objectives. He also links it as a part of professional

requirement and sees it as a way to increase student motivation and improve classroom management skills.

P18 (female): *1-) I know the terms related to teaching language skills more. When someone uses these terms, I can easily communicate with her. As we know, communication plays a vital role in our daily life. To acquire good communication, command on four language skills is important i.e. Reading, Writing, Listening and Speaking. Effective communication is acquired after learning these skills well. Thanks to this course and practices, I found efficient ways to organize communication activities, provides and use source materials. Through practices, we establish cooperative relations in the process of learning in the class. I can work productively with other students.*

2-) Using terms and practices, we made oral presentations and micro-teaching activity in the class. The course prepared me to teach English in the class. Terms and practices developed my self-esteem and my trust in using English. I became more engaged, effective and motivated. They supported the building of a shared vision of successful teaching and effective learning. My speaking skills and pronunciation improved. Especially After making presentation, I realized that I pronounce some words incorrectly, and I learnt the correct pronunciations of this words. Sometimes while I have fun, I learn so much things. Therefore, I liked discussing the previous week's topic via our question, so that I learnt the previous topic much better. I became familiar with the terms.

P18 states knowing the terms and practices are helpful in organizing communication activities, developing materials, building cooperative relations while preparing presentations. She adds that it helped her to increase her self-esteem and motivation, be involved in effective teaching procedures, improved her speaking skills and pronunciation.

The second question item was about the contribution of the course to the participants' professional skills. Only 1 participant indicated that the course did not make any contributions whereas the rest mentioned various contributions such as classroom management, collaborative skills, reflective teaching, preparing materials, increased knowledge, collaboration, problem-solving skills.

Table 3

Emerging Themes of the Second Interview Question

| Emerging theme | Frequency |
|--------------------------------|-----------|
| Different classroom activities | 12 |
| Integrated skills | 7 |
| Classroom management | 6 |
| Adapting materials | 5 |
| Teaching experience | 4 |
| Lesson plan | 3 |
| Collaborative skills | 3 |

Table 3 shows that the course had various contributions in terms of applying different classroom activities (N: 12) mostly and this is followed by learning integrated skills (N: 7), classroom management (N: 6), adapting materials (N: 5), gaining teaching experience (N: 4), preparing lesson plan (N: 3) and collaborative skills (N: 3). Some participant quotations are as follows.

P2 (female): *This course was very useful for me. There were several reasons. I made presentations also I made micro teaching presentations thanks to these presentations I improved myself. We worked with friends collaboratively. I have learnt reading and listening strategies and also how to apply these strategies for students. I have learnt different kinds of activities for listening and reading. We read different articles about English language teaching. I gained different point of views thanks to these articles. Also I have learnt how to motivate the students for English language teaching and how to integrate four skills to the lesson. I have learnt that listening and reading activities should be suitable for students' level, age and interest. We talked about teacher's role and how to create effective language classroom atmosphere.*

P2 indicates that via micro-teaching activities she was able to improve her professional skills, learned how to cooperate with group members while preparing presentations and lesson plans, gained awareness about integrated skills, found opportunities to apply different teaching strategies, how to motivate students and create an effective classroom atmosphere.

P7 (male): *It contributed me, because Language skills is important while teaching English. We knew where to use skills. I learnt what can be more effective to teach my students. It contributed me recognise my skills and knowledge to achieve my personal and career goals. It also helped to develop my skills in communicating information accurately and in a way that is*

appropriate to my subject. It contributed to my professional awareness. It helped me to how to provide effective classroom management.

P7 talks about the improvement of effective teaching style and professional competence. He further says that his communication and classroom management skills developed and he gained professional awareness.

The third question item was about the opinions of the multiple course activities and how useful they were for the participants.

Table 4

Emerging Themes of the Third Interview Question

| Emerging theme | Frequency |
|-------------------------------|-----------|
| All are useful | 15 |
| Micro-teaching- the most | 18 |
| Group presentation- the least | 16 |
| Writing questions- the least | 11 |
| Micro-teaching- the least | 4 |
| Writing questions- the most | 4 |

As the data attest in Table 4, 15 participants found all the course activities useful. 18 found micro-teaching procedures as the most useful course activity while 4 found them the least useful course activity. 16 of them stated that making theoretical presentations as a group was the least useful activity. Finally, 11 stated that writing questions prior to the lesson about the new topic was the least useful one whereas 4 found them the most useful one. Some participant quotations are given below.

P26 (female): In my opinion all of the activities mentioned above are useful because just one of them may not be enough to handle the course, so using all of them will make it easier to get the teaching skills better. Another important thing is that I as a student already preparing plans, doing micro teachings and designing group work materials frequently so Teaching Language Skill Course helped me so much to promote myself and my information while doing all of these activities.

P26 reports that all the course activities were useful and complementary for promoting personal development and practical skills.

P39 (male): If it needs to be honest, writing questions was not useful for me. Discussing the questions was maybe more useful because it provided our critical thinking and creativities. Preparing group presentation was useful because it helped us to socialize and meet with new

friends. Preparing a lesson was a little bit difficult to transform into theory. Designing group work materials was entertaining and beneficial in terms of communication and interaction. Conducting a micro-teaching activity was the best useful activity for me in terms of designing activities and classroom management; it gave me a lot of experiences and ideas for my future teaching. Writing questions was the least one for me because it was pretty much waste of time and boring for me.

For P39, micro-teaching activity was the most useful course activity for designing activities and improving classroom management skills but writing questions was the least useful one due to its time-consuming nature.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study aimed to find out the reflection of ELT students regarding the multiple activities during the Teaching Language Skills-I course. The survey results showed that the average mean score was 4,18 out of 5, which implied that the participants mostly agreed or strongly agreed with the statements. As for the lowest and highest mean scores, the item 9 (*The course promotes flexibility in using different teaching practices for different situations*) had the highest average mean score (4,63) while the item 22 (*I liked writing questions for the upcoming topics every week*) had the lowest average mean score (3,25). This was further approved in the interview part because 11 stated that writing questions prior to the lesson about the new topic was the least useful course activity. The interview results, in general, showed consistency with the survey results in that the importance of knowing related terms and practices and the contributions of the course were listed as professional requirement, applying different classroom activities, involvement in effective teaching procedures and teaching integrated skills, gaining teaching experience and awareness of classroom management, preparing materials and lesson plans.

This study bears some similarities with the relevant literature in that the participants reported that through micro-teaching activities they became more aware of their weak and strong aspects (Allen & Eve, 1968), the course contributed to their professional development (Fernandez, 2005), they improved their problem solving skills (Popovich & Katz, 2009), and it increased their self-esteem in terms of teaching (Arsal, 2014). Since the participants referred to technological tools in their theoretical and practical presentations, they are expected to form positive perspectives about technology integration and its utility in teaching language (Nelson

& Hawk, 2020). The participants were guided and given feedback by the lecturer regularly, which may have affected the results positively and which foregrounds the role of expert feedback on the reflective teaching practices of student teachers (Weber, Gold, Prilop, Kleinknecht, 2018).

In light of the results and comparison with the relevant literature, it is suggested that student teachers should be involved in reflective teaching practices under the regular guidance and feedback of their lecturers, multiple interventions should be utilized in pre-service teacher education programmes for both teaching and testing procedures. All the efforts included in the course requirements should be graded to create a positive washback effect on student teachers. Additionally, if they are introduced to technology integration, reflective practices and cooperative learning during their own education, they can appreciate their value and can employ it as a learning tool for their future students.

LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study is limited to 40 participants so the findings cannot be generalized to some other contexts and some statistical calculations and procedures could not be run. In this regard, future studies can include more participants to gather more comprehensive data and make more generable claims. In addition, this study included only a survey and a written interview form but future studies can add questionnaires, observation forms, video-recordings of microteaching activities, peer observation and feedback, student diaries or teacher logs to triangulate the data. Another limitation was the +10 points given to the participants in return for their participation in the study, which might have created some social desirability issues and led them to answer the items in a specific way to satisfy teacher researcher expectations. Last but not least, a similar study can take place in various ESL/EFL/ENL contexts for comparative studies at national or international level.

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EFL TEACHERS' PRACTICES AND CHALLENGES WHILE TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS IN ONLINE TEACHING

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ABSTRACT

When compared to the other three skills, teaching speaking skills is a tough and challenging process. Most particularly, it has become even more difficult since starting the online education process during the pandemic. The main purpose of this research paper is to investigate EFL teachers' practices and challenges they faced in the process of distance education while teaching speaking skills. The participants of the study were 5 EFL teachers of young learners studying at one of the private schools in Istanbul. The convenience sampling method was applied while selecting the participants. The data of this qualitative study was collected with semi-structured interviews. The answers to the interview were interpreted with the codes and themes obtained through data. Considering the results seen, further pedagogical implications and recommendations for teachers are provided to create a better way to teach speaking skills in online teaching.

Keywords: *EFL teachers' practices, EFL teachers' challenges, teaching speaking skills, online teaching*

INTRODUCTION

Teaching speaking is one of the major challenges for language teachers. Teachers face a considerable amount of difficulties in initiating speaking among students who feel fear, embarrassment, and bias (Ahmed, 2018). However, technology has made all the difference to communication means for developing the speaking skill of learners.

In the 21st century, the way we access and spread information, our work habits, methods of socializing, and much more have been transformed by the increasing progression of technology. However, the Covid-19 outbreak made many schools close their doors and teachers had to learn very quickly how to teach with online resources in an online environment. And teachers had to develop and adjust new teaching skills crucial for online language teaching. The school year was completed by delivering lessons using virtual classrooms or providing online self-study materials for the students. This unforeseen online teaching process put forward significant deficiencies and this made teachers and institutions question the quality of online teaching and challenges in online teaching. There are many substantial studies that aim at discovering EFL teachers' practices and challenges they deal with while teaching four main language skills. However, there is a significant contextual gap in research studies about teachers' practices and challenges while teaching speaking skills in an online learning environment. In this regard, this research study is sought to answer the following three research questions:

- 1- What are the dominating challenges that negatively affect teachers' online speaking teaching performance?
- 2- 2- What are the most preferred practices by teachers while teaching speaking online?
- 3- 3- What are the possible remedies to overcome the challenges while teaching speaking online?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Teaching Speaking to Young Learners

Young learners are mixed classes with different abilities, motivation levels, knowledge and learning styles. Teachers should adopt varied approaches and offer as many opportunities as possible to their learners to engage them (Arifin, 2018). When teaching

young learners it is crucial to understand their cognitive, social and physical characteristics, which are developing continually (Toledo & Hoit, 2016).

Teaching speaking is one of the major challenges for language teachers. Teachers face a considerable amount of difficulties in initiating speaking among students who feel fear, embarrassment, and bias (Ahmed, 2018). Harmer and Terry (as cited in Pratama & Awaliyah, 2015) describe the teacher's roles in teaching speaking as; prompter, participant, feedback provider, assessor, observer, resource and organizer.

According to some former research studies, young learners develop listening comprehension and pronunciation the most while grammatical knowledge grows more slowly (Cameron, 2001). According to Harmer (2007), the most important characteristics of young learners are that they are extremely competent to speak a new language if they are exposed to it. Furthermore, young learners consider spoken interactions as mediums because the spoken language is not considered as a skill for them. However, some teachers find it difficult to teach young learners, as the learners should acquire vocabulary, pronunciation, structures, etc (Pratama & Awaliyah, 2015).

On the other hand, teaching young learners online can be challenging, as young learners can get lost quite easily. During an online class, activities can take longer than planned as teachers may also spend time with the technical problems and checking if each student can see or hear them. Regardless of their course format, teachers should also contact the parents and involve parents in the learning process. A key question is therefore how it is possible to engage both students and parent levelly into lessons for young learners.

Teaching Language Online

CALL has undergone dramatic changes with the fast moving development of technological advancements. Since its first appearance in the 1960s, the use of computers in language teaching has moved from a behaviorist learning model to communication and interaction via the computer, that is, computer-mediated-communication (Hauck & Stickler, 2006). For effective online language teaching, it is crucial to be aware of both education theories and language teachers' roles (Petersen, 2014). A Europe-wide survey discusses that the change in language teaching theories also needs to be reflected in both teacher and learner roles (Beaven et. al., 2010). And some recent research studies assume that transferring from

traditional learning to online learning environments without taking into consideration the pedagogical requirements may cause some obstacles for both learners and teachers.

Online teachers need different skills than those teaching face-to-face because teaching a language in an online setting needs an understanding of not only language acquisition theories but also education theories. Hauck and Stickler (2006) claim that successful online tutor needs to:

1. combine and adapt different roles, including those of teacher, administrator, troubleshooter,
2. have recourse to different styles of teaching,
3. develop new e-teaching skills.

In this regard, teacher trainers and teacher training programs should also aim to support teachers to be effective e-learning teachers.

According to Hampel and Stickler (2005), communicative competence is the best taught online with the combination of meaningful interaction and pedagogical support. However, while the advancement of digital technology promotes the usage of CALL, pedagogical developments cannot move with this. In some cases, some institutions determine to what extent teachers should integrate ICT in their teaching, hence integrating online teaching into their classes. On the other hand, lack of institutional support on ICT training programs and pedagogical support causes anxiety and fear for some teachers to use the technology. But the outbreak of Covid-19 has forced the pace of overcoming institutions and teachers' resistance towards online teaching. And the most recent technology has made it possible for both teachers and learners to interact synchronously at a distance. Nevertheless, it is now important to pay attention to the training needs of online language teachers.

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The study employs a phenomenological research design. The phenomenological study describes an experience by finding the meaning of it as perceived by the people who realized it (Ary et al., p.471). In 2015, Yüksel and Yıldırım stated in other words that "Phenomenological study aims to understand and describe a specific phenomenon in-depth and reach the essence of participants' lived experience of the phenomenon" (p. 3). The design

was selected as the ultimate goal was to analyze, discover, discuss, and evaluate the experiences of teachers with teaching speaking skills online to young learners. Lastly, interviews were conducted with 5 EFL teachers of young learners to collect qualitative data.

Setting and Participants

The participants of this study were 5 teachers of young EFL learners who are currently working at one of the private schools in İstanbul. Each participant was informed about the details and steps of the study before having an interview. Before the interview, verbal consent was taken from each participant. The participants were also informed about the fact that they could leave the interview whenever they want and the information that will be gathered from them will only be used for the research.

These five attendants' ages are 24, 26, 26, 33, and 41. As seen in Table 1, except for just one participant, all participants are female. While female EFL teachers include 80% of the total attendants, the male EFL teacher who is a native speaker includes 20% of the total attendants. The participant's ages range from 24 to 41 years old. In Table 2, the distribution of teachers according to their seniority status is seen. 3 EFL teachers have been performing the duty of teaching English for 1-5 years (60%). One of them has been teaching for 11-15 years (20%), and the other teacher has been teaching for 16-20 years (20%). Looking at the teachers' department of graduation in Table 3, 3 teachers graduated from the English Language Teaching program (60%), and one of them graduated from American Culture and Literature program (20%). The teacher who is a native speaker graduated from the Psychology department (20%). They have not had any experience with teaching online before all schools were closed at the beginning of March because of Covid-19.

Table 1

| Distribution of teachers according to their genders | f | % |
|---|---|-----|
| Woman | 4 | 80 |
| Man | 1 | 20 |
| Total | 5 | 100 |

Table 2

| Distribution of teachers according to their seniority status | f | % |
|--|---|----|
| 1-5 year | 3 | 60 |
| 11-15 year | 1 | 20 |
| 16-20 year | 1 | 20 |

Table 3

| Department of Graduation/ Education Program | f | % |
|--|---|----|
| English Language Teaching | 3 | 60 |
| American Culture and Literature | 1 | 20 |
| Psychology | 1 | 20 |

Data Collection Tools and Procedure

In this study, semi-structured interviews consisting of 10 questions were used to gather data from the participants. In semi-structured interviews, the researcher employs a blend of closed- and open-ended questions, and these questions are followed by why or how questions. (Adams, 2018). These kinds of interviews provide comparable data and are easy to test for reliability. 8 questions of the interview are taken from the study of Gocer (2010) which is “A Qualitative Research on the Teaching Strategies and Class Applications of the High School Teachers Who Teach English in Turkey as a Foreign Language” and these 8 questions are adapted for online teaching and speaking skills. The last 2 questions of the interview are taken from the qualitative research study of Soongpankhao (2016) which is “An Exploratory Qualitative Study on English Language Instruction in a Thai University”. During the interview, the participants were also asked about their backgrounds such as gender, age, seniority status, and department of graduation. Major interview questions were about teachers’ practices to develop students’ speaking skills in online teaching, challenges that they deal with, and remedies to overcome these challenges.

For this qualitative research design study, convenience sampling was applied in the process of selecting the participants. All participants were voluntary to attend the interviews.

Interviews were done on September 7th, 2020 and they took place face-to-face. Before the interview, the participants were informed about the procedure and all of the interviews were audio-recorded then transcribed.

Data Analysis

The data was collected with 10 interview questions. The answers to each question have been put into the tables and the assigning themes and sub-themes have been examined by coding based on outstanding answers. Each theme and sub-theme has been interpreted and clarified under 3 research questions. In the end, the interpretation of themes and sub-themes has helped for the deduction of the results. In the analysis of the data, *R1, R2, R3* defines the questions of the researcher. *T1, T2, T3* describes the teachers who attended the interview, and *(1), (2), (3)* represents the outstanding answers of the participants.

Limitations

First of all, this study has not any quantitative data collection instruments as it is a qualitative research design study. The main purpose of the study is to understand the practices and challenges of EFL teachers while teaching speaking skills in online teaching with their perceptions which can be obtained through a qualitative study. However, the number of attendants is limited for getting in-depth results by applying thematic coding. As the time for conducting the research is quite limited, the number of participants is affected and constricted.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter represents the findings with themes and sub-themes that were interpreted through the interview. Firstly, three main themes (*see figure 1*) are formed according to three research questions. Then, sub-themes (*see table 4 to 14*) are specified under each interview question and answer that each participant uttered in order to answer the following questions:

- 1- What are the dominating challenges that negatively affect teachers' online speaking teaching performance?

- 2- What are the most preferred practices by teachers while teaching speaking online?
- 3- What are the possible remedies to overcome the challenges while teaching speaking online?

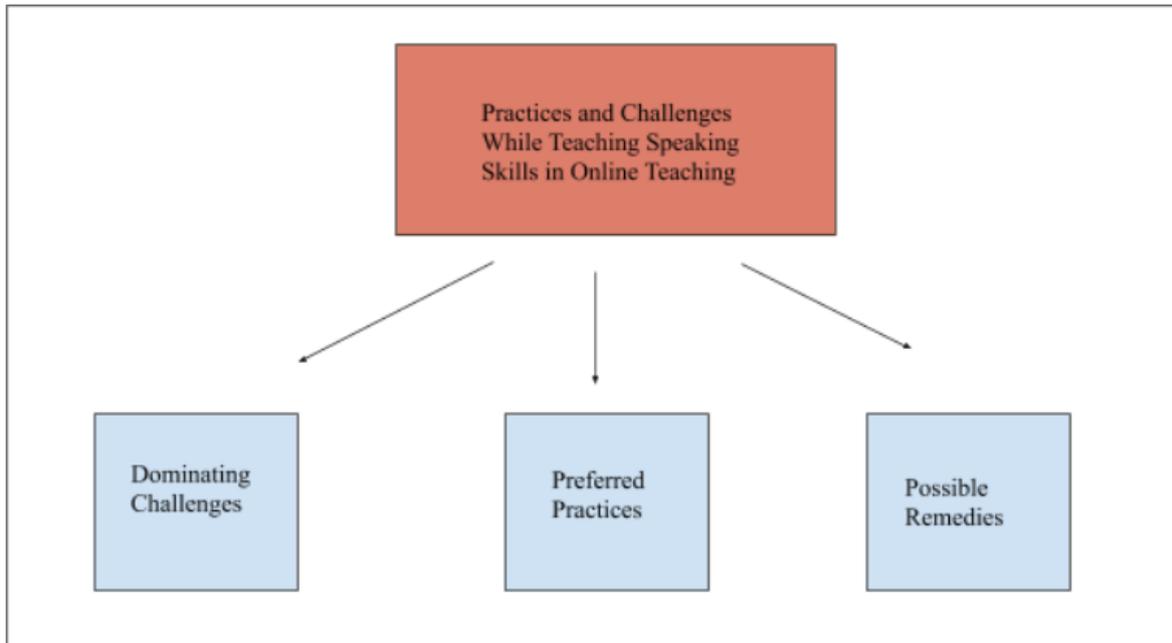


Figure 1. Three main themes

Research Question 1: What are the Dominating Challenges That Negatively Affect Teachers' Online Speaking Teaching Performance?

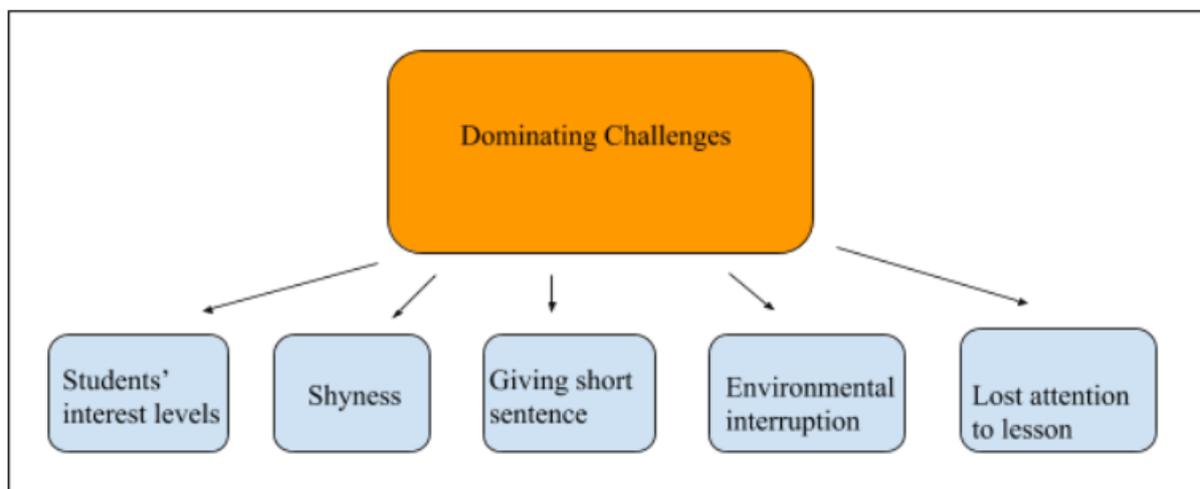


Figure 2. The first main theme and its sub-themes

Table 4

| | |
|--|--|
| <p>R5: What do you think about your students' interest levels and skills toward learning and speaking English during speaking skills acquisition activities that you provide in online learning?</p> | <p><i>Theme and Sub-theme</i></p> |
| <p>T3: I feel that they are more interested especially when the topic they talk on is about themselves.</p> | <p>Dominating Challenges <i>Students' interest levels</i></p> |
| <p>T4: I am trying to make my lessons as much as fun. In the beginning of online classes they were not interested. However, as time goes on they are really interested.</p> | |
| <p>T5: Some of them are really interested but some feel lost and get bored. (3)</p> | |

As seen in Table 4, the majority of the teachers stated that not all students have the same interest and confidence to talk in English. Making connections to children's lives make students feel more interested in online classes. Adding a fun factor to the classes also helps students to engage.

Table 5

| | |
|---|--|
| R9: What are the main problems found in online classes while teaching speaking skills? | <i>Theme and Sub-themes</i> |
| T1: The main problem is that some students are too shy and they don't want to talk for fear of making mistakes while speaking. (1) | Domination Challenges |
| T2: Some young learners insist on speaking with one word level sentence. I spend extra effort to make them repeat and make full sentences while speaking. Furthermore, if they are low level students, they understand but give answers in Turkish. (2) | <i>Shyness</i> <i>Giving short sentence</i> |
| T3: All students want to speak at the same time. They interrupt each other, therefore each student has not the same amount of time to speak. (3) | <i>Environmental interruption</i> <i>Lost attention to lesson</i> |
| T4: Their parents are answering for them. (4) | |
| T5: Students may be impatient and lose their attention in a very short time. It is hard to make them focus on the questions when you cannot talk to them face to face because they are very young. (5) | |

In response to the 9th question, T1 found the main problem with the shyness of some students while speaking in English. It can be understood that young learners may feel fear of speaking in the target language. T2 stated that s/he wants the students to make a full sentence but the students cannot push themselves to create the intended structure in English. T3 said that s/he is not comfortable about being not able to spend the same amount of time for each student to make the students speak in the target language. T4 complained that the parents of the students try to answer the questions that the teacher asked the class for the benefit of their children but the teacher thinks that they should not. T5 expressed his/her problem in online teaching that

young learners can easily lose their attention, and therefore s/he expends energy in order to gather students' attention to lessons.

Research Question 2: What are the Most Preferred Practices by Teachers While Teaching Speaking Online?

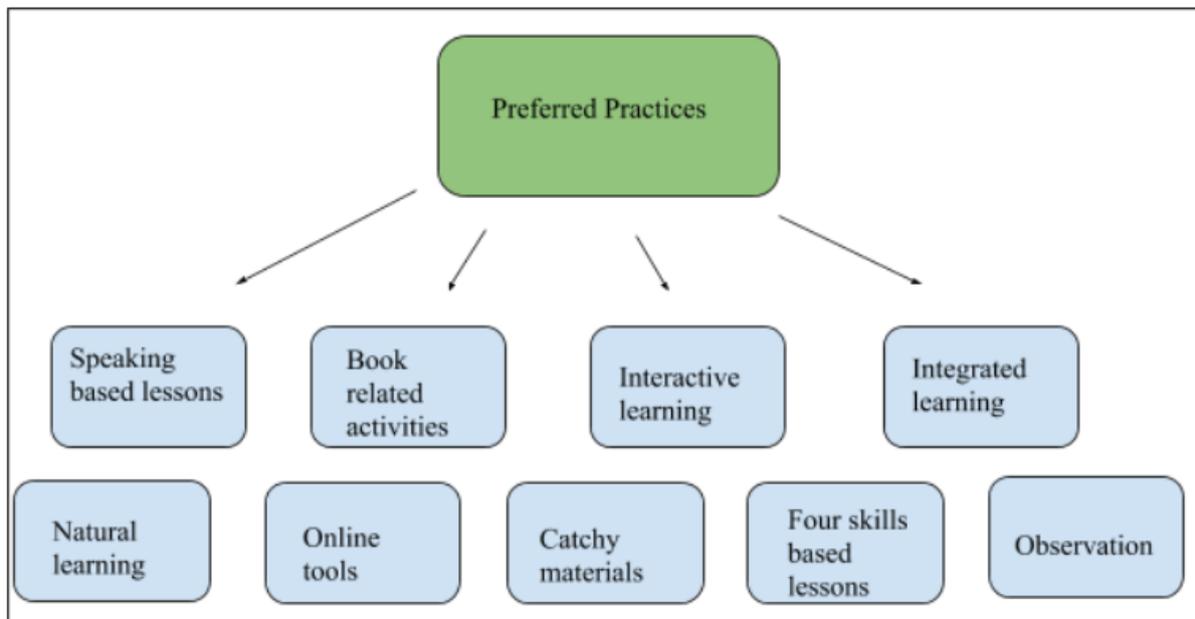


Figure 3. The second main theme and its sub-themes

Table 6

| | |
|--|-------------------------------|
| R2: Do you give your lessons specially designed for teaching speaking skills in online learning? | <i>Theme and sub-theme</i> |
| T1: I teach all four language skills but speaking skills is focused. After all, the best skill that can be taught online in an effective way is speaking skills. (1) | |
| T2: Yes, I have interactive and authentic online lessons. (2) | Preferred Practices |
| T4: Yes, I do. | <i>Speaking based lessons</i> |

T3: I don't design any special lesson for speaking ability. I am trying to find convenient situations to make my students talk. (3)

T5: No, I don't.

Most of the teachers designed their lessons to teach particularly speaking skills in online learning. It has been found important that one teacher has stated speaking skills is the only skill that can be taught effectively online, whereas T3 has stated that s/he never designs any special lessons for speaking as s/he is trying to create convenient situations to make his/her students talk.

Table 7

| | |
|---|--------------------------------|
| R3: Do you follow the lesson and student practice books specially prepared for teaching speaking skills in online learning? | <i>Theme and Sub-theme</i> |
| <hr/> | |
| T1: No, I don't. (1) | |
| T4: Not yet, but I will use it. | |
| T5: No, I don't. | Preferred Practices |
| T2: Yes, I teach online lessons by using the interactive smartboard activities of book resources and I use songs and games. (2) | <i>Book related activities</i> |
| T3: Not only for online learning. I follow student practice books both for my normal classes and online classes. (3) | |

As seen in Table 7, 3 teachers stated that they did not follow any specific practice books for teaching speaking skills. The teachers who use books for teaching speaking skills expressed that they took help from the books given by the school both in their normal classrooms and in the online learning environment. T2 especially wanted to express that s/he uses the book

resource to develop young learners' interaction and communication skills with the help of visual and auditory materials.

Table 8

| | |
|--|------------------------------------|
| <p>R4: Which approaches and methods must be followed in order for students to act more freely in online learning and to develop their speaking skills? (invention, interactive, structuring approach, auditory-visual, cognitive, natural, eclectic, etc.)</p> | <p><i>Theme and Sub-themes</i></p> |
| <p>T1: Interactive and auditory visual approaches must be followed. Visual and auditory materials should be used for teaching speaking skills. (1)</p> | <p>Preferred Practices</p> |
| <p>T5: Firstly, auditory visual then interactive approaches should be implemented because at first they see an example and thus I can practice with an interactive approach.</p> | <p><i>Interactive learning</i></p> |
| <p>T3: Interactive is the best way to develop their speaking skills.</p> | <p><i>Integrated learning</i></p> |
| <p>T2: All methods should be integrated in order to appeal to every students' interests. (2)</p> | <p><i>Natural learning</i></p> |
| <p>T4: I think that the students should be free and should not be forced and pushed to speak in English in front of the camera. I believe a natural approach should be focused in online learning. (3)</p> | |

According to three of the teachers, interactive teaching techniques must be followed and audiovisual materials should be used to teach speaking online. T2 believes that integrated

learning fits better to teach speaking online while T4 thinks students should learn in their natural timeline and so adopts natural learning.

Table 9

| | |
|--|---|
| R5: What do you think about your students' interest levels and skills toward learning and speaking English during speaking skills acquisition activities that you provide in online learning? | <i>Theme and Sub-themes</i> |
| T1: I cannot say that all students have the same interest in speaking. The students who have self-confidence are good at speaking in English. I use an online tool named "Flipgrid" to increase their interest levels. (1) | Preferred Practices <i>Online tools</i> |
| T2: I see that the students are interested because I use materials, songs and visuals designed for young learners and I try to keep the teacher talk time less. (2) | <i>Catchy materials</i> |

As examined in Table 9, the majority of the teachers stated that not all students have the same interest and confidence to talk in English. However, they believe that students can be involved in the desire of speaking in English by using catchy and interesting materials and integrating online tools into speaking lessons. It is vital to use authentic and challenging tools in classrooms for encouraging students when they don't want to have a voice in lessons.

Table 10

| | |
|--|-----------------------------|
| R6: Do you give all of the lessons aimed for speaking skills in teaching English in online learning? | <i>Theme and Sub-themes</i> |
| T1: In almost all lessons, I try to speak with my students interactively. Actually, the other | Preferred Practices |

| | |
|--|----------------------------------|
| three skills which are listening, reading, and writing are seen in my online lessons but speaking skills is in the foreground. (1) | <i>Speaking based lessons</i> |
| T2: Yes, I do for both structure knowledge and vocabulary development. | |
| T4: Yes, all of my lessons are speaking based. | <i>Four skills based lessons</i> |
| T5: No, I don't have designed speaking skills. (2) | |
| T3: No, the other 3 skills are also involved. | |

3 teachers of young EFL learners stated that they give all of the lessons to develop their learners' speaking skills and they try to implement speaking based lesson plans into their online classes. However, the two other teachers said that they don't design their online lessons for speaking skills but focus on four language skills.

Table 11

| | |
|---|----------------------------|
| R7: Are you able to attach importance to speaking skills in online learning? Do you use any web 2.0 tools for the acquisition of speaking skills? | Theme and Sub-themes |
| T1: Yes, I am able to. I use "Flipgrid". (1) | |
| T2: Sure, I use kahoot, flipgrid, and whiteboard fi. | Preferred Practices |
| T3: Yes, I use Flipgrid as a speaking tool especially as an assignment project. | Online tools |
| T5: Yes, I am able to. I try to use websites specially designed for speaking activities such as online speaking activities British Council. | |

T4: Yes, but I don't use any web 2.0 tools. (2)

In Table 11, all of the teachers stated that they are able to attach importance to speaking skills in online teaching. Besides, a great majority of them integrate web 2.0 tools to contribute to the acquisition of speaking skills in their classes. "Flipgrid" is the most preferred online tool among teachers. Only one of them does not prefer to use any web 2.0 tools for teaching speaking skills.

Table 12

| | |
|---|---|
| R8: What are the measurement and evaluation activities that you conduct in order to determine the students' acquisition and development of speaking skills in online learning? | <i>Theme and Sub-themes</i> |
| T1: I don't implement any specific activities for measurement and evaluation to understand students' speaking abilities but I can see their progress by watching their videos on Flipgrid. (1) | Preferred Practices <i>Online tools</i> |
| T3: I can't tell that I don't use any measurement and evaluation activities. I just observe their speaking abilities. I do not follow any rubric however I integrate CEFR level features into my lessons to understand my students' development of speaking skills. (2) | <i>Observation</i> |
| T2: I make the measurement and evaluation by using picture talk technique. (3) | <i>Catchy materials</i> |
| T4: I play flashcards games with them and ask them questions. I can understand their levels by doing that. | |

T5: At the end of every lesson, I ask specific questions about the topic I teach that day and I expect them to use vocabulary and structures in a fluent way. Therefore I can understand their acquisition every day.

More than half of the teachers do not take specific measurements on students' development speaking skills in online learning. However, T2 and T4 prefer different evaluation activities to determine the students' acquisition of speaking skills. While T3 integrates CEFR criteria to evaluate the students and makes observations during online classes, T5 expects them to internalize the vocabulary and structures and to use them in a fluent way in different activities with the help of using catchy materials. T1 takes the advantage of online tools and uses Flipgrid videos to watch his/her students' performance after each lesson.

Research Question 3: What are the Possible Remedies to Overcome the Challenges While Teaching Speaking Online?

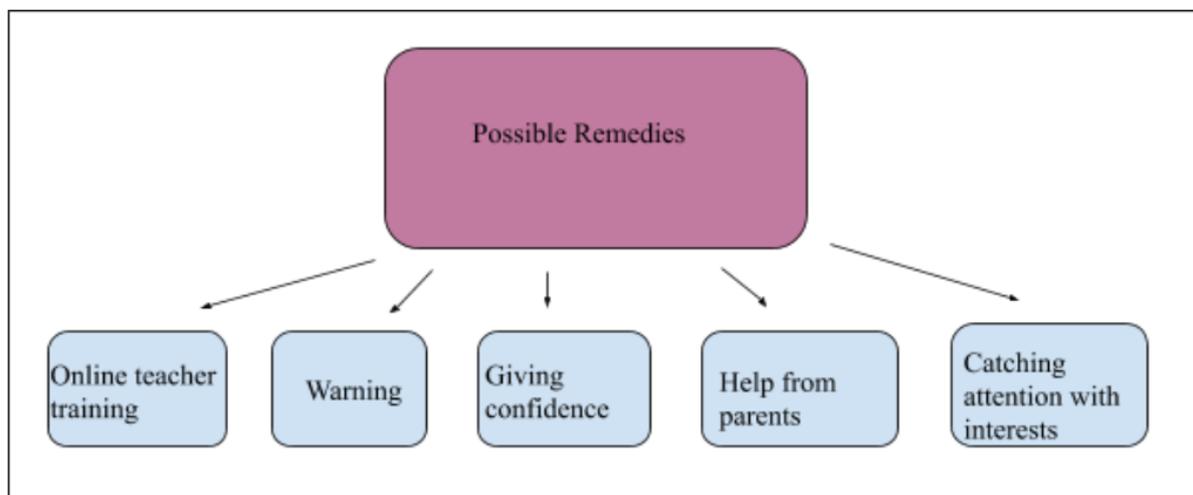


Figure 4. The third main theme and its sub-themes

Table 13

| | |
|---|--------------------------------|
| R1: Did you get a special education for teaching English in online learning? Did you attend any course or seminar for that purpose? | Theme and Sub-theme |
| T1: No, we didn't. (1) | |
| T3: No, I didn't get any education for online teaching. | |
| T2: When online learning was started, I did not take any education. However, after the progress began I took online seminars. (2) | Possible Remedies |
| T4: Yes we had online seminars. | <i>Online teacher training</i> |
| T5: Before online education started, I didn't but after a while I took seminars. | |

All of the teachers emphasized that they did not get any special education for teaching English in online learning. Three of them have mentioned that they attended online seminars which were organized by the school they worked at once online learning started. As seen here, language teaching programs do not offer any courses or training on online learning for pre-service teachers.

Table 14

| | |
|--|------------------------------|
| R10: How do you deal with the main problems found in online class while teaching speaking skills? Do you use any technique for that purpose? | <i>Themes and Sub-themes</i> |
| T1: I try to become a child with a child by changing my voice and therefore I try to give them confidence to overcome this problem. (1) | Possible Remedies |

| | |
|---|--|
| T2: I try to become more cheerful. I try to exaggerate and give lots of positive feedback. I use a flattering technique. (2) | <i>Giving confidence</i> |
| T3: Most of the time I just turn off their microphones on Google Meet. I remind them that they need to listen to their friends. That's all I can do in online learning. (3) | <i>Warning</i> |
| T4: I just advise parents not to answer for their students but they do. (4) | <i>Help from parents</i> |
| T5: I try to use interesting topics in my lessons and focus on their interest areas. (5) | <i>Catching attention with interests</i> |

All of the teachers have their own way and use different techniques to deal with problems in online classes while teaching speaking. T1 and T2 aim to give confidence to their students with different techniques. T5 tries to find interesting topics to catch their attention as the students are young learners and they cannot sit still for a long time. T4 tries to collaborate with the parents as they answer the questions instead of the students. For T3, technology is a challenge and s/he usually warns the learners to turn off their microphones and listen to their classmates.

RESULTS

This qualitative research design study was applied with 5 EFL teachers of young learners working at one of the private schools in İstanbul. More than half of the participants are young teachers, and the other 2 attendants are experienced teachers when compared to 3 teachers. It is seen that 3 of the teachers graduated from English Language Teaching department, however, while one of the participants is a graduate of the department of American Culture and Literature, the other teacher is a graduate of the Psychology department.

It should be noted that all teachers who attended the interview have not any experience in teaching online. That's why most teachers had not participated in special

education for teaching in an online learning environment. After they started to give online lessons, they took online seminars that were organized by the institution.

Online lessons are mostly taught to develop young learners' speaking and communication skills. However, although the acquisition of speaking and communication skills is focused on online classes, the teachers pay attention to integrate the other three important language skills to their lessons while teaching speaking in English. The answers to the third question have shown that while some teachers utilize student practice books in their lessons, some of them follow the curriculum by finding speaking activities.

According to the teachers, the teaching of speaking skills should be fructified with interactive and natural approaches. It is thought that these approaches need to be strengthened by using auditory and visual materials, and therefore young learners can easily become adapted to online teaching. Because young EFL learners are apt to lose their attention in classes where the foreign language is taught, catchy, and interesting materials which include visual and audio can encourage the students when they cannot find their interests and confidence to talk in English.

It can be said that most teachers have lessons by making the students speak in English and creating an interactive learning environment. Along with the speaking based lessons, some teachers try to attach equal importance to four language skills in online learning. Because the lessons are online, most teachers believe that the utilization of web 2.0 tools smoothes the way for them. Besides, the teachers have a chance to measure and evaluate the learners' performances in speaking English with the help of online tools. However, some teachers prefer using flashcards or pictures to determine the speaking skills acquisition levels of the students. Rather than pictures or flashcards, some teachers apply the technique of observation and ask questions to understand the students' levels.

As an online classroom and teaching are more different and difficult than a face-to-face learning environment, the problems are inevitable while teaching speaking skills in online teaching. For teachers, the main problems occur because of students' anxiety in speaking English, being not able to make full sentences while speaking, environmental interruption during online lessons, and lost attention to lessons. Teachers' solutions for these problems are giving confidence to students, warning, taking help from parents, and catching attention by focusing on their interests.

In a nutshell, even if teachers are not competent in teaching speaking skills in online teaching, they try to find the best ways and practices to fulfill their jobs in a proper way. To overcome the mentioned problems, online seminars or teacher training programs would be better for teachers to be able to put the missing parts into their online lessons while teaching speaking skills.

CONCLUSION

The Covid-19 outbreak has shown us that supporting the use of technology for the continuation of education is quite important. Many teachers found themselves in an unaccustomed situation of teaching their classes online with little or no experience. So in accordance with the development of technology in the 21st century and unfamiliar crises that put life on hold, language teacher training programs should offer online language teaching methods to pre-service and graduate teachers.

The statement “Speaking skills is the only skill that can be taught effectively online” can be criticized and it can change according to various reasons in different settings. Institutions should let their teachers specialize in teaching specific skills instead of overburdening them with the course load.

Today teachers can easily find specially prepared course books for young learners and all of these books contain activities prepared to improve four skills of the learners. Beside course books, teachers’ personal working bags are full of flashcards, sheets of paper, crayons, dictionaries, books, puppets, and CDs to carry out their lessons and catch learners’ attention. In addition to these resources, technology can be used to enhance student achievement by integrating multiple digital tools and Apps.

It is hard to say that there are some specific teaching methods or strategies to teach speaking in an online environment. Because online learning has many disadvantages as well its advantages like lack of personal interaction between the teacher and student and student-to-student contact. Keeping students engaged in the course is a crucial function of an effective teacher. Teachers should plan activities and combine different teaching strategies that contribute to creating a motivating learning environment according to the needs and characteristics of their learners.

Dealing with differences regarding foreign language skills among learners is undeniably a challenge for young learners teachers. Because teaching to young learners

demands high professional and academic competence (Hoti & Heinzmann & Müller, 2009). In determining the students' competence related to their language skills, teachers, in addition to providing classical testing tools, should use or develop alternative evaluation tools and methods in line with learners' profiles. Taking the advantage of technology and recording their performance during teaching speaking online will be really functional to evaluate the acquisition of speaking skills.

Teachers should keep in mind that learners have varied abilities, motivation levels, knowledge, and learning styles. They should encourage their students to speak more in the target language. If learners do not get the advantage of speaking during the lesson, they may get demotivated and lose their interest. During online learning, young learners may need their parents' guidance and control to use the technology so teachers should set rules for parents and clarify them for the sake of learners.

As learners, also teachers have their own way to deal with problems in the class. First of all, teachers can start with revising the type of their speaking activities to attract learners' attention and create a real need for communication during the lesson. Duration of a speaking activity can be an important factor that causes learners to lose their interest. If teachers feel like they are losing control of the classroom while teaching online, they can change the pace of the lesson and type of activity to a more controlled task. Lastly, making links to children's lives outside of online lessons and using these as contexts for speaking activities can be enjoyable for the learners.

For future research studies, it is recommended to conduct this study with broader participants in order to gain in-depth results. Besides, observation does not include in this study. Therefore, observation can be applied in future studies to examine the practices and challenges in detail.

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APPENDIX

Interview Questions

- Gender:
 - Seniority status:
 - Educational institutions of graduation:
 - Department of graduation:
1. Did you get a special education for teaching English in online learning? Did you attend any course or seminar for that purpose?
 2. Do you give your lessons specially designed for teaching speaking skills in online learning?
 3. Do you follow the lesson and student practice books specially prepared for teaching speaking skills in online learning?
 4. Which approaches and methods must be followed in order for students to act more freely in online learning and to develop their speaking skills? (invention, interactive, structuring approach, auditory-visual, cognitive, natural, eclectic, etc.)
 5. What do you think about your students' interest levels and skills toward learning and speaking English during speaking skills acquisition activities that you provide in online learning?
 6. Do you give all of the lessons aimed for speaking skills in teaching English in online learning?
 7. Are you able to attach importance to speaking skills in online learning? Do you use any web 2.0 tools for the acquisition of speaking skills?

8. What are the measurement and evaluation activities that you conduct in order to determine the students' acquisition and development of speaking skills in online learning?
9. What are the main problems found in online classes while teaching speaking skills?
10. How do you deal with the main problems found in online classes while teaching speaking skills? Do you use any technique for that purpose?

VIEWS ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER LEARNING CHARACTERISTICS

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ABSTRACT

It is vital that foreign language teachers should improve themselves in terms of such domains as teacher cognition and beliefs, teacher emotions, teacher motivation, and contextual variables. For this purpose, a continual learning process for teachers, particularly language teachers, simply necessitates the improvements in the above-mentioned domains in their instructional practices. What is more important is that they have to become knowledgeable in and about teaching in different levels of instruction. The ultimate aim is to increase the quality of language teaching and learning both for themselves and their learners. In doing so, they should become aware of the possible difficulties they might encounter during their practices. It is widely acknowledged that professional development for these teachers becomes effective as long as supports from educational settings are provided and teachers are encouraged to engage in conscious learning practices. For the ultimate purpose of the present study, *English Language Teacher Learning Scale (ELTLS)*, developed and validated by Aliakbari and Malmir (2017), will be administered to pre-service English language teacher candidates at state universities in Turkey. At the end of the study, some recommendations regarding teacher cognition and beliefs, teacher emotions, teacher motivation, and contextual variables will be made.

Keywords: *teacher cognition and beliefs, teacher emotions, teacher motivation, and contextual variables, EFL teacher learning.*

INTRODUCTION

With the development of technology and the resultant opportunities for reaching knowledge, it has become an important issue for pre-service EFL teachers to know how to reach knowledge, a concept called teacher learning. The significance of this term is universally accepted, in most part due to the fact that teachers are important agents for change. In more technical terms, the concept of teacher learning is generally referred to as “a process of increasing participation in the practice of teaching, and through this participation, a process of becoming knowledgeable in and about teaching” (Adler, 2000, p. 37). Teachers are viewed as learners, expected to establish their own teaching and learning practices and become important models for students. To be sure, as Murray (2013) indicated, students’ academic success, to some extent, depends on the development of teachers’ instructional practices and the ability of schools to enhance learning (Murray, 2013).

Research on *teacher cognition and beliefs* is ripe enough to show that they are highly important in the lives of teachers. Almost everything ranging from what teachers do in the class to teacher education programs, depend on beliefs and cognition, which are defined by Borg (2003) as “unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching –what teachers know, believe, and think” (p. 81). Sources of teacher cognition and beliefs range from previous learning experiences to outcomes of teacher education programs (Kubanyiova, 2012).

As for *teacher emotions*, we can say that they have received a great deal of attention in the last three decades as significant psychological constructs (Akbari, 2017; Chen, 2018; Taxer & Frenzel, 2015). The so-called “affective-turn” is a sign of this, a paradigm shift that resulted from the integration of emotions to cognitive and experimental perspectives. According to Dörnyei and Ryan (2015), more research needs to be conducted on emotions inasmuch as they occupy a significant place in teachers’ academic lives. Similarly, Xu (2018) puts forward that teacher emotions are particularly important for L2 teachers because L2 teachers teach a language which is not their own. An expected outcome of this may be anxiety on the part of teachers.

Another important factor is *teacher motivation*. It is related with teacher satisfactions, effectiveness of instruction, or teachers’ willingness to participate professional development activities, success expectancy, social prestige, working condition, intellectual fulfillment, salary, etc. It is also an important component of self-efficacy.

In addition, *contextual factors* also play a significant role. They cover issues like supervisory support, relations with colleagues and parents, time pressure, discipline problems,

time and resources, program flexibility, teacher education programs, teacher evaluation, materials and resources, classrooms observations, teacher learning strategies, or job satisfaction. In terms of contextual factors, Oosterheert et al. (2002) found that for students with meaning-directed learning contextual factors are constructive. In short, three important contextual factors play a role in student learning: (1) school leadership, (2) teachers' professional relationships, and (3) their individual stances as learners.

METHOD

Participants

The total number of the participants in the present study is 64. The number of male participants is 16 (25,2%) and female participants is 45 (70,3%). All students are fourth grade students attending English Language and Literature Department. They have all passed through the process of practicum; thus, they have formed some ideas about the process. Convenient sampling method was used in the selection of the participants.

Table 1

Participants of the study

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| | Female | 45 | 70,3 | 73,8 | 73,8 |
| | Male | 16 | 25,0 | 26,2 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 61 | 95,3 | 100,0 | |
| Missing | System | 3 | 4,7 | | |
| Total | | 64 | 100,0 | | |

Data collection

In order to collect data, the questionnaire, designed by Aliakbari and Malmir (2017), was used. This tool includes 45 items, subdivided into 4 factors. The factors are *teacher cognition and beliefs (9 items)*, *teacher emotions (9 items)*, *teacher motivation (9 items)*, and *contextual variables (18 items)*. The reliability of the questionnaire was calculated as ,931, implying a high level of reliability. The reliability levels of the sub-dimensions are given in Table 2. As can be understood from Table 2, the reliability level for teacher cognition and beliefs is ,775, teacher emotions ,734, teacher motivation ,701, and contextual factors ,855.

Table 2

Reliability analysis

| Variable | Number of items | Cronbach's alpha value |
|-------------------------------|-----------------|------------------------|
| Teacher cognition and beliefs | 9 | ,775 |
| Teacher emotions | 9 | ,734 |
| Teacher motivation | 9 | ,701 |
| Contextual variables | 18 | ,855 |
| Total | 45 | ,931 |

FINDINGS

Table 3

Descriptive statistics for teacher cognition and beliefs

| Items | N | Min. | Max. | Mean | SD |
|---|----|------|------|--------|--------|
| 1 I have good command of the language I will teach | 63 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,6349 | ,80925 |
| 2 I have good knowledge of processes, practices, and methods of teaching and learning | 63 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,5873 | ,89145 |
| 3 I have learnt a lot about teaching through my extensive experience as a learner. | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,7031 | ,88515 |
| 4 I have extensive experience of teaching in classrooms. | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,3594 | ,98185 |
| 5 I have my own personal theories about teaching and learning. | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,5469 | ,94162 |
| 6 I am committed to be a better teacher. | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 4,1250 | ,62994 |
| 7 I would attend to learners' individual differences and needs. | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,8750 | ,76636 |
| 8 I would observe and reflect on my colleagues' teaching practices. | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,7656 | ,81147 |
| 9 I would critically observe, assess and reflect on my own teaching practice. | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,7969 | ,67093 |
| Total | 62 | | | 3,71 | |

Table 3 presents the statistics as to *teacher cognition and beliefs*. As can be seen in Table 3, the mean score for this variable is 3,71, which shows that the participants are undecided about the items here. First of all, the participants indicated that they are dedicated to being better teachers (M=4,1250), would attend individual differences and needs (M=3,8750), observe and reflect on their colleagues' teaching practices (M=3,7656), and would critically observe, assess

and reflect on their own teaching practice (M=3,7969). Still, the mean scores for these items are not very high. On the other hand, the participants are undecided about whether they have sufficient command of their subject area (M=3,6349), nor do they believe that they have good knowledge of processes, practices, and methods of teaching and learning (M=3,5873). What is more, they do not seem to have formed personal theories about teaching and learning (M=3,5469).

Table 4

Descriptive statistics for teacher emotions

| Item | N | Min | Max | Mean | Sd. |
|---|----|------|------|--------|--------|
| I would feel emotionally free to talk about my ideas and feelings about my job as a teacher with others at work | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,7656 | ,81147 |
| 10 I would be satisfied with my institutional/societal position as a teacher | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,6094 | ,93634 |
| 11 I feel I would submit to others' goals which are set for me as a teacher | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,5938 | ,83035 |
| 15 I have satisfactory interpersonal relationship with others at work | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,6094 | ,82841 |
| 20 I have self-regulation strategies to cope with my job stress | 63 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,7143 | ,79166 |
| 22 I would feel that there are some rules and roles imposed on me as a teacher. | 62 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,8387 | ,72865 |
| 27 I would feel emotionally exhausted of my working environment | 63 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,1905 | ,91329 |
| 28 I would feel I am overworked | 63 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,0794 | ,97222 |
| 31 I am resistant to my job stress and view job demands as opportunities for improvement | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,6094 | ,78916 |
| Total | 62 | | | 3,55 | |

Table 4 presents the descriptive statistics for *teacher emotions*. The mean score for teacher emotions is 3,55, indicating that the participants are undecided about their emotions to teaching. They somehow agree that there are some rules and roles imposed on me as a teacher (M=3,8387) and they have self-regulation strategies to cope with my job stress (M=3,7143). They are undecided about having satisfactory interpersonal relationship with others at work (M=3,6094) and whether they are ready to accept the goals that are placed on them by others

(M=3,5938). In addition, they are undecided about whether they are emotionally free (M=3,7656) and whether they would be satisfied with my institutional/societal position as a teacher (M=3,6094). On the other hand, the participants do not think that they will be emotionally exhausted (M=3,1905) or feel overworked (M=3,0794).

Table 5

Descriptive statistics for teacher motivation

| Items | N | Min | Max | Mean | Sd |
|--|----|------|------|--------|--------|
| 1. I teach out of interest and enjoyment | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,4844 | ,99191 |
| 2. There is a low probability that I lose my job in near future | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,2969 | ,95418 |
| 3. I have agreeable working conditions | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,7344 | ,73985 |
| 4. Being a language teacher has a great social prestige in my society | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 4,0781 | ,76230 |
| 5. As a language teacher, I feel intellectually fulfilled | 63 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,6984 | ,92693 |
| 6. I believe that I am a skillful and efficient teacher | 63 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,7778 | ,88799 |
| 7. I accept and follow the school/institution goals and values | 63 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,8571 | ,73741 |
| 8. As a language teacher, I am well-paid | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,1719 | ,84618 |
| 9. I perceive my prior teaching failures as a result of my lack of personal competence | 63 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,4444 | ,81869 |
| Total | 62 | | | 3,61 | |

The descriptive statistics about teacher motivation are presented in Table 5. The general mean score for this variable is 3,61, which shows that pre-service EFL teachers are undecided about most of the items here. First of all, they somewhat agree that being a language teacher has a great social prestige in the society (M=4,0781). On the other hand, they are undecided that they would accept and follow the school/institution goals and values (M=3,8571), they have agreeable working conditions (M=3,7344), and they believe that they are skillful and efficient teachers (M=3,7778). Furthermore, the pre-service EFL teachers participating the present study are also undecided about whether they are intellectually fulfilled as language teachers (M=3,6984), and they teach out of interest and enjoyment (M=3,4844).

Table 6

Descriptive statistics for contextual factors

| Items | N | Min | Max | Mean | Sd |
|--|----|------|------|--------|---------|
| 13 My students will not disciplined and disrupt my teaching | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 2,8750 | ,91721 |
| 14 I won't have much time for teaching preparation and recovery | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 2,7656 | ,86817 |
| 17 The school/institution I will work for may provide opportunities for collaborative professional learning | 63 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,5714 | ,81744 |
| 23 I would teach in congruence with my own educational beliefs and values | 62 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,6129 | ,87506 |
| 26 My colleagues will be professional and supportive | 63 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,5079 | ,78026 |
| 29 The school/institution I work for would be supportive and give helpful advices | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,5000 | ,73463 |
| 30 The school/institution I work for will be open to change and flexible to teachers practical suggestions | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,5156 | ,81634 |
| 33 I would receive professional and practical guidelines from teacher observers/educators at work. | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,5625 | ,68718 |
| 34 I would regularly attend teacher education programs | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,5313 | 1,00741 |
| 35 I would feel that parents trust and believe in my teaching | 64 | 3,00 | 5,00 | 4,0469 | ,67682 |
| 36 Teaching materials I work with are will not informative and helpful* | 63 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 2,9683 | ,89746 |
| 38 My work activities would change my teaching behavior | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,7969 | ,67093 |
| 39 I would perceive my prior teaching failures as a result of my lack of personal competence | 63 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,5873 | ,92693 |
| 40 I would do best to be able to answer even the most challenging questions of my students | 63 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 4,0159 | ,77235 |
| 41 I would do my best to avoid making linguistic mistakes while teaching | 63 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,9841 | ,87052 |
| 42 My linguistic proficiency as a teacher should be ostensibly better than my students' linguistic proficiency | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 4,0469 | ,82481 |
| 43 I would try to be a better and more popular teacher in comparison with my colleagues | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,6250 | ,98400 |
| 44 I'd like to teach higher level classes at work | 64 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,9062 | ,95483 |
| 45 I would do my best to master even the most difficult classroom learning materials to teach | 64 | 3,00 | 5,00 | 4,1250 | ,65465 |
| Total | 59 | | | 3,60 | |

Table 6 presents the descriptive findings regarding contextual factors. The findings indicate that the participants somehow agree that they would do their best to master even the most difficult classroom learning materials to teach ($M=4,1250$), try to make parent believe in their teaching ($M=4,0469$), and they do best to be able to answer even the most challenging questions of students ($M=4,0159$). Moreover, the participants also stated that their linguistic proficiency as a teacher should be ostensibly better than their students' linguistic proficiency ($M=4,0469$).

The participants also partially agreed that they would do their best to avoid making linguistic mistakes while teaching (M=3,9841).

On the other hand, the pre-service EFL teachers in the present study are undecided about whether the school they will work in will provide opportunities for collaborative professional learning (M=3,5714), would be supportive and give helpful advices (M=3,5000), or will be open to change and flexible (M=3,5156). Moreover, the participants do not think that they would teach in congruence with their own educational beliefs and values (M=3,6129), their colleagues would be helpful and supportive (M=3,5079), or they would receive professional and practical guidelines from teacher educators at work (M=3,5625). The participants are also undecided participating teacher education programs (M=3,5313) and seeing their failures (M3,5873).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Recently, the concept of teacher learning has received considerable attention. (Endedijk & Vermunt, 2013; Feiman-Nemser, 2012; Jones & Dexter, 2014). Such research recognizes the significance of teacher attitude, attention, and awareness in professional pursuits and focuses on how teachers attain or utilize knowledge in their careers. Aliakbari and Malmir (2017) point out that the development of teachers' conceptions is determined by three important variables: (1) the teacher, (2) the school, and (3) the learning activity. As such, the role of these variables must be studied with a view to discovering the cause-and-effect relations in between.

As for the findings of the study, it was found that, within the scope of *teacher cognition and beliefs*, the participants are undecided that they would attend individual differences and needs, observe and reflect on their colleagues' teaching practices, and would critically observe, assess and reflect on their own teaching practice. In addition, the pre-service EFL teachers participating the present study do not believe that they have sufficiency command of their subject matter and they also do not think that they are aware of processes, practices, and methods of teaching and learning.

As for *teacher emotions*, the study found that pre-service EFL teachers have mixed feelings about their emotions. Their self-regulation strategies to grapple with stress do not seem to have developed yet. They also do not seem to have self-confidence in terms of interpersonal relationships and their emotional freedom. They have resistance to accepting the goals that are placed on them by others. On the other hand, they do not believe that they will be emotionally

exhausted or feel overworked. With regard to *teacher motivation*, in the first place, pre-service EFL teachers think that teaching is a prestigious occupation in the society; however, they are undecided about the viability of the prospective working conditions. They also do not feel satisfied with their intellectual development.

In relation to *contextual factors*, the participants are undecided about them. In the first place, the findings indicated that pre-service EFL teachers in the present study were willing to do their best to provide the best instruction and are ready to counter questions of their prospective students. However, they are not so willing to professional activities or getting help from their prospective colleagues. The participants also stated that they would not teach in accordance with their teaching beliefs. This indicates that their conceptions as to teaching and learning have not developed yet. To conclude, it can be said that they are not so hopeful about professional development.

To conclude, when we say teacher learning we actually should refer to lifelong learning. There is common consensus among scholars is that pre-service EFL teachers should be able to construct their own knowledge. Therefore, teacher education process must accentuate the role of lifelong learning. This has dual purpose. First of all, the concept of lifelong learning is particularly important for teachers because teachers are the most important components of the teaching process. Secondly, the role of educational environment in teacher learning directs, facilitates, or hinders the learning process.

The present study has two main limitations. First one is the small number of participants. Due to time restrictions, it was hard to reach participants. Secondly, the present study failed to provide grade level differences. Future studies can work with more participants and attempt to see grade level differences.

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PRE-SERVICE EFL TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHIES IN RELATION TO THEIR PERCEIVED PROFICIENCY LEVELS

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the present study is to investigate pre-service EFL teachers' approaches to education in relation to their perceived proficiency levels. In order to collect data on teaching approaches, the Philosophical Preference Evaluation Scale, prepared by Gezer (2018) based on the scale proposed by Çetin et al (2012) was used. The scale includes two dimensions, which are perennialism and essentialism philosophies. The perceived proficiency levels of pre-service teachers were measured using the scales proposed by the CEFR. The descriptors pertaining to B1, B2, C1, and C2 levels were presented to the participants and they were asked to evaluate themselves. The number of the participants is 58 pre-service EFL teachers who are in their final year. Convenient and purposeful sampling methods were employed in the selection of the participants. The criterion employed was that all the participants should be in their final year so that they have developed ideas as to philosophies of education. Based on tentative results, it can be said that perceived proficiency determines pre-service teachers' beliefs about philosophy of education to some extent.

Keywords: *philosophy of education, pre-service EFL teachers, CEFR.*

INTRODUCTION

Basically, educational philosophy is related with an examination of theories and their applications to education in an attempt to guide educational processes. It may include teachers' beliefs about educational practices, their impacts on attitudes, values, or decisions. It would not be an overestimation to put forward that teacher beliefs and practices stem from educational philosophy (Yılmaz, Altınkurt & Çokluk, 2011), the study or investigation of the nature of human knowledge and its drivers. Moreover, educational philosophies are also related to how teachers establish their classroom environments and how open they are to changes. Therefore, educational philosophies may contain questions like “What is to be taught?”, “How should the curriculum be organized?”, “Why do we teach what we are teaching?”, “What are the main aims of teaching?”, etc. In short, educational philosophy is concerned with thoughts, conceptions and principles relevant to education.

An important issue regarding teaching philosophies is how to categorize them. There are a number of suggestions for their categorization. Wiles and Bondi (2007) offered six categories for educational philosophies, which are perennialism, essentialism, progressivism, reconstructionism, naturalism and existentialism. Yılmaz et al. (2011) offered five factors, notably *perennialism*, *essentialism*, progressivism, *reconstructionalism*, and *existentialism*. The most common typology, however, is offered by Demirel (2012), where educational philosophies are divided into four, which are *perennialism*, *essentialism*, *progressivism*, and *reconstructionism*.

Perennialism and *essentialism* are both based on the choices of content, in which students are passive recipients, the teachers being spoon feeders. Such educational philosophies rest on idealism and realism (Isichei, 2006; San Mateo & Tangco, 2003; Sönmez, 2014). Therefore, *perennialism* and *essentialism* can be seen as Traditional Educational Philosophies (TEP) (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013). On the other hand, *progressivism* and *reconstructionism* are characterized by pragmatism (Guttek, 1988; Parkerson & Parkerson, 2008). In these educational philosophies, students are the main focus on education process, and students are supposed to be part of the teaching and learning process. They are active participants of the process. In this case, such educational philosophies are called as Contemporary Educational Philosophies (CEP) (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2013).

Based on realism, *perennialism* is an approach which puts forward that the main issue in teaching is related with the nature of human beings because “the nature of human never changes and it is predictably stable” (Kaya & Kaya, 2017). This kind of an approach necessitates a fixed

curriculum and what matters is training the whole person with the aim to nurture a strong personality and to make schools real-life like places (Ergün, 2013; Mısırlı, 2009; Sönmez, 2015). This means that perennialism is based on the belief that there are absolute universal facts. Another aspect of perennialism is that human brain is the most important aspect of human nature.

The second educational philosophy is *essentialism*, which is based on idealism and realism like perennialism. The content to be taught must be based on a common most important knowledge base for humanity. This requires some memorization of existing knowledge base. In that case, teacher becomes the focus of attention in the teaching and learning process as he or she is expected to impart all that knowledge. In short, the main aim of education is to pass on existing knowledge to new generations (Şahan & Terzi, 2015).

The next educational philosophy is *progressivism*, which is based on pragmatism. In contrast to perennialism, progressivism is about continuously reconstructing the experiences of students, requiring that learning environments be organized based on the needs and interests of learners. This kind of an educational philosophy, therefore, makes education as a dynamic process. It is student-centered and teachers are guides. Therefore, problem solving is an important notion in educational process (Cevizci, 2016, Ergün, 2013, Gutek, 2014).

The fourth educational philosophy is *reconstructionism*, which is based on pragmatism. The main aim of reconstructionism is to organize society in a continuous manner. It aims to make the world as a peaceful and livable place, with the aim of establish civilization which is based on socially accepted values.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The present study was conducted with 58 pre-service EFL teachers. The number of male participants is 14 (24,1%) and the number of female participants is 43 (74,1%). All the students are fourth grade students who have completed their teaching certificate program. They were selected based on purposeful sampling method.

Table 1

The participants

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | female | 43 | 74,1 | 75,4 | 75,4 |
| | male | 14 | 24,1 | 24,6 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 57 | 98,3 | 100,0 | |
| Missing | System | 1 | 1,7 | | |
| Total | | 58 | 100,0 | | |

Data Collection Tools

Two data collection tools were used in the present study: (1) The Scale of Philosophic Preference Assessment (SPPA), (2) CEFR descriptors.

1. *The Scale of Philosophic Preference Assessment (SPPA)*: This scale was developed by Çetin et al. (2012). It is a five-point Likert type scale, the answers ranging from (1) strongly disagree, to (5) strongly agree. Basically, it consists of two factors, which are *perennialism* and *essentialism*. These two factors are Traditional Educational Philosophies (TEP) and Contemporary Education Philosophies (CEP). TEP covers perennialism and essentialism while CEP covers progressivism and reconstructionism.

2. *Descriptors of CEFR*: In the present study, descriptors of CEFR were used to measure students overall oral, written, listening, and reading proficiency. Descriptors pertaining to B1, B2, C1, and C2 presented to the participants.

The reliability analysis of the questionnaire is given in Table 2. We can see that the Cronbach's alpha values of are over, 700 and the total reliability level is ,890, which indicates a high level of reliability.

Table 2

Reliability analysis

| Variable | number of items | Cronbach's alpha value |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------|------------------------|
| Overall oral proficiency | 5 | ,813 |
| Overall written proficiency | 4 | ,787 |
| Overall listening proficiency | 5 | ,736 |
| Overall reading proficiency | 5 | ,818 |
| Modern educational philosophy | 17 | ,863 |
| Postmodern educational philosophy | 22 | ,773 |
| total | 58 | ,890 |

FINDINGS

In this section, the findings are presented descriptively. In the first place, the descriptive statistics about perceived proficiency levels are presented in Table 3. A careful analysis of Table 3 shows that pre-service EFL teachers are undecided about their proficiency in all for language skills.

Table 3

Descriptive statistics regarding perceived language skills

| | n | Min | Max | Mean | Result |
|-----------------------|----|------|------|------|------------------|
| Oral proficiency | 58 | 3,59 | 3,98 | 3,81 | undecided |
| Written proficiency | 58 | 3,78 | 3,89 | 3,83 | undecided |
| Listening proficiency | 58 | 3,44 | 4,05 | 3,66 | undecided |
| Reading proficiency | 58 | 3,62 | 4,05 | 3,81 | undecided |

Modern Educational Philosophies

The descriptive statistics regarding MEP are given in Table 4. We can understand from the table that the general mean score for MEP is 4,3714, indicating that pre-service EFL teachers agree with the items in MEP. To be more specific, pre-service EFL teachers believe that The role of a teacher is to guide the learning/teaching process (M=4,6555), active participation of students is important (M=4,5000), and the teaching content should be organized around real-life like events (M=4,4655). Pre-service EFL teachers also value the role of education in social change, which is important for *reconstructivist* philosophy. They stated that education is an important tool for social reform (M=4,5349) and teachers should be representatives of change (M=4,5690). They also suggest that education is life itself (M=4,5345) and 9. The educational environment should be democratic (M=4,4310). What is more, pre-service EFL teachers also assume that discovery and inquiry teaching strategies should be used in the process (M=4,3793) and learning process should include cooperative learning (M=4,4138). The participants also believe that correct knowledge may change depending on conditions, environment, people, and time (M=4,3103), which shows that pre-service EFL teachers participating the present study adopt and *relativist epistemology*.

Table 4

Descriptive statistics about Modern educational philosophies (MEP)

| Items | N | Min | Max | Mean | Sd |
|---|----|------|------|--------|---------|
| 1. The center of education is students. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 4,2414 | ,92358 |
| 2. Learning takes place through experiences. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 4,2931 | ,79491 |
| 3. It is essential that students should learn to learn, not just knowledge. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 4,0862 | 1,06433 |
| 4. Correct knowledge may change depending on conditions, environment, people, and time. | 58 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 4,3103 | ,75410 |
| 5. The role of a teacher is to guide the learning/teaching process. | 58 | 3,00 | 5,00 | 4,4655 | ,56864 |
| 6. Students should be active in the educational process. | 58 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 4,5000 | ,73150 |
| 7. Discovery and inquiry teaching strategies should be used in the process | 58 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 4,3793 | ,61637 |
| 8. Education is life itself. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 4,5345 | ,79946 |
| 9. The educational environment should be democratic. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 4,4310 | ,88083 |
| 10. The curriculum should include situations that one is likely to encounter in real life | 58 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 4,4655 | ,59870 |
| 11. The learning/teaching process should include cooperative learning. | 58 | 3,00 | 5,00 | 4,4138 | ,59337 |
| 12. The educational environment should focus on practices. | 58 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 4,3793 | ,69655 |
| 13. Education is an important tool for social reform. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 4,5345 | ,70625 |
| 14. It is schools that are mainly responsible for changing a society, | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 4,3448 | ,88954 |
| 15. Teachers should be representatives of change. | 58 | 4,00 | 5,00 | 4,5690 | ,49955 |
| 16. The objective of education should be to teach such values as cooperation and democratic life. | 57 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 4,2982 | ,88570 |
| 17. The objective of education is to improve liberties | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 4,0690 | ,81353 |
| Total | 57 | | | 4,3714 | |

Traditional Educational Philosophies

Table x presents descriptive statistics regarding traditional educational philosophies (TEP). A careful examination of Table 5 indicates that pre-service EFL teachers are undecided (M=3,5035) about the items under this category. Therefore, components of *perennialism* and *essentialism* are not highly valued by the participants. This means that they agree with some of the items while they are undecided with some of them. first of all, we can say that the participants seem to agree that education is preparation for life (M=4,4138), students should be educated in accordance with truth which is eternal (M=4,2807), and teachers should teach students fundamental cultural values (M=4,1552). They also agree that classics should be included in the curriculum (M=4,1724) and students should be enabled to get to gospel truth through reasoning (M=4,2105).

On the other hand, students are undecided that life is different from the school (M=3,7414), the role of education is to teach students subjects and knowledge that do not change from past to present (M=3,0690), and knowledge through deduction is gospel truth (M=3,5345), and similarly in the educational process, students should take what their teachers teach as gospel truth (M=3,1034). In addition, pre-service EFL teachers are undecided that learning involves coercion and strict disciplinary rules (M=3,2241), the role of a teacher in the classroom is to convey knowledge (M=3,7241), and the essence of the educational process is excellent internalization of subject focus (M=3,8448). Pre-service EFL teachers almost disagree that punishment should be used to achieve desired results in the educational process (M=3,0690).

Table 5

Descriptive statistics about traditional educational philosophies (TEP)

| Items | N | Min | Max | Mean | Sd. |
|--|----|------|------|--------|---------|
| 1. Students should be educated in accordance with truth which is eternal. | 57 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 4,2807 | ,72591 |
| 2. Teachers should be the sole authority in the classroom. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 3,5862 | 1,28465 |
| 3. Education is a preparation for life. | 58 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 4,4138 | ,72631 |
| 4. Teachers should teach students fundamental cultural values. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 4,1552 | ,83355 |
| 5. Classics should be included in the curriculum. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 4,1724 | ,72880 |
| 6. It is not necessary to take individual differences into account in the educational process. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 3,0172 | 1,35713 |
| 7. Students should be enabled to get to gospel truth through reasoning. | 57 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 4,2105 | ,67445 |
| 8. Students should imitate their teachers. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 2,9483 | 1,16110 |
| 9. Life is different from the school. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 3,7414 | 1,11702 |
| 10. The role of education is to teach students subjects and knowledge that do not change from past to present. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 3,0690 | 1,22635 |
| 11. Phenomena and subjects that are not agreed upon (i.e., open to discussion) should not be brought into the classroom. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 3,0517 | 1,03318 |
| 12. Knowledge through deduction is gospel truth. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 3,5345 | ,88289 |
| 13. In the educational process, students should take what their teachers teach as gospel truth. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 3,1034 | 1,14998 |
| 14. It is possible to resort to punishment to achieve desired results in the educational process. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 3,0690 | 1,04062 |
| 15. Expository teaching approach should be used in the educational process. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 3,7414 | ,94702 |
| 16. School is not a place for reform. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 2,5172 | 1,11200 |
| 17. By its very nature, learning involves coercion and strict disciplinary rules. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 3,2241 | 1,06034 |
| 18. The role of a teacher in the classroom is to convey knowledge. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 3,7241 | ,89429 |
| 19. The essence of the educational process is excellent internalization of subject focus. | 58 | 2,00 | 5,00 | 3,8448 | ,72067 |

| | | | | | |
|--|----|------|------|--------|---------|
| 20. Human mind is inherently empty; all information can be learned later. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 3,3103 | ,97705 |
| 21. Teachers teach what is correct; students must provide these correct answers in examinations. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 3,4655 | ,94061 |
| 22. Students do not know what is good for them. | 58 | 1,00 | 5,00 | 2,8966 | 1,22388 |
| Total | 56 | | | 3,5035 | |

Correlation Analysis

The relation between perceived levels and philosophies of education is presented in Table 6. Significant positive correlations were found between the variables. Positive correlation was observed between perceived proficiency levels and approaches to teaching ($r = .34$, $p < .01$). Proficiency levels significantly correlated with modern teaching methods. To be more specific, significant correlation was observed between perceived oral proficiency and modern teaching approaches ($r = .40$, $p < .01$), perceived written proficiency and modern teaching approaches ($r = .48$, $p < .01$), and perceived listening proficiency and modern teaching approaches ($r = .33$, $p < .01$). In addition, a moderate level of correlation was also perceived between perceived reading proficiency and modern teaching approaches ($r = .29$, $p < .01$). The correlation between perceived proficiency levels and traditional teaching approaches was not found to be significant.

Table 6

Correlation between perceived proficiency levels and teaching approaches

| | Oralprof | Writtenprof | Listeningprof | Readingprof | Modern | Traditional | Philosophy |
|---------------|----------|-------------|---------------|-------------|--------|-------------|------------|
| Oralprof | 1 | ,765** | ,634** | ,732** | ,409** | ,201 | ,890** |
| Writtenprof | | 1 | ,707** | ,736** | ,488** | ,163 | ,894** |
| Listeningprof | | | 1 | ,717** | ,333* | ,067 | ,859** |
| Readingprof | | | | 1 | ,292* | ,202 | ,430** |
| Proficiency | | | | | | | ,340* |

Discussion and Conclusions

The aim of the present study was to see the relation between pre-service EFL teachers' views on teaching philosophies in relation to their perceived level of language skills. Within the scope of the study, pre-service EFL teachers' perceived language skills were measured by using the descriptors of the CEFR.

As for teaching philosophies, the study found that the pre-service EFL teachers participating in the present study opted more for contemporary teaching philosophies. To be more specific, the study found that pre-service EFL teachers are dedicated to being better teachers, they would attend individual differences and needs, and observe and reflect on my colleagues' teaching practices. Next, they also assume that they would critically observe, assess and reflect on their own teaching practice. However, the pre-service EFL teachers in the present study are undecided about their language proficiency and they do not think that they have good knowledge of processes, practices, and methods of teaching and learning.

With regard to traditional educational philosophies, most of the participants did not totally agree with the items in this category; that is to say, they did not favor traditional educational philosophies. This reveals that the participants in the present study do not favor *perennialism* and *essentialism*. Depending on the findings of the present study, we can say that pre-service EFL teachers in the present study do not think that life is different from the school and the role of education is to teach students subjects and knowledge that do not change from past to present. In addition, they also do not seem to favor the idea that students should take what their teachers teach as gospel truth, nor learning involves coercion and strict disciplinary rules. Pre-service EFL teachers also do not believe that punishment should be used to achieve desired results in the educational process.

As for the correlation between perceived language proficiency and teaching philosophies was also examined in the study. The results indicated that there is a moderate level of correlation between these variables. Proficiency in all language skills correlated with contemporary education philosophies. In contrast, the correlation between perceived proficiency levels and traditional teaching approaches was not found to be significant.

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INTERRUPTING THE EXTENDED WAIT-TIME: PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHERS' PRACTICES

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates how pre-service English teachers interrupt extended wait-time in English as a foreign language classroom contexts. Utilizing extended wait-time is an indicator of Classroom Interactional Competence, and thus it is an essential skill for efficient language teachers. In the literature, there are quite a few studies on how extended wait-time works and the benefits it offers in classrooms. The current paper, on the other hand, focuses on the cases in which the pre-service teachers interrupt and cut the extended wait-time short. This study has a qualitative methodological design analyzing five video recordings via Conversation Analysis methodology. The participants are five pre-service English teachers and their students in public primary and secondary schools. A collection of interrupted extended wait-time instances was formed from the data, and the instances were analyzed considering the sequential analysis, turn-taking and repair mechanism of Conversation Analysis. The findings suggest that the pre-service teachers interrupt extended wait-time in five main ways that are rephrasing, (partial) repetition, providing candidate responses, giving verbal and non-verbal cues and giving the turn to another student. This study offers insights into how exactly extended wait-time is interrupted, which provides implications for understanding the management of classroom interaction and training pre-service/in-service teachers regarding Classroom Interactional Competence.

Keywords: *extended wait-time, interrupting the extended wait-time, classroom interactional competence, micro teaching, conversation analysis, English language teaching.*

INTRODUCTION

Teachers' language use in the classroom is a significant factor that determines students' uptake. Until 2000, the focus in classroom studies was on quantification, and teachers' interactional style was assessed according to the categories of resources they used. After the social turn in social sciences (Firth & Wagner, 2007), the qualitative aspects of classroom interaction has gained importance in comparison to quantitative and rationalist approaches that prevailed the field of English language teaching for a long time. One outcome of this approach is the idea that interaction is organized just like grammar and formal aspects of languages are. Accordingly, the concept of Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC) has been put forward (Walsh, 2006, 2011). CIC includes a set of practices giving way to more engaging classrooms such as maximizing interactional space, shaping learner contributions, using wait-time effectively and effective elicitation. Utilization of extended wait-time is one of the main practices in CIC, and it is shown to be helpful in various studies in the field of Education and English Language Teaching more specifically (Alavi, Pourhaji, & Yaghoubi, 2016; Alsaadi & Atar, 2019; Atar, 2020; Barnette et al., 1995; Cullen, 1998; Donald, 2010; Kamdidah & Barjesteh, 2019; Li, 2011; Nunan, 1991; Stahl, 1994; Süt, 2020; Tsui, 1996; Walsh, 2002, 2006; Wangru, 2016; Wasi'ah, 2016; Yaqubi & Rokni, 2012; Yatağanbaba & Yıldırım, 2016).

The term wait-time refers to the deliberate pauses that are between teachers' and students' turns (Rowe, 1986) and extended wait-time (EWT) is the pause of 3-5 seconds allocated for the other interlocutor(s) to respond. There are various studies on the types of wait-time. As the researcher who coined the term wait-time, Rowe (1974, 1986) later suggested that there are two kinds of wait-time. The first one (i.e. wait-time I) begins with the silence of the teacher after asking a question, and it finishes when a student answers the question or when the teacher starts talking again. The second one (i.e. wait-time II) on the other hand starts when the student finishes his/her response, and it ends when the teacher starts making a comment. While wait-time I provides the students with the time needed to focus on the question, wait-time II enables them to elaborate on their answers (Blosser, 2000). Similarly, Fowler (1975) divided wait-time into four which are: 1) teacher reaction wait-time (which is a pause preceded by student talk and followed by teacher talk), 2) student reaction wait-time (which is a pause preceded by teacher talk and followed by student talk), 3) teacher-initiated wait-time (an example would be student talk preceded and followed by a period of silence), and 4) student-initiated wait-time (which is defined as a pause followed and preceded by teacher talk)." This study focuses on student reaction wait-time as it provides a more specific basis in comparison to Rowe (1974,

1986) whose definition is mainly based on teachers' perspective considering the structure of EWT.

In the following paragraphs, the relevant literature will be reviewed. First, the studies focusing on the effect of EWT will be mentioned. Then, the studies that discuss some of the reasons why teachers do not apply EWT will be summarized. Finally, in line with the goal of this study, the findings of the studies that mentioned some of the ways how teachers interrupt EWT will be analyzed.

In the literature there are many studies that suggest that EWT has beneficial effects on students' number and length of responses, although the number of studies on English Language teaching contexts is limited. However, there is an increase after 2000 (Alavi, Pourhaji, & Yaghoubi, 2016; Alsaadi & Atar, 2019; Atar, 2020; Barnette et al., 1995; Donald, 2010; Kamdidah & Barjesteh, 2019; Li, 2011; Nunan, 1991; Süt, 2020; Tsui, 2001; Walsh 2006; Walsh & Li, 2013; Wangru, 2016; Wasi'ah, 2016; Yaqubi & Rokni, 2012; Yatağanbaba & Yıldırım, 2016). The majority of the studies in the literature suggest that it has positive effects. Tsui (2001) reported that EWT use decreased lack of responses from students and Kamdidah and Barjesteh (2019) suggested that it increased students' willingness to communicate. Similarly, Alavi et al. (2016) found that EWT increased students' self-selection and voicing their own issues. However, a few studies underlined some issues (e.g. Ahmad et al., 2020; Ingram & Elliot, 2016; Myhill, 2006). For instance, the effect of the pedagogic goal (e.g. meaning and fluency vs. form and accuracy) and the question types should be considered. Also, it may be argued that higher order cognitive questions are more appropriate for the use of EWT while EWT use may not be that efficient after low order questions as they depend on factual information or definitions of concepts (Doerr, 1984; Gooding et al., 1983, 1984; Tobin, 1985). Ingram and Elliot (2016) undertook a study on EWT via Conversation Analysis (CA), and they suggested that the benefits of EWT should not be taken for granted. In general they agreed with the fact that EWT could give way to more elaborated student responses; however, they argued that the implementation of EWT was still dependent upon local management, and it should be a part of teachers' decision-making process. In other words, they did not agree with the idea that EWT is always beneficial, and they suggested that local variables (e.g. what comes before and after) might have an impact on it. On the other hand, for example, Duell (1994) argued that EWT had a negative effect on students' performance, which resulted in lower high-level attainment. To sum up the studies on the efficiency of EWT, it may be suggested that most of the literature suggests that EWT has a beneficial effect in classrooms. Some studies argue that

there may be some other variables that need to be taken into consideration, yet no study seems to argue that EWT may have detrimental effects.

There are various studies on EWT in classrooms since 1970s, and they have found that teachers usually apply a wait-time of around 1 second (Gooding et al., 1984; Honea, 1982; Rowe, 1986; Swift & Gooding, 1983, Walsh, 2011). What could be the reason for this case, then? There are some studies in the literature that offer some insights into this situation. For instance, Black et al. (2003) argued that teachers found it hard to lengthen the wait-time, and they could not apply it. Atar (2020) undertook a mixed methods experimental study in which he tested the effect of awareness raising via a framework on pre-service English teachers' EWT use. In his study, in the interview data, the participants suggested that they did not apply EWT and kept it short as they believed that the students' level was very low. As the level was low, they assumed that the students would not be able to understand the questions, and they did not give EWT to let them think. In another study, Ingram and Elliot (2016) suggested that teachers interpreted long silence/wait-time as a trouble and as a result, they avoided implementing EWT. Beyerbach (1988) also suggested that teachers provided limited EWT as they thought that they had many materials to cover.

The final group of studies includes those which focused on how exactly teachers interrupt and cut the EWT short. To the knowledge of the researcher, there is not a study which specifically focuses on this issue in an English language teaching (ELT) context. However, one study in an ELT context and some studies in other fields mentioned some of the ways teachers interrupted EWT as a secondary finding. In an EFL context, Yatağanbaba and Yıldırım (2016) found that teachers interrupted students' turn or provided limited wait-time by using candidate responses and code-switching. Rowe (1972) found that teachers in general used an EWT of around 1 second. Rowe (1972) also suggested that the teachers did repetition and rephrasing or gave the answer themselves in science classroom contexts. Similarly, Bonnstetter (1988) suggested that in science classrooms, it was a good idea to avoid rephrasing and yes-no questions to have EWT. Wasik and Hindman (2018) suggested that rephrasing and teachers' giving the answer himself/herself were found as the practices to interrupt EWT. They suggested that as students were learning English, it could be helpful to give them additional time to think about their responses and reflect upon their word choices in expressing their ideas. This means that giving students EWT to provide a response increases their confidence, and they may become more willing to express their ideas. This finding is similar to Rowe's (1972) findings regarding rephrasing and teachers' giving the response themselves. In line with these studies,

Barnette et al. (1995) also suggested that classroom teachers cut EWT short and use repetition and rephrasing. They also found that teachers occasionally gave the turn to another student after a short pause without waiting for 3-5 seconds.

As discussed above, the studies in the literature researched whether teachers utilized EWT or not, and some studies aimed to investigate why and how teachers did not use EWT. However, to the knowledge of the researcher, no study in the literature specifically focused on how exactly teachers interrupted the EWT. There are several studies in English learning/teaching contexts; however, there is no specific focus on how exactly teachers interrupt and cut EWT short. When the studies that mentioned the practices of interrupting EWT as a secondary finding is checked (i.e. in the previous paragraph), the review shows that there are only a few studies that mentioned the practices of interrupting EWT. Only one of these studies was in an ELT context (Yatağanbaba & Yıldıırım, 2016), and it did not directly focus on the ways teachers interrupted EWT. Consequently, it is concluded that there is a gap in the literature, and as the utilization of EWT is very vital as a part of Classroom Interactional Competence (Walsh, 2006, 2011), this study set out to investigate how PTs interrupt and cut teacher reaction EWT short in the classroom context and material modes (Walsh, 2006). In the classroom context mode, the aim is to maximize learners' involvement in the lessons and in this sense, it offers a more convenient space for students to speak and practice. As for the material mode, the aim is to ensure learning around a piece of material, task and activity. In order to do this, a qualitative research design was used in which data from classroom video recordings were collected and they were analyzed via CA to explicate how teachers interrupt EWT use. In accordance with this goal, the following research question was formed:

- 1) How do the pre-service teachers interrupt EWT in the classroom context and material modes in English as a foreign language micro teaching contexts?

METHODOLOGY

This study is a qualitative and descriptive study depending on the analysis of a case of pre-service teachers at a state university in Turkey. A case study aims to understand social phenomena within a single or small number of naturally occurring settings (Yıldıırım & Şimsek, 2008). So, this study analyzes the practices of PTs with regard to interrupting EWT. Therefore, the study focuses on the action of breaking the EWT and how it is done by the PTs via CA. CA is a qualitative and inductive approach, and it is mainly the study of naturally occurring talk-in-

interaction (Liddicoat, 2011). Thanks to its deductive and emic approach, CA is used to observe and find out patterns in the use of language. Considering the qualitative focus of this study, CA provides an appropriate analysis tool as it lets the researcher unearth how the action of breaking EWT is implemented.

The Context and the Participants

The study was undertaken at a state university in Turkey with 3rd grade PTs in English Language Teaching Department. Purposive sampling was utilized, and PTs that studied ELT were chosen from. All the PTs were attending the School Experience course at the time of data collection. The School Experience course aims to have PTs do pedagogic observation, and they are expected to do micro teachings as well. This course is a part of the ELT curriculum in Turkey, and all the ELT PTs take this course. In this sense, the PTs in Turkey get a glimpse of the school environment, and this course is a pre-requisite of the Teaching Practice I and II courses in the 4th year in which they are expected to do observation and more teaching. The participants were 4 pre-service teachers. 1 participant was a woman while the other 3 were men. They did micro teaching in English lessons in public secondary schools.

Data Collection and Analysis

The data were collected from public primary and secondary schools, and they consisted of 5 micro teaching sessions. To collect data, a video recorder was used, and the classes were recorded. Ethical approval was obtained from Sakarya University Board of Ethics on 07/10/2020 under number 61923333/050.99/, and anonymity throughout the study was ensured. After the data collection, the data were analyzed in accordance with the conversation-analytical steps suggested by Seedhouse (2004, p. 38-39). Here are the analysis steps:

- Unmotivated look at the data,
- An inductive search throughout the database to establish a collection of instances of the phenomenon,
- Establishing regularities and patterns in relation to the occurrences of the phenomenon to show that these instances are produced and oriented to by the participants as normative organization of the action,
- Finally, a more generalized account of how the phenomenon relates to interaction in the

broader sense is produced.

In accordance with these steps of CA, how PTs interrupted EWTs were observed, and the practices were investigated. To conceptualize interrupted EWT, in accordance with the suggestion of Rowe (1974), the EWT was considered as interrupted when a PT intervened after the initial question before 3 seconds. Hence, firstly, the cases of interrupted EWT in the data were identified to form a collection of instances. In forming the collection, the instances from material and classroom context modes were chosen, and those from managerial and skills and systems mode were excluded as they mainly display different characteristics (Walsh, 2006). This could decrease the validity and reliability of the analysis. The instances were analyzed one by one by paying attention to sequential analysis (Schegloff, 2007), turn-taking practices (Sacks et al., 1974), the repair mechanism and action formation (Liddicoat, 2011) to ensure that they were genuine instances that made an EWT relevant. Then, the extracts were transcribed according to CA transcription conventions of Jefferson (2004, see Appendix A). Having a systematic transcription is significant as it improves reliability and validity, and also it helps readers and other researchers to understand the extracts more easily.

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The analysis of the data demonstrated that twelve cases of interruption were observed, and these happened in five types of practices. These are, from the most common to the least common, rephrasing, (partial) repetition, providing candidate responses, giving verbal and non-verbal cues and changing the activity. It should be noted that these practices are not individual items, and they are often used together.

Extract 1 demonstrates two of the types of practices that PTs use to interrupt EWT: repetition and giving verbal and non-verbal cues. In this extract, in the beginning of a lesson, the teacher asks what the weather is like.

Extract 1 (2_1.54-2.13) What is the weather like?

```
01    PT2    : what is the weather like?
02    : (0.5)
03 →  PT2    : what is the weather like?
04    : (0.4)
05 →  PT2    : weather? ((opens the curtains))
06    : (0.9)
07 →  PT2    : (look) outside ((points outside))
08    SS     : sunny sunny
```

In line 1, PT2 asks what the weather is like. After a very brief pause (0.5 second), he repeats the question in line 3. In line 5, after a partial repetition, he opens the curtains. After a brief pause in line 6 again, he uses a verbal cue via ((look) outside) and uses a non-verbal cue by pointing outside in line 7. In the final line, the students altogether say that it is sunny.

This extract demonstrates how PTs break EWT via repetitions and cueing. PT2 almost does not let any of the students talk, and he does repetition, partial repetition, and verbal and non-verbal cueing one after another. Considering the whole class response in line 8, it may be suggested that students might have been able to provide the response if he had provided EWT in the initial lines. Also, the response of the students is a very limited one (i.e. a single word response). If they had been given some time for thinking (Stahl, 1994), they could have provided a more elaborated response. Therefore, the EWT not only restricts students' chances of taking the turn via self-selection, but also it may limit the response they offer.

The following extract is a typical instance which demonstrates the most common ways by which PTs cut the EWT short: rephrasing and repetition. In this extract, it is a classroom context mode (Walsh, 2011), and the class discusses some idioms and sayings written on the blackboard by the teacher. At this moment, they discuss "Health the best wealth".

Extract 2 (1_00.49-00:55) What do you think about this?

```
01   PT1   : what do you think about this?  
02 →      (1.2)  
03 → PT1   : what do you say about this: (.) phrase (.) sentence
```

In line 1, PT1 asks a question to the whole class. However, after a short pause of 1.2 second, PT1 takes the turn again and repeats the question, and the rephrasing of the latter part follows with (phrase (.) sentence) in line 3. This brief extract was very typical in the data. After the initial question, PTs interrupted the students' thinking time by a rephrase and/or repetition. This was a classroom context mode, and the activity made some thinking time necessary as the question was a referential one. Hence, these practices interrupt students' think-time (Stahl, 1994), and it may discourage the students as they feel that they do not have enough time to prepare a response in this short time. Especially, considering the fact that this was a classroom context mode, they were expected to mention their ideas and do discussion. This practice was also observed in other studies, and it was suggested that especially novice teachers might break the EWT, because they were nervous (Atar, 2020; Honea, 1982). In addition, it was argued that PTs may cut the EWT short with rephrasing and repetitions as they think that the students' level is too low to understand the question (Atar, 2020). Finally, it should be noted here that

rephrasing and repetitions can be teachers' strategy for effective elicitation as a part of CIC (Walsh, 2011); however, the instances in this study were used to interrupt the EWT. If the PTs had provided EWT and used these resources only after that, this could be regarded as a strategy. In the current instances, they only block students' self-selection and limit the range of students' answers.

Extract 3 demonstrates another finding in the data. It is changing the activity abruptly. In this instance, the PT asks a question, but after a limited EWT, s/he changes the topic. In Extract 3, as in the previous extract, the class discusses some idioms and sayings written on the blackboard by the PT. After a few students' responses discussing the meaning of the saying "Health the best wealth", the PT asks "Anyone else?" to receive more answers.

Extract 3 (1_1.20) Anyone else?

```
01   PT1   : anyone else? ((looks around the class))
02 →      (0.6)
03   PT1   : sa:ying any ()
04 →      (0.8)
05 → PT1   : no? okay
06 →      (0.5)
07 → PT1   : now open the book please (0.6) page (.) fifty seven.
```

In line 1, PT1 asks if there are any more responses from the students and looks around the classroom. Then, after a brief pause of 0.6 second, he probably does some rephrasing. He provides another limited EWT in line 4 and changes the topics in line 7 after acknowledging students' non-response in line 5. In this extract, the PT invites the whole class to take the turn and respond; however, he breaks the EWT with a rephrasing and after that, he changes the topic by which an EWT is kept limited. As for the reason of this practice, the PT might have kept the EWT short thinking that there are other activities and tasks to cover. This is in line with the literature that suggested that teachers did not want to employ EWT thinking that they had many materials to cover (Beyerbach, 1988). However, a pause of 0.6 or 0.8 is naturally quite short and in fact, the PT changes the topic after looking at the students shortly. This may lead to negative student perceptions about contributing to the lessons. The PT invites them to talk, but after a very short pause, he changes the topic. Hence, the students may get the impression that the PT can easily change the topic, and they do not have to respond. Of course, it should be noted here that there were a few students' responses before this extract and accordingly, the PT might have thought that the discussion was enough. However, still this may have a negative effect on the students as some of them could be planning to respond.

Considering the analysis above, the 3 extracts have demonstrated most of the PTs common practices that were found to interrupt EWT. As argued in the Introduction section, the only study that mentioned practices of interrupting the EWT in ELT contexts is Yatağanbaba and Yıldırım (2016). They found that teachers interrupted students' turn and provided limited wait-time by using candidate responses and code-switching. Candidate responses were also observed in the current study although it is not very common. As for code-switching, no instances were observed though. Hence, it may be argued that the current study contributed to the literature by unearthing several different practices by which teachers interrupted EWT in ELT contexts. As for the few other studies undertaken in other contexts (e.g. science teaching), they reported repetition and rephrasing as practices to interrupt EWT (Barnette et al., 1995; Bonnster, 1988; Rowe, 1972). Wasik and Hindman (2018) also mentioned rephrasing as one way to limit EWT, but they also suggested that teachers sometimes did not wait for 3-5 seconds and gave the answer themselves, which was also observed by Rowe (1972). Considering these findings, it can be suggested here that the findings of this study are in line with the literature regarding rephrasing, repetition and providing candidate responses, and it was indeed found that rephrasing and repetition were the most common practices. However, the current study also detected and reported cueing and changing the topic as teachers' practices that interrupted EWT.

As for the pedagogic implications of this study, Extract 2 have demonstrated how avoiding EWT blocks students from responding, and how it narrows down the response types. Tobin (1986) and Walsh (2006) suggested that students can take extended turns without being interrupted if they are provided with a sufficient amount of silence via EWT. In an ELT setting, Yatağanbaba and Yıldırım (2016) also had a similar conclusion, and they suggested that teachers missed chances of further student contribution by use of interruptions. Yaqubi and Rokni (2012) and Walsh (2002) also found that teacher's limited wait-time use led to the closing of the space for interaction. Therefore, it can be suggested that teacher's interruption of EWT is a non-desirable discourse move as it decreases the quantity and quality of students' contribution, which means minimizing language learning prospects as well. Self-selections are also missed if the teacher interrupts frequently as seen in Extracts 1 and 2 above. To exemplify, PT2 does not let them take the turn and keeps interrupting them again and again, and accordingly, the whole class responds with a single word response. The students' response is severally limited, and they cannot elaborate on their responses as would be expected in classroom context mode (Walsh, 2011). The students could give an answer, but PT2 keeps

breaking the EWT and interrupting students' thinking time in which they might prepare some responses.

Finally, the observations in Extract 1 and 2 are in line with Honea (1982) in that inexperienced teachers may get nervous fearing that the students will not respond. This is also similar to Gooding et al.'s (1984) study which concluded that it was difficult for novice teachers to wait for 3 or more seconds if they had not been trained on this. Being PTs in the 3rd year, the participants of this study were also inexperienced and in fact, this was the first time they were teaching formally. Being under stress due to being new in teaching, they might have expected the exchanges between the teacher and students to be very smooth, and thus they may have thought that they were doing proactive work via different practices to avoid a potential non-response case. This could be because they interpreted late responses from students as a case of students' failure or non-understanding. As a result, they intervened and interrupted the EWT via various practices most of which were demonstrated in the extracts above.

CONCLUSION

The goal of this study was to analyze PTs' practices by which they interrupted EWT. In comparison to the studies in the literature that focused on the effects of EWT on students' interaction, this study focused on the ways PTs broke the EWT specifically. Through a conversation analytical perspective, five micro teaching sessions by four pre-service English teachers were analyzed. The phenomenon was considered as an action, and relevant details were also taken into consideration rather than solely focusing on the question types the participants used. The analysis showed that the PTs in this study interrupted the EWT via rephrasing, (partial) repetitions, providing candidate answers, cues and changing the topic/activity. The findings of this study are in line with some of the previous studies. However, this study has contributed to the literature by specifically focusing on sketching the ways in which PTs interrupted EWT. This study has demonstrated teachers' practices of breaking the EWT specifically and provided the instances of how they do it as an action. These instances may be incorporated into PT training programs to increase their awareness as especially some of them were observed to occur frequently even in a data of five micro teachings. Consequently, it may be argued here that the practices found in this study can be used to increase PTs' awareness about classroom interaction and the use of EWT. They could be trained on these potentially detrimental ways, and they might be asked to avoid doing these practices as they were argued to decrease interaction and students' contribution in classroom context and material modes.

However, it should also be reminded here that, from a CA perspective, local management is very significant, and these practices may not be detrimental in some other contexts (e.g. depending on different modes of the lesson (Walsh, 2016). See Ingram and Elliott (2016) for some details as well.)

As mentioned in the Methodology part, this is a qualitative and small scale study, and it focused on only pre-service English teachers' micro teachings. In the future, more data can be analyzed, and different contexts can be checked to see whether the findings of this study are generalizable or whether there are some variations. In this way, a broader understanding of the phenomenon may be achieved. Finally, considering the lack of studies on this issue in the literature, future studies focusing on the qualitative aspects of PTs' and teachers' practices of interrupting EWT will be a significant contribution.

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APPENDIX

Appendix I. Jeffersonian (2004) Transcription Conventions

| Transcription Conventions | |
|--|---|
| A full discussion of CA transcription notation is available in Atkinson and Heritage (1984). Punctuation marks are used to capture characteristics of speech delivery, not to mark grammatical units. | |
| [| indicates the point of overlap onset |
|] | indicates the point of overlap termination |
| = | a) turn continues below, at the next identical symbol b) if inserted at the end of one speaker's turn and at the beginning of the next speaker's adjacent turn, it indicates that there is no gap at all between the two turns |
| . | indicates that there is no gap at all between the two turns |
| (3.2) | an interval between utterances (3 seconds and 2 tenths in this case) |
| (.) | a very short untimed pause |
| <u>word</u> | underlining indicates speaker emphasis |
| e:r the::: | indicates lengthening of the preceding sound |
| - | a single dash indicates an abrupt cut-off |
| ? | rising intonation, not necessarily a question |
| ! | an animated or emphatic tone |
| , | a comma indicates low-rising intonation, suggesting continuation |
| . | a full stop (period) indicates falling (final) intonation |
| CAPITALS | especially loud sounds relative to surrounding talk |
| ° ° ° | utterances between degree signs are noticeably quieter than surrounding talk |
| ↑ ↓ | indicate marked shifts into higher or lower pitch in the utterance following the arrow |
| >< | indicate that the talk they surround is produced more quickly than neighbouring talk |
| () | a stretch of unclear or unintelligible speech. |

| | |
|---------|--|
| (guess) | indicates transcriber doubt about a word |
| .hh | speaker in-breath |
| hh | speaker out-breath |
| → | arrows in the left margin pick out features of especial interest |

Additional symbols

| | |
|-----------------------|--|
| (T shows picture) | non-verbal actions or editor's comments |
| <i>ja</i> ((tr: yes)) | non-English words are italicised, and are followed by an English translation in double brackets. |
| [gibee] | in the case of inaccurate pronunciation of an English word, an approximation of the sound is given in square brackets |
| [æ] | phonetic transcriptions of sounds are given in square brackets |
| < > | indicate that the talk they surround is produced slowly and deliberately (typical of teachers modelling forms) |
| X _____ | the gaze of the speaker is marked above an utterance and that of the addressee below it. A line indicates that the party marked is gazing towards the other; absence indicates lack of gaze. Dots mark the transition from nongaze to gaze and the point where the gaze reaches the other is marked by X |
| T: | teacher |
| L: | unidentified learner |
| L1: | identified learner |
| LL: | several or all learners simultaneously |

A SHORT EXPLORATION OF ENGLISH TEACHING PRACTICES IN TERMS OF THE USE OF VISUALS, GAMES, SONGS AND WEB 2.0 TOOLS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN ANKARA

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ABSTRACT

When the literature about English language teaching is reviewed, the researchers come across many different ways and materials of teaching. However, how and to what extent this huge load of theory is represented in actual classrooms needs more concrete data. Therefore, the aim of this study has been to explore some English teachers' classes in secondary schools of Ankara. For this purpose, an interview including items about teachers' ideas and preferences of visuals, games, songs and Web 2.0 tools has been conducted with English teachers in some secondary schools voluntarily. Then, the content analysis of the data has been done about the visuals, games, songs and web 2.0 tools preferred by these teachers to represent current situations in these schools. According to the results of the study, games, songs and visuals such as realia, pictures, posters, flashcards are favourite of most of the teachers in the study. While mostly younger teachers are familiar with different web 2.0 tools, they use just a few of them such as Classdojo, Kahoot and Quizlet in their classes. Although more than half of the teachers have interactive white boards (IWB) in their schools, nearly half of them do not prefer using web 2.0 tools in the classes, which may be because of limited class hours.

Keywords: *English Language Teaching, Visuals, Games, Songs, Web 2.0 tools.*

INTRODUCTION

Teaching English as a foreign language is being supported with different materials and techniques day by day. Instead of traditional ones, teachers are able to find a rich literature in terms of effective and diverse ways of English language teaching such as visuals, games, songs and web 2.0 tools. All these materials have different advantages in the language classes. For example, as Agwu and Ogochi (2019) state, visuals attract learners' attention and help teachers make the meaning of concepts clearer for the students. On the other hand, games have many positive effects in the learning process such as creating a successful and positive classroom environment according to Çağanağa and Gozcü (2016). Songs can provide a great opportunity with music and fun together in order to improve listening skills. Moreover, technology can be integrated into language classes with web 2.0 tools the use of which "helps learners to use the language in an authentic context even if they don't have much chance to participate in natural environment for language acquisition" (Eren, 2015, p. 282).

All of these materials can support teachers to meet their students' needs and interests throughout the language learning process. At this point, teachers' views about what to use and how to integrate diverse ways in their own classes are the key factor. For instance, if the teachers have a positive attitude toward using web 2.0 tools like the participant teachers in Çalışkan, Güney, Sakhieva, Vasbieva and Zaitseva (2018)' study which is on teachers' opinions about the usability of web 2.0 tools in education, they can plan their lessons integrating these tools into their classes.

The aim of the current study is to have a concrete idea about these practices of visuals, games, songs and Web 2.0 tools in secondary schools in Ankara. When the literature is reviewed, there could not be found a comprehensive study with secondary school English teachers about the topic. Therefore, the study is expected to suggest perspectives about current practices of teachers. For this purpose, the following questions will lead the study:

- 1) Which visuals and Web 2.0 tools are used in secondary school EFL classes?
- 2) How do the school facilities affect the use of Web 2.0 tools?
- 3) How often do teachers use visuals, games, songs and Web 2.0 tools in the classes?

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Recent studies focus on attitudes towards the materials which are the key points of the study and their advantages for English language teaching and learning. For instance, Agwu and Ogochi (2019) stress the positive effects of visual aids on secondary school students' achievements in learning English in Nigeria as a result of their study. Aşıksoy (2018) studies with ELT students about their attitudes and awareness towards the use of Web 2.0 tools for language learning, and participants state that the tools mostly improve their listening skills. Nguyen and Phuong (2017) underline the significant effects of board games on adult Vietnamese EFL students' grammar retention in their experimental study. Eren (2015, p. 281) studies vocabulary learning on learner-created content by using web 2.0 tools with students in the School of Foreign Languages and states that "almost all students have positive attitudes towards the educational use of web 2.0 tools." According to Alipour, Gorjian and Zafari (2012), songs are not only for fun but they can also be used for teaching vocabulary. Arıkan and Yolageldili (2011) study with primary school English teachers on effectiveness of using games in teaching grammar to young learners and suggests that although teachers agree on the effective role of games in EFL classes, they do not often prefer using them.

METHODOLOGY

The study is a qualitative one to have an understanding about the issues in the scope of it. It was preferred because it provided the researcher with multiple sources of data as stated by Creswell (2014), however, because of the COVID-19 pandemic, it was limited to structured interviews.

Totally 50 English teachers, 5 of whom have been male, aged between 27 and 52 working at secondary schools in different districts of Ankara such as Akyurt, Altındağ, Çankaya, Çubuk, Etimesgut, Gölbaşı, Haymana, Kahramankazan, Keçiören, Mamak, Pursaklar, Sincan and Yenimahalle have been interviewed individually with a purposive and convenient sampling and their consent in the current study. The structured interview approved by an expert in the field has included 8 background items about gender, teaching experience, graduation, in-service training, school district, technological tools at school, familiarity with Web 2.0 tools and their use; one question about teachers' use of visuals, games, songs and Web 2.0 tools in their classes. For the analysis of the data, descriptive statistics and a content analysis has been conducted by the researcher.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Firstly, the participants have been grouped into three according to their age: 1) 27- 35 (27 teachers one of whom has been male), 2) 36-44 and (17 teachers with 3 males) 45-52 (6 teachers with 1 male). In the first group, 10 teachers have been teaching for 4-7 years, 16 teachers teaching for 8-12 years while only one teacher with 13-17 years of English teaching experience. In the second group, there have been 3 teachers with 8-12 years of experience, 9 teachers for 13-17 years and 5 teachers for 18 years and over. Lastly, the third group has had only 1 teacher with 13-17 years of experience and 5 teachers teaching for 18 years and over. As it is seen, the teaching experience increases with age.

Secondly; in the first group, there are 16 English Language Teaching (ELT), 9 Literature and 2 Linguistics graduates; the second one has 1 Psychology, 1 Chemistry, 1 Educational Administration, 7 ELT, 5 Literature and 2 Linguistics graduates while the last group has 4 teachers graduated from ELT, one from Literature and one from Educational Administration departments.

Thirdly; 10 teachers from the first group stated that they have attended in-service training about the use of visuals, games, songs and Web 2.0 tools in English language teaching such as “Developing oral skills, Continuing Professional Development Programme (CPD), ICT Courses in Europe, New Approaches in Education, Drama, Vocabulary Teaching, Master Mentor Training Programme”; 11 teachers from the second group have taken in-service training such as “Innovative Technologies in Education, ITEC project, Use of Visuals and Games, Comenius In-service Training about Games, Games in ELT, CPD and 3 teachers from the last group mentioned the in-service training they have attended as “E-twinning online course, Innovative Technologies and CPD”.

R. Q. 1: Which Visuals and Web 2.0 Tools are Used in Secondary School EFL Classes?

When the data analysed, it is seen that visuals are mostly popular among English teachers in secondary schools in Ankara. Realia, pictures, flashcards and posters are used by at least 46 teachers while films/movies and cartoons are preferred by 42 teachers in the study. This may be because these materials are motivating, economical, practical and easy to use during the classes. Moreover, they can provide concrete and meaningful contexts for students.

Table 1

Web 2.0 tools mentioned and mostly used in the classes with the number of teachers who stated that they are not familiar with them

| Age | No familiarity with Web 2.0 tools | Web 2.0 tools mentioned | Web 2.0 tools used mostly |
|--------------|--|--|----------------------------------|
| 27-35 | 10/ 27 | Voscreen, Classdojo, Duolingo, Actionbound, Kahoot, Quizizz, Padlet, Mentimeter, Storybird, Wordcloud, Socrative, Edmodo, Picmonkey, Quizlet, Surveymonkey, Camtasia, Renderforest, Plickers | Classdojo, Kahoot, Quizlet |
| 36-44 | 8/ 17 | Toontastic, Google Drive, Youtube, Pinterest, Skype, Kahoot, Quizpedia, Canva, Actionbound, Animoto, Classdojo, Blabberize, Quizlet, Padlet, Kizoa, Pixiz, Viva video, Quizizz, Answergarden | Classdojo, Kahoot |
| 45-52 | 3/ 6 | Toontastic, Canva, Powtoon, Kahoot, Quizlet, Mindmap, Socrative, Pocketcode, Lexilize flashcards, MITappinventor | Toontastic |

R. Q. 2: How do the School Facilities Affect the Use of Web 2.0 Tools?

In the results, it is seen that one school from Keçiören and Yenimahalle district and 2 from Sincan do not have any technological devices while all other schools have at least smartboards or interactive white boards currently. However, as Table 3 suggests, 15 teachers stated that they *never* made use of Web 2.0 tools, and 12 of them expressed that they *rarely* prefer using these tools in their classes. This may be related to their motivation of using these tools in English classes or willingness to provide students with opportunities to create their own products with these tools. Moreover, because of limited class hours, they may not have so much time to do so.

On the other hand, 3 teachers who stated that they did not have any technological support at their school *rarely* used the tools in classes.

It is seen that computer lab makes a difference with the most use probably because students can have individual access to the internet during the class.

Table 2

The school facilities in different districts of Ankara

| | Number of Teachers | No Device | Technological Devices |
|----------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------|---|
| Akyurt | 1 | - | Smartboard |
| Altındağ | 1 | - | Smartboard |
| Çankaya | 10 | - | Smartboard, Overhead projector, Tablets, mobile devices |
| Çubuk | 1 | - | Interactive White Board |
| Etimesgut | 6 | - | Smartboard, ICT class, Only Computer |
| Gölbaşı | 1 | - | Interactive White Board, PCs, photocopy machines |
| Haymana | 1 | - | Computer, Smart Board |
| Kahramankazan | 1 | - | Smart board |
| Keçiören | 3 | 1 | Smartboards, TV |
| Mamak | 1 | - | Smartboard |
| Pursaklar | 3 | - | 3D writer, Laptops, Tablets, Greenbox, Smartboards |
| Sincan | 13 | 2 | Smart boards, ICT class, computers, Projector, Speakers |
| Yenimahalle | 4 | 1 | Smart board |

Table 3

School facilities and the frequency of the use of Web 2.0 tools

| WEB 2.0 TOOLS and SCHOOL FACILITIES | Facilities | Every Week | At least once in each unit | Once a month | Rarely | Never |
|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|------------|----------------------------|--------------|--------|-------|
| | Overhead projector/ Speakers | - | - | - | - | 3 |
| Smartboard (64 %) | 3 | 4 | 2 | 10 | 13 | |
| Computer | - | - | - | 1 | 1 | |
| Computer & Smartboard | - | 2 | - | - | 1 | |
| Smartboard, Lab and more | 4 | 1 | - | 1 | - | |
| No technological device | - | 1 | - | 3 | - | |

R. Q. 3: How often do Teachers Use Visuals, Games, Songs and Web 2.0 Tools in the Classes?

As a result of the questions about the frequency of visuals, games, songs and Web 2.0 tools, 28 teachers use posters *at least once in each unit*; 22 teachers use pictures *every week* and 20 teachers prefer them *at least once in each unit*; 23 teachers use flashcards *at least once in each unit*; 16 teachers use realia *at least once in each unit* while 20 teachers prefer them *rarely*; 13 teachers use films/movies *once a month* and 20 teachers prefer them *rarely*; 11 teachers use cartoons *once a month* while 24 teachers prefer them *rarely*; 21 teachers use songs *at least once in each unit* and 12 teachers use them *once a month*. It seems that games are popular among the teachers because 20 of them prefer using games *every week* and 25 teachers use them *at least once in each unit*. This may be because games create an enjoyable and stress-free learning environment for both teachers and learners. However, the case is not similar with Web 2.0 tools as 18 teachers *never* use them and 15 teachers *rarely* prefer them in their classes.

Table 4

The frequency of the use of visuals, games, songs and Web 2.0 tools

| Materials | Every Week | At least once in each unit | Once a month | Rarely | Never |
|----------------------|-------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------|---------------|--------------|
| Posters | 2 | 28 | 8 | 9 | 3 |
| Pictures | 22 | 20 | 3 | 4 | 1 |
| Realia | 5 | 16 | 5 | 20 | 4 |
| Flashcards | 10 | 23 | 2 | 13 | 2 |
| Films/Movies | 5 | 4 | 13 | 20 | 8 |
| Cartoons | 3 | 4 | 11 | 24 | 8 |
| Games | 20 | 25 | 3 | 2 | - |
| Songs | 5 | 21 | 12 | 9 | 3 |
| Web 2.0 tools | 7 | 8 | 2 | 15 | 18 |

CONCLUSION

As a summary of the findings, more than half of the teachers most of whom are younger ones are aware of many Web 2.0 tools and use few of them in their classes although most of them have at least smart boards at their schools contrary to the results of Kayar (2019) who states that English teachers working at high schools in the study use many different tools.

All participant teachers use games in their classes with only two “rarely” answers to the question about their frequency, so it is seen that they have positive attitudes towards games as Moroccan EFL teachers do towards the use of games in teaching grammar in the Hajji and Kim’s (2019) study. This finding is not in line with Arıkan and Yolageldili’s (2011, p. 226) study which states that teachers do not make use of games so frequently as they expected.

Visuals such as posters, pictures, realia, flashcards; games and songs are preferred so often by most of the teachers while films/movies, cartoons and web 2.0 tools are used less frequently by the teachers.

The COVID-19 has been a limitation for the study because it could not be supported with more detailed data collected from different tools.

Further researches can be conducted with the support of observed data, and the topic can be studied with teachers of different age groups.

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THE USE OF INSTAGRAM IN THE LEARNING OF EFL AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS AT ANKARA HACI BAYRAM VELİ UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

EFL/ESL teachers have to utilize developments in technologies in order not to lag behind their students' development in using these technologies and make use of mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) in their courses. It is highly suggested that they need to integrate the mobile phone and online applications such as WhatsApp and Instagram in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL). Instagram launched in the second millennium is considered as one of the most popular online social networking among young people. This application for mobile phones allows users make instant comments next to sharing photos and 20-second videos. Seeing its popularity, I decided to investigate the use of Instagram among university students while learning English. So, the aim of this study is to investigate whether university students consider Instagram as a useful learning tool that could develop their EFL language skills. The data for this research consists of 50 (N=50) students at Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli University, Turkey. In this study both qualitative (interview) research questions and quantitative (open response questionnaire) questions were used to collect the data. The questionnaire consisting of six items served as a survey instrument. Face-to-face interviews explored the experiences and views of the students. Data analysis showed that Instagram could be utilized as a mobile application to improve the learning of English since the learning process becomes more enjoyable and inspiring. The research suggests that using up to date mobile applications for educational purposes with advanced level students will enhance EFL.

Keywords: *EFL, mobile assisted language learning, Instagram.*

INTRODUCTION

Latest developments in mobile and wireless technologies opened up new opportunities to mobile device owners in learning and acquiring new languages and cultures. Mobile technologies enable learners to access relevant information without time and location restrictions and to communicate easily with others. As known, smartphones are more common among young people and students in higher education than any other group of mobile users. Therefore, more and more, students utilize smartphones for academic purposes (Dahlstrom et al., 2014; Dukic, et al., 2015).

Web 2.0 (social software) technologies and innovative electronic devices have become an important part of our daily lives, particularly those of English learners, who are now frequently exposed to the language because of social software innovations and effectively use them in learning. These modern inventions have engendered new social interaction-oriented language learning avenues, such as e-learning environments, social media platforms and online forums (Mompean & Fouz-González, 2016; Dukic, et al., 2015). This development also resulted in the establishment of a distinct dimension of TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) education called mobile-assisted language learning (MALL).

Mobile devices can promote both unconscious and intentional learning, for instance for social interaction by using the target language (e.g. English). Its functionality enables a shift from passive second language (L2) learning to active L2 use, which also involves language practice for many purposes other than conscious learning, as indicated by Jarvis (2014, pp 21-35) in his discussion of mobile-assisted language use (MALU). Exposure to a target language outside the classroom and the consequent emphasis on meaning advances acquisition. In the 21st century, the informality of learning that is attached to the extensive use of technology in everyday life is an essential component of learning among Y-generation and Z-generation students (Rogers, 2004; Bahrani & Sim, 2012).

Turkish society is similar to any other contemporary community in that it is characterised by a massive increase in the use of technology and the Internet. Especially young Turkish people actively engage with different social media platforms, as indicated in Statista website, which reported that, Turkey has 44,120,000 Instagram users as of October 2020, with 23.3 percent of those users being between 18 and 24 years of age (Statista, 2020).

This finding indicates that Turkish EFL learners are now increasingly connected with millions of native English speakers and other EFL/ESL learners. Turkish learners find the

approaches offered by social media interesting given that these platforms enable them to practise language use among other uses. Social media affords learners of English as well as students at the English Language and Literature (ELL) department at AHBV University, a growing number of opportunities to interact in L2 with native speakers, their peers and other language learners who share the same interests or belong to different backgrounds. The ease of access, availability and usability of social media platforms and their potential to offer authentic environments where learners connect and interact with one another using English add tremendous advantage to the contributions of social media sites to language learning. Kukulska-Hulme (2009) argues that social media platforms can function as avenues for English use and practice. This social media-based interaction in L2 is a key to facilitating L2 acquisition because it fosters natural acquisition. This evaluation is consistent with the acquisition perspective of Krashen (1982), who asserted that a conversational environment presents learners with many comprehensible inputs that can help them acquire the language subconsciously. Similarly, Jarvis (2008) suggested that exposure to authentic materials leads to language acquisition.

The present study probed into the abovementioned issues, with focus on the Turkish context (AHBV University) and particular emphasis on Instagram, which is ‘another popular microblogging site’ next to Twitter (Levy & Stockwell, 2006, p. 67). Instagram has seen unwavering global popularity since its launch in October, 2010 by Kevin Systrom and Mike Krieger. It is a community that keeps users connected to friends, celebrities, magazines as well as followers and updates users with news, videos, photographs and information. Although not originally designed as an educational tool, the site just like Twitter can serve as one because of its multifunctional nature; that is, ‘it is also of as a form of expression, interaction, and community building’ (Chartrand, 2012, p. 97).

The study aims to provide an insight into the smartphone application Instagram use for English learning by Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli University students at the ELL department. A research into students’ Instagram use is included, aspiring to provide some background information on smartphone use. It examined the effectiveness of Instagram as a language development medium. Specifically, it determined how Instagram based English practice among Turkish students at AHBV University, ELL Department helps promote L2 acquisition and illuminated the aims, goals and reasons behind such usage. There is a need to understand how social media platforms, such as Instagram, can be used to support English language acquisition and how such usage reflects on a user’s language learning progress. Another necessary requirement is to comprehend the underlying rationale for using Instagram as a tool for

practising English. Satisfying these requirements is important because it will fill the gap in research on the use of one of social media platforms by EFL learners and unravel the ways by which such platform advances subconscious SLA.

The questions pursued in this study are the following:

- How does interaction over Instagram help male and female student learners to practise English at HBV University- ELL department?
- To what extent is English practise via Instagram reflected in the learning process?
- What are the reasons and factors that drive the use of Instagram as an avenue for English practice amongst learners?

Background

The implementation of technology cannot be separated from pedagogical or educational theories. MALL is oriented towards the adoption of technology, and therefore can enhance EFL/L2 acquisition. In explaining certain L2 concepts, two essential second language acquisition (SLA) theories serve as effective frameworks: Krashen's acquisition/learning hypothesis and Vygotsky's sociocultural theory.

The access of ESL/EFL learners to mobile devices outside formal classroom settings removes formality from the learning experience—a feature that may change the way that people learn as electronic language acquisition exposes them to real language (Jarvis, 2008; Walker & White, 2013). Despite these advantages, however, computer-assisted language learning (CALL) and MALL are criticised for their traditional inclination towards assisted learning that centres on conscious language learning and practice (Bozdoğan, 2015). Other researchers contended, however, that the extensive use of mobile devices transforms learners into active participants and creators of knowledge; it affords them increased control over their learning in online environments that are characterised by an authentic context and audience (Guth & Petrucco, 2009). The kind of spontaneous, seamless and natural learning that technology-assisted platforms offer corresponds with the reality that language acquisition is a lifelong process (Guth & Petrucco, 2009). Jarvis and Achilleos (2013) found that learners use English in interactions facilitated by computers and mobile devices not only for academic purposes but also for social aims, whose pursuit advances natural, unconscious acquisition.

Krashen's Hypothesis

Steven Krashen (1982) developed an acquisition/ learning hypothesis, which distinguishes between implicit L2 knowledge (i.e. 'acquisition') and explicit L2 knowledge (i.e. 'learning'). This distinction, as reflected in electronic environments, is expressed by Jarvis (2008) as encompassed in the terms 'e-second language learning' and 'e-second language acquisition'. The most important element of the acquisition/learning hypothesis is comprehension; an acquirer derives comprehensible input when involved in conversations in informal settings, such as Instagram (Bahrani & Sim, 2012). Learners may thus advance their current L2 proficiency and naturally acquire a new aspect of the language when they interact socially in an online electronic environment (Jarvis, 2015).

Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory

Vygotsky's sociocultural theory explains that learning is a social process that occurs when people interact in a society (1978). The theory is defined by Saville-Troike (2012) as being based on sociolinguistics and psychology, which underlie the role of input and interaction in language learning. This means that interaction drives acquisition and that learning is a social process mediated through language. Being a part of and being present in socially meaningful interactions is essential to learners' progress because such participation supports SLA (De Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2005).

Sociocultural theory underscores the provision of 'an environment in which learners may receive assistance from teachers and peers, as well as participate in negotiated interaction' (Loewen, 2015,p. 9).

Similar to the affordances of socio-cognitive MALL a Web-based environment enables learners to socially engage with other learners from different countries through the use of a target language as a medium of interaction over electronic devices (Jarvis & Achilleos, 2013; Kern & Warschauer, 2000; Walker & White, 2013). Social interactions that are mediated through a Web-based environment can be described as constituting a zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Guth & Petrucco, 2009), which is a key concept in Vygotsky's theory (Saville-Troike, 2012). The use of Instagram enables learners to collectively absorb ideas related to language when they communicate socially in an electronic environment.

Social Media as Learning Tools

Web 2.0 is a term used to refer to users' contribution sites (Walker & White, 2013). Its use in education has changed the conception of language learning from a process characterized by formal settings to one that is more natural (Guth & Petrucco, 2009). Web 2.0 technologies are beneficial in terms of providing an authentic environment where learners can express themselves in real language given that the main purpose of a learning setting supported by such innovations is to encourage social interaction practice amongst peers for the purpose of naturally and spontaneously generating a target language (Elfatah & Ahmed, 2015). Guth and Petrucco (2009, p. 425) declared that embracing Web 2.0 technologies and social interaction sites as learning instruments promotes 'social networking on a global scale and knowledge sharing and creation beyond the classroom'. Increased confidence and feelings of comfort is another important benefit of practicing English through Web 2.0 tools.

Many researches show that teachers focus on the use of technology and social interaction with regard to EFL learners. Scholars state that social media platforms are windows to the outside world, presenting numerous opportunities to access, use and produce authentic language in real-world contexts given that English is an international language used by people from different parts of the world to connect with one another (Guth & Petrucco, 2009; Jarvis & Achilleos, 2013; Walker & White, 2013). Clement (2020), in the Statista web page, states that in 2019 worldwide more than 4.13 billion people connected to the internet and in 2020, 25.9% of the internet users worldwide exploited the English language.

Instagram as a method to practice English is supported by a number of studies. For instance, "people use microblogging sites to interact and communicate with others, including native speakers, outside of learning contexts (authentic audience)—a tendency that positively affects their learning process" (Borau, et al. 2008, pp 78-87). Some other studies underlined the potential of Instagram to be a convenient environment that positively affects language learning and education (Harmandaoğlu, 2012; Gao et al., 2012; Bista, 2015).

METHODS

This study used a mixed-method approach, which integrates quantitative and qualitative approaches to data collection and analysis. A mixed methods approach enables the explanation of the role of technology in promoting L2 on the basis of multiple methods, different worldviews and varying assumptions. The quantitative and qualitative data revealed the effects

of Instagram on the English language learning of the students at AHBV University ELL department their aims and goals for using the site as a medium of interaction for English practice. The questionnaire responses were analyzed using the number of Likert-scale ratings to reflect the majority of the responses to each question, and the interview responses were examined through thematic coding.

Participants

The sample comprised 41 female and 9 male Turkish students studying at the ELL department at AHBVU aged 18 and 18+ speaking Turkish as their first language. They are at different levels of university education and enrolled in different classes. The department offers English-medium lectures at each level, with enrolment in relevant subjects in reading, writing, speaking and listening as a requirement for students to be allowed to proceed with their education in the university.

The target participants were selected from the WhatsApp class groups and decision was based on the students' willingness to spend some of their time participating in the quantitative and qualitative phases of the research. Among the 113 students 50 agreed to take part in the quantitative and qualitative phase, as determined from the questionnaire responses.

Research Design

The quantitative phase of the research involved the administration of an online questionnaire survey, which was piloted with 3 students in advance. The questionnaire survey was the primary instrument used to collect data. (See Appendix 1 for the survey.). The participants were asked to check 26 closed type questions. These were developed on the basis of the research questions. Attitudinal questions were incorporated into the instrument because a crucial requirement was to understand Instagram's functionalities and limitations as a social software application, the ways thorough which the students use the microblogging site and what language they use to interact with one another. To ensure data quality, subjective data such as attitudes, feelings, beliefs, opinions and values with respect to the use of Instagram as a medium of interaction in English were elicited and extracted using a Likert Scale questionnaire- (5 option questionnaire ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree), and 1 'yes/no' question. The latter one statement was intended to delve into usage frequency. More, certain statements were paraphrased in more than one way to allow a degree of triangulation.

The qualitative phase entailed semi-structured interviews (piloted and tested with one student via Google-Meet meeting) consisting of eight questions. The participants agreed orally to be part of the interviews and were individually spoken to via WhatsApp. The conversations were recorded and transcribed to keep a hard copy and a soft copy of the sessions. Google Meet sessions were necessary because of the difficulty of conducting face-to-face interviews during the worldwide Covid-19 Pandemic in the fall semester of their study in 2020/2021 academic year. Zoltan Dörnyei (2007) indicates that alternatives to face-to-face interviews such as a telephone interview can be implemented, should a researcher encounter challenges in arranging personal interviews for any reason also supports this method. So the interviews were conducted at the convenience of the participants at their home environment. The structure and wording of the questions and the sequence at which they were presented to the participants were carefully considered to ensure that sufficient answers were derived and bias and leading questions were eliminated. Each individual interview, for which the same question guide was used, lasted more than 10 minutes.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section discusses two complementary headings: Social Interaction and Authentic Environment and Unconscious Acquisition. These titles emerged from the multiple data sources that were identified on the basis of the research questions.

Social Interaction and Authentic Environment

In section 2 of the questionnaire nearly all of the participants were aware of the significance of English as an EFL when using technology, such as mobile phones. It is concluded that the site Instagram provides the Turkish learners the opportunity to behave and think like active users of the English language. This is one of the most important advantages of the collaborative character of the microblogging site. A significant correlation was found between English use outside the classroom and engagement with the outer world Instagram among the respondents in the results of section 2. Out of the 50 participants, 35 strongly agreed and 10 agreed to be active users of Instagram on their mobiles regarding the use of Instagram for educational purposes. (See appendix section 2)

In section 3, out of the 50 participants, 41 strongly agreed and 9 agreed with statement 1 regarding the opportunity to find new ways to practice English that they are exposed to on the

site. Additionally, 4 strongly agreed and 36 agreed with statement 5 (Section 2) that Instagram provides comfort for practicing English because it is an informal social interaction site. The rest were unsure about it. These results confirmed that social interaction over Instagram provides learners with an ideal environment where they can actively practice English instead of being limited to passive reception. As explained by one student, “I am connected with the external world more easily on Instagram when I use English. It makes me feel closer to real language and to the people who actually use it”. As can be deduced, Instagram paves the way for EFL learners to engage in meaningful interaction in an authentic setting. The students yearn for authenticity as a motivation for exploring genuine language and frequently practicing real-world interactions. They endeavour to look for interest related sources of authentic English materials so that they can use language in a natural manner and understand how such language is used without the simplification typically implemented in consideration of their competence levels. This statement is also reflected in the opinion shared by another student stating, “Instagram showed me how actual daily English is used in real life, which is different from the language we use inside the classroom”.

Further, 5 students strongly agreed and 43 agreed with statement 2 (Section 3) that they feel good about English practice on the site. It is deduced that learners need to feel comfortable to believe in themselves and their abilities and elevate their performance in the foreign language. Of the responses to statement 4 (Section 3), five students strongly agreed and 41 agreed that they are connected to the international setting through English language use on Instagram. To statement 6 4 strongly agreed and 34 agreed (Section 3) on grabbing opportunities to engage in a conversation with people who speak different languages. One expressed her view as being well-blended into the community that uses English to an extent that was previously beyond what was known to her, “I communicate with a lot of people from different countries and different backgrounds, not only with people I already know”. Hence, Instagram enables the learners to expand their circle of contacts to include native speakers of English and other individuals. Additionally, it diminishes the formality and pressure normally encountered in classroom contexts, thereby allowing the participants to improve their confidence.

Statement 18 (Section 3) revolves around whether practicing English on Instagram strengthens the confidence of EFL learners, with which eight participants strongly agreed and 32 agreed. As explained by one participant, “I am more engaged, and I feel this reflected in my confidence in myself and my abilities as I open up to others’ opinions. Without any hesitation or fear, I can speak my mind using English, and I am no longer shy”. That is, the female Turkish

ELL student views Instagram as a favourable method in which to develop her personality and confidence in the use of the target language.

Next, the data showed that 7 participants disagreed and 29 participants strongly disagreed with the statement ‘practicing English on Instagram does not offer any benefits’. The value of English communication on the site is supported by sociocultural theory, which maintains that language learning results and develops under social interaction. Participants take advantage of this social interactional nature of Instagram to spontaneously use the target language. They are producing real and natural language, communicating, sharing ideas and commenting in an authentic setting, making them active participants who have control over their language use. One student offered the following explanation, “Although I am using English language in a public environment, there is no pressure or marks, no right or wrong DM messages. No one is following my mistakes or judges me. I am just being my natural self with people on Instagram”.

Unconscious Acquisition

Some of the questions were designed to check unconscious acquisition of the foreign language. Among the participants, 16 strongly agreed, 18 agreed with statement 3 (Section 3) and 13 expressed uncertainty about the issue of unconscious acquisition through the use of Instagram for English practice. Then, the participants indicated that they acquire new vocabulary related to the target language as they engage in digital conversations, with ten of them mostly agreeing and 12 agreeing with statement 11 (Section 3). In addition, 10 of the participants mostly agreed and 12 agreed with statement 8 (Section 3) that practicing English on the site helps them learn new aspects of the target language. One student's opinion is as follows, “The interaction that I have with people on Instagram helps me find out about culture, real use of statements in a conversation”. This statement is supporting the suggestion in the literature that acquiring a target language unconsciously results in the creation of implicit L2 knowledge: a process that is similar to the unconscious acquisition of a first language by a child. The data from the multiple sources highlighted the direct association between the facilitation of social interaction in social media platforms and the unconscious acquisition of language. This finding is significant, for it corresponds with Krashen’s (1982) claim that L2 learners can pick up a target language once they are involved in a meaningful conversation. Instagram promotes e-second language acquisition via digital interaction, thus exposing learners to language use in an authentic setting with an authentic audience. The same applies to Instagram.

Some of the participants explained that when they came across unfamiliar words or phrases, they tried to understand what these meant by looking at context.

As a result, the qualitative data indicated that the participants appreciate the use of Instagram as a medium for English practice because such action manifests authentic learning that is not purposeful, structured and without consciousness.

CONCLUSION

This research aimed to examine whether the use of Instagram as a tool for English practice is reflected in the language development of young adult male and female EFL/ESL learners in Turkey. The participants were native Turkish speakers, whose feelings, attitudes and opinions regarding Instagram as a learning tool were identified in this work. English practice is critical for ESL/EFL learners to develop and improve their language proficiency in their country. The findings showed that although the learners' use of L2 in communicating over Instagram was not intended for educational purposes but mainly for social purposes in an uncontrollable environment, they additionally picked up the language, as well.

The participants demonstrated that they manage participation on the site in a way that allows them appropriately use both L1 and L2. The findings revealed that the participants generally appreciate access to an authentic environment and content as an important part of language development and practice. As indicated in the data, the learners believed that their use of Instagram exposes them to genuine contexts and audiences and that exposure to social engagement facilitates their language development. The nature of Instagram is that it allows learners to interact with other people in a collaborative setting. Most of the ESL/EFL learners value the site because of the freedom and flexibility that they can exercise in using L2 in a real-world context. This indicates that learning mostly occurs in an informal setting that extends beyond the confines of a classroom; in this environment, a learner's goal in using English is to adopt it, "as and when required because it was the means to an end" (Jarvis, 2014, p. 28).

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APPENDIX

Questionnaire Data

All the data were collected from 50 returned questionnaires. The frequencies of responses (i.e., number of participants choosing a given option) are presented in bold type.

Section 1. Demographic Questions

1. What is your gender?

Male: 9

Female: 41

2. What is your age?

17 - 20 years old: 40

21 - 25 years old: 3

D. 25+ : 7

3. What is your undergraduate class?

freshman (1st year) X

sophomore, (2nd year) 43
 junior, (3rd year) 4
 senior (4th year) 3

Section 2. General aspects of Instagram usage:

2.1. Do you use Instagram? (Please check)

Yes (47)
 No (3)

2.2. How often do you use Instagram? (Please check one answer.)

Everyday (43)
 Most days (3)
 2–3 times a week (1)
 Never (3)

2.3 Please indicate your opinion to the statements below whether you:

Strongly agree (A); agree (B); are unsure (C); disagree (D); strongly disagree (E)

I am an active user of Instagram. A (41) B (5) C (1) D (3) E ()

It is easy to follow people with common interests on Instagram. A (36) B (9) C (2) D (2) E ()

I find it easy to write a DM at Instagram. A (42) B (4) C (3) D (1) E ()

I find it easy to share ideas, post videos, etc., on Instagram. A (36) B (8) C (2) D (2) E (2)

I use Instagram also for educational purposes. A (38) B (8) C (1) D (2) E (1)

I use Instagram for social purposes. A (37) B (10) C () D (1) E (2)

I use only Turkish when I interact on Instagram. A () B (2) C (6) D (20) E (12)

I use only English when I interact on Instagram. A (2) B(2) C(22) D (18) E (6)

Section 3: English practice and interaction on Instagram.

Please indicate with the statements below whether you:

strongly agree (A), agree (B), are unsure (C), disagree (D) or strongly disagree (E)

Using social media, such as

Instagram offers new ways for me to practise English. A () B () C () D () E ()

I feel good when I practise English on Instagram. A () B () C () D () E ()

I dislike the idea of practising English on Instagram because it does not offer me any benefits. A () B () C () D () E ()

I like Instagram because I can communicate in English with different people from all over the world. A () B () C () D () E ()

I am more comfortable in communicating in English on Instagram. A () B () C () D () E ()

I am exposed to real language when

I interact in English on Instagram. A () B () C () D () E ()

I feel no pressure when I make language mistakes on Instagram A () B () C () D () E ()

I feel that Instagram is an encouraging place to practise English because no one judges my mistakes. A () B () C () D () E ()

I feel that Instagram is a natural place to practise English because there is meaningful interaction among people. A () B () C () D () E ()

My interactions with people I follow on Instagram improves my English knowledge. A () B () C () D () E ()

I learn new vocabulary when I interact in English with other people. A () B () C () D () E ()

I believe my English has improved since I started interacting with people on Instagram. A () B () C () D () E ()

It is easy for me to ask if I need help on my English when I use Instagram. A () B () C () D () E ()

If I read difficult messages in English, I search for their meanings. A () B () C () D () E ()

When I interact with a person on Instagram, I ask him/her to explain unclear ideas. A () B () C () D () E ()

I believe using Instagram helps me learn language items/new idioms in English. A () B () C () D () E ()

I believe using Instagram helps me A () B () C () D () E ()
learn new cultural items in English.

Continuous practise of English on Instagram A () B () C () D () E ()
strengthens my confidence in using the language.

Semi-Structured Interview Questions:

1. Does Instagram use facilitate your language learning? Why? Why not? Please explain your answer.
2. What is/are post(s)/video(s) that direct you to practise and use English on Instagram? Please name some.
3. What do you like or dislike about practising English on Instagram?
4. Do you think using Instagram to practise English helps you in some way? Why? Why not? Please explain your answer within a sentence.
5. Once you interact in English with another person or other people on Instagram and an idea is unclear, do you seek clarification and ask for its meaning? Why? Why not? Please explain your answer.
6. Do you believe that Instagram provides an environment where you can freely practise English? Why? Why not? Please explain your answer.
7. Do you think interacting in English on Instagram connects you with others? Why? Why not? Please explain your answer.
8. Does Instagram use facilitate your cultural awareness? Why? Why not? Please explain your answer.

UNRAVELLING THE MAGIC OF NEURO LINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING: THE POWER OF METAPHOR

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ABSTRACT

This article will introduce the reader to metaphor, one of the key concepts in Neuro Linguistic Programming (NLP). By way of introduction, I will make a case for using metaphor not only in our personal but also professional lives in order to bring about the changes that we wish to create. Then, I will briefly explain what NLP is within the context of my own involvement with it. The article will then continue with the concept of metaphor and offer a definition as it is used in NLP followed by a discussion on the kinds of metaphor. Building on this discussion, I will then suggest different ways of using metaphor by means of six activities with the aim of demonstrating how metaphor may be used not only for a professional but also a personal agenda.

Keywords: *NLP, metaphor, indirect communication.*

INTRODUCTION: WHY METAPHOR?

I find the topic of metaphor fascinating for many reasons. Among others, it is a conversational tool so abundant that you can come across a metaphor anywhere anytime. We use metaphors in daily life and hear metaphors commonly used by other people. A second reason is that it is a quick way to send a message. That is to say, it can communicate a great deal of meaning with just a word or phrase, thus giving brevity to the conversation. A third reason is that metaphor can create graphic and memorable images in the mind (Berman & Brown, 2000). Metaphor can also create a mind shift since they imply rather than directly state relationships and can get people to think about what they are hearing in any communication context whether in class or outside of class in a new frame of mind (Berman & Brown, 2000; Knight, 2000; Revell & Norman, 1999).



In fact, metaphor is “the essence of thought” (Knight, 2002, p.124) and can provide us with a thought structure that can help us to go about doing things differently. We can change the way we use our neurology—the way we organize the process of how we think about something as proven by recent neuroscientific evidence which informs us that we can rewire the brain to think in new and different ways (Damasio, 2000). This process of rewiring, in turn, can enable us to see new patterns or relationships between existing ideas and express them in new ways (For more theoretical information on conceptual metaphor theory, see Lakoff & Johnson, 2003). Working with new metaphors makes it possible for us to change the way we think about something (Revell & Norman, 1999). Thus, a new metaphor is a powerful tool for change since it can help to create a new reality instead of conceptualizing the same old reality through conventional metaphors (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003) For this reason, new metaphors have a crucial role in the creation of new meanings.

My Involvement and Understanding of NLP

My own understanding of NLP was shaped and given impetus by means of the courses that I took, namely a practitioner course, a master practitioner course and a trainer course. All of these courses helped to create an incremental understanding of NLP which in the end helped to create a solid foundation for my performance of NLP both as a trainer, teacher and an individual.

Practitioner Course Experience

*“When you want something, all the universe conspires
in helping you to achieve it”*

Paolo Coelho, the Alchemist

I was doing a training course for the teachers of the Ministry of National Education in Mersin in the year 2000. It was hot like a furnace; however, I was enjoying myself, along with other trainers because we were helping people to learn. In the back of my mind, I was also thinking about an NLP course that a colleague of mine had mentioned and that would start immediately after the training course had finished. As my finances were somewhat meager then, I was reticent about going on that course. However, in the end, everything seemed to work out for my benefit. My late mother, on learning that I was very enthusiastic about the course, offered to pay the air fare. My colleague offered to share accommodation and my husband sorted out the travel documents. In a week, I was on a plane to England to start an NLP practitioner course and I was thrilled. My intentions must have been genuine as noted by Coelho in the quote above. The course tutor was Jane Revell, one of the two writers of the only two books written for NLP in ELT (Revell & Norman, 1999; Revell & Norman, 1997). I am most grateful for this experience and to Jane Revell herself for providing a very smooth, enjoyable and motivating start for my NLP journey.

What did I learn about NLP on this course ? I learned that NLP started as an initiative of the co-creators of NLP, John Grinder, a linguist and Richard Bandler, a psychology student. They studied three successful therapists: Milton Erickson, considered to be the father of modern hypnotherapy; Fritz Perls, the father of Gestalt therapy, and Virginia Satir, the creator of family therapy (Grinder & Bandler, 1975a and 1975b). The two young enthusiastic researchers, Grinder and Bandler, in the 1970s, set out to find out what it is that made certain people more successful than others. To this end, they investigated “the difference that makes the difference” between people who are excellent and others (Revell & Norman, 1997, p. 14). They were also

curious about “whether these skills, once understood, could be transferred to other people, who could then be trained to use them (Gül Peker, 2014, p. 326). This meant understanding the particular patterns of thinking, behavior and language which included modeling not only observable behavior, but also the behavior of the mind. It became clear to me that NLP began its life as a way of modeling excellence (Grinder & Bandler, 1975a; Grinder & Bandler, 1975b). At the end of the practitioner course, I was cognizant of and conversant in the basic strategies and techniques of NLP which could be used for personal excellence.

Master Practitioner Course Experience

This course provided more awareness of the strategies that I had learned in the practitioner course and more opportunities for going deeper into the concept of modelling excellence. I became aware that NLP was actually a methodology and an attitude the aim of which is to enhance the quality of people’s lives by helping them to achieve their outcomes or goals and to interact more effectively with self and others. In the course, we had a chance to experiment with a wide variety of techniques, patterns, strategies that NLP offers with the aim of achieving effective communication, personal growth and learning based on the presuppositions about how the mind works and how people act and interact.

Further, I discovered that becoming equipped with the ability to use such a variety of techniques and strategies can help us to learn new ways of “training ourselves to think, speak and act in new and positive ways, in order to release our potential” (Revell & Norman, 1997, p. 14) and achieve our dreams. What this means is that all of us have the ability and resources to transform both our personal and professional lives; that is to say, how to reprogram ourselves and work towards any goal by focusing on the positive qualities that we possess. These qualities are perhaps those that we have not noticed as we may not have had a chance to let them surface. The famous Brazilian novelist, Paulo Coelho, was fired from his job just when he thought he was going to be promoted. Although he was heartbroken, he was thus given a chance to utilize his resources hitherto unused and become a very successful writer whose work has been translated into many languages.

Trainer Course Experience and Beyond

I was fortunate enough to take the trainer course from Sue Knight (2002) who writes extensively about the use of NLP in business contexts. The focus of this course was on giving feedback. The most striking feature of the course was the absence of negative feedback. The course tutor concentrated only on reiterating the positive points of the language that the

participants used in their communication with their peers or during a presentation. You maybe wondering about whether this kind of feedback would work in our teaching contexts given that in the Turkish culture students look up to teachers to correct them most of the time. That is certainly food for thought. If you are interested in giving constructive feedback in a kind manner, I would recommend using the language patterns as advised in “Non-violent Communication” (Rosenberg, 2000) which can be considered as a a feeder field for NLP.

My further experience comprises teaching NLP at both undergraduate and graduate levels. I tried to integrate the practitioner course content into one of our undergraduate methodology courses for third year learners which seemed to work for some time. However, as the teachers were not certified in NLP, after a certain period of time, the lessons turned more towards lectures. Gradually, we took the NLP component out of that methodology course.

At the same time, I started teaching an NLP course at MA level which was a very exciting experience for me and continues to be exciting. Learners who take this course have frequently expressed that they are surprised at its nature. It seems that they find it rather different than other courses which provide knowledge on teaching whilst they think that this course seems more like therapy sessions focusing on both personal and professional gains.



This visual, a dog in a refrigerator, is one that I use as the cover page to my class notes. This may sound strange at first. Let me expand on that. We both know about dogs and fridges; however, we would never imagine a dog in a fridge, would we? My intention in using this visual at the start of the course is to signal that NLP is about things that everyone is familiar with or seems to know about through hindsight. And yet, NLP informs of us how can we learn to use these familiar or ordinary concepts in different ways and combinations. In other words, NLP helps us to become aware of different ways of looking and working with everyday thoughts and feelings that we are familiar with, hence the dog in the refrigerator.

What is Metaphor?

“Life is like a box of chocolates. You never know what you’re gonna get”.

I am sure that you remember Forrest Gump’s famous line from the film. In fact, metaphor is the soul of language laden with both negative or positive messages or sometimes both as in Forrest Gump’s line. As teachers, we do not need to work with positive metaphors that our learners use; however, their negative metaphors will need to be re-framed properly with our help. Milton Erickson used this technique (reframing of metaphor) to pace a person’s experience, distract their conscious mind, and allow them to find resources or solutions on their own (Sidney, 1991). We can use metaphor to help our learners change their negative perspectives by guiding them towards positive and empowering metaphors.

When we say metaphor, in very simple terms, we mean a word or phrase that links one idea with another. It is actually “an indirect communication by a word, expression or story which implies similarities between things or events” (Revell & Norman, 1997, p. 101). It is this indirect communication that distracts the person’s conscious mind and allows them to begin to see things differently. Although a metaphor, a simile and an analogy may be different in a literary sense in NLP, they are used in similar ways with the purpose of transferring meanings



and understandings from one situation to another. The conscious mind can be likened to the tip of an iceberg whilst all that is important, our memories, beliefs and unprocessed emotions are hidden below the surface, in our non-conscious mind which is actually the source of all learning. If we can tap into this source by means of a metaphor, then it becomes possible to create new learnings.

A metaphor can be one of the following:

- A personal anecdote
- A joke
- A quote
- An idiom

- A story/parable

Any of these metaphorical tools has a great role in understanding our world and ourselves (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, p. ix). In transferring understandings from one situation to another situation or thing or context to another, in everyday communication not only with ourselves but also with our learners, whether we are sharing a personal anecdote or joke, talking about a quote or an idiom or telling a story, metaphor can help to access one's non-conscious mind. This becomes possible because we do not "notice" the metaphor as it "communicates naturally amidst the content of a communication" (Alder, 2002, p. 185).

As mentioned, by working with new metaphors in whatever form, we can help a person to change the way they think about something (Revell & Norman, 1999). For example, if a person, a friend, partner, colleague or learner, thinks of life as a *rose with thorns*, which is a common metaphor in the Turkish culture, then we understand that this person sees and expects life to be filled mostly with struggles and problems. In our communication with that person, we can help them to view life in a different perspective after exercising with new and positive metaphors. One such metaphor would be asking them to compare life to a beautiful, red rose with a nice scent. This suggestion may then lead that person to become aware of the possibility and existence of a positive suggestion and help them move towards this positive suggestion. We can also challenge our learners' conventional metaphorical thinking and suggest comparing life to an entirely strange concept for example, a photocopying machine (a negative metaphor) and then move on to a good book (a positive metaphor) perhaps. There are no right answers; the important point is to lead the discussion on life towards a more empowering thought structure for the non-conscious mind to take on.

Kinds of Metaphor

Metaphors may create realities for us, especially social realities. A metaphor may thus be a guide for future action. Such actions will, of course, fit the metaphor. This will, in turn, reinforce the power of the metaphor to make experience coherent. In this sense metaphors can be self-fulfilling prophecies.

Lakoff and Johnson (2003, p. 156)

Shallow Metaphor

Among the many kinds of metaphor, the two that I would like to share in this article are “Shallow and “Deep” metaphors (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003). A *shallow metaphor* is a simple metaphor which makes a simple comparison between two things, taking any concept and comparing it with something else, which may be something from nature, an animal, any everyday object or a popular character from a book or movie.

The myriad metaphors that all of us use to talk about teaching and learning, both negative and positive, are mostly shallow metaphors. A very popular, albeit negative metaphor, is comparing a particular lesson to a zoo as follows: “The class was like a zoo today.” One of my favorite metaphors related to teaching is that of a teacher who sees themselves as a guide ” on a treasure hunt.. with a map that shows us the way. Sometimes the path is hard and sometimes it is easy, but it is always worth it when we get to the end” as indicated in a research study (Alger, 2009, p. 744). This metaphor captures both the hard work that we put into our teaching and the satisfaction that we get from it. I usually use the metaphor of a mini-skirt to describe a good presentation: like a mini-skirt, a good presentation should be short enough to attract attention but long enough to cover all the basics. Metaphor is also very useful when teaching young learners. If you are engaged in metaphor work with children, you can choose a very simple cartoon character that is very familiar to them like Cinderella or Mickey Mouse.

Deep Metaphor

As opposed to a shallow metaphor, a *deep metaphor*, contains many levels of meaning. For this reason, it can create a better understanding of the world and is usually in narrative format. Depending on the message that you would like to convey, it is possible to use any of the kind of metaphors mentioned (Please see section on suggested activities).

A deep metaphor is particularly a powerful strategy since a person usually gets into a trance state when listening to a narrative, usually a story. Transferred to a teaching context, when learners are listening to a story, they enter a trance state, leaving the conscious mind believing that the story has nothing to do with it. This, in turn, creates an opportunity for us to convey the message that we want our learners to take in to the non-conscious mind in narrative format. A word of caution: we must make sure that we are in rapport with our learners by talking to them about any topic for a few minutes before we start to tell the story. In addition, we must make sure that the deep metaphor used in the story is as parallel as possible to the learner’s situation

or problem in real-life. Once in rapport, we can tell our story and the non-conscious mind will immediately tune in to the message conveyed by the story (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003; Rosen, 1991) (See Activity 6. Experimenting with Stories).

In the following parts, I will demonstrate how we can actually use metaphors in the classroom by means of six activities. These activities can be implemented in our classes either as the main task in a lesson, for example a speaking or writing task or as pre and post tasks for reading and listening skills.

Suggestions for Activities

Activity 1: Exploring Your Own Metaphors

In this activity, we will experiment with our own metaphors as teachers with focus on shallow metaphors within the structure of “X is like Y”. I have chosen 3 examples to start us off but you can experiment with many other concepts as well. You may want to think about each or any one of the concepts and compare it to something else.

- Being a parent is like.....
- Teaching is like
- Learning is like

One of the metaphors that I use quite frequently is for the 2006 English Language Curriculum (Ersöz, Çakır, Cephe, Gül Peker, Özkan, Sarıaltun , 2006) to which I contributed as writer. It is a vehicle metaphor: the new curriculum, seems like a Ferrari whilst the previous one was like a ride on an old bus (Gül Peker, 2007).

So, what are your own metaphors? Let us explore some of them. Imagine for a minute: if you were asked to compare being a parent to something, what would that be? All you need to do is to say the first thing that comes to your mind. Some metaphors that come to mind would perhaps be superheroes, gardening, a blanket or a torch.

Or, for a moment, try to find comparing a concept like teaching or learning to something. What would you say? The most popular comparisons seem to be conducting an orchestra, flying a plane or gardening. Learning metaphors may comprise an enjoyable journey, planting a tree, drinking water or a ride on the roller coaster. All of the responses would reveal both positive and negative characteristics depending on your own perspectives of understanding the world. This is a great mental exercise will help you to become aware of how you view certain concepts in your life. You can try this exercise by yourself or with a friend or partner. And just for fun, you could try using metaphors for women and men.

Activity 2: Exploring New Metaphors

*“Let us be grateful to people who make us happy,
they are the charming gardeners who make our souls
blossom.”*

Marcel Proust

Let us continue with practice geared towards our learners. The structure to be used is the same as in Activity 1, with the addition of a reason at the end of the comparison (adapted from Revell & Norman, 1999). It will be practical to give students two lists such as a. concepts and b. concrete items.

Table 1

| <i>Concept</i> | <i>Item</i> |
|-------------------------|------------------------------------|
| <i>Love</i> | An animal |
| <i>Life</i> | A weather condition |
| <i>Marriage</i> | A type of food/drink |
| <i>Work</i> | An ache; a disease |
| <i>Happiness</i> | A type of clothing |
| <i>Time</i> | A pill |
| <i>Home</i> | An object of nature |
| <i>Teaching</i> | A piece of furniture |
| <i>Learning</i> | A sport |
| <i>Women</i> | A piece of office equipment |
| <i>Men</i> | A piece of technological equipment |
| <i>Knowledge</i> | A machine |
| <i>Truth</i> | Any everyday life metaphor |

The concept (a) can be any aspect of life. If you are working on a particular concept in class (such as friendship for example) in a particular course book unit, then you can also ask learners to use this concept. The item (b) can actually be anything. Learners may come up with conventional comparisons like: “Time is money”; “Love is a journey” or “Teaching/Learning is a struggle”.

You may also use nature, animal and daily metaphors as items. Some nature metaphors are as follows:

- The snow is a white blanket.
- He is a shining star.
- Her long hair was a flowing golden river.

Some animal metaphors could be

- The computers at school are old dinosaurs.
- The new student is a chicken.

We can also take metaphors from daily life. These are actually quite fun because they create very vivid pictures in the listener's minds. Some common everyday life metaphors (both positive and negative) are as follows:

- His suggestion was just a band-aid for the problem.
- Their home was a prison.
- His heart is a cold iron.
- Her angry words were bullets to him.
- My kid's room is a disaster area.
- My big brother is a couch potato.
- Laughter is the music of the soul.
- Her lovely voice was music to his ears.
- The world is a stage.
- Our brain is a computer.
- He is a walking dictionary.
- She has a heart of gold.

If learners have difficulties in deciding which concepts and items to use and compare, then you can direct them. I usually prefer guiding learners; for example, I suggest that they view life as “puzzles”, a perspective which may help them to think that problems may be more easily overcome. I would also like to suggest connections that may seem strange to them. What is important in this activity is that learners find a link between the two categories without any attention to however absurd or far-fetched that connection maybe link may be. Since learners will need to add their reasons as well, it will provide a great opportunity for discussion and sharing of perspectives and opinions. After students do this activity, they can work in pairs or in groups and tell each other about their experiences. Alternatively, a whole-class discussion can also be held which will again motivate a lot of discussion, hence a great speaking task.

Activity 3: Metaphors for Learning

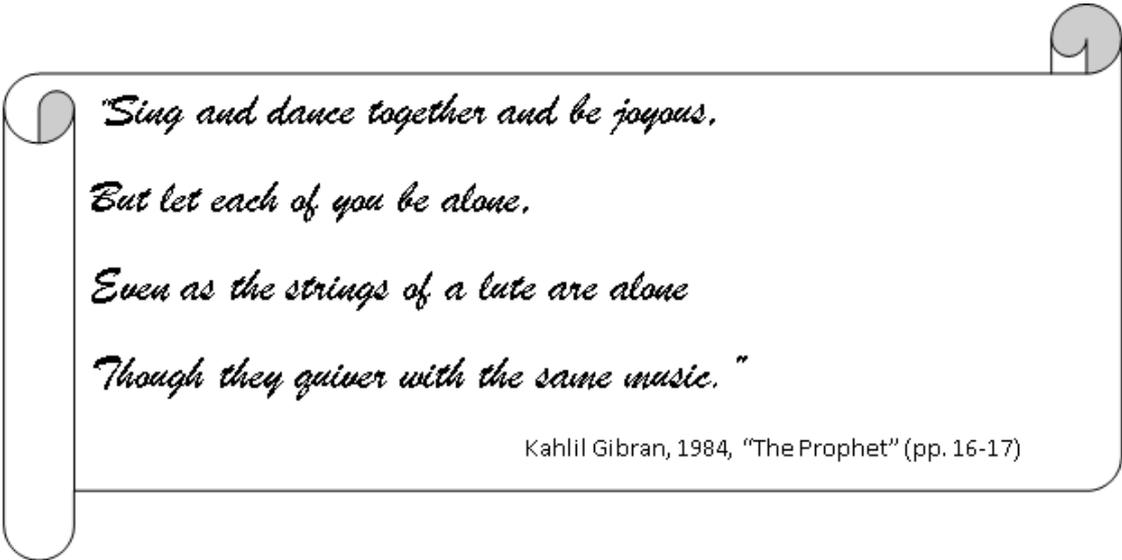
This activity is great for getting feedback on learning. Instead of asking learners for feedback directly about an activity or your performance as a teacher, you can use shallow metaphors. You can give them the following instructions:

- ❖ Think of one animal, one vegetable or a piece of furniture (Feel free to choose fewer or more categories).
- ❖ Think of me as a teacher.
- ❖ Decide on three metaphors which represent me as a teacher and provide reasons.

I usually ask for this kind of feedback after my workshop sessions and I am always amazed at the comments that I get. I have been likened to a snake, kitten, bee, turtle, butterfly and lion of the jungle to name a few. I find these comments extremely useful as they reflect what it is about me that the participants have paid attention to and I use the insights that have I gained from this exploration for my future performances. I do this activity with my learners as well and it stimulates much food for thought.

Activity 4. Exploring metaphors in texts

This activity focuses on working with deep metaphors by means of a narrative, in this case a poem. Poems are a great way of working with metaphors. I have chosen the following poem in order to explore the concept of marriage. The text is taken from “The Prophet” written by Kahlil Gibran a Lebanese-American philosopher, poet and writer. This is one of his books which has become one of the best-selling books of all time since it was first published in the United States in 1923. In this poem, Gibran explores the concept of marriage comparing it to a musical instrument, the lute and explaining how, thus using a deep metaphor.



"Sing and dance together and be joyous,

But let each of you be alone,

Even as the strings of a lute are alone

Though they quiver with the same music."

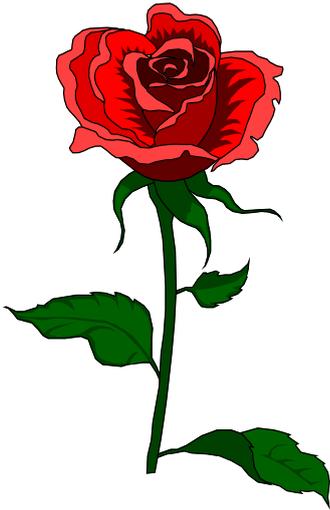
Kahlil Gibran, 1984, "The Prophet" (pp. 16-17)

Although the writer particularly mentions marriage, we can substitute "relationship" or "friendship" when we are doing those themes in our course book units. Again, this will be a great speaking task in which learners will have a chance to agree or disagree with the writer's perspective on relationships. Learners can express their opinions on their relationships with parents, friends, peers, teachers or loved ones using shallow or deep metaphors. They will also be exploring the concept of relationship with the possible roles assigned to either party in a relationship. While doing so, it is important to remember that you are helping learners to become aware of their own perceptions of relationships and become open to new perspectives. That is to say, you are just exploring and not imposing your own views.

Activity 5: Using Songs to Explore Metaphors

The aim of this activity is to explore deep metaphors found in songs. You can find many such examples in songs. You can for example check the website, <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jN104uji--Y>, particularly for pop songs. One example is the song entitled "Hotel California" by the Eagles. In the song, the fickle, temporary, and false nature of living in Hollywood style is compared to that of a short-stay in a hotel where one knows how long they will stay. Since no one knows how long any celebrity's fame would last, they must make the most of it.

The song that I have chosen for this activity is called "The Rose" composed and sung by Amanda McBroom (2013), an American singer and song writer. It is a beautiful song with lyrics that contain many metaphors, both shallow and deep. The following are the lyrics:



"The Rose" by Amanda McBroom (From...cite the link)

*Some say love, it is a river, that drowns the tender reed
Some say love, it is a razor, that leaves your soul to bleed
Some say love, it is a hunger, an endless aching need
I say love, it is a flower, and you, its only seed
It's the heart afraid of breaking, that never learns to dance
It's the dream afraid of waking, that never takes the chance
It's the one who won't be taken, who cannot seem to give
And the soul afraid of dying, that never learns to live
When the night has been too lonely and the road has been too long
And you think that love is only for the lucky and the strong
Just remember in the winter, far beneath the bitter snows
Lies the seed, that with the sun's love in the spring becomes the rose*

This song can be used as listening. First, you can have learners listen to the song and give them the gist task of finding the singer's own metaphor, which is the rose. For the second listening (specific) task, you can ask the learners to note the other metaphors that the singer mentions. For the post-listening task, you can do a whole-class discussion on those metaphors that learners agree or disagree with along with their reasons. This can stimulate great discussion as a speaking task like much like in Activities 3 and 4.

Activity 6: Experimenting with Stories

*A straight moral preachment might be dismissed,
but guidance and direction become acceptable when
embedded in a story that is intriguing,
amusing, and interestingly told.*

Rosen (1993, p.26)

Conveying a message metaphorically through a story, is a very subtle but a much more powerful and palatable strategy than direct communication since the story gets the conscious mind busy listening to it and trying to make sense of it while you can slip in a certain message that you want to listener to process and absorb. (Alder, 2002; Revell & Norman, 1999).

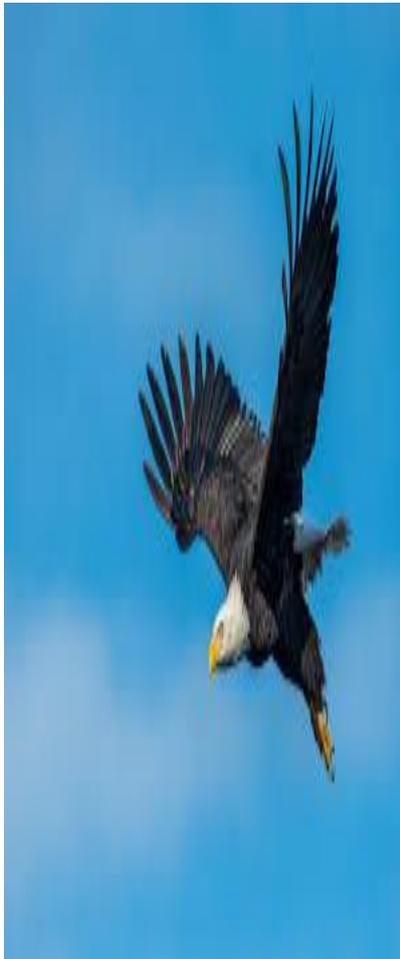
We may wonder how when we get into a trance when we listen to a story will help our learners. As Rosen (1991) notes the effect that a story has on a person is "similar to the glow one may feel after seeing a good movie" during which we will engage in an altered state of consciousness." (p. 28)(The interested reader can check out Erickson's Teaching Tales by Rosen, 1991). This mindset "is the state in which learning and openness to change are most

likely to occur” (ibid, p.1). In fact, stories can be used “in a variety of communication contexts” in order “to affirm, change, or challenge people’s ideas, attitudes, beliefs, visions, behaviours, skills and sense of purpose (Owen, 2001, p. xiii).

In this final stage of this article, I would like to share 4 four stories each of which has a different message. They can be used in the classroom as speaking, writing , reading and listening tasks. If you are reading the story aloud, then you must make sure that the tone of your voice goes down at the end of the story.

The Little Eagle

The first story that I would like to present is the story of an animal, an eagle. You may want to think of the message of the story after you listen to or read it. The story goes as follows:



Once upon a time, on a big mountain, there lived an eagle family. One of the eagles had just laid eggs. But, with an earthquake, one of these eggs was thrown down the mountain. It rolled and rolled down until it came to a chicken farm in a valley. The chickens on this farm looked at this bigger-than-normal egg and decided to keep it. An elderly chicken took it under her wings to protect it. One day, the little eagle was hatched. She saw chickens around her and thought that she was a chicken, too. All of the chickens treated her like one of their own. The little eagle loved her family, but every now and then she did ask herself, “Who am I really?” But she was a chicken, and that’s how it was meant to be. One day, while they were playing, the little eagle looked up and saw a group of eagles flying in the sky. “Wow, they are flying so gracefully. How I wish I could learn to fly like they do,” the little eagle said. The chickens laughed at the little eagle. “You are a chicken! There’s no way you can fly like an eagle!” they said. Every day, the little eagle looked up at the sky, saw the eagles flying and wished more and more that she could fly like them. Whenever she confided in her parents, they always disparaged her and said, “You are a chicken. Stop dreaming!” In time, the little eagle did stop dreaming. And when it was time to go, she died a chicken (Gül Peker, 2020).

Have you thought about the message of the story? Actually, it seems to be quite clear: *Whatever you think you will become, you will. If ever you would like to be like an eagle, follow your dreams. Don’t let anyone stop you and act like an eagle.* As the message is given

indirectly, the effect that the story creates on the learners will be infinitely more empowering than directly telling them that they need to follow their dreams.

As mentioned, Milton Erickson, was a master of using deep metaphors to communicate with his clients, His success was in his ability to give indirect suggestions through stories particularly when the clients tended to show resistance. Using indirect suggestions is a particularly useful technique when you would like to give advice to your or children or adult learners For example, if you want them to study, telling them to study will not work as you will be giving direct advice such as “Study!”; “I want you to study more” ; “Can you pay more attention to your learning please?” This is because your direct advice will not be processed by their non-conscious mind—which, as mentioned, is actually the real commander-in-chief for all of our future actions and acts on indirect advice (Owen, 2001; Lakoff & Johnson, 2003; Revell & Norman, 1999; Rosen, 1991).

Naked Truth and Parable

The second story is entitled Naked Truth and Parable. It is taken from my practitioner course notes (Revell, 2001) . It is a story written by Harav Yaakov Kranz who was a preacher who spoke with great eloquence and travelled to many cities sharing his parables with many people. The story unfolds as follows:

*Naked Truth sat alone, sad and unattired,
"Why are you so miserable?" Parable inquired.
Naked Truth replied, "I'm not welcome anymore.
No one wants to see me. They chase me from their door."
"It is hard to look at Naked Truth," Parable explained.
"Let me dress you up a bit. Your welcome will be gained."
Parable dressed Naked Truth in story's fine attire,
with metaphor, poignant prose, and plots to inspire.
With laughter and tears and adventure to unveil,
together they went forth to spin a tale.
People opened their doors and served them their best.
Naked Truth dressed in story was a welcome guest*

We see how a story can be made more powerful by veiling it around a universal truth as is the case in this story. As already mentioned we hear the story with our ears; however, it is the non-conscious mind that is really listening to it and that is where a deeper meaning of the story inhabits. Again, this activity can be done as listening or reading. The questions asked as gist and while task can help to reveal what learners understand from the text. As a post task, you

can have a debate on whether to tell the truth starkly or in an attired mode, thus creating yet again a great speaking task.

The Giant

The third and final story that I would like to share with you is called “The Giant” taken from Berman & Brown, 2000 which unfolds as follows:

Once upon a time, in a land far away, there lived an enormous giant. He was at least ten feet tall, with a mane of red hair and a beard, and in his hand he carried a mighty axe.

Every year, on the same day, at the same time, the giant would walk down from the mountains which were his home, to stand outside the castle walls and terrorise the inhabitants. “Come, send me your bravest man, and I will fight him,” the giant would shout, towering over the wall and waving his axe menacingly. “Send me someone to fight, or I will knock down your castle walls and kill everyone.” And every year the gate in the castle wall would open slowly, and, fearfully, one poor, valiant soul would walk out to face certain death. “Is this the best you can do?” the giant would laugh mockingly. The poor wretch would stand, mesmerised by the enormity of the giant and the task in hand. Not one person even managed to draw his sword, before the giant would crush them with his mighty fist, and chop them into tiny pieces with his axe.

But, one day, a young prince arrived in the town. “Why does everyone look so frightened and sad?” he asked a fellow traveller. “You haven’t seen the giant yet,” replied the traveller. “What giant?” asked the young prince, intrigued. The traveller told him the tale. “Every year, on this very day, the giant arrives and challenges the very bravest to a duel. And every year, he slays them exactly where they stand. They don’t even attempt to fight. It’s as though the giant hypnotises them.” “We’ll see about that,” said the young prince. When the giant arrived later that day, he was waiting for him. “Send me your bravest man, and I will fight him,” the giant shouted. “I am here,” said the young prince, throwing open the gate, and striding towards him.

For a moment they stood and faced each other. Although he was still a long way away from him, the young prince was instantly struck by the incredible size and shocking appearance of his opponent. But summoning up all his courage, he started to walk towards the giant, brandishing his sword, and never taking his eyes off that dreadful face with the red hair and red beard. Suddenly, he realised that as he was walking, the giant – rather than appearing larger – actually began to shrink before his very eyes. He stopped and stared. The giant was only five feet tall. He walked closer to him still, then stopped and stared. Now the giant was only two feet tall. He continued walking until he was face to face with the giant, and with each step he took, he saw the giant shrink. By now the giant was so small, that he looked up at the young prince. He was only twelve inches tall. The young prince took his sword, and plunged it into the giant’s heart. As the giant lay dying on the ground, the young prince bent down and whispered to him, “Who are you? What’s your name?” With his dying breath, the giant replied, “My name is Fear.”

This story, which I have used in my training sessions in different contexts, has a classic but powerful message: the fact that we need to face our fears. Once, we face our fears, we can see that fear cannot prevent us from doing whatever we would like to.

You may wish to use this story as a reading or listening text by reading it aloud to your students, (preferably from memory) followed by a gist and specific task. The gist question is perhaps the most crucial step in your discussion; you can ask what the message of the story is. Once you have established that, you can then continue to ask specific questions about the story. For example, you can ask why the giant is shrinking in height and the factors that lead to this event. Listeners seem to enjoy listening to this story very much and tend to engage in discovering the truth behind the giant's shrinking which, in fact, creates a memorable graphic in the listener's non-conscious mind. In addition, as mentioned the deep metaphor used in the story will be as parallel as possible to the learners' situations as they do experience anxiety or fear in learning a foreign language. As a final note, all the activities to be used as speaking can easily be turned into writing tasks.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

This article has put forth some of the major theoretical principles of NLP in an anecdotal manner by way of introduction. Against this background, it has presented the use of metaphor as a powerful tool in personal and professional change. In particular, it has drawn attention to two types of metaphor: shallow and deep metaphor arguing that the use of either type of metaphor can enable our learners to look at life and the world in a different perspective and that can be used whilst in communication with oneself or others and in a teaching context. In the final section, six metaphor activities which can be done with ease not only with young learners but also with adult learners have been presented. I hope that you have enjoyed reading about metaphor as much as I have enjoyed writing about it.

May your story be that of the fearless young prince or princess, told most truthfully and dressed as elegantly as a parable.

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