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DIGITAL COMMUNICATION ACROSS CULTURE: A CASE STUDY OF THE LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF WHATSAPP COMMUNICATION AND APPLIED LINGUISTICS

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Abstract

The central aim of this study is to measure the level of linguistics in the applied WhatsApp communication among people. We collected our data randomly from the society of the North of Jordan, definitely from Jordan University of Science and Technology and the area surrounding the campus Samples were both males and females B.A. and B.Sc. students (200 respondents for questionnaires and 10 educationalists for semi-structured interviews). Tabulating and filtering out the responses revealed that the application of WhatsApp have both negative and positive effect on people depending on users and their purposes. Whereas a considerable number of people saw the WhatsApp application as a source of serious problems like human addiction, cheating in various educational tests, reducing physical communication and time wasting, etc., many others found it as a good means of digital, cheap, fast and clarified communication which can carry heavy electronic loads like video clips and images.

Keywords: *digital linguistics, communication, applied linguistics*

1. Introduction

In the Middle East countries, mobiles, tablets and computers are ubiquitous there and are frequently used in all aspects of life through the medium of English, Arabic or both in one text though the first language in the Middle East in particular and the Arab world in general is Arabic; the mother tongue of 23 Arab countries. It goes without saying that digital communication carried out by means of mobiles, computers or other digital devices has become a daily activity if not an hourly one. But the smart mobile with its new and creative applications (e.g., Skype, WhatsApp, etc.) is the most common device among poor or rich Arabs. In Jordan, the number of mobile devices used by Jordanians is more than 5,000,000 though the whole population is 8,000,000. We might understand that rich people need and want mobile devices, but poor users also use mobile devices frequently even if it was at the expense of their financial budget. A plausible explanation for this is that poor users choose free applications like the WhatsApp which could have a very positive and/or negative effect on people in general. Our preliminary investigation revealed that the WhatsApp application is the one among other applications which is worth investigating because it the most popular and frequently used one by people and students of different social classes or educational levels.

1.1 Literature Remarks

Modern digital and international technological information transfer has become a basic demand of life in both developed and developing countries and in all social, academic and non-academic aspects of life: in schools, universities, markets, homes, companies, etc. Because of these new changes and circumstances people need to be digitally educated and qualified to cope with these fast conditions (Redwi 1999 and Bassnett 2004) in order to be empowered for proper and swift communication needed in this age of globalization. Accordingly, communication has recently become based on digital technology like the WhatsApp applications rather than on human physical, verbal and non-verbal linguistic techniques.

The WhatsApp applications were started in 2009 by two ex-Yahoo staff, Jan Koum and Brian Acton, and presently handles more than 10bn messages per day ("About WhatsApp," 2019). WhatsApp is a pun on What's Up. And it is also one of the most popular paid-for apps on any platform. Why a paid app (you have to buy it on the iPhone; it is free for the first year on other platforms) rather than totally free? Koum and Acton recently posted on the company blog to explain: "These days companies know literally everything about you, your friends, your interests, and they use it all to sell ads" (ibid).

On top of the mobile, the WhatsApp has become the most popular formal and informal way of digital communication:

> *WhatsApp was handling ten billion messages per day as of August 2012,[4] growing from two billion in April 2012[5] and one billion the previous October.[6] According to the Financial Times, WhatsApp "has done to SMS on mobile phones what Skype did to international calling on landlines.* ("WhatsApp," 2019).

The reasons behind the excessive use of the WhatsApp is of course its cheap cost, practicality and availability on most smart phones. The Guardian Newspaper reports that:

> *Handling over 1 billion messages a day, the incredibly popular WhatsApp Messenger is a "cross-platform mobile messaging app" which allows registered users with just a single mobile phone number to "exchange messages without having to pay for SMS". Available for most smartphones – iPhone, BlackBerry, Windows, Android and Symbian – WhatsApp is a free, fast and cheap texting tool that's a notch above regular texting. As an alternative to SMS, WhatsApp is accessible via 3G or Wi-Fi, thus sends messages over the Internet. This lowers the cost of sending texts, unlimited ones.* ("WhatsApp: the new text messaging," 2012)

Formally, it has been used by companies and businessmen for sending images of goods and commodities shapes and prices. Informally, it has been used socially and excessively by people, particularly students and youngsters, as a way of quick and cheap or even free communication so far. Obviously, in Jordan, it is used in all these communicative settings ranging from commercial to social and academic purposes.

Of course, studies published in international journals on the WhatsApp are frequent as the whole application is new as mentioned above. In mass media, we can easily find investigations on the advantages and disadvantages of the WhatsApp. For example, in an article entitled: *'New* *technology, new ways to cheat'* in The Daily News, Egypt's Only Daily Independent Newspaper In English, Ramsis (2013: 1) states:

> *Use of new mobile phone apps such as Rivet, in addition to old techniques such as writing on rulers, walls, uploading documents onto calculators, or young girls placing such documents within their hijab, are some of the techniques that students have come to employ in order to help them engage in cheating on school exams. Some students spoke of using mobile phone apps such as WhatsApp and Viber, to move and transfer pictures and documents to one another Via social media website.*("New technology, new ways to cheat," 2013)

Finally, Avani and Aanal (2014: 32) states that the WhatsApp cut distances among people. They also add:

> Thanks to the technology that it helps to cu the distance between Our relatives.

The arguments above show that the WhatsApp communicative applications and uses are worth investigating in Jordan to reveal their real and useful advantages and serious disadvantages. The present study is very significant on the ground that it could help Jordanian users to become aware of the danger of that application on top of observing and taking advantage of its academic and linguistic benefits. Moreover, no other studies published in local, regional or international journals have been conducted on the WhatsApp at least in Jordan as the application is quite new.

2. Methodology

The data collected for this research were taken from four major sources. Firstly, two hundreds-thirty questioners were distributed randomly on chosen from B.A., B.Sc. M.A. students studying in Jordan University of Science and Technology. From the 230 questionnaires we distributed, we used the fully completed 200 hundred questionnaires as some questionnaires were not completed properly. In other words, some questions were not answered. Secondly, ten semi-structured interviews were conducted with educationalists and fathers from the local society, aging 45-60 years to have wise viewpoints on top of the viewpoints of other university students mentioned above. For examining the quality of writing, dozens of WhatsApp texts were investigated. Finally, observations collected from public mass media published locally, regionally and internationally have been analyzed and incorporated into our corpus of data. The responses collected from the four sources of information were analysed filtered out, tabulated, compared, contrasted and associated with each other to produce a complete and thorough picture about the WhatsApp texts, use and effects.

3. Discussion

As stated above, the purpose of our study was to investigate the effect of the WhatsApp on students and people using this application socially and academically. For the purpose of making our discussion and presentation clear, we will be guided by four tables representing the advantages, disadvantages, the nature of the users, whether single or married, age, gender, and the time spent while using that application. As mentioned above, our data were based on the responses of the completely filled in 200 questionnaires and 10 interviewees' viewpoints and WhatsApp texts.

To start with, the age factor reveals that the vast majority of respondent (174 out of 200: 87%) indicated that they use the WhatsApp daily. Table 1 below shows that they use it proportionally. For example, of the 174 respondent mentioned above, 105 (60.5%) aging 18-34 years stated that they check/use it at least 3-5 times per hour. Nevertheless, users ranging 35 years old and above seem to use it less frequently (66 above 35: 40%: 1-2 hours daily) out of the 174. It can be noticed that the younger the users, the more they are likely to use it. This could be due to the fact that young people might be obsessed by the WhatsApp application more than those who are older; older people could be busier with enormous responsibilities than young ones. Another explanation might be that younger users use the application to serve their careers which might be business or academic-related. Another interpretation for the less frequent use of older users is that this category of people be busy with other issues and obligations like raising up children and running businesses which do not require the WhatsApp use. Alternatively, most people above 35 years old are usually married and therefore they might not need it for social purposes (e.g., love affair purposes), for instance. However, Having more than 40% of people above 35 years using the WhatsApp means that digital communication seems gaining importance among busy people.

Table 1: *Frequency of WhatsApp use in relation to the age factor*

Age	Frequency: Number and Percentages
1. All ages Responses: Daily Basis Use	174 : 87%
2. 18-34 years Old Users : 3-5 hours daily	105 : 60.5%
3. 35 + years old : 1-2 hours daily	66 : 40%

With reference to the marital status of the WhatsApp users, table 2 below shows that 151 out 0f 200 (75%) were married. However, what was noticed earlier about the frequent use of younger users which was more than that of older ones seems to be applicable also on the age of married users as single users stated that they use the WhatsApp 4-5 hours daily, as we see below. It appears that the younger the married participants are, the more they use the WhatsApp application. This could be due to the nature of new generations; that is to say, digital communication has been widely spread among young married couples. A plausible explanation for this digital phenomenon is that these generations have been raised up in digital environment and age which were not available or accessible to the generation of 40s and/or50s. Accordingly, the exposure to digital communication has become greater than that of old generations, particularly because the WhatsApp application began in 2009 and prospered remarkably in the last 5 years. This could mean also that old generations are slow in digesting or coping with the idea of the WhatsApp in particular, and digital communication in general. In other words, old users seem either slow or shy to accept the WhatsApp application as a practical digital means of communication since most Arab old people are more conservative in nature than those young ones.

Table 2: *Frequency of WhatsApp use in relation to marital status*

Age	Frequency: Number and Percentages
Married users : 3-5 hours daily	151 : 75.5%
Single users : 4-5 hours daily	49 : 24.5%

Back to relatively old married couples who are active users of the WhatsApp, it can be assumed that those people could have developed digital WhatsApp social ties and/or relationships with their wives before their marriage. Supporting this viewpoint is the structured interviews which revealed that 6 of the 10 interviewees confirmed that either they or their sons and/or daughters had developed digital communicative connection with their partners before they married. We believe that is true because Arab societies are conservative in nature and with different degrees. Considering the conservative situation, we might predict that the WhatsApp application has been an important and good means of viewing, discussing, arguing, agreeing, disagreeing, negotiating marriage and evaluating physical appearance through the exchanged images and video clips among males and females. This becomes evident when we consider the fact that social interaction in public places among males and females is prohibited in Arab societies. One of the 10 interviewees (30 years old male married recently to 24 years old bride) stated that:

> *I knew my wife first on the WhatsApp for 18 months before marriage. It [the WhatsApp] was the only way or channel of communication between us. With it, we exchanged ideas, text and voice messages, pix [pictures], video clips and even university homework. In short, the WhatsApp served us in everything.*

Another interviewee (34 male married to 33 female) maintained that:

> *I and my wife cannot abandon the WhatsApp application because we used For months… about year … during which we understood each other.*

The above two quotations show that the WhatsApp was used for personal and social purposes. It solved the social problem of conservation which is a feature of most Arab societies as mentioned above. As we all know, socially speaking it is not accepted for a male to chat with a female in Islamic Arab societies in general, and in Jordanian society in particular. Before the age of digital communication including the WhatsApp, so many couples married without chatting with each other which resulted in high divorce percentages. Due to the lack of knowing each other (familiarity), couples and/or recently married people used to encounter many social, psychological and moody problems which surprised them in the first year of their marriage when they started to live with each other. Most of the interviewees confirmed this point by indicating that marriage without previous digital communication including the WhatsApp might be a failure because couples need to have an idea about their partners in terms of their physical appearance, mentality, level of nervousness, shyness, education, etc. Not knowing these features before marriage could put the newly married people in a difficult situation as they might disagree about many life issues which in turn might lead to a high percentage of divorce in Jordan in Particular, and in the 23 Arab Muslim countries in general (not to forget Arab Muslims who live or reside in Europe and/or USA).

In connection with the participants' viewpoint about the advantages of the WhatsApp application (table 3), the vast majority of them 168 out of 200 (84%) indicated that the WhatsApp is a quick and handy means of communication which spares time, effort and money by using text and audio-visual messages. On top of that, a large number of participants (151 (75.5%)) voiced their appreciation for the WhatsApp which helps in increasing the number of friends they have had.

Table 3: *The advantages of WhatsApp*

Advantages	Frequency: Number and Percentages
A quick and handy means of communication	168 : 84%
Increases the number of real friends	151 : 75.5%
Increases the number of hypothetical friends	135 : 67.5%
Clarifies communication by attachments	138 : 69%

Supporting this view was an interviewee who stated that:

> *Well… I think the WhatsApp advantages are more than its disadvantages… I like it is cheap and makes friends…and help you to maintain old and new friends…ah am..I mean you communicate with friends who Also reply to you and therefore friends keep themselves informed About any developments.*

Linked with this idea of making friends by the WhatsApp, the questionnaire respondents (135 out of 200: 67.5%) responded to the last open-ended question by indicating that it increases the number of hypothetical friends whom they never seen (table 3 above). They added that the issue of hypothetical friends is very healthy because the WhatsApp helps people to socialize with other friends. This helps lonely people to get rid of their isolation.

When the participants were asked about the quality of communication, they (138:69%) reckoned that their communication was clear; what was unclear was clarified and explained through attachments which made everything understood without any ambiguity. The final clarifying resort was the voices messages if written messages were not understood properly. This means that the cheap nature of the WhatsApp has helped people to communicate on a large scale using all the macro language skills (RWSP: reading, writing, speaking and listening) which might improve their linguistic competence. Surprisingly, the linguistic competence was touched by two of the interviewees who were interviewed separately. One of them stated that:

> *…I can add that communication through the WhatsApp [has] helped me to be skillful in English spelling, grammar and making notes or Shortening texts [summarizing] which is another lesson I learnt… .*

The other interviewee maintained that he focuses on what is important and ignores what is not whenever he texts in the WhatsApp. He also added that:

> *It [the WhatsApp] developed my ability of typing quickly…I mean I have become fast in typing many words per minute…because I memorized by heart the location of each letter on the switch board of my smart phone.*

The above two quotations reveal that the WhatsApp seems to be useful in many respects because we cannot separate it from verbal and non-verbal communication in particular, and from socialization in general since language is a human social behavior. It is worth mentioning that the interviewees' responses coincided with questionnaires' respondents who voiced that their linguistic competence was improved by the frequent use of the WhatsApp.

Like any other invention of digital communication, the WhatsApp disadvantages were also evident in the participants' responses, ranging from social negative effect to psychological or even educational effects. This is evident as the vast majority (161 participants out of the 200:80.5%) stated in response to the questionnaire that the overuse of the WhatsApp isolates family members from each other who could be sitting in the same room without any verbal communication as table 4 below reveals.

Table 4: *The disadvantages of WhatsApp*

Disadvantages	Frequency: Number and Percentages
WhatsApp causes isolation & reduces verbal & direct social communication	161 : 80%
Wastage of time	135 : 67.5%
WhatsApp takes away the users from their jobs	110 : 55%
WhatsApp causes isolation & reduces verbal & direct social communication	161 : 80%
Wastage of time	135 : 67.5%
WhatsApp takes away the users from their jobs	110 : 55%
WhatsApp use has become a bad addiction habit	(187:93.5%)
WhatsApp harms frequent users health by causing overweight, and ophthalmic/eye /retinopathy, etc.	90 : 45%
WhatsApp is used for exam cheating purposes	189 : 94.5 %

In other words, it weakens the physical direct, linguistic and social communication within family situations. For example, though sitting in one limited place like living rooms, the family members might be communicating through the WhatsApp with other people who could be in other cities and/or countries or even continents. In short, the WhatsApp makes people sitting with each other physically, but mentally away from each other and no communicative interaction takes place. Such behaviors will definitely result in three side effects or negative outcomes). To start with, the lack of respect to surrounding people was notably evident from the 10 interviewees. We strongly believe it is negative because the WhatsApp users would be busy in their private WhatsApp communication. People surrounding the users might feel ignored and consequently not respected. Secondly, it damages family intimate connections and ties by increasing digital WhatsApp communication and decreasing verbal and non-verbal (e.g., body language) communication which strengthens close relationships among family members. Verbal communication among family members which includes body language, smiles, jokes, feelings, sympathy etc. is extremely important in developing intimate and passionate ties. One of the interviewees indicated that:

> *…I even feel as if I am a strange man in a strange land [his house] sitting with strange people though those people are my sons and daughters who are busy in writing, attaching, responding to their friends through the WhatsApp…you know…ah…sometimes we don't speak with each other except on food table… and believe me some of my teenage sons chew their food while typing and communicating through the WhatsApp. After several weeks of that hectic communication, you find your son a different person as he tells you about new stories and principles he acquires from other WhatsApp users or people.*

Thirdly, on top of the what was quoted from the interviewees above, the overwhelming majority of the questionnaire respondents (187:93.5%) reckoned that the WhatsApp use has become a bad addiction habit which is very difficult to be quitted by users who have been raised up while using it for different purposes. When the respondents were asked whether they can voluntarily spend one single day without the WhatsApp, they stated that they could not survive without it.

Back to the interviewees, one of them said:

> *…addiction, addiction and addiction because my sons and daughters express their anger if the wireless internet coverage is not okay or not working well. They sometimes express and voice their anger if the net coverage is weak [bad signal] in certain rooms of the flat or house.*

The above responses, statistics and opinions confirm undoubtedly that an organic relationship has been established between the WhatsApp application and its users. That is to say, it seems that the parties (the WhatsApp and its users) have become socially inseparable. Nowadays, people consider the WhatsApp as an integral part of their personality and their daily necessities and wants. People find it difficult to leave their accommodation before having their mobiles with them which has become as important as their wallets, ID and/or money without which they cannot go out. In short, people seem to believe that they cannot survive without having an access on the WhatsApp application everywhere. What helps using the WhatsApp everywhere is that internet companies have been continuously encouraging offers for users to subscribe and use the internet facilities (including the WhatsApp application) everywhere and anywhere at a cheap rate.

Another disadvantage is the wastage of time caused by the WhatsApp as confirmed by 135:67.5% who indicated that the WhatsApp wastes time and in an unnoticeable way. An interviewee stated that:

> *The strange thing is that the WhatsApp steals our time…time passes quickly while we use it.*

The quotation reveals that people like and even love and enjoy using the WhatsApp because while they use it, they do not feel or notice time loss. We all know that time is relative and it is like money; the loss of time means loss of money and the time lost will never be regained.

Table 4 above shows that a considerable number of the questionnaire respondents (110:55%) indicated that the WhatsApp application takes the users away from their jobs. People are tempted to use the WhatsApp during their working hours. This finding comes in agreement with what was said by other 7 interviewees who confirmed beyond any doubt that the WhatsApp use caused them many occupational problems because it affected their productivity which resulted in complaints on behalf of employers.

The other disadvantage which was remarkably complained about was the use of the WhatsApp for exam cheating purposes in different academic institutions (e.g., schools, universities, etc. Nearly all the questionnaire respondents (189:94.5 %) indicated that the WhatsApp has certainly deteriorated the quality of education not only in Jordan, but also in most Arab countries, as they claimed. Openly speaking, we did not include any question in the questionnaire about the phenomenon of cheating. Nevertheless, in responding to the open-ended question where the respondents were supposed to add any issues other than those mentioned in the questionnaire, they unfortunately voiced their complaints and sadness about the extremely negative effect of the WhatsApp in exam halls. They stated that the WhatsApp cheaters in exams used to use calmly and secretly a wireless tiny speaker placed in their ears by which they receive answers for exam questions from their colleagues in/outside exam halls. Surprisingly, all the 10 interviewees with a bitterly manner confirmed this strange phenomenon of cheating which will harm our societies everywhere, as they voiced.

As we were shocked by the above negative educational outcome of cheating, we decided to shed some more light on this phenomenon. After a detailed discussion with the interviewees, we also decided to go an extra mile by interviewing two cheating practitioners who passed their GSCE (General Secondary Certificate Examination) recently and whom we promised not to reveal their names, as they requested. After we had investigated the circumstances, mechanism and the *know-how* of using the WhatsApp for cheating purposes in exams, we found that cheaters use highly sensitive *high-tech*. devices like an expensive tiny and highly sophisticated speakers placed deep in cheaters' ears by which the examinees receive answers from other excellent classmates available outside exam halls. When they were asked about the role of people who are outside schools, both respondents (the interviewees) indicated that:

> *...people outside schools take an exam paper (questions) from those excellent students who finish their exam early like...um in the first hour you know the exam duration of the Tawjehi [GSCE) is two hours and students on the lead usually submit their exam papers in the first hour and then go out of the exam hall with questions where they can uncover these questions back to the people outside the school, they start sending answers by the WhatsApp voice messages mathematical equations are usually sent by text messages.*

By the way, as indicated by two respondents, some female students can sometimes, not always, use their smart small mobiles to send and receive answers for difficult questions. Obviously, because physical touching of female students is prohibited in the Middle East for religious and social consideration, it would be easy to smuggle smart devices (e.g., tiny speakers, smart mobiles, etc.) into the exam halls, we believe. One of the interviewees (female) maintained that:

> *Of course I can take with me any small device into the exam hall because you know as females no one can touch us... .*

When we asked them about the lack of wireless internet coverage, one of the interviewees maintained that:

> *Well...we took that into consideration because we have people outside school who have strong big routers attached near the school to guarantee an internet high signal.*

Hearing these news and views about cheating by means of the WhatsApp, we found it difficult to end up our discussion at this stage about this strange and negative phenomenon which might harm the quality of education everywhere. Consequently, we went another extra-mile to reveal whether this phenomenon is confined to Jordan or practiced in other countries of the Middle East. Surprisingly, we were shocked and confused when we found out that in Egypt, the biggest Arab country, the phenomenon is widely spread since the year 2009 where students have been updating their style of cheating regularly. Egyptians even have been discussing the issue of cheating onpress levels. We also found many shocking titles worldwide pertinent to WhatsApp cheating. The following titles are a case in point ("New Way of Cheating-Line and Whatsapp," 2012):

How to cheat on exam with the WhatsApp

Cheating watch for students

Never study again for another exam

New ways of cheating-Line & WhatsApp

According to Egypt Independent (Tuesday 18 February 2014) a highly read Egyptian newspaper, students cheat secretly and make underground gangsters or grouping before exams start. These groups have certain cheating responsibilities to ensure sharing the same answers and/or information smoothly and at one go. Under the title: 'Technological advances innovate cheating in Egyptian schools, the Egyptian Independent (ibid) states that ("Technological advances innovate cheating in Egyptian schools," (2012):

> *High school teaching in Egypt may be moribund and low tech, but*
> *students are harnessing the power of innovation and technology*
> *for teaching*

In short, our google investigation revealed that sadly the phenomenon of cheating is widely spread in all countries. Surprisingly, we found that the phenomenon of cheating with the WhatsApp seems to be highly spread even in first world countries. The following titles exemplifies this:

> *WhatsApp fuels synchronized copying in exam-Bangalore Mirror*
> *Exam cheating technology in Japan*

Back to the disadvantages, astonishingly, from the 200 respondents who filled in the questionnaires, 90:45% of them indicated that the frequent and/or excessive use of the WhatsApp results in health problems or disorders. Nevertheless, only 3 interviewees out of 10 confirmed this matter. One of the educationalists stated that:

> *You know…the excessive use of the WhatsApp harms our health*
> *and increases our weight because the WhatsApp application is*
> *usually and in most cases carried out while we are sitting not walking*
> *…um…r…that means the lack of physical movement brings about*
> *overweight which might in turn cause cholesterol or triglyceride increase.*

Another Medical Ph.D holder who was a university professor confirmed the issue of health from another angel by stating that:

> …another negative point is… the excessive use of the WhatsApp is bad…
> As you know while we read and write texts of small characters because
> We need to focus a lot in making our pupa smaller…and creating eye
> lines and other disorders … we call these disorders as ophthalmic…eye…
> retinopathy, etc.

4. Conclusion

In this study, we have investigated the effect of the WhatsApp on university students' academic life and on people in general. Specifically, we discussed the advantages, disadvantages of the WhatsApp and why and how it has been used. In short, it seems that the WhatsApp application has three significant outcomes: it is not age-related, it is used positively and negatively; it is positive when it facilitates the communication and increases the channels of communication among its users to help in flowing information among people. It is also positive because it develops users' receptive and expressive vocabulary through received and produced texts. In addition, users develop their lexical ability by being exposed to various and varied vocabulary items, not to forget also the clear messages crystalized by attachments on top of becoming skillful in making summaries because users try always to shorten and condense their texts. Nevertheless, we all know that most advanced technological and internet applications and/or devices are really double-edged knives. Therefore, the WhatsApp application becomes negative when students and people in general become addict on and use it in educational cheating because this could have extremely negative and diverse impact on the educational outcomes, educationalists, students and the society as a whole since academic institutional outcomes become not indicative and not reliable. As a result students' grades or attainment could be faked. What is related to the educational issue is something surprising which we found in connection with grammar. It has been found that the WhatsApp might damage students' ability in grammar and vocabulary due to the new language which neither pure Arabic nor pure English; they use a blend of both. Finally, as it was confirmed that the WhatsApp is a source of time loss, governmental and private sector, department, bodies, companies, or other employers are advised to disconnect their employees from the WhatsApp application on the level of 3G and Wi Fi. Besides, mass media in developing and developed countries need to raise WhatsApp users' awareness and knowledge about the negative medical effect on health, as mentioned above.

As the WhatsApp application is new and renewable (updated on daily or weekly basis), we can safely state that more research is needed on other hidden unpronounceable advantages and/or disadvantages of it. Other researchers might investigate other aspects not tackled in our study like using the WhatsApp for social linguistic corruption (i.e., exchanging pornography among teenagers, annoying other users, infringing and violating personal privacy by hackers, etc.).

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WHO IS THE IDEAL TEACHER ACCORDING TO THE NATIONAL ELT CURRICULUM (2-8th GRADES)

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Abstract

Each curriculum specifies what is to be taught and in what order. In addition to this aspect of curriculum which serves as a road-map to instruction, the fact that it also outlines the qualities expected from a teacher who will eventually use, in better words, realize it in the classroom. In short, each curriculum portrays the ideal teacher. This paper looks into our national curriculum to understand the qualities of the ideal teacher by reviewing the curriculum as a document. It tries to portray the ideal teacher who must successfully realize the curriculum in hand. Findings of this study will help academics and curriculum developers understand the relationship between the curriculum and the teacher by focusing on the teacher as postulated in official documents. Such findings will also shed light on the need for professional development for teachers who will realize the curriculum in their schools.

Keywords: ideal language teacher, curriculum, language teacher qualities, professional development

1. Introduction

As articulated by Arikan (2017) “Prior to the 2014-2015 school year, English language courses used to start at the fourth grade in Turkish primary schools. Starting in the 2014-2015 school year, second graders in Turkish primary schools started to take English language courses with the implementation of the new national curriculum for primary schools’ grades 2 to 8. What made this curriculum different from previous ones was its insistence on curricular gains that were designed in consideration of communicative language teaching and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment (CEFR)” (p. 34). This new national English language curriculum was revised in accordance with the general objectives of Turkish National Education as defined in the Basic Law of the National Education No. 1739, along with the Main Principles of Turkish National Education. The present revision includes two major dimensions with three sub-dimensions for each, as follows:

1. Revision of the theoretical framework; a. Reviewing the curriculum with regards to values education b. Including the basic skills as themes c. Expanding certain subsections, such as testing and evaluation, and suggestions
2. Revision of each grade by; a. Revision of the target language skills and their linguistic realizations b. Evaluation and the update of the contexts, tasks and activities c. Analysis and general update of the curriculum in terms of functions and forms covered (T.C. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı, 2018, p. 3).

In designing the new English language curriculum, the principles and descriptors of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR) were closely followed. The CEFR particularly stresses the need for students to put their learning into real-life practice in order to support fluency, proficiency and language retention (CoE, 2001); accordingly, the new curricular model emphasizes language use in an authentic communicative environment.

As no single language teaching methodology was seen as flexible enough to meet the needs of learners at various stages and to address a wide range of learning styles, an eclectic mix of instructional techniques has been adopted, drawing on an action oriented approach in order to allow learners to experience English as a means of communication, rather than focusing on the language as a topic of study (p. 3). Key competences specified by the CEFR are:

Traditional Skills:

o Communication in mother tongue

o Communication in foreign languages

Digital Skills:

o Literacy

o Basic skills in math and science

Horizontal Skills:

o Learning to learn

o Social and civic responsibility

o Initiative and entrepreneurship

o Cultural awareness and creativity (p. 5)

These skills, apart from the traditional ones specified above, are rather new in our context because of what it includes such as the basic skills of math and science and having social and civic responsibility. In addition to these, raising cultural awareness and creativity is also new in our foreign language curriculum. Turkish national curriculum does not only specify the skills that should be mastered by the learners, but it mentions the values that should be transferred to students. The values specified in the document are friendship, justice, honesty, self-control, patience, respect, love, responsibility, patriotism, and altruism (p. 6).

Each curriculum as a document, be it at the national or the local level, specifies what is to be taught and in what order. Considering this, we can easily assume that each curriculum outlines the qualities expected from a teacher who will eventually use, in better words, realize it in the classroom. In short, each curriculum portrays the ideal teacher. In that sense, we can accept that the skills and values specified in our national curriculum can give us hints about the ideal teacher and the learner. In this study, then, I look into our national curriculum in a way to understand the qualities of the ideal teacher. By reviewing the curriculum as a document, I try to portray the ideal teacher who must successfully realize the curriculum in hand.

2. Method

A qualitative review of the EL teaching curricula by means of a document analysis procedure was followed in this study. By following a close-reading procedure of the Ministry of National Education’s curriculum for 2nd through 8th grades, a content analytical procedure was used. Emerging points that showed the qualities of the ideal teacher were categorized and coded, and a colleague compared the notes to the findings reached by the researcher to ensure that the emerging qualities could be read comprehensively.

3. Findings

Emotionality is an important aspect of the curriculum. According to the document, "Teachers must be able to transform learning into an enjoyable process" and "Teachers must be able to create love for learning a foreign language in learners" (p. 3). These findings show that according to the curriculum, teachers' knowledge and skills towards developing positive emotional relationships in the classroom is demanded.

Similarly, values are an important asset of the curriculum. Because the curriculum underlines the importance of values education, teachers must have sound knowledge of values and values education. Furthermore, knowing the student is emphasized as teachers must make use of a variety of instructional techniques incorporating different learning styles and cognitive characteristics of the students that is in line with students' developmental characteristics (p. 7). The curriculum insistence on values education suggests that teachers must have developed a strong sense of moral, ethical, and value-related codes before entering the classroom.

Coursebook dependence is a problem as specified in the curriculum. According to the curriculum, teachers must make use of a variety of instructional techniques incorporating different learning styles and cognitive characteristics of the students that is in line with students' developmental characteristics (p. 7). These findings also suggest that the curriculum considers all aspects related with foreign language teaching as a closely related entity of variety in teaching techniques.

Assessment of the four skills is also underlined in the curriculum. As specified in the curriculum, teachers must be able assess all four skills in a competent manner. While "All measurement must include the knowledge of and competence in the four skills," "Reflection and feedback must be used by teachers" (p. 7). Furthermore, alternative assessment methods and techniques must be known and used by teachers successfully. This need is especially targeting 2nd and 3rd grades' lessons and starting with the 5th grade, a variety of alternative assessment methods and techniques must be used by teachers (pp. 6-7). Among some others, because "Portfolio is proposed as an example of performance-based and authentic assessment" in our curriculum, teachers must be informed about these assessment types including self assessment through which "language learners gain responsibility for monitoring their own language learning" (Kırkgöz, 2012, p. 29).

The important place of knowledge of cultures has been approved by the curriculum makers as well. Because students must have a working knowledge of their own culture, the target cultures and other cultures, teachers must have competence in teaching and raising awareness on all these three types of cultures (pp. 6, 8, and 9).

Finally, it is specified in the curriculum that "Teachers must use drama and gestures and change their voices as appropriate, especially while voicing a different character" (p. 13). Hence, the curriculum recognizes the developmental qualities of young learners in a way that teachers' dramatic capabilities are recognized as of utmost importance.

4. Implications

This study provides a glimpse into our national curriculum to understand what is expected from English language teachers teaching 2nd to 8th grades. It is believed that results of this and similar studies will contribute both to our understanding of our curriculum as well as of the ideal teacher and student that is targeted by the curriculum designers. Results of this study further show that a series of actions should be taken to increase the quality of teaching. In order to do that, following actions should be taken seriously.

Learners' psychometric qualities such as what constitutes as elements of their cognitive and emotional development must skillfully be understood and carefully taken into account during the preparation and implementation of the curriculum by teachers. This was also acknowledged by Genç (2014) who states that "It is a fact that a teacher who knows his or her students while understanding their interests and needs is most likely to be successful" (p. 134). Furthermore, knowing that "there is a close relationship between emotions and learning" (Peker, 2014, p. 68), both students and teachers must be sensitized towards their emotions that are constantly being regulated in the classroom environment. Yule (2006) argues that learners with increased motivation are more likely to attain more successful results. Hence, because teachers must work to increase students' motivation, they must be informed about educational psychology in a way to increase their students' motivation.

Drama and use of the body is fundamentally important for teachers in realizing the curriculum. Knowing that the most significant difference between young and adult learners is the "way" they learn, that is, the former learning in social interaction, talk, noise and whole body movement whereas the latter learns in silence, necessity for educating teachers as accomplished drama and physical activity agents becomes obvious. Hence, the statement put forward by Bayyurt (2014) is especially true: "Unless one receives formation towards teaching young learners, one cannot teach languages to children at that age" (p. 125).

As suggested by Gürsoy (2012), "Topics and themes provide meaningful contexts for learning a foreign language by giving children a concrete setting for learning" (p. 75). Because there are various units, each being structured under a certain theme or topic, teachers must have general knowledge to make the flow of course content meaningful. Hence, courses focusing on values, digital literacy, humor, games and activities, and global/environmental issues must be added to the teacher education curricula mainly because the topics suggested by the curriculum necessitates teachers' working knowledge of such topics.

The reading of the document also showed that alternative assessment methods and techniques must successfully used by teachers, hence, such knowledge and skills must be taught unto prospective teachers in the BA programs.

While the question if current teacher selection procedures help selecting the most qualified teachers must be picked up by researchers as well as curriculum designers carefully and urgently, future research must focus on to what extent teacher education curricula and certification procedures prepare prospective teachers towards fulfilling the roles demanded by the curriculum.

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ESTABLISHING AN INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL: JOURNAL OF LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTIC STUDIES

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Abstract

In this paper, the editor-in-chief will introduce the journal starting from the days when, how, and by whom it was founded. JLLS is a professional, double blind peer-reviewed international journal that aims to involve scholars not only from Turkey, but also from all international academic and professional community. The journal provides a platform for different theoretical and thematic approaches to linguistics and language teaching. Only manuscripts written in English are accepted. The editors seek manuscripts that develop theoretical, conceptual, or methodological approaches to language and linguistics, present results of empirical research that advance the understanding of language and linguistics, and explore innovative policies and programs and describe and evaluate strategies for future action, and analyze issues of current interest.

*Keywords***:** international, journal, language, linguistics

1. Introduction

Academicians, teachers, students, scientists, etc. in any field from different nations should have successful modern research collaborations through which they will have the opportunity to engage themselves with interdisciplinary science, access innovative approaches to solve problems. In this way it is possible for them to acquire expertise in their field of study. “It is also a great way to establish a worldwide network of colleagues with a variety of backgrounds—scientific, cultural, or otherwise” (de Grijs, 2015, p. 1). A variety of important reasons for creating a journal can be given. However, providing a new and unique scholarly activity is in the lead. Next, we can mention to become scholarly recognized by your stake holders, too, on the international platform and the enrichment of your own research area can be given last but not the least. It will provide you with not only personal but your research discipline, your colleagues, institutional, national benefits, as well.

Stranack (2008) asserts that

> “You will become part of a wider network of scholars with similar interests and be exposed to new perspectives and innovations in your field. Becoming a managing editor provides outstanding experience and makes a powerful addition to any curriculum vitae, leading to promotions and appointments. This is also true for the community of authors, editors, and reviewers that will develop around your journal, all of whom will also accrue valuable experience and opportunities for career advancement. The recognition that comes from managing a journal can also lead to opportunities, such as invitations to speak at conferences or to collaborate in larger research initiatives. The potential for career benefits are an important factor in why you should consider starting a new journal” (p.7).

2. Background to Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies

As a member of the establishing team and the current editor-in-chief, I would like to mention how the idea to establish such a prestigious journal in the field of language and linguistics emerged almost fifteen years ago. At that time, I was an assistant professor of ELT at Hacettepe University. I first talked to the head of our department, Prof. Dr. Mehmet Demirezen. Then, we decided to work in collaboration with our ex-head of the ELT department, Prof. Dr. Cengiz Tosun who was the director of the School of Foreign Languages at Çankaya University and Prof. Dr. Aysu Erden, the ex-head of the department of linguistics at Hacettepe University. There was a unanimous decision on me to initiate the procedure to establish the journal. It was 2005 that we established our journal. The editorial board consisted of the above mentioned professionals first. Meanwhile, I have to admit that it was the only journal in our country for both language and linguistic studies. The journal was not indexed in any prestigious indices at the outset. The reviewers were carefully chosen according to their expertise.

Journal of Language and Linguistics Studies (JLLS) is a professional, double blind peer-reviewed international journal that aims to involve scholars not only from Turkey, but also from all international academic and professional community. The journal provides a platform for different theoretical and thematic approaches to linguistics and language teaching.

We accept only manuscripts written in English. The editors seek manuscripts that:

a. develop theoretical, conceptual, or methodological approaches to language and linguistics,
b. present results of empirical research that advance the understanding of language and linguistics,
c. explore innovative policies and programs and describe and evaluate strategies for future action, and
d. analyze issues of current interest.

2.1. JLLS Publication Frequency

When it was first published, it was biannual. As of 2018, it has changed as quarterly in March, June, September, and December (http://www.jlls.org/index.php/jlls). All of the following information about the journal has been taken from the journal web page

Indexing & Abstracting

- ERIC - Education Resources Information Center
- Ani International Journal Index
- ASOS Index
- EBSCOhost Online Research Databases - (No: 1606)
- ERIH (EUROPEAN REFERENCE INDEX FOR THE HUMANITIES AND THE SOCIAL SCIENCES)
- Linguistics Abstracts Online
- DOAJ (Directory of Open Access Journals)
- Google Scholar
- Index Copernicus
- InformIT
- Lockss
- MLA International Bibliography
- Routledge Educational Research Abstracts Online
- TUBITAK ULAKBIM National Databases - Social Sciences and Humanities Database

We are proud to announce that from 24 June 2016 and forward ***Journal of Language and Linguistics Studies*** (JLLS) is **indexed in ERIC - Education Resources Information Center** by the Institute of Education Sciences (IES) of the U.S. Department of Education.
ERIC indexing covers Volume 11 and forward. We hope that all the articles published in Volume 11 and forward will have been indexed in ERIC by the end of 2016. Included in ERIC, it has one important criterion for academicians in our country to apply for *associate professorship*. In that sense, it was the **first journal** in our country, too.

2.2. PILA Membership Agreement for DOI Number

We are happy to inform the authors that the PILA membership agreement via TUBITAK ULAKBIM DergiPark Represented Member has been signed on February 19, 2019. The articles to be published starting from our March issue in 2019 will be provided with DOI number.

2.3. Designation of Representatives

Business Contact. The following individual will be the main representative of Represented Member for purposes of this Agreement, providing guidance and direction in membership matters ("Business Contact"). This designation may be amended at any time by written notice:

Name: PROF. DR. ARİF SARIÇOBAN	Company: Selçuk University
Street Address: Edebiyat Fakültesi, İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Bölüm Başkanlığı Ofisi, Alaeddin Keykubad Kampüsü, Selçuklu, Konya	
City: Konya	State: N/A
Post Code: 42130	Country: Turkey
Phone: + 90 (332) 223 1533	Fax:
Email:saricobanarif @gmail.com	

Technical and Billing Contact. The following will be the representative of the Represented Member for the purposes of operational, billing and payment matters, providing technical coordination with PILA Operations and for general technical matters and information ("Technical and Billing Contact"). This section to be filled in by the Sponsoring Entity:

Name: Fatma BAŞAR	Company: TÜBİTAK ULAKBİM DergiPark
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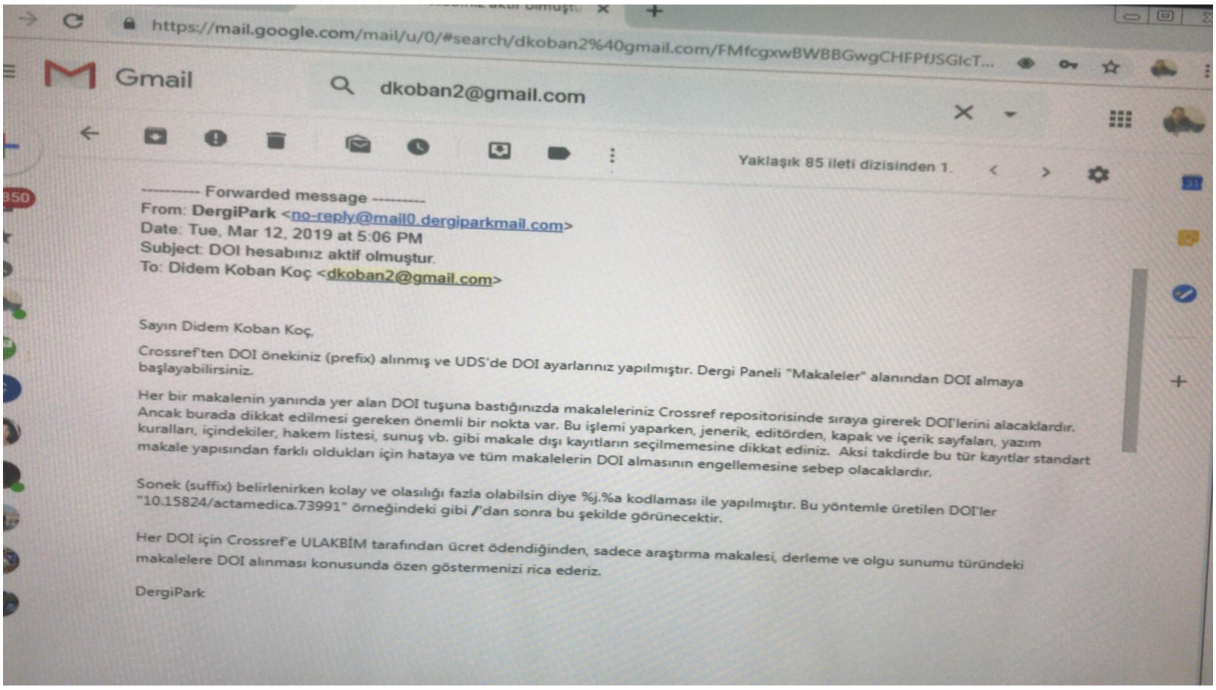

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Her bir makalenin yanında yer alan DOI tuşuna bastığınızda makaleleriniz Crossref repositorisinde sıraya girerek DOI'lerini alacaklardır. Ancak burada dikkat edilmesi gereken önemli bir nokta var. Bu işlemi yaparken, jenerik, editörden, kapak ve içerik sayfaları, yazım kuralları, içindekiler, hakem listesi, sunuş vb. gibi makale dışı kayıtların seçilmemesine dikkat ediniz. Aksi takdirde bu tür kayıtlar standart makale yapısından farklı oldukları için hataya ve tüm makalelerin DOI almasının engellemesine sebep olacaklardır.

Sonek (suffix) belirlenirken kolay ve olasılığı fazla olabilsin diye %j.%a kodlaması ile yapılmıştır. Bu yöntemle üretilen DOI'ler "10.15824/actamedica.73991" örneğindeki gibi /'dan sonra bu şekilde görünecektir.

Her DOI için Crossref'e ULAKBİM tarafından ücret ödendiğinden, sadece araştırma makalesi, derleme ve olgu sunumu türündeki makalelere DOI alınması konusunda özen göstermenizi rica ederiz.

DergiPark

2.4. Open Access Policy

This journal provides immediate open access to its content on the principle that making research freely available to the public supports a greater global exchange of knowledge.

Contribution Fee

As of 5 February 2019, Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies has started to get counseling service from a publication company. The authors of the articles accepted for publication after the blind review process need to pay a contribution fee of $100 or its equivalent in Turkish currency.

Authors will be informed of the bank account number or IBAN after their article is accepted for publication.

There are discount options (20%) for those authors who have already published in JLLS and those who have served in the editorial board membership and the review process.

2.5. Publication Ethics

Journal of Language and Linguistic studies (JLLS) is committed to the highest ethical standards. We encourage authors to refer to the *Committee on Publication Ethics' (COPE), International Standards for Authors* (https://publicationethics.org/resources/international-standards-for-editors-and-authors).If you have any questions or concerns about an ethical issue, please contact the Journal Editor at saricobanarif@gmail.com

2.6. Authors' Responsibilities

Before submitting an article, authors should ensure that they satisfy the following criteria.

1. Authors must claim, that the submission has not been previously published, nor is it before another journal for consideration (or an explanation has been provided in Comments to the Editor). If authors decide to submit their manuscript to another journal, they must withdraw their paper from JLLS.

2. The corresponding author will ensure that all contributing co-authors have approved the final version of the manuscript and agreed to its submission for publication. Only authors who have made a significant contribution to the submitted study will be included.

3. Authors must ensure that their manuscript is original and provide a list of references for the material that is taken from other sources.

4. Authors must acknowledge their funding for the submitted manuscript. They must state all sources of financial support they received and the role of the funder.

5. Authors must carefully read the copyright statement and accept responsibility for releasing necessary information during the submission process.

6. Authors should ensure that their data belong to them. If authors do not own the data, they must state that they have permission to use it.

7. Authors should ensure that they conform to all research ethics guidelines, especially if human or animal subjects are involved in their research. They should ensure that they obtained proof of consent from participants in their research.

8. Authors must state any potential conflict of interest on submission of their manuscript.

9. Authors are obliged to participate in a peer review process of their submitted manuscript. They should respond to all the comments and any recommendations of reviewers before the given deadline.

10. All contributing authors have a responsibility to inform the Editor of JLLS immediately, if any error or mistake occurs after the submission of a manuscript or after the publication of a manuscript.

2.7. Reviewers' Responsibilities

Reviewers should

1. keep the review process confidential,

2. inform the Journal Editor, if they suspect any potential competing interest, and

3. evaluate all manuscripts objectively and professionally during the review process.

2.8. Editors' Responsibilities

Editors should

1. ensure that the manuscripts conform to the ethical policies of their journal,

2. not discriminate against authors on the basis of gender, race, color, religion, national origin, and sexual orientation,

3. address authors' complaints and keep any documents related with the complaints,

4. ensure that the manuscripts are reviewed in a confidential manner,

5. ensure that authors and reviewers are properly advised regarding the review process as well as publication ethics and policies, and

Editors will

6. handle any misconduct that occurs during the submission process. If Editors become aware of that research misconduct or the use of fraudulent data has occurred, studies will not be eligible for publication,

7. not encourage such misconduct,

8. issue a **retraction** notice, if there is any evidence that the findings are unreliable due to error or misconduct; if the manuscript has been published elsewhere without any permission; if the manuscript involves plagiarism, and if the manuscript involves unethical research, and

9. request a **correction**, if a contributing author is omitted or an author who has not contributed to the manuscript is included in the author list. If an error or mistake is identified in a manuscript, corrections will be made immediately after Editors and all authors agree on the corrections. When necessary, Editors welcome and publish any retractions, corrections, and clarifications submitted by the authors.

2.9. Plagiarism Policy

Every manuscript submitted for publication in JLLS will be checked for plagiarism using the **Turnitin** program. If plagiarism is detected by the editors or peer reviewers, the editor will inform the author/s immediately, asking the author/s to rewrite the text or provide any necessary citations. If the author/s has/have plagiarized at least **20%** of the original source, the manuscript will not be eligible for review and publication.

2.10. Peer Review Process

- Peer review is the evaluation of manuscripts submitted to Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies by experts in related fields. Peer–review enables authors to receive critical feedback from experts on individual manuscripts.
- Reviewers evaluate the submitted manuscripts in an objective manner. They express their opinions clearly and support their comments.
- All submitted manuscript is kept confidential. Reviewers are not allowed to share or disclose unpublished information in a manuscript.
- Reviewers of JLLS avoid evaluating manuscripts in which they have conflicts of interest. They contact editors if there is any conflict of interest that could affect their evaluation of a manuscript. In those cases, they can reject reviewing the manuscript.
- Reviewers can recommend to author/s any related work that is not cited.

We use a double-blind system for peer review: The identities of both reviewers and authors remain anonymous. Each submitted manuscript is peer reviewed by at least two experts. In some rare cases, we may start a third round of peer review according to the recommendations from editors and reviewers.

2.11. Recruitment for Reviewers

Participation in the peer-review process is absolutely essential to the success and reputation of the journal. Reviewers and editors determine which works are of quality and significance. Due to our extensive readership, the research and scholarship selected by our reviewers will ultimately have an impact on literacy in national and international classrooms.

If you are interested in becoming a reviewer for JLLS, please contact us at jllsturkey@gmail.com or saricobanarif@gmail.com.

2.12. Acceptance Rate

A careful analysis of Table 1 simply indicates the overall acceptance rate is 45% for the last 5 years. The total submission to our journal during the last 5 years is 1.002, 667 of which have gone under blind review process. Only 451 out of 1.002 has been accepted for publications. The decline rate is 55%. However, there are some articles that have not been published although they got acceptance for publication due to the fact that they have not been able to present the ***Turnitin*** report and etc.

Table 1. Statistics for Issues for the Last 5 Years

Year	Issues	Submitted	Reviewed	Accepted	Acceptance %	Decline %
2014	2	**264**	202	**186**	70	30
2015	2	**76**	27	**20**	26	74
2016	2	**128**	103	**59**	46	54
2017	2	**172**	139	**80**	46	54
2018	4	**309**	187	**101**	33	67
2019	1	**53**	9	**5**	-	-
TOTAL		**1.002**	667	**451**	**45**	**55**

As can be seen, the editors have a wide variety of responsibilities for the journal to survive. They are responsible for the entire editorial and publishing processes as mentioned above. They typically establish the policies and procedures to set up the journal. Apart from that they assign submissions to the Section Editors, track the submission review and the editing process, and help for any problems in the process. They have to follow the completed submissions for publication and come up with the contents, the order in which the articles are listed.

3. How to Become an Editor

3.1. How Do You Become an Editor?

If you have aspirations to become an editor, one of the ways is through a direct invitation from a publisher. This may happen as a result of your expertise in a specific field of science or discipline, in particular when Publishers wish to publish a new journal. It could also be that you had approached them with the idea of setting up a new journal with their Publishing Company. Another way to become an editor is to set up your own journal with a University Publisher where you are employed. You may also chose to respond to an advertisement for an editor or associate editor post in a journal in your specialist field, when you will then be interviewed by the Publisher for the post.

3.2. What are the Typical Criteria for an Editor Position?

These would be:

- Expertise and experience in the specialist field related to the journal
- Publication record of a number of articles and /or books (usually in / related to the specialist field)

- Being a reviewer for an international peer reviewed journal

- Some journals ask for a PhD qualification or a senior research position with equivalent experience in research and scholarship

- Enthusiasm to undertake the Editor role, but ensuring recognition of all aspects of the reality of the role and the work involved

3.3. What is the Main Role and Responsibility of a Journal Editor?

The key role of a journal editor is to promote scholarship in the specialist field associated with the journal, whilst also promoting the journal as the best journal to publish in. For any journal the editor will need to encourage new and established authors to submit articles and set up a reliable panel of expert reviewers. Editors are also responsible for offering feedback to reviewers when required and ensure that any feedback to authors is constructive. In terms of responsibilities:

- An editor should endeavor to be a leader in the specific field of practice underpinning journal content as it helps the journal development, presence and standing within the international community.

- An editor should also familiarize themselves with the Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE) 'Code of Conduct and Best Practice Guidelines for Journal Editors'. This has a large resource on the topic of ethical conduct of journal editors, authors and reviewers.

- Depending on how the journal is managed and how it is structured, an Editor may have to make all the decisions regarding which articles to accept or reject for publication. However many journals will have Associate Editors, Assistant Editors or Section Editors to help them with making those important decisions. For example, any decision involving unethical practice, will often involve the publisher or their representative alongside the Editor and a Section Editor who has discovered the issue

- As an editor, you will have three or four groups of people to contact on a regular basis:

a) the publisher,

b) the authors

c) the reviewers and

d) in some journals direct contact with the production team who manage the publication side of the journal.

This latter group will work with the editor to agree which articles to place in each edition, ensure that the Editor does not use more than the agreed number of pages per issue (especially if paper based) and send editor information concerning all articles in their various stages of the editorial process. The Production team member dedicated to that Editor may also be responsible for communicating with authors and reviewers directly.

4. What is an Editorial Board?

An Editorial Board is primarily made up of a team of individuals that work directly with the Editor to develop the journal and promote new initiatives. Members of the Board may also take responsibility for key activities linked to the journal, for example the Book review editor or Section Editor (such as Section Editor for Systematic Reviews). The Editorial Board normally appoints a Chairperson, who could be one of the board members or could also be the Publisher. When there are meetings, either face to face, teleconferences or Skype, the Chairperson would manage the agenda and the meeting of the Editorial Board. Editorial Board members are chosen for their expertise in key areas related to the journal or chosen for their international presence in the field.

Depending on the roles and responsibilities set by the publisher, the Editor typically reports directly to the Editorial Board. A journal's Editorial Board normally undergoes a complete renewal after a set period determined by the Editor and Publisher (three years is an average time). This will involve removing some individuals, inviting others, and renewing some existing members for another term. It is important when inviting a Board member that this issue of term of office is included in the invitation letter to avoid any misunderstandings that can arise.

4.1. What is the Role of an Editorial Board? The Role of the Editorial Board is:

- To offer expertise in their specialist area
- To review submitted manuscripts
- To advise on journal policy and scope
- To work with the Editor to ensure ongoing development of the journal
- To identify topics for Special Issues of the journal or recommend a Conference which would promote the journal , which they might also help to organize and/or guest edit
- To attract new and established authors and article submissions
- To submit some of their own work for consideration, ensuring that they adhere to Conflict of Interest rules and stating their relationship to the journal. This is very important as the journal cannot be seen to publish only papers from members of the Editorial Board.
- It is important that Editorial Boards have a regular communication forum , either face to face in person (Depending on their country of origin, funding availability, etc.) or as more journals are doing today, communicating by teleconference or Skype type events.

4.2. How Does the Editor Choose Members of the Editorial Board?

The quality of a journal is in a way reflective of the quality of its Editor(s) and Editorial Board and its members. As such, it is recommended that a meticulous screening criterion be adopted for their appointment. There are no specific rules for the number of Board members appointed; this is entirely the responsibility of the Editor and / or the Publisher of the journal. In general the main Editorial Board should be smaller than any International Advisory Committee / Council, as its members need to support the editor with the immediate issues related to journal activity and development. Ideally many Editorial Boards are between 10-20 members.

The following issues can be considered when selecting members for your Editorial Board:

- The members need to represent the full geographical range where the journal is published (It would be necessary to see members on the main Board from other countries. These could also be invited to join an International Advisory Board –ensuring widespread dissemination of the journal's activities and content)
- Board Members' expertise should represent the subject area (s) covered by the journal's aim and scope (Policy).
- It is important that Board members are active in their specialist field and are therefore up to date with what is happening in research and developments in that field.
- Former Guest Editors of special issues and authors of key reviews

• Reviewers whose reviews are of a high standard over a long period of time and who have shown an interest in the direction of the journal

• Depending on the nature of the journal some Board members may be invited from business or other type of industry. This demonstrates affiliation with people in the field. Editors will exercise caution of course with any conflict of interest areas.

• Individual requests from people who wish to be considered for membership. Your publishing contact will be able to help you to assess the quality of candidates whom you might not know personally and you can also request a Curriculum Vitae (CV) from them along with a letter outlining their reason for the request and why they are interested in the role and publishing generally.

4.3. If it is an International Journal, What does the Editor Need to Ensure?

As an International journal, Editors need to ensure that the content is from a wide range of international authors, have an Editorial Board that has international expertise and where appropriate that are well represented geographically.

4.4. How can an International Advisory Board Support a Journal and Its Editor?

In addition to the above points, setting up an International Advisory Board or equivalent can help support a journal and its editors by sharing best practices with them. Different journals set up their boards and committees differently, so in order to add more structure, their roles should be made explicitly clear to the external community and not simply publish a list of their names on a page for display. An invitation to join this type of Board can also be an ideal way of thanking international reviewers for their excellent reviewing role and their support of the journal.

4.5. How can the Editor Check Whether the Journal is being Cited by Other Journals?

Use Scopus to search for (different variations of) the journal name in the "Source Title" field. The search will likely result in zero results or documents published in Scopus covered journals with similar journal names. Then click "View secondary documents" to find cited references from sources covered in Scopus that cite the journal name you searched for. Usually some trial and error with different name variants will give the best results.

5. What is a Special Issue of the Journal?

A 'Special Issue' is a collection of papers focused on a specific topic. It may also be a collection of papers from the Conference associated with the journal or linked Association. Both of which can then be used to promote the journal. Special Issues can also be a retrospective collection of papers published over time e.g. Problem-based learning 1999- 2012. There are also Special Issues that are used to market the journal and related journal activities such as international journal conferences.

6. What should an Editor Look for in an Article?

Depending on the type of journal and how many issues it publishes per year the editor will receive a varied number of articles on a regular basis. However, the Editor (s) should normally check the articles to see if they meet the minimum criteria for publication in the journal. This will ensure that some articles are rejected without being sent out to review and additional work for reviewers. In general an Editor is looking for essential characteristics in an article in order to maintain the quality of the journal. Examples are: The author has clearly read the aims and scope of the journal because the article meets that requirement - It should be well written in the language of the journal with a good abstract in both English and specific language (non –

English language journals) and the same in English language journals. In either journals it is important to make the article easy to read without complicated language - It should fit with the aims and scope of the journal and where possible it offers new knowledge and research findings (This will be dependent of the journal). - If it has good reviews from the reviewer with constructive comments for revision (very few articles are accepted without some required revision) it is expected that the authors will consider these comments and revise accordingly. - The article should not have any unethical publishing nor unethical research practices (see: http://www.elsevier.com/ethics/toolkit for factsheets on plagiarism, salami slicing, research fraud, duplicate submission, authorship and conflict of interest). - If it is a research article the authors should have included both an ethics statement regarding permission for the research to be conducted but also if human subjects involved it is also important to include a statement concerning protecting of research participants - It is expected as good practice that when authors submit their articles for review that a letter should accompany that article which states that all the authors are in agreement with the submission and that the paper is not being sent to another journal nor has it been published anywhere. - It is good practice to ensure that authors have considered all the author guidelines for the journal in relation to the article structure and content.

6.1. What should the Editor Do if a case of Plagiarism or Other Type of Unethical Publication Practice is Suspected?

There is now greater awareness for the need of publishers and editors to be more vigilant and report infringement of publication ethics. On a practical level the first thing an editor should do is conduct an early investigation using iThenticate/CrossCheck or other anti-plagiarism software if they have access to these programs. If they do not have access to one of these then they need to access by other means initially the articles that are related to the suspected case of plagiarism or other unethical practice to check accuracy of either the reviewer feedback and observations or the Editors own observations. This may be easier if they already have access to Platforms such as Science Direct for Elsevier articles. Anti-plagiarism software however will not identify “salami slicing”.

If the editor determines that there is case of plagiarism to be investigated then if the journal has a publisher who is in regular contact then they need to be notified. This will ensure that any communication with an author has their support .Some publishers have templates for Editors to use in such cases (see: Elsevier own guidance for authors for templates and other linked resources: http://www.elsevier.com/editors/perk). It is imperative that each case is looked at individually and therefore we do not advocate the use of one statement of actions to penalize the offender. Each case is considered separately and editors will need to decide if it is a deliberate action on the part of the author or is it due to lack of understanding of the requirements of ethical writing. This can happen for new authors or some authors where translation to English is often difficult. An example of this is where there are no words / phrases in that language that translate into English , and a developing practice noted by some Editors is the ‘ borrowing’ of words, phrases or often sentences that are considered appropriate for what they mean to say . Unfortunately for some authors this has proved problematic when the article is checked for plagiarism , because in some instances the ‘ borrowing’ of too many phrases, sentences and words means that a case of plagiarism is detected . Care is needed to ensure that this practice does not extend beyond what is helpful to the authors in their translation of their work. Many of the large Publishers offer the services of a Translator which can avoid this practice. There are two main instances where cases of plagiarism can be identified – at the reviewer stage and at the post-publication stage. This latter situation is slightly different in that most of these are identified by the authors who have been plagiarized or researchers using the articles that have been plagiarized from. If these are agreed to be plagiarized, the paper will be withdrawn from a journal and this will also be stamped across the paper wherever it is archived. The author in such circumstances may well experience serious consequences from his /her employer. Each individual journal needs to ensure that it has policies in place to manage unethical writing in articles and in research itself. To learn more about plagiarism and other breaches of publication ethics, you can refer to the Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE) guidelines here: http://publicationethics.org/resources/guidelines. They also have flow charts or decision making pathways for journal editors to consider when unethical practice is suspected.

7. Conclusion

The quality and the successful publication of journals significantly depends on those who voluntarily serve in the editorial and advisory board to contribute articles, and to review submissions. If so, this will satisfy potential authors for submission in your journal and readers, as well. It can be concluded that an effective editorial board creates energy and enthusiasm for the stake holders of your journal. They work in collaboration with the advisory board for articles of high-quality content to be published since they have experiences, a strong background of their fields. They provide new ideas and insights to promote your journal among a wide range of readers. It is because your journal can be included in the major indexing services, as well. In short, it is a team work.

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FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT IN ELT

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Abstract

Classroom management includes a variety of skills and techniques for teachers to help students become organized, focused, attentive on in-classroom tasks, and work/study orderly. Unless classroom-management strategies are utilized effectively, teachers cannot prevent the misbehaviors that hinder the learning and teaching process. Effective classroom management process help facilitate, enhance, and maximize the language learning behaviors for students and the teaching for teachers. Therefore, English language teachers' awareness of classroom management skills should be increased during their in-service education in the ELT departments and ELT Certificate courses for other teacher candidates in the field of linguistics, English language and literature, translation and interpretation, and etc. Therefore, this paper tries to focus on some important concepts such as teacher competencies, classroom management models and approaches, dimensions of classroom management, and humanistic view and classroom management.

Keywords: classroom management, teacher competencies, models and approaches, dimensions, humanistic view.

1. Introduction

Traditionally the term *classroom management* has been used interchangeably with the term *discipline*. The reality, however, is something different. Today when we say classroom management, we mean a variety of factors that help us turn the classrooms into places where learning and teaching can best take place. Classroom management focuses on ways to establish and maintain *workable systems* for classroom groups rather than on ways to spot and punish misbehavior. Effective classroom management helps resolve behavioral disorders, or capture the attention of individual students (Burden,1999),whereas *discipline* is the act of responding to misbehaving students in an effort to restore order (Levin&Nolan, 1991 cited in Burden 1999). Classroom management, on the surface, refers to such factors as time management, sitting arrangements, disruptive behavior, interruptions, teaching styles and strategies, and so on. Another important aspect of successful classroom management is that it involves not only responding effectively when problems occur, but preventing the frequent occurrence of problems by competent teachers, as well. Therefore, the ultimate purpose of this paper is to scrutinize some important concepts such as teacher competencies, classroom management models and approaches, humanistic view in classroom management process.

2. Teacher Competencies

In this respect we can first mention teachers' (a) subject-area (field) competencies, (b) professional competencies, (c) socio-cultural competencies, (d) research competencies, (e) curriculum competencies, (f) lifelong learning competencies, (g) emotional competencies, (h) communication competencies, (I) information and communication technologies competencies

(ICT) and (j) environmental competencies (Selvi, 2010). She summarizes these competencies as below:

(a) *Field Competencies* are related to the question of "what should school teach?" They refer to the content that the teacher and students will study.

(b) *Professional competencies* refer to the ability to create an effective learning environment, use instructional methods, strategies, techniques, activities that are appropriate to the subject matter and utilize materials, resources and technologies to provide meaningful learning

(c) *Socio-cultural competencies* include the knowledge about social-cultural background of students and teachers, local, national and international values, democracy and human rights issues, team and collaborative work with others, and social studies.

(d) *Research competencies* include being able to using research methods and techniques, designing and carrying out research via collaboration with colleagues and other specialists or people in their field of study.

(e) *Curriculum competencies* are of two types: curriculum development competencies and curriculum implementation competencies. *Curriculum competencies* contain the knowledge and skills in such issues as design, models, approaches, selecting and organizing the content, planning the teaching/learning activities, testing.

(f) *Lifelong learning competencies* refer to the teachers' responsibilities for their own learning and development of lifelong learning skills for students and also help learners to become responsible for their own learning.

(g) *Emotional competencies* refer to teachers' and students' values, morals, beliefs, attitudes, anxieties, motivation, empathy

(h) *Communication competencies* include communication models, interaction among teachers, students, social environment and learning topics.

(I) *Information and communication technologies competencies (ICT)* include the use of technology in managing and processing the information include all technologies for the manipulation and communication of information in the learning and teaching process.

(j) '*Classroom atmosphere competencies*' refer to the ability to create an effective learning environment including sitting arrangement, the order, lightening, heating, peripheral learning in the classroom.

In addition to all these above mentioned competencies, teachers should possess the knowledge, skills, and responsibilities required by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) in Turkey (Arslan, 2012, in Sarpkaya (edt.)). These are (a) personal and professional values-professional development, (b) getting to know students, (c) learning-teaching process, (d) tracking learning, improvement and evaluation, (e) relations among school, family, and society, and (f) program and content knowledge.

(a) *Personal and professional values-professional development*: Teachers should value their students as individuals, respect them, and have empathy with them. They should become aware of their learning process to guide them to learn how to learn.

(b) *Getting to know students*: Teachers should track their students' development, take their interests, needs, and individual differences into account. Each student has his/her own learning strategies. Their learning styles definitely differ. That will help them to act teachers as a guide and will help their students to become better learners.

(c) *Learning-teaching process*: Teachers should plan and design their lessons, provide effective learning materials, design extra-curricular activities, as well.

(d) *Tracking learning, improvement and evaluation*: They should determine the most appropriate assessment ways for their objectives in each lesson. They should analyze the learning behaviors of students and make assessments accordingly.

(e) *Relations among school, family, and society*: Teachers should work in collaboration with the school administration, parents, and the society itself since learning is not only limited to classroom environment. The needs of the society should seriously be taken into account.

(f) *Program and content knowledge*: The program content should be in accordance with the aims of Turkish national education. They should track developments in curriculum studies and equip and up-to-date themselves in that respect.

3. Classroom Management Models and Approaches

It is widely accepted that each model and approach provides teachers with a new perspective in their professional life. Among some of the approaches in classroom management process are (a) traditional/classical approach, (b) contemporary approach, (c) cause-effect approach, (d) preventive approach, (e) developmental approach, and (f) integrative approach (Arslan, 2012, in Sarpkaya (edt.)).

(a) *Traditional/classical approach*: It is teacher-centered (*Close-teaching*). Teachers teach. Learners learn. Teachers set the rules and the students are to obey them.

(b) *Contemporary approach*: It is learner-centered (*Open-teaching*). Teacher acts as a guide, helps learners to search for the knowledge and question it. This approach helps learners to develop themselves in cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains.

(c) *Stimulus and response approach*: It relies on rewards and punishment. It necessitates an appropriate responsive behavior to an undesired one(s). The ultimate aim is to change the undesired behavior.

(d) *Preventive approach*: It is a kind of approach in which the teachers guess the undesired behavior(s) in advance and take precautions for these behaviors.

(e) *Developmental approach*: It takes into account both physical and psychological developments of learners. Teachers plan and design activities according to their learners' mental, physical, emotional, and social developments.

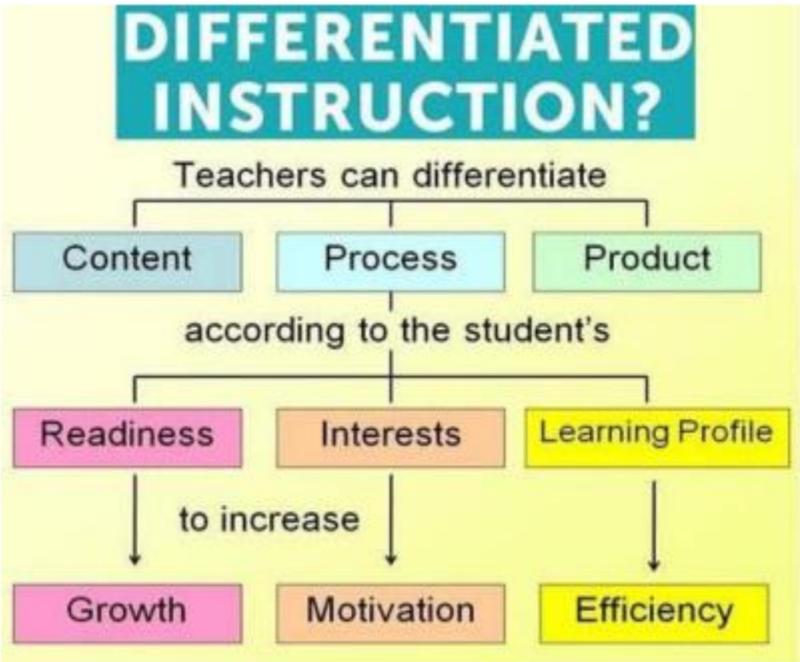
(f) *Integrative approach*: This approach takes all the factors into account as a whole. *Preventive classroom management* is foregrounded. If it does not work, then *Stimulus and response approach* is preferred.

4. Differentiated Instruction

As is discussed above in teacher competencies the most important characteristic of foreign language teachers is their competency to differentiate their instruction in terms their learners' interests, needs, and individual differences only because each student has his/her own learning strategies and styles. In this respect, foreign language teachers should have efforts to respond to variance among learners in the classroom. Tomlinson (2000 reports that whenever a teacher tries to create the best learning experience for his/her an individual or small group of learners, that teacher is differentiating instruction.

Teachers can differentiate content, process, and product according to their learners' readiness, interests, and learning profile to increase growth, motivation, and efficiency as is seen the Figure 1.

Figure 1. Differentiated Instruction



5. Conclusion

The ultimate aim of this paper is to highlight the importance of teacher competencies and models and approaches for effective classroom management. Teacher competencies does not mean teachers' teaching duties in the school. At this vein, some other important criteria should not be ignored in terms of their competencies in (a) personal and professional values-professional development, (b) getting to know students, (c) learning-teaching process, (d) tracking learning, improvement and evaluation, (e) relations among school, family, and society, and (f) program and content knowledge. The pre-service foreign language teacher training programs should emphasize the importance of these competences in a relevant course such as language teaching methodology and/or classroom management. Moreover, in-service teacher training activities should be planned and designed for novice teachers, as well. In any of these programs teachers should be made aware of how they can differentiate their instruction to create an effective learning environment. Solely, they can manage their classrooms effectively.

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TEACHERS AS RESEARCHERS: PERCEPTIONS AND CHALLENGES IN ELT

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Abstract

Teachers' perceptions about research and challenges with regards to doing research will be examined in this current study. A questionnaire was administered to EFL teachers and instructors. The questionnaire, modified, adapted and used by Biruk (2013) and O'Connor, Greene, & Anderson (2006) will be used by the researchers for the purpose of their study. The questionnaire consists of two main parts. In Part 1, the demographic profile of the respondents and in Part 2 the perceptions and challenges faced by the teachers in doing action research are questioned. The questionnaire is a 5-point Likert scale in terms of *totally agree, agree, undecided, disagree,* and *totally disagree* is used for all the items in the questionnaire. At the end of the study, some *implications for the policy makers, researchers, and school's officials will be made to address the needs of these teachers related to the issue.*

Keywords: teachers, researchers, perceptions, motivations, and challenges, ELT

1. Introduction

Action research and its effectiveness on classroom instruction are hot topics in teacher education (Hine, 2013; Hong & Lawrence, 2011; Mahani, 2012). The general belief is that when teachers become active participants in the education process and take a systematic and educated action towards classroom problems, they become "… the catalysts for change responsible agents for the improvement of their own classroom teaching and for uplifting students learning." (Ulla et al, 2017, p. 52). Through research, teachers can identify the problems in the classroom and become aware how to address them. One reason for the effectiveness of action research is that teachers are part of the process.

Establishing the connection between theory and practice has always been on the agenda of researchers and scholars. Marsden & Kasprowicz (2017; 614), for example, characterize the connection between research and teachers as "a reciprocal relationship in which teachers critically engage with research evidence and researchers engage with practice throughout the research process, that is, opening up a two-way street.". Decades ago, Ellis (1997) also accentuated the role of second language acquisition (SLA) research on teachers' cognitions and personal theories putting forward that it enables them to form their own principles and assumptions.

1.1. Literature Review

As part of research process, the importance of action research in teachers' professional development has been stressed by many researchers (Hine, 2013; Mahani, 2012; West, 2011). The effectiveness of action research stems from the fact that teachers become acquainted with new pedagogies that can produce promising results in their classroom and evaluate their own teaching (Ulla, 2017). This helps teachers reflect on their practice and learn from existing problems. In addition, Morales (2016) pointed out that doing action research teachers become more "accountable" for their teaching and improvement in their teaching. In particularly, Borg

(2014) found that teachers engaged in action research gained confidence in teaching, became knowledgeable on various academic topics, and became more motivated to teach.

Literature makes it clear that taking part in research enables teachers to improve teaching knowledge and confidence, enlarge their understanding of their own teaching styles and students learning strategies (Borg, 2014; Burns, 2010), and give them opportunities to improve their teaching practice. Therefore, schools or educational institutions must be aware of this role of research and incite teachers to engage in research. Teachers should be provided sufficient time in which they can plan and conduct their research. The institutions should also give them the background knowledge that they need to conduct research.

In order to highlight the issue the following research questions have been formulated:

1. *What are the teachers' perceptions about research?*
2. *What are the challenges they encounter in doing research*?

2. Methodology

2.1 Participants

The present study was conducted with 71 English language teachers at different public universities and schools. The number of female participants is 52 (73,2%) and male participants 19 (26,8%). In terms of their educational background, the number of B.A. holders is 49 (69%), for M.A. holders it is 7 (9,9%), and for Ph.D holders it is 11 (15,5%). With regard to experience, the number of those who have 1-5 years of experience is 52 (73,5%), 6-10 years is 6 (8,5%), and 11-over is 12 (98,6%). In terms of department of graduation, the number of ELT graduates is 23 (32,4%) and ELL graduates is 48 (67,6%). Finally, in relation to age, the number of participants in the 22-25 age range is 46 (64,8%), 26-30 is 7 (9,9%), and 31-over is 18 (25,4%).

2.2 Data Collection Tool

The present study is a quantitative study based on survey method. A questionnaire was prepared based on both Biruk (2013) and O'Connor, Greene, & Anderson (2006). The questionnaire was designed in three parts. Part 1 concerns the demographic profile of the participants. Part 2 is about the perceptions and Part 3 is about challenges faced by the teacher-respondents in doing research. Part 2 consists of 10 items and in the third part there are 15 items. All the items in the questionnaire are in 5-point Likert scale format in which answers range from strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), undecided (3), agree (4), and strongly agree (5). In total, there are 25 items in the questionnaire.

2.3 Reliability Analysis

The results of the reliability analysis of the questionnaire are given in Table 1 below. As we can see, the overall reliability level of the questionnaire was calculated as ,773, indicating a high level of reliability.

Table 1. *Reliability analysis*

Sub-dimensions	**Number of items**	**Cronbach's alpha value**
Teacher-respondents' perceptions on doing research	10	,920
Challenges that respondents faced in doing research	15	,874

3. Data Analysis and Results

Research question 1: What are the teachers' perceptions about research?

Table 2. *Descriptive statistics*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.Doing research is valuable to the teaching and learning process for me as a teacher	71	1,00	5,00	4,3099	,78543
2. Doing research is valuable to the teaching and learning process for my students.	71	1,00	5,00	4,2254	,79637
3. Doing research will positively impact my students' learning.	71	1,00	5,00	4,2676	,73597
4. Doing research project will positively impact my teaching.	71	1,00	5,00	4,2394	,85297
5. I view myself as a teacher-researcher	71	1,00	5,00	3,9718	,94070
6. Doing research will develop and enhance my skills professionally	71	1,00	5,00	4,2958	,72495
7. Doing research encourages critical self-reflection	71	1,00	5,00	4,3380	,73570
8. Doing research engages teachers into a more systematic examination of instruction or teaching practice.	71	2,00	5,00	4,1690	,77434
9. Doing research enables teachers to examine and explore classroom and school problems and their solutions	71	1,00	5,00	4,0704	,78055
10. Doing research helps teachers to acquire new knowledge for classroom teaching.	71	2,00	5,00	4,2394	,66472
Total	**71**			**4,21**	

Based on the results presented in Table 2, it can be said that the participants have a high level of agreement on the doing research (M=4,21). In particular, they believe that doing research encourages critical self-reflection (M=4,33) and it is valuable to the teaching and learning process (M=4,30). The participants also believe that doing research will develop and enhance their professional skills (M=4,29), positively impacts their students' learning (M=4,26), and their teaching (M=4,23). Finally, the participants are also of the opinion that conducting research helps teachers to acquire new knowledge for classroom teaching (M=4,23).

Research question 2: What are the challenges they encounter in doing research?

In this part of the research, there are some items negatively worded (Items:1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12). Therefore, the interpretations have been made accordingly and the reversed mean value results have been given in bold in Table 3 for these items.

Table 3. *Descriptive Statistics*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. I do not have enough knowledge how to do action research	71	1,00	5,00	2,8873	1,17776

2. I find doing research as time consuming	71	1,00	5,00	2,6056	1,28150
3. I am so busy with my own teaching practice and personal life to do research	71	1,00	5,00	2,9014	1,07111
4. I do not have much support from the school to do research.	71	1,00	5,00	3,0704	1,15045
5. I have no interest to do research at all	71	1,00	5,00	2,2958	1,17588
6. I am not motivated to do research	71	1,00	5,00	2,4507	1,11853
7. I have a low proficiency in English that hinders me to do research.	71	1,00	5,00	2,4930	1,18168
8. I do not see the importance of doing research in my professional life	71	1,00	5,00	2,0141	1,04871
9. There is insufficient reference materials (journals, research books, research reports and etc.) in the library	71	1,00	5,00	2,9718	1,13354
10. There is a shortage of training and seminar on research activities.	71	1,00	5,00	3,3099	,97967
11. There is insufficient budget in the school to undertake research.	71	1,00	5,00	3,2394	,96310
12. There is lack of recognitions to conducted research activities	71	1,00	5,00	3,1408	1,07299
13. Heavy teaching load affects the practice of research.	70	2,00	5,00	3,4429	,94233
14. There is a clear role of teachers in the school to conduct research.	70	1,00	5,00	3,4714	,92817
15. Teachers involvement in action research should be one criterion of promotion	71	1,00	5,00	3,0423	,99192
Total				2,8891	

A careful analysis of Table 3 simply indicates that the participants are almost undecided about the challenges they encounter about doing research. They have reported that the role of teachers in the school to conduct research cannot be underestimated to a great extend (M=3,47) and they almost agree that heavy teaching load affects the practice of research (M=3,44). However, they assert that there is a shortage of training and seminar on research activities (M=3,30), too. As to the recognitions to the conducted research activities they are almost neutral (M=3,14). Of course, each research necessitates a certain amount of budget to be conducted. For this issue, they report that they are not quite sure about it (M=3,23). The school administrations should support teachers in conducting research (M=3,07) since the participants seem neutral again for this important issue, and lastly another neutral case is that teachers' involvement in action research should be one criterion of promotion (M=3,04).

5. Discussion and Implications

As can be seen, the participants almost value the role of research in the education process. Therefore, more rigorous attention must be paid to bringing together teachers and the research community. According to Grima-Farrell (2017), the responsibility lies with teacher educators. They must equip pre-service teachers with the necessary skills to read or to conduct research. As such, it must be an important component of preservice EFL teacher education. Furthermore, continuous in-service trainings and collaboration is also reported to help teachers' professional development (Ulla et al. 2017).

On the other hand, there are some factors that prevent the effectiveness of research on pedagogy on the part of teachers. First of all, teachers do not believe that research can understand and solve their problems. Secondly, according to Shkedi (1998), teachers think that researchers cannot understand the problems peculiar to the classroom. What is more, the fact that teachers cannot access research is also another obstacle (Bartels, 2003). More importantly, according to Borg (1998), research articles are “inaccessible” to teachers based on their ‘heavy load of teaching hours per week’. And recently Banegas (2018) found that teachers view research as comprising solely of quantitative paradigm and fail to see that research is part of their job. All these factors come together and discourage language teachers from reading literature. As a result of this, a gap emerges between theory and practice. Therefore, effort must be exerted to close the gap between theory and practice and EFL teacher professional development as is also reported by the participants in terms of the fact that doing research encourages critical self-reflection, it is valuable to the teaching and learning, it will develop and enhance their professional skills, it positively impacts their students’ learning and their teaching by helping teachers to acquire new knowledge for classroom teaching, too.

Another significant issue is that the role of teachers in the school to conduct research cannot be underestimated. It is recommended that they should be provided with pre-and in-service training and seminar on research activities. Last but not least, they should be supported with a certain amount of budget to conduct research.

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REFLECTIONS OF ELT SENIORS UPON SCHOOL EXPERIENCE COURSE OBSERVATIONS

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Abstract

This study aims to find out the reflections of pre-service English teachers, namely seniors, upon their experiences in the School Experience course with regard to their observations, the tasks required for the term, the suitability of the state school, their cooperation with their mentors and the hardships they face. They were required to make observations and write reflection reports for 5 different tasks which were about teaching techniques, lesson management and class control, teacher explanations and questioning, effective use of textbook and assessment and evaluation. The participants observed the English teachers at a state Science High School for approximately 3 months. Half of the participants stated that the school reflected the realities of their future teaching conditions while the other half disagreed and stated that primary school would have been better for observations.

Keywords: pre-service teacher education, professional development, school experience course, teaching practicum

1.Introduction

The need for practicum courses is highly emphasized in the relevant literature to bridge the gap between theoretical knowledge gained at higher education institutions and practical knowledge gained at practicum schools, and to develop awareness about stakeholder roles and responsibilities (Allen & Wright, 2014). Student teachers can gain practical awareness about the intricacies of teaching practices such as classroom management, student evaluation, course book evaluation, lesson planning and different teaching techniques during the School Experience course (Ögeyık, 2010).

Teachers undergo three basic circles to become well-equipped and experienced educators in that first they are learners, then they are learners of teaching and finally they become teachers. Thus, they have learner period, pre-service teacher education period and finally in-service teacher education period where they are guided and given feedback at their schools for their long-run professional and personal development. In each period, their self-efficacy beliefs are open to change and the school experiences that student teachers receive before teaching practicum have the potential to affect their self-efficacy beliefs. It was found out that student teachers' perspectives about teaching have radically changed from "being in control through expertise" to "being in control through charisma and building relationship with students". Additionally, their initial reflections on school experiences were reported to focus on "self" more compared to students, and their beliefs displayed contrasts and variability after their school placement experiences (Ng, Nicholas, & Williams, 2010).

Teacher education in Turkey has a long history and some changes have been made so far. To exemplify, the authority of teacher education programmes was handed over from state schools included in the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) to the universities in 1982. There were some changes in teacher education programmes in 1997, 2006 and 2009, as well. For example, some undergraduate programmes with low employment opportunities were removed in the 1996-1997 academic year and the school levels were divided as primary and secondary in line with the changes in the 8-year compulsory education. Relevant curriculum changes were also made in the departments at educational faculties in the 1997-1998 academic year as a result of MoNE and Council of Higher Education (HEC-YÖK) coordination. In 2006, the course hours of field knowledge, professional knowledge and liberal knowledge were changed. In the 2014-2015 academic year, the duration of pre-service teacher education programmes of secondary school teaching was dropped from 5 years to 4 years. Finally, in 28.02.2017, HEC offered a new template to update and renew the content of pre-service teacher education programmes (YÖK, 2018).

In order to promote a more practice-based teacher education, the HEC incorporated the School Experience and Teaching Practice courses into the teacher education programmes in Turkey in 1997. At first, there were School Experience I and II, and Teaching Practicum courses but there were some changes during the 2006-2007 academic year and due to the lack of application schools, the two courses were united within a single course named as School Experience Course (YÖK, 2007).

The need for student teachers to be actively involved in their future workplaces resulted in the incorporation of the School Experience I-II and Teaching Practicum courses into pre-service teacher education programmes and a new model called "Faculty-School Cooperation" was designed and put into practice. The School Experience courses were 5-hour courses including 1-hour theoretical and 4-hour practical courses (Sarıtaş, 2007).

In the School Experience-I course, which was an observation and interview-based course aiming to help student teachers know the school, students and teachers better, there were 15 activities related to lesson plan, questioning, classroom management and school rules while there were 13 activities related to group works, preparing worksheets and tests in the School Experience-II course which aimed to increase student teachers' awareness and skills about short-time in-class activities, individual differences among students and coordination with colleagues. The mentor teacher at the state school was considered to be important to evaluate the progress of the student teacher in these courses (YÖK-HEC, 1998; as cited in Kılınç & Altuk, 2010).

In the 2018-2019 academic year, the new undergraduate programme for pre-service teacher education was introduced by the HEC. In this new programme, the School Experience course was removed and instead the Teaching Practicum I course was added. Thus, the senior student teachers are expected to take the Teaching Practicum-I course in the fall semester and take the Teaching Practicum-II course in the spring semester in their final years (YÖK-HEC, 2018).

A growing body of research is devoted to the perceptions of student teachers in different departments towards the School Experience course. To exemplify, Kılınç and Altuk (2010) examined the attitudes of 287 elementary student teachers towards the school experience courses via a 20-item Likert type scale at Ahi Evran University and found out that the participants mostly held favourable perspectives towards the course. However, gender and age factors did not yield any significant differences among the participants. In addition, Şavlı (2013) drew attention to student teachers' observation problems in the School Experience course at French Language Teaching Department and offered a template for observation forms to improve the efficiency of the course and provide a systematic observation and application. These forms included observation activities related to teachers, students, school principal, questioning techniques, testing and evaluation of student performance, classroom management, group work, lesson planning, teaching methods and materials.

There are a number of contributions of the School Experience course in that it can enhance student teachers' teaching perspectives quantitatively and qualitatively in terms of being a good role-model for children, high level of empathy, professional development, communication with parents, awareness about children's individual differences, love of children and efficient time management. These emerging themes, displaying 30 pre-school student teachers' increased awareness about teaching profession, were gained via a teacher perceptions form at a state university in Turkey (Ekinci & Tican Başaran, 2015). Additionally, 67 physical education student teachers were held a semi-structured questionnaire regarding their perspectives about the School Experience course in terms of the practice teacher, practice school, course activities and practice instructor. It was found out that they generally held positive opinions about the course. The participants reported both positive and negative opinions about practice teacher qualities like communication skills and prior preparation for the lesson. For the practice school, they focused on insufficient school facilities, crowded classrooms, and lack of student motivation. For the course, they stated that they learned about a real school atmosphere, official documents and sufficient course hours. As to the practice instructor, they said that there should be extra points for attendance, more flexibility in activity reports, and alternatives to choose the practice school. Finally, they suggested a written midterm examination (Güllü & Temel, 2016).

Another unit where student teachers receive both theoretical and practical courses is Pedagogical Formation Training programme. Student teachers attending this programme at higher education institutions were also found to face some challenges in the School Experience course including teacher-related issues (lack of motivation, lack of pedagogical competency, time management problems, miscommunication with students, unfavourable personal qualities, rote teaching), school-related issues (lack of physical facilities, lack of technological tool usage, inefficient counselling services), and student-related issues (lack of motivation, absence of preparation, misbehaviour and large number of students). In order to solve the problems faced, the participants suggested the incorporation of constructive approach, considering students' individual differences, utilising technological devises more, existence of favourable teacher qualities and teacher preparation for classes (Özdaş, 2018). As for some different departments, the views of 122 student teachers at Mathematics and Science Education and Basic Education Departments at a state university in Turkey concluded that the School Experience course was regarded to be beneficial to gain practical experience in terms of classroom management, teaching methods, building rapport with students, better recognition of future workplaces, improvement of communication skills, and thus the course should not be removed from the programme. Some of the participants indicated that the course hours should be increased and it should be given in the third year of the programme. They also mentioned that the course is useful to the profession and necessary to gain experience in terms of classroom management knowledge, method and technique usage knowledge, student-teacher relationship, practice, school recognition, and teacher observation (Yüksel & Kırkçiçek, 2019).

School Experience and Teaching Practicum courses offer invaluable set of practical experiences for student teachers and require careful coordination among the stakeholders. However, the criteria for choosing practice teachers or mentor teachers appointed to supervise student teachers and certain probable challenges are open to debate. In this regard, Göktaş and Şad (2014) conducted a case study to determine these criteria, challenges and educational implications to better the existing situation. Based on the semi-structured interviews conducted with different stakeholders (university coordinator, assistant coordinators, former university coordinators, coordinator of provincial directorate general of national education, school principals and teachers) in order to provide a multifaceted analysis, it was found out that feedback from stakeholders formed the basis of the criteria and there were some problems about school administration and feelings of injustice. A more effective coordination between the institutions, namely university and school, performance-based teacher assignment, the school's physical conditions, feedback from student teachers about the application, and inclusion of an effective in-service teacher training programme for mentor teachers were suggested to bridge the theory-practice gap.

If student teachers are required to write a weekly report about their observations, feelings, suggestions and criticism about their experiences in the School Experience course, they are likely to be involved in reflective teaching practices. According to Schön (1983, 1987), there are two types of reflective practice, namely reflection in action and reflection on action. The former is an interaction reflection where decision making is led by tacit knowledge which emerges at the time of action whereas the latter is a retroactive reflection where the reflection takes place after the action. In this regard, the teacher can be involved in reflection either while teaching or after teaching in order to see what worked, what failed, what to do next time, what to add, what to remove and how to better their teaching practices in the course of time. However, while student teachers were reported to benefit from reflection on action, they were reported to have difficulties when engaged in reflection in action due to the wide range of personal and professional experiences and changes at the time of teaching practice (Zhu, 2011). In this regard, while making observations and writing reports, student teachers can enhance their observation and reflection competencies during the School Experience course and they can see it as the first step into their professional development in addition to improving their field knowledge, lesson planning, teaching practices, communication, classroom management and testing competencies. When student teachers are involved in sharing their opinions in their School Experience courses, it means they are engaged in reflective teaching which influences their acting and thinking, and contributes to their personal growth (Altinay & Altinay, 2012).

The benefits and necessities of the School Experience course have been widely acknowledged but the problems and challenges about the course have also found a place in the relevant literature. In this context, the student teachers taking the School Experience-I course reported that the course is a useful and necessary one but they also indicated that they could not find the opportunities to work in groups or benefit from the guidance of the mentor teachers or supervisors. They stated that they noticed that their professional knowledge is insufficient and found the duration of observation too short (Kudu, Özbek, & Bindak, 2006).

In light of the existing literature, it can be said that the School Experience and Teaching Practicum courses have largely attracted the attention of researchers from different teaching departments and are still open to debate to enhance the quality of pre-service teacher education programmes and add a different dimension to the self-efficacy beliefs of student teachers. Therefore, this study aims to find out the reflections of pre-service English teachers, namely seniors, upon their experiences in the School Experience course with regard to their observations, the tasks required for the term, their opinions about writing reflection papers, the suitability of the state school, their cooperation with their mentors and the hardships they face in Turkish EFL context.

2. Methodology

The study is a qualitative descriptive study (Cresswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003), which aims to reveal student teachers' deeper understanding of their teaching actions and their perspectives about the School Experience course. Convenience sampling was preferred because the participants were within easy reach for the researcher (Dörnyei, 2007).

10 ELT seniors (6 females and 4 males) taking the School Experience course participated in the study in the 2018-2019 academic year in the fall term. They were required to make observations and write reports for 5 different tasks which were about teaching techniques, lesson management and class control, teacher explanations and questioning, effective use of textbook and assessment and evaluation. The participants observed the English teachers at a state Science High School for approximately 3 months and they were given two weeks to make observation about a specific topic and write a reflection report including the results of their observation, the answers to the questions found in the relevant task and finally their thoughts, feelings, criticism and suggestions.

After the completion of the School Experience course, the participants were applied a survey regarding their experiences and perspectives about the course, in return for extra 10 points for their final grades. There were 9 question items in the questionnaire and the participants were expected and encouraged to share their opinions and reflect their feelings as detailed and realistic as possible. The written perspectives of the participants were subjected to content analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994) and some quotations were included to exemplify the related emerging theme. The participants were given different numbers (P1 for the first participant and P2 for the second participant) in order to ensure anonymity and the researcher referred to the Excel programme to code and categorise the gathered qualitative data.

3. Results

In light of the gathered data, it was found out that half of the participants (N:5) stated that the observation school reflected the realities of their future teaching conditions while the other half disagreed and stated that a primary school would have been better for observations.

The participants who found the school appropriate for observation focused on English teacher qualities, positive student characteristics and student profile, gaining practical awareness, intellectual capacity of the students, school facilities and provision of a real teaching environment. One of them pointed out that science courses were considered to be more important courses than English courses.

P10: The school where I made observation has had lots of possibilities and also qualified English teachers; however, English has taken a backseat to the other lessons. Even if English teachers has made an effort to teach English and made the lesson more entertaining, students has lost their interests after a while, and the other lessons are more important than English for them. I think the school was appropriate for our observation, because we have had a chance to observe fairly intelligent and gifted students. In addition, our supervisor teacher has taught us lots of things and we have had a chance to benefit from her valued experiments for our professional lives. The school was a real environment, we have observed real learners, their levels, interests, approaches and real learning process. They were really efficient experiments for our future teaching conditions.

The other participants with unfavourable attitudes stated that their future context may not have such a student profile or school facilities. They added that they might come across student misbehaviours, technical drawbacks or unqualified colleagues in different parts of Turkish EFL context.

P2: … the students were successful, respectful and sociable and the teachers were very good at their jobs. We observed 10th and 11th grade students' lessons and I learned how to teach the topics and how to behave the students while teaching. The students keep quiet and they do not do inappropriate things in lessons, they just listen and respond the teachers' questions. But the *other schools' students are not like that, so we did not face with the real problems about the students or teachers. So I think that the school does not reflect the realities of the teaching conditions.*

Regarding their opinions, all the participants (N: 10) were found to have favourable attitudes towards their mentor teachers and found school experience course important for their professional skills and identity. Some participant quotations are given below.

P1: The supervisor teachers at my observation school were really helpful and collaborative. Especially, my supervisor teacher was helpful. She gave many advices to us about English teaching, students, textbooks, materials, examination, and her experiences about teaching and so on. I learned different knowledge about life, English, music, films, books from her. In addition, I had some ideas about classroom management, quiz preparation and assessment, how I can teach English in high school, communication with students so on.

As to the theory-practice gap, 7 of them indicated that they came across some discrepancies between their theoretical courses at university and school experience practices in terms of approaches, technology usage and materials. Sample quotations are given about the related question item.

P1: There are some discrepancies between my theoretical courses at university and my school experience school. There is no certainty in real teaching environment, and everything can happen. For example, in university course, we learned making lesson plans with objectives, approaches, materials, language levels, grades etc. However, in real teaching, it was not like we learned. Teacher was teaching English by using her textbook and doing exercises in it. When we had presentations (ex. Young learners lessons), we made materials and taught English with these materials. While teaching grammar, we did not teach it by giving rules, our teacher wanted us to teach it in form focused instruction and using different materials. However, at my school experience school, teacher did not use different approaches and materials. She taught grammar with rules and sentence translation.

P9: Our instructors always warn us about that while teaching English we should not teach English like a maths or physics course. We should give students these rules implicitly. But these teachers remind the students to write abbreviations under the sentence such as "S" for subject "V" for verb by underlining them.

As for writing reflection papers, 8 of them stated that two weeks was enough to make observations and write reports about the tasks and 5 of them reported that they encountered some difficulties while making observations and writing reports due some reasons like task complexity, time constraints, and student misbehaviours.

P4: It was quite enough for us. If it would be one week we could have difficulties, because some of the weeks the observation topics weren't related the topic the school teacher taught. In two weeks we could flexibly complete it. We observed class better what was their mood what were they doing how they distracted etc.

Some of the weeks, I encountered some basic difficulties. The observation topics weren't related the topic in school. For example, in a topic we were expected to observe teacher's using technological devices but there weren't any technological devices in class because teacher had to teach a grammar topic so we observed it the other week. Smart board was activated it was another difficulty for us.

As to the importance of the tasks for the student teachers, 6 indicated that all the tasks are equally important, while 2 found classroom management task the most important and 2 found the task of effective use of textbooks the least important observation task. Their comments emphasize the difficulty of testing, scoring, class control.

P5: The most important task was analysing a quiz. I have learned how I can prepare a quiz and analyse it while doing that task. Also, preparing a quiz, observing students while they were doing my quiz or analysing their quizzes affected me very much. I have felt that there is a little time to become an English teacher, and it made me happy very much, because I have felt I can be English teacher.

Finally, the participants reported the need for earlier introduction to school experience courses and suggested visiting different types and levels of schools for better integration into their future teaching environments. Their suggestions and criticisms are exemplified in the quotations below.

P7: In my opinion, students should not be obliged to do a certain thing in the observation process, in short, the presence of students for observation at school causes them to make voluntary or involuntary observations and contribute to their professional life. In other words, a process should be created where the students can express themselves and their experiences more easily, rather than under a mould. In addition, I would like to thank my mentor teacher for her supportive attitude during this process. When we had a problem, we were able to consult and get help.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

Practice-based courses such as the School Experience and Teaching practicum offer student teachers opportunities to build a bridge between their declarative and procedural knowledge by placing them into real teaching environments with real learners (Allen & Wright, 2014). What they experience during their teaching practices can influence their cognition and help them set more realistic goals and expectations for their future teaching situations. Moreover, when student teachers are engaged in writing reports about their observations, they can get the sense of reflective teaching (Schön, 1987; Altinay & Altinay, 2012) and turn it into a teaching habit for their teaching career in the long term.

The study findings bear some similarities and differences compared to the relevant studies in the literature. Similar to the study of Ögeyık (2010), the participant student teachers were found to gain practical awareness about classroom management, student evaluation, coursebook evaluation, lesson planning and different teaching techniques during the School Experience course. In parallel with Kılınç and Altuk (2010), the participants were found to have positive opinions about the course. However, some of the participants stated that a science high school may not be a realistic environment for their future teaching practices while some preferred to teach at a primary school instead of a high school in order to display what they have learnt at Teaching English to Young Learners course. Echoing Güllü and Temel (2016) and Özdaş (2018), communication skills of the mentor teacher and crowded classrooms were among the frequently emerging themes in the written explanations of the participants. Earlier introduction to practical courses was also emphasized by some of the participants (Yüksel & Kırkçiçek, 2019).

Teacher educators can benefit from such classroom-based data which come from student teacher' perspectives for their own reflective teaching purposes and adapt their teaching and assessing styles for future courses. Such classroom-based data enrich the understanding of the stages, challenges and discrepancies that student teachers go through while trying to reach towards a synthesis based on their prior theoretical knowledge and new practical knowledge.

Student teachers need to be given clear instructions about what to observe, how to observe and how to write a reflection report for a systematic observation (Şavlı, 2013) so that they can be equipped with explicit guidelines and criteria to refer to. The number and content of the tasks are also important since they should prepare the student teacher for the real teaching environment in every aspect. Thus, the duration to write reflection reports should be flexible depending on the task complexity and attendance situation. Earlier involvement in practical courses seems to be a good alternative for earlier induction into the professional setting. However, there should be clear criteria or alternatives to choose the practicum school (Güllü & Temel, 2016) for undergraduate programmes since some students may have transportation problems or have a specific preference due to the location, student profile, physical and technological facilities or level and type of the practicum school. In this regard, policy makers can focus on real needs of the pre-service teachers by regarding field studies and take the study findings into consideration while making changes in the curriculum.

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THE ROLE OF SOCIAL MEDIA IN EFL LEARNING: USED EFFECTIVELY OR NOT

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Abstract

Social media is currently regarded as the most popular online tool among youngsters who are allured by such a virtual life. It can be employed by English language learners in forming learning groups where students can interact with each other and practice English. Thus, the aim of this study is to inquire whether social media is a functional platform for Turkish EFL students in learning English. The data of this phenomenological study were collected through a questionnaire and semi-structured interview questions. The participants of the study consist of 240 EFL university students− 220 respondents for the questionnaire and 20 respondents for the interview. The results of the study presented diverse views of Turkish EFL students on the use of social media sources, as well as indicating that Instagram is the most used social media tool among youngsters.

Keywords: English as a foreign language, social media, Web 2.0 technologies

1. Introduction

Once serving mainly as a supporter, technology is now playing a vital role in initiating the learning practices. It can supply a flexible learning atmosphere in which learners can really discover anything and participate within the process. For instance, hypermedia alone can disclose the degree of competency, content knowledge, and learner motivation. It can assist learners with limited English proficiency through which they can observe their understanding and language output (Svedkauskaite, Reza-Hernandez, Clifford, Valdez, & Durian, 2003). Through using Web 2.0 technologies like Facebook and blogs, computer users are now able to make their own websites, edit others' works, and comment on any data, as well as posting videos and audio files. Such technological chances started to be included more and more in the learning atmosphere since they provide the learners with the required interaction with each other and study in cooperation. The interaction and collaboration that are achieved by means of Web 2.0 technologies may be specifically useful for English as second language learners since they will be asked to employ their English in authentic-like environments through interacting with both natives and non-natives of English (Wright & Hill, 2011).

Web 2.0 technologies are thoroughly social, being known for having the characteristics of connectivity, modifiability, collaboration, and social networking. The initial form of the World Wide Web is known as Web 1.0. which is known static. It supplied users with little or no chance for interaction in which users were not able to edit the content on websites. It was generally "read-only" form of the Internet. On the other hand, Web 2.0 addresses to the employment of technologies which provide user-centered works, as well as interaction and collaboration. Web 2.0 technologies cover blogs, wikis, podcasts, twitter, Facebook, etc. (Anderson, 2007).

The Web 2.0 helps learners acquire the target language more. Podcasts, for instance, expose learners to the language both at school and at home (Sprague & Pixley, 2008). Yet, we can count some worries about the properness of the materials that students encounter, where not all videos are educationally convenient (Mullen & Wedwick, 2008). The Web 2.0 takes place more in the EFL learning settings, in which the needs of students may necessitate a peculiar kind of pedagogical design of educational tools. Interactive content in Web 2.0 tools may supply the learners with the authentic skills not presented by static Web 1.0 tools (Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2006). Extending English language learning out of school time and maximizing learning for the learners may be provided by Web 2.0 technologies in which learners own more opportunities to do effective language activities through the comfort of their own homes (De Ramirez, 2009). Considering the mentioned aspects of Web 2.0 technologies, this study investigates the use of social media in EFL learning by discovering students' general practices of it.

2. Method

Participants

The study covers 240 EFL university students− 220 respondents for the questionnaire and 20 respondents for the interview. The participants of the study are preparatory class university students from Adana Alparslan Türkeş Science and Technology University, Turkey. 220 participants were given a questionnaire while 20 respondents were interviewed. All the participants voluntarily took part in the study. The convenience sampling method was employed for choosing the participants as the target population was too large and not reachable.

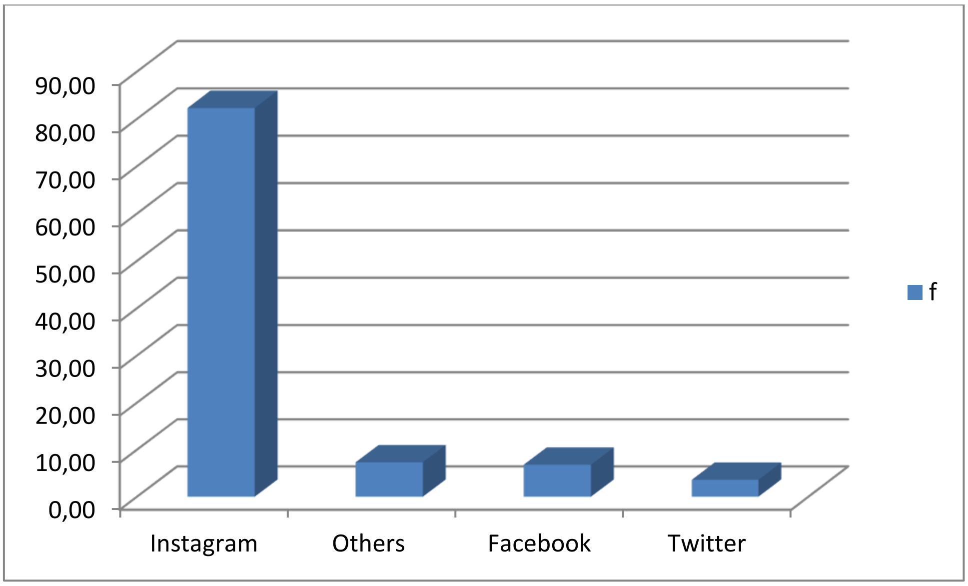
Instruments and Data Procedure

A mix-method research design, based on both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection, was utilized in this study. The instruments included: (1) a questionnaire designed by Kabilan, Ahmad, and Abidin (2010), and (2) a semi-structured interview formed by the researchers. Each item in the questionnaire is composed of five options varying from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." Based on a *Phenomenographic Research*, this study included the data analysis of descriptive statistics. The data of the interview were discovered and depicted in the study while the data collected from the questionnaire were inquired by means of descriptive statistics (SPSS 24.0). For the analysis of the questionnaire, mean was employed as a statistical technique to conceive the extent of approval for each item. The following scores were utilized to compare the means: (1) strongly disagree: 1.00 – 1.49, (2) disagree: 1.50 – 2.49, (3) slightly agree: 2.50 – 3.49, (4) agree: 3.50 – 4.49, (5) strongly agree: 4.50 – 5.00.

3. Data Analysis and Results

In this part, the results of the study and the findings are described based on the data obtained from the respondents by means of the instruments. Figure 1 provides an overview of the rate of Web 2.0 technologies preferred or used by the students.

Figure 1. Popularity of Web 2.0 Technologies among Students



As it is clearly observed from Figure 1, Instagram is the most remarkably preferred (f=82.30) Web 2.0 technology among students. Further, a small group of students (f= 7.30) stated to use other Web 2.0 technologies. Additionally, Facebook is another Web 2.0 technology which is slightly preferred (f= 6.80) by the students. Lastly, Twitter is the most scarcely (f= 3.60) utilized Web 2.0 technology within this category. The following figure displays how long the students have used Web 2.0 technologies.

Figure 2. How long Web 2.0 Technologies Used by the Students

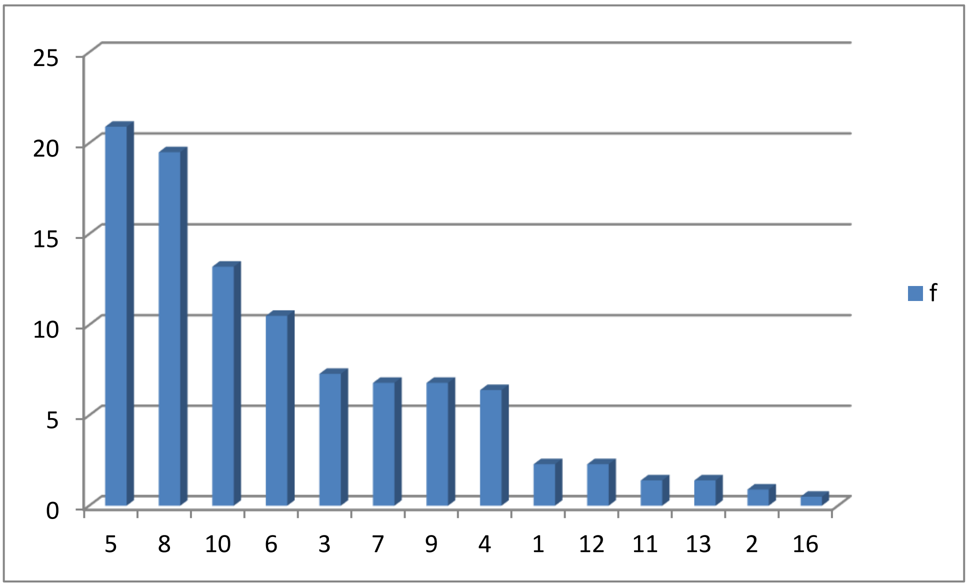
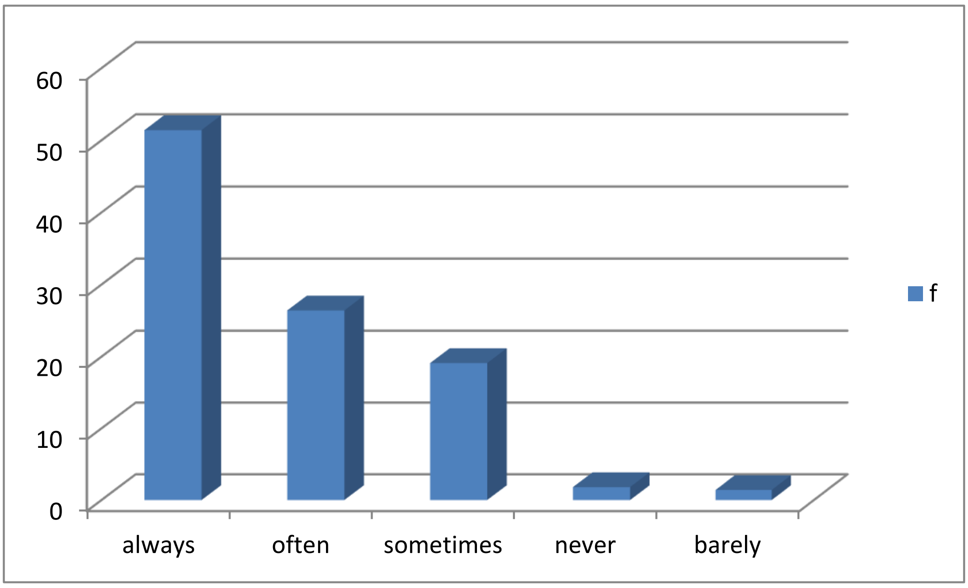


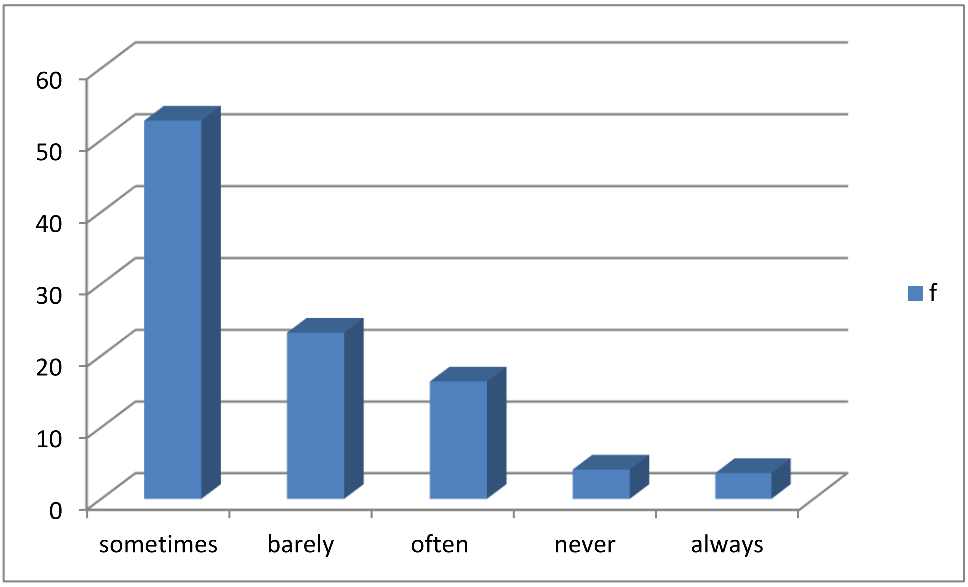
Figure 1 displays that majority of the students (f= 20.9) have used Web 2.0 technologies for 5 years. Further, a big number of students (f= 19.5) have used it for 8 years while the rest of the students stated the following years of usage: 13.2% for 10 years; 10.5% for 6 years; 7.3% for 3 years; 6.8% for 7 years; 6.8% for 9 years; 6.4% for 4 years; 2.3% for 1 year; 2.3% for 12 years; 1.4% for 11 years; 1.4% for 13 years; 0.9% for 2 years; and 0.5% for 16 years. The next figure portrays the frequency of Turkish language used by the students in Web 2.0 Technologies.

Figure 3. The Frequency of Turkish Language Use in Web 2.0 Technologies



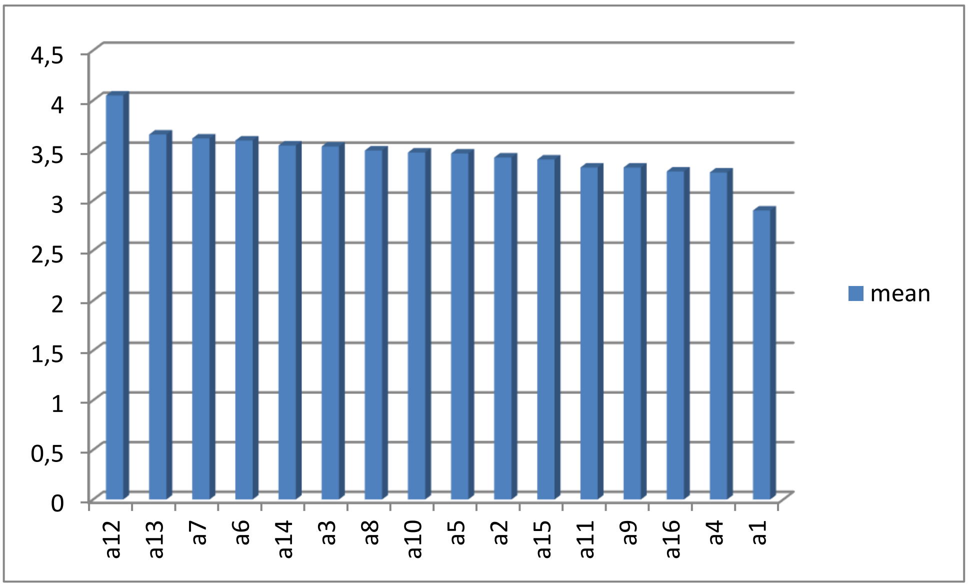
As it is easily understood from Figure 3, most of the students (f= 51.4) always utilize *Turkish Language* when using Web 2.0 technologies. Further, while 26.4% of the students often use *Turkish Language*, 19.1% of them sometimes employ it. However, minority of the students declared never (f= 1.8) or barely (f= 1.4) using *Turkish Language*. The next coming figure frames the frequency of English language practiced by the students in Web 2.0 Technologies.

Figure 4. The Frequency of English Language Use in Web 2.0 Technologies



From Figure 4, one can clearly conceive that majority of the students (f= 52.7) sometimes use *English Language* when using Web 2.0 technologies. Moreover, while 23.2% of the students barely use *English Language*, 16.4% of the students often use it. On the other hand, while a minority of students (f= 4.1%) declared never using English Language, another minority (f= 3.6) of students stated always using it. The pursuing figure illustrates the rate of agreement on the related items of the questionnaire.

Figure 5. The Role of Web 2.0 Technologies in EFL Learning



It is easily observed from Figure 5 that there are two groups of items comprised of agreed and slightly agreed ones. The initial category includes such items as a12 (mean= 4.05), a13 (mean= 3.66), a7 (mean= 3.62), a6 (mean= 3.60), a14 (mean= 3.55), a3 (mean= 3.54), and a8 (mean= 3.50). Further, the next category is composed of such items as a10 (mean= 3.48), a5 (mean= 3.47), a2 (mean= 3.43), a15 (mean= 3.41), a11 (mean= 3.33), a9 (mean= 3.33), a16 (mean= 3.29), a4 (mean= 3.28), and a1 (mean=2.90). Table 1 below provides an overview of the items mentioned in Figure 5.

Table 1. *Items for Aspects of Learning English in Web 2.0 Technologies*

No	Items
a1	Practice writing in English
a2	Practice reading in English
a3	Enhance students' English communication skills
a4	Enhance students' confidence to write in English
a5	Enhance students' confidence to read English materials
a6	Enhance students' confidence to communicate using English
a7	Enhance student's motivation to communicate using English
a8	Enhance students' motivation to read English materials
a9	Enhance students' motivation to write in English
a10	Make learning English more interesting
a11	Learning English
a12	Learn new words in English
a13	Inculcate a more positive attitude towards learning English as a second language

a14	Inculcate a more positive attitude towards English as a language
a15	Make learning English easier
a16	Tolerate language mistakes

Table 2 below represents the semi-structured interview results related to the role of Web 2.0 technologies in EFL learning. The related percentage of each theme acquired from the responses and sample remarks of the students are displayed as well.

Table 2. *Interview Results related to the Role of Web 2.0 Technologies in EFL Learning*

Social Media is …					
Item	**f**	**%**	**Item**	**f**	**%**
useful	6	30.00	useless	14	70.00
Total				20	100.00
a chance to practice English	5	31.25	waste of time	14	70.00
motivating	5	31.25	just teaches popular culture	6	30.00
if used with the aim of learning	6	37.50			
Total	16	100.00		20	100.00

It is simply understood from the table that social media is stated to be useless by the majority of the respondents (70.00%), while 30.00 percent of the participants suggest a contrary point of view. Further, those seeing social media useful also mention the following factors: (1) a chance to practice English (31.25%); (2) motivating (31.25%); and (3) if used with the aim of learning (37.50%). Additionally, the respondent who referred to social media as useless suggested the pursuing reasons: (1) waste of time (70.00%); and (2) just teaches popular culture (30.00%).

4. Discussion

Gikas and Grant (2013) conducted a study to inquire learning when Web 2.0 technologies were integrated into higher education. Thus, they examined the conceptions of students on learning through Web 2.0 technologies and found out that employing Web 2.0 technologies provided chances for interaction and collaboration, besides allowing students to communicate. In a similar vein, our study investigated the perceptions of high school students on the use of Web 2.0 technologies in EFL learning.

Further, in their study, Mondahl and Razmerita (2014) examined the use of Web 2.0 technologies in education and how learning may be supported through social and collective knowledge formation. They found out that collaboration in the learning process which is integrated with Web 2.0 technologies is useful in developing efficient problem-solving skills. Similarly, we inquired the use of Web 2.0 technologies in EFL learning process. However, we did not put specific emphasis on such a critical thinking perspective.

Moreover, in his review study, Tess (2013) summarized the research studies and mentioned the following points. A big number of researchers emphasize the importance of meaningful integration of Web 2.0 technologies into classroom activities. However, majority of the conducted research studies are limited to self-reported data which were collected by surveys, questionnaires, and content analysis studies. His finding confirms the fact that our study is also limited to questionnaire and interview results which might be also comprehended as a limitation.

Thorne (2010) interpreted attitudes, findings, and practices related to different kinds of inter-culturally adapted and internet-mediated language learning. In his review, he went on clarifying the engagement in freely selected new media contexts and particularly hinted on the dynamics of language practices besides learning through online games. In our study, rather than inquiring the already stated attitudes towards learning a foreign language through Web 2.0 technologies, we evaluated the conceptions of university students on the mentioned issue.

5. Conclusion

The current study aimed to clarify the general patterns in students' conceptions on the use of Web 2.0 technologies in EFL learning. More specifically, it investigated the most utilized social media tool amongst EFL students, how long they used these tools, and whether they used them for supporting their foreign language learning or not. A remarkable finding is that *Instagram* is the mostly utilized social media tool among EFL students. Besides, most participants in the study have used social media tools for 5 years. Another noteworthy finding is that students always use Turkish language in social media, although occasionally using English language. Further, it was discovered that there was a contrast between the questionnaire and interview results in that while the respondents agree on the usefulness of social media in the questionnaire, those participating in the interview mostly see the social media as useless in foreign language learning. It is also clearly understood that social media in EFL learning motivates students, enhances their confidence, develops positive attitudes towards English, and consequently supports learning for better or worse. However, learning through social media is only attained only if it is used with the aim of learning.

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REPRESENTATIONS OF ELF IN LANGUAGE TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND ELT COURSEBOOKS: FINDINGS FROM TURKEY AND PORTUGAL

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Abstract

Today, there are millions of people speaking English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), and they outnumber the people who speak English as a native language all around the world. More specifically, for each native speaker, there are three or four non-native speakers, and this ratio is continuously increasing (Crystal, 2008). On this ground, it is highly important to understand the concept of ELF, its global status, and its reflections on the pedagogy of English language teaching with a comparative approach in cross-cultural settings. The present paper aims to portray the current role of ELF: a) in shaping English language teachers' beliefs and practices, and b) in the usage of the cultural and linguistic components in English language teaching (ELT) coursebooks across Turkey and Portugal.

Key Words: ELF, language teacher education, language teaching, coursebooks

1. Introduction

Being the international medium of communication, trade and education, English as a lingua franca (henceforth, ELF) is learned and taught more than any other language in the world. Seidlhofer (2004) states that lingua franca, in its purest definition, refers to the language of communication between people who have different native languages, and who use the lingua franca as a second language. Although the term is mostly used to address the language spoken by people from Expanding Circle, Seidlhofer also suggests that there might be ELF contexts in which speakers from Inner and Outer circles (Kachru, 1997) get together and take part in communicative events such as international conferences or meetings. The extensive use of English in global settings has paved the way to the emergence of different varieties, which

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demonstrate unique characteristics, and deviations from the standard varieties such as American English or British English. More and more people use ELF without sticking to what the standard variety requires, and the users contribute to the internationalization and destandardization of the language.

Globalization has provided people with more opportunities of mobility, and this situation has blurred the boundaries between the varieties spoken in the countries of Inner, Outer and Expanding Circles. In line with this phenomenon, Crystal (2008) states "the center of gravity of the English language has moved from the native speaker to the nonnative speaker" (p .6). He further argues that when compared to native speakers, nonnative speakers of English have been found to constitute a larger population in the world, and they are really influential in shaping the future characteristics of the English language. Similarly, Seidlhofer (2004) argues that ELF should be used as a term, not because of the basic definition that nonnative speakers use it, but because it signals the existence of the strong influence nonnative speakers have on the evolution of the global language. Given that many languages and cultures co-exist and continuously interact with each other in today’s globalized world, raising awareness about non-standard varieties of English among learners of English becomes highly important (Crystal, 2003).

Crystal argues that learners of English should be exposed to different varieties of English in order that they would not be shocked upon hearing someone speak non-standard English, and perform efficiently and cooperatively when communicating in ELF settings. Today, ELF is a linguistic reality, and adopting native norms and underestimating different varieties in language teaching and material design prevents learners to face and accommodate this reality. Raising awareness about ELF not only allows learners to take part in efficient communication, but also facilitates mutual understanding and helps them embrace linguistic and cultural diversity.

One step which will contribute to raising ELF-awareness among learners of English is providing language teachers with opportunities to investigate and learn about ELF, and allow them to reflect on the potential role of ELF in their way of teaching. In other words, it is necessary to have ELF-aware teachers in order to see ELF-aware learners in the classroom. Although teachers are becoming more and more familiar with the concept of ELF these days, it is still difficult to see to what extent they are aware of the possible implications of ELF for their teaching practices in settings where English is taught as a foreign language (EFL). For this reason, language teacher education is a central issue in investigating the evolution of ELF as a concept in language teaching (Sifakis, 2014).

Sifakis (2009) states that English language teaching professionals from Expanding Circle countries might feel reluctant about integrating an ELF-aware approach into their teaching because in their contexts, people have strong beliefs about correct and appropriate things, which are determined by Inner Circle countries. In Expanding Circle countries, teachers are viewed as custodians of English by learners, parents and colleagues. The underlying reason is that there are limited opportunities for the learners to become exposed to English out of the classroom, and they should make most of the classroom instruction, which should be provided by the teacher in a flawless manner.

Sifakis argues that there are two types of hindrances that prevent the transformation in the beliefs and teaching practices of ELT teachers regarding the role of ELF: a) objective hindrances including the curricular situations, school contexts, courseware and institutional/educational culture; b) subjective hindrances including the teachers' perceptions about ELF, and their own role inside and outside the ELT classroom (Sifakis, 2017). In order to produce interventions for these hindrances, teachers should be trained so that they become aware of the value of ELF communication. This proposal includes both in-service and pre-service language teacher education because the way English language teachers are trained has a strong influence on their perspectives of English with regard to their own teaching contexts and beyond (Sifakis & Bayyurt, 2015). For instance, pre-service English teachers take several courses on British and American literature during the four-year undergraduate ELT departments in Turkey. This situation might lead them to think that British or American people are the owners of English, and speaking English with a British or American accent is a prerequisite for being accepted as a highly qualified English teacher (Kemaloğlu-Er, 2017). This normative perspective might be a demotivating factor for language teachers as they force themselves to speak in one standard variety and consider Turkish accent something which should be avoided by all teachers and students. On the other hand, Dewey (2012) and Blair (2015) argue that teacher education programs should go beyond this normative approach, which takes the native speaker norm as a basis. Instead, language teacher education should focus on language learners as users of the language, and incorporate an ELF-aware approach into their curricula in order to raise awareness among teachers about the cultural and linguistic realities of ELF all over the world.

Another factor which plays a highly critical role in the shaping of English language teaching is material development. According to Bayyurt and Sifakis (2015; 2017), an ELF-aware perspective does not only entail being critical about existing ELT materials and methodologies, but also questioning to what extent ELT materials adopt an ELF-aware pedagogy. Since coursebooks play a central role for learners and teachers of English, integration of ELF-awareness into coursebooks is highly important. However, teachers do not really have the opportunity to think about ELF-related aspects because students have to take high-stakes exams, and coursebooks are mostly written in one of the standard varieties (i.e. British or American English). Although most of the people learning English come from Expanding Circle countries, different varieties and examples of successful communication between non-native speakers of English are mostly neglected in these books. In addition to the predominant use of standard varieties, representations of cultural elements associated with British (BrE) or American English (AmE) also seem to prevail in ELT coursebooks.

Given that the design and content of language teaching materials and programs are important for developing learners' intercultural communicative competence (Alptekin, 2002; Kural & Bayyurt, 2016), a critical approach is needed in order to portray the changing conceptualization of ELF in the ELT classroom in different linguistic and cultural settings. To address these issues, the present paper has focused on two basic questions:

1. How is ELF represented in the beliefs of EFL teachers across Portugal and Turkey?
2. How is ELF represented in the linguistic and cultural components in ELT coursebooks across Portugal and Turkey?

Both countries can be categorized as Expanding Circle countries, where people learn and teach English as a foreign language. Therefore, these settings provide a good basis for a comparative approach, which could outline the similarities and differences about how ELF is represented in two EFL contexts. The following section presents the methodology and a summary of the preliminary findings.

2. Method

To answer the first research question, a questionnaire from Bayyurt and Erçetin's (2009) study was adapted and administered to a group of Portuguese (n=39) and Turkish (n=77) in-service English teachers on an electronic platform. The participating teachers were professionals working with students at different levels of education (i.e. elementary, secondary, and tertiary). In order to outline the the validity of the questionnaire items which address the construct of ELF-awareness, a principal component factor analysis was conducted. The details about the analysis will not be presented in the current paper. Basically, it revealed that the teachers' responses could be classified in three main categories: "cultural awareness", "positioning native varieties/speakers" and "awareness of communication goals".

For the second question, ELT coursebooks along with their audio materials from local (LP) and international publishers (IP) were analyzed separately for Turkey and Portugal. For each book, native and nonnative English varieties were identified in terms of spelling, grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. In addition, cultural elements such as people, places and facts were also identified based on the references to the local cultures of each country; or to the cultures of Inner, Outer and Expanding Circle countries. When there was no specific reference to any culture, the instances were taken as international topics. Each occurrence for these categories was identified and counted by the researchers. As the data analysis is in progress and the study has not been completed yet, some preliminary findings are given in the following section.

3. Preliminary Findings

The questionnaire examining English language teacher's ELF-awareness revealed that the teachers rated cultural awareness mostly as moderately important or important. The items within the cultural awareness factor examined how teachers would rate it between unimportant and very important that similarities and differences between the target language and local culture should be taught in language classes, whether cultures from non-native English communities should also be taught and these differences and similarities between native and non-native as well as the learners' local culture should be reflected in the teaching of English (Bayyurt, 2006). Teachers mostly rated these as important within the scale range. For instance, they seemed to appreciate the importance of both the cultures of native speakers (agree + strongly agree = 50.2%) and the cultures of the non-native English speaking world (agree + strongly agree = 63.5%). Most of the teachers indicated that language learners needed to be aware of differences and similarities between cultures.

The second factor, namely positioning native varieties/speakers, revealed a less clear tendency among the participating teachers. The factor included items examining whether teachers would agree or disagree that the ultimate goal should be reaching native-like proficiency in learning English, or that English language teaching materials should be produced by native speakers of English, or that native varieties of English should be the norm in language teaching contexts. Teachers provided rather dispersed responses to these items on the agreeing and disagreeing continuum. For example, a higher percentage of teachers indicated opposition to the fact that the teaching materials should feature only native speaker texts (disagree + strongly disagree = 48.4%), while a considerable number of them supported the idea (agree + strongly agree = 34.6%). They appeared to be either undecided or divided between attaching importance to native-like proficiency and accent or not. The high percentage of undecided teachers on this component of the survey (average = 24.7%) showed that teachers were not sure how to position native speaker varieties and native speakers in their profession.

The third factor, awareness of communication goals, examined teachers' reactions about how successful communication could be achieved, the role of intelligibile accent, accurate grammar, and knowledge of non-native varieties of English. The teachers mostly agreed that learners should be exposed to non-native varieties of English, and that they should also learn to communicate with non-native speakers of English as well. They also agreed on the importance of intelligible accent. However, the importance of grammatical accuracy seemed to divide the teachers as the percentage of those who agreed or strongly agreed that it was important (35.9% the two responses combined) was very close to those who disagreed or strongly disagreed (33.4% the two responses combined).

As for the varieties used in the LP book in the Portuguese context, it was found that with BrE being the most commonly used variety throughout the book, both AmE and BrE were used interchangeably in vocabulary and grammar. In the audio materials, however, there was a tendency towards the use of AmE to a greater extent. The diversity of other varieties was not successfully represented in the book-there was only one instance of a Japanese person speaking English. In the Turkish context, a similar pattern was observed in the LP book in that the book made use of BrE most of the time, and included AmE as the second option, leaving not much space for non-native varieties. Throughout the book, there was only one instance of English spoken with a Japanese accent.

Regarding the cultural representations, patterns showed that the LP book in the Portuguese context mostly used elements from British culture when referring to people and places. Still, one noteworthy finding was that the book also made many references to people from Expanding Circle countries. As for facts, the book had a tendency towards including international phenomena rather than emphasizing one specific culture. However, facts related to American and British cultures together were as common as the international facts given in the book. Interestingly, local references which are supposed to give examples from the Portuguese culture were nearly absent (see Figure 1).

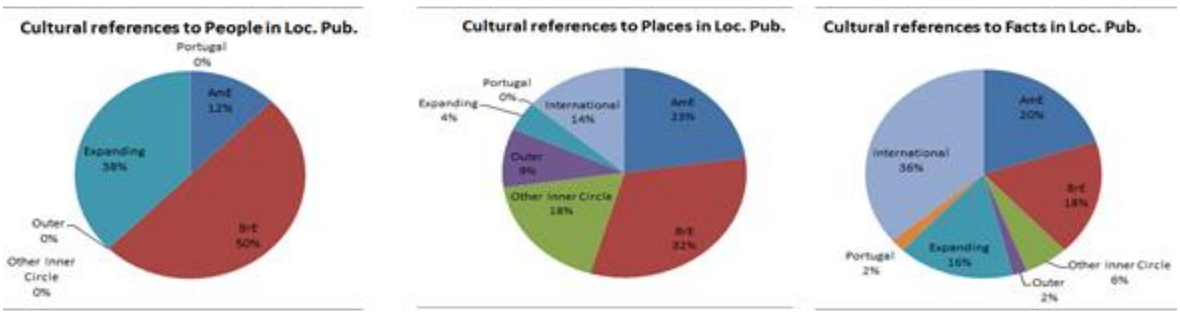

Figure 1. Cultural references in local publisher’s book in Portugal

The LP book in the Turkish context mostly preferred American culture when referring to people. This was followed by the references for people from the UK, Expanding Circle countries, and Outer Circle countries. As for places, unlike its Portuguese counterpart, the Turkish LP book mostly introduced places from Expanding Circle countries. When facts were analysed, it was found that the book made common use of both international facts and facts related to the cultures of Expanding Circle countries. In general, there was a richer representation of different cultures, and more inclusion of the local culture in each of the categories in the Turkish LP book (see Figure 2).

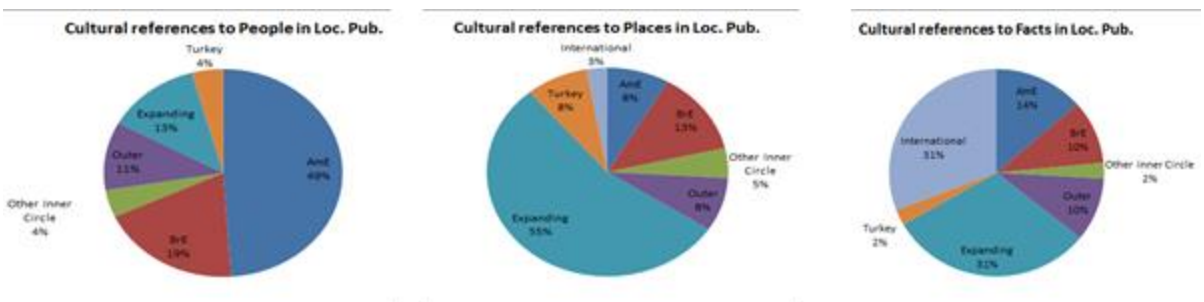

Figure 2. Cultural references in local publisher's book in Turkey

For the time being, the analysis of the varieties and cultural elements given in the IP books is in continuation. However, a quick overview of the books shows that BrE/AmE and the cultures associated with these varieties seem to dominate in the IP books both for the Turkish and the Portuguese contexts. The following section presents a general discussion about the preliminary findings and possible implications of the study for language teachers and material designers.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

The findings from the teacher questionnaire and the material evaluation from Portuguese and Turkish contexts in the two studies presented here can be considered as pieces of a larger picture that needs to be investigated further. The teacher questionnaire indicates in a very general sense that English language teachers from two expanding circle countries reflect a growing awareness about the role of English as a lingua franca especially in creating cultural awareness in learners and communicative goals considering many varieties that could be encountered in the global world we live in today. The teachers' appreciation of the diversity and ELF-aware elements on cultural awareness and communication goals might signal a significant shift in in-service teachers' approach as targeted in Bayyurt and Sifakis (2015). However, this growing ELF-aware approach was not as clearly reflected on the positioning of native varieties/speakers, as the teachers were dispersed within the agreement continuum, implying an undecided position about the role of non-native English-speaking teachers and native English-speaking teachers. Although they present a more observable tendency to accept the importance of ELF-aware teaching regarding cultural awareness and communicative roles, they remained undecided about the position of native varieties/speakers. This could be interpreted as one indication that the teachers could accept more readily the ELF-aware elements in aspects they can change and adopt actively in their own teaching (integrating non-native cultures or the local culture in their teaching or adopting the communicative goals to emphasize intelligible accent or to expose learners to non-native varieties of English). On the other hand, positioning native speakers/varieties or underlyingly themselves might be a more complicated process that needs more investigation and closer attention starting from pre-service teacher training.

Material evaluation of local and international publishers from Turkey and Portugal also revealed some small but important differences in the dynamics of material development. Although the international publisher course books predominantly reflected British or American varieties in cultural references and language use, there was slightly more space for local elements in cultural references in the local publisher's course book in the Turkish context. The tendencies towards a more ELF-aware approach in material development might follow the changes more slowly compared to teachers' positions. The teacher questionnaire in the present study revealed a positive change in cultural awareness and communicative goals to be emphasized in English language learning, which also included the use of materials reflecting a more diverse range of varieties than the inner circle countries. The change in language teacher's perspectives can be reflected in material development through their changing demands with ELF-aware interactions between these two significant areas of English language education.

English has gained its global status throughout a long history rising upon some social, political, and economic foundations. This fact has shaped the positioning of native and non-native varieties in language teaching, which, for many years, has followed the norms of the Inner Circle. With ELF emerging as a research field with implications for language teaching pedagogy, the field of ELT is now witnessing a paradigm shift, moving away from the native speaker norms and embracing linguistic and cultural diversity introduced by each and every non-native speaker of English. As in the case of English becoming a lingua franca, this phenomenon also needs some time to establish a presence in the society. Therefore, it would be inappropriate to expect that ELF-aware pedagogy will be readily welcomed by teachers, learners or material designers with unquestioning support. However, it is possible to keep track of this phenomenon as it gradually shapes the theory and practice of language teaching. The present study is an important attempt to shed light on how ELF has made its way into teachers' minds and ELT materials in the Expanding Circle. Further studies are needed to see more detailed representations of ELF in different cultural and linguistic settings.

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EFFECTIVE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING: ELT STUDENTS' AND INSTRUCTORS' BELIEFS

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Abstract

This study aims to find out the beliefs about language teaching of 3rd and 4th grade Turkish ELT students and 10 ELT instructors at Turkish University, TURKEY. The primary purpose of the study is to investigate the differences between the beliefs of ELT students and instructors considering different aspects of language teaching such as culture, computer-based technology, grammar teaching, error correction, target language use, communicative language teaching strategies and assessment. Data will be collected using a 23-item questionnaire originally developed by Brown (2009). To compare the ELT students' and instructors' beliefs, frequency analysis of items will be analysed. At the end of this research, it is aimed to find out whether there are differences between the ELT students' and instructors' beliefs and determine the most effective procedures in language teaching. Discussion and implications for further research will also be mentioned regarding the findings of the study.

Keywords: effective language teaching, Instructors' beliefs, ELT students' beliefs

1. Introduction

The area of foreign language teaching has encountered many changes and modifications throughout the years. As known, a foreign language is a language learned in a setting where it is not the main tool for everyday interaction and where input in that language is limited. In terms of classroom-based foreign language learning and teaching, it is the teacher's duty to aid learners to achieve a desired level of linguistic and pragmatic knowledge that meet their needs. In order to accomplish such a duty, the teacher should be aware of the issues and processes that are believed to facilitate foreign language development.

Learning a foreign language is a multifaceted task. Language, learners, teachers, the teaching and the learning processes could be regarded as the indispensable components in any successful language learning experience that take place at the classroom environment. Linguistic factors, learner characteristics, their styles and strategies, personalities and socio-cultural factors, teachers' attitudes, styles and instructional decisions and actions could determine the success of the language learning/teaching process.

1.1. Characteristics of Good Learners and Teachers: Literature Review

Many learner characteristics can influence the success of language learning. According to Rubin and Thompson (1983), a good language learner possesses some of these 12 characteristics (qtd. in Nunan, 2000, p. 171):

1. Good learners find their own way.
2. Good learners organize information about language.
3. Good learners are creative and experiment with language.

4. Good learners make their own opportunities, and find strategies for getting practice in using the language inside and outside the classroom.

5. Good learners learn to live with uncertainty and develop strategies for making sense of the target language without wanting to understand every word.

6. Good learners use mnemonics (rhymes, word associations, etc. to recall what has been learned).

7. Good learners make errors work.

8. Good learners use linguistic knowledge, including knowledge of their first language in mastering a second language.

9. Good learners let the context (extra-linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world) help them in comprehension.

10. Good learners learn to make intelligent guesses.

11. Good learners learn chunks of language as wholes and formalized routines to help them perform ‘beyond their competence’.

12. Good learners learn production techniques (e.g. techniques for keeping a conversation going).

13. Good learners learn different styles of speech and writing and learn to vary their language according to the formality of the situation.

Rubin and Thompson believe that it is important for students to take risks (3, 4, 5), use their previous schema (8), be motivated (4, 5), have solid strategies in place (4, 6, 9, 11, 12, 13) and be able to live with uncertainty (5) (qtd. in Thompson, 2005: 4).

Good and qualified teachers are inseparable members of the education and they have a crucial position in successful teaching. The importance of teacher effectiveness and the characteristics of an effective language teacher have continuously tried to be investigated by researchers through studies conducted so far. (Edge & Garton, 2009) state that the teacher is the most authoritative person with many different roles to play such as organizing, providing security, motivating, instructing, guiding, monitoring, informing, explaining, giving feedback, and evaluating (qtd. in Coşgun Ögeyik, 2017: 140). According to (Kalebic, 2005) characteristics highly valuable for a language teacher can be listed as having linguistic and communicative competence; communication and presentation skills; ability to motivate learners for learning; ability to choose appropriate teaching strategies; ability to deal with unpredictable situations and to maintain discipline; ability to plan the lesson; ability to organize learning activities; ability of pedagogical action; ability to create friendly atmosphere in the classroom; ability to respond to learner abilities and needs (flexibility); knowledge about teaching strategies; knowledge about the culture and literature in of the target language; ability to assess learner language knowledge/competence; and knowledge of methods and theoretical concepts in English language teaching (qtd. in Shishavan & Sadeghi, 2009: 132).

As Cheung (2006: 435-436) suggests, highly effective teachers;

- stay on the job longer,
- allocate more time to preparation and delivery,
- are willing to educate,
- are responsive to the needs of their students,
- are more tolerant toward students’ mistakes,
- are willing to spend relatively more time with problematic students,

- try hard to contribute to their students' learning experiences.

Language learning and the profession of teaching English as a foreign language is a demanding and complex process since teaching does not only mean having subject knowledge. Language teacher education departments of the universities aim to train highly qualified teachers through providing content knowledge, linguistic knowledge, and pedagogical knowledge. Coşgun Ögeyik (2017) anticipates that investigating teachers' subject knowledge may not alone be satisfactory to evaluate their quality as teachers, thus investigates the unforeseen factors effecting teaching competence, namely the degree of motivation, self-esteem, self-efficacy, and teaching strategy awareness of the student teachers of English. As a result of her study, it is revealed that theoretical knowledge is not enough to shape the effectiveness of teaching since affective domains have much influence on teaching quality. In another study carried out by Horng, J., Hong, J., Chanlin, L., Chang, S., & Chu, H. (2005), factors effecting creative teaching is inquired and concluded that factors of successful creative instruction include personality traits, family factors, learning and education experiences, belief in education, devotion to education, motivations, environment of organization, and so on. Similarly, Arikan, Taşer & Saraç-Süzer's (2008: 43-44) review of the relevant research in Turkey has shown that Turkish students find the following characteristics as indicators of being an effective teacher:

- having personal strategies to teach,
- maintaining positive teacher-student interaction,
- creating a positive classroom atmosphere,
- being a model,
- being knowledgeable on target cultures,
- possessing positive personal characteristics such as being friendly to students,
- having correct pronunciation of the English sounds,
- teaching with effective classroom materials and by using technology,
- giving positive reinforcement.

In brief; teacher effectiveness is one of the most significant factors affecting the quality of the language learning process. Kurbanoğlu (2004: 143) asserts that research has shown that there is strong relationship between teacher' effective teaching practices and student' overall success, motivation, and personal beliefs in their teachers' effectiveness (qtd. in Arikan, 2010: 210).

ELT instructors and ELT students may have similar or different ideas on effective teaching and the main objective of this study is to identify ELT instructors and ELT students' ideals of effective teacher behaviours.

2. Method

This paper presents the findings of a survey study. A questionnaire was administered to collect data. In the study some answers were sought to the following research questions:

1. What are the characteristics of an effective English language teacher from the perspective of the ELT students?

2. What are the characteristics of an effective English language teacher from the perspective of the ELT instructors?

2.1. Participants

The participants of the study were 102 ELT students, the 3rd and the 4th year student teachers, and 10 ELT instructors at a Turkish University.

2.2. Data Collection Tools and Evaluation Method

In this study, data were collected via a 23-item Likert-scale questionnaire originally developed by Brown (2009). The original questionnaire was used to identify native English teachers' and learner's ideals for effective teachers. However, the participants attended in this study are non-native speakers of English. For this reason, one item from the questionnaire was deleted. The deleted item was "effective foreign language teachers should allow students to respond to test questions in listening and reading via English rather than the foreign language".

3. Findings

The findings were evaluated and displayed in Table 1 with the percentile values for each item.

Table 1. *Effective teaching ideas of ELT students*

Effective foreign language teachers should:	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	%	%	%	%
1. frequently use computer-based technologies (Internet, CD–ROM, email) in teaching the language.	58	40	2	0
2. base at least some part of students' grades on completion of assigned group tasks.	13	76	7	4
3. devote as much time to the teaching of culture as to the teaching of language.	39	49	12	
4. require students to use the language outside of class with other speakers of the language (e.g., Internet, email, clubs, community events, etc.).	64	28	8	
5. not correct students immediately after they make a mistake in speaking.	53	37	10	
6. not use Turkish in the foreign language classroom.	7	11	28	54
7. only correct students indirectly when they produce oral errors instead of directly (e.g., correctly repeating back to them rather than directly stating that they are incorrect).	33	52	10	5
8. be as knowledgeable about the culture(s) of those who speak the language as the language itself.	45	49	5	1
9. not grade language production (i.e., speaking and writing) primarily for grammatical accuracy.	22	48	20	10

10. teach the language primarily by having students complete specific tasks (e.g., finding out prices of rooms and rates at a hotel) rather than grammar-focused exercises.	38	52	8	2
11. have students respond to commands physically in the foreign language (e.g., "stand up," "pick up your book," etc.).	42	52	6	
12. address errors by immediately providing explanations as to why students' responses are incorrect.	5	35	47	13
13. require students to speak in the foreign language beginning the first day of class.	19	30	39	12
14. not use predominantly small groups or pair work to complete activities in class.	3	8	57	32
15. mostly use activities that practice specific grammar points rather than activities whose goal is merely to exchange information.	5	22	49	24
16. ask students to begin speaking the foreign language only when they feel they are ready to.	31	50	15	4
17. not present a particular grammar point without illustrating how the structure is used in a specific, real-world context.	42	38	13	7
18. speak the foreign language with native-like control of both grammar and accent.	27	46	22	5
19. teach grammar by giving examples of grammatical structures before explaining the grammar rules.	58	36	4	2
20. use predominantly real-life materials (e.g., music, pictures, foods, clothing) in teaching both the language and the culture rather than the textbook.	69	27	4	
21. not simplify or alter how they speak so that students can understand every word being said.	9	33	47	11
22. base at least some part of students' grades on their ability to interact with classmates successfully in the foreign language.	20	68	12	1
23. use activities where students have to find out unknown information from classmates using the foreign language.	47	47	6	

As displayed in Table 1, nearly all (98%) ELT students had the idea that computer-based technologies and activities fostering communication among classmates to find out unknown information should be used in language teaching (94%). Moreover, again nearly all participants (94%) believed that grammar should be taught by giving examples of grammatical structures before explaining the grammar rules. Most of them (89%) claimed that small groups or pair work should be predominantly used to complete activities in class, but also they (89%) stated that teachers should base at least some part of students' grades on completion of assigned group tasks. Nearly all of the participants (94%) had the idea that real-life materials presenting both language and culture should be predominantly used rather than the textbook. Furthermore, most of them (88 %) stated that teachers should devote as much time to the teaching of culture as to the teaching of language. Nearly all of them (94%) claimed that teachers should be as knowledgeable about the culture(s) of those who speak the language as the language itself and also should speak the foreign language with native-like control of both grammar and accent (73%). Also, most of the participants (82%) believed that foreign language teachers should not use Turkish in the language classroom. Additionally, more than half of the participants (58%) had the idea that teachers should simplify or modify their speech so as to have learners understand every word being said. While 61% of the participants declared that teachers should ask students to begin speaking the foreign language only when they feel they are ready to; 51% of them had the idea that teachers should not require students to speak in the foreign language beginning the first day of class. Moreover, %94 of the participants asserted that teachers should have students respond to commands physically in the foreign language.

While most of the participants (90%) agreed that teachers should teach the language primarily by having students complete specific tasks rather than grammar-focused exercises, 73% of them disagreed that teachers should mostly use activities that practice specific grammar points rather than activities whose goal is merely to exchange information. Moreover, they (80%) claimed that teachers should not present a particular grammar point without illustrating how the structure is used in a specific, real-world context and nearly all of them (92%) had the idea that students should be required using the language outside of class with other speakers of language. Moreover, most of the participants (90%) stated that teachers should not correct students immediately after they make a mistake in speaking. Also, while 85% of them stated that teachers should only correct repeating back to their students rather than directly stating that they are incorrect when they produce oral errors; 82% of the participants had the idea that teachers should not address errors by immediately providing explanations as to why students' responses are incorrect. Additionally, 70% of the participants stated that teachers should not grade language production primarily for grammatical accuracy.

The data gathered through the 23-item questionnaire from the ELT instructors were evaluated and displayed in Table 2 with the percentile values for each item.

Table 2. *Effective teaching ideas of ELT instructors*

Effective foreign language teachers should:	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	%	%	%	%
1. frequently use computer-based technologies (Internet, CD–ROM, email) in teaching the language.	40	60		
2. base at least some part of students' grades on completion of assigned group tasks.	20	80		
3. devote as much time to the teaching of culture as to the teaching of language.	30	40	30	
4. require students to use the language outside of class with other speakers of the language (e.g., Internet, email, clubs, community events, etc.).	60	10	30	

5. not correct students immediately after they make a mistake in speaking.	40	60		
6. not use Turkish in the foreign language classroom.			30	70
7. only correct students indirectly when they produce oral errors instead of directly (e.g., correctly repeating back to them rather than directly stating that they are incorrect).	70	20	10	
8. be as knowledgeable about the culture(s) of those who speak the language as the language itself.	60	40		
9. not grade language production (i.e., speaking and writing) primarily for grammatical accuracy.	20	40	40	
10. teach the language primarily by having students complete specific tasks (e.g., finding out prices of rooms and rates at a hotel) rather than grammar-focused exercises.	30	60	10	
11. have students respond to commands physically in the foreign language (e.g., “stand up,” “pick up your book,” etc.).	30	70		
12. address errors by immediately providing explanations as to why students’ responses are incorrect.	20	20	30	30
13. require students to speak in the foreign language beginning the first day of class.	50	30	20	
14. not use predominantly small groups or pair work to complete activities in class.		20	30	50
15. mostly use activities that practice specific grammar points rather than activities whose goal is merely to exchange information.		10	50	40
16. ask students to begin speaking the foreign language only when they feel they are ready to.	10	50	40	
17. not present a particular grammar point without illustrating how the structure is used in a specific, real-world context.	20	50	20	10
18. speak the foreign language with native-like control of both grammar and accent.		80	20	
19. teach grammar by giving examples of grammatical structures before explaining the grammar rules.	30	40		30
20. use predominantly real-life materials (e.g., music, pictures, foods, clothing) in teaching both the language and the culture rather than the textbook.	80	20		
21. not simplify or alter how they speak so that students can understand every word being said.		40	60	
22. base at least some part of students’ grades on their ability to interact with classmates successfully in the foreign language.	40	40	20	
23. use activities where students have to find out unknown information from classmates using the foreign language.	40	60		

As displayed in Table 2, all ELT instructors had the idea that computer-based technologies and activities fostering communication among classmates to find out unknown information should be used in language teaching. Moreover, most of the participants (70%) believed that grammar should be taught by giving examples of grammatical structures before explaining the grammar rules. 80% of the ELT instructors claimed that small groups or pair work should be predominantly used to complete activities in class, and also they (%80) stated that teachers should base at least some part of students' grades on completion of assigned group tasks. All of the participants had the idea that real-life materials presenting both language and culture should be predominantly used rather than the textbook. Furthermore, most of them (70%) stated that teachers should devote as much time to the teaching of culture as to the teaching of language.

All of the ELT instructors claimed that teachers should be as knowledgeable about the culture(s) of those who speak the language as the language itself and also should speak the foreign language with native-like control of both grammar and accent (80%). Also, all of the ELT instructors believed that foreign language teachers should use Turkish in the language classroom. Additionally, more than half of the participants (60%) had the idea that teachers should simplify or modify their speech so as to have learners understand every word being said. While 60% of the participants declared that teachers should ask students to begin speaking the foreign language only when they feel they are ready to; 80% of them had the idea that teachers should require students to speak in the foreign language beginning the first day of class. Moreover, all of the participants asserted that teachers should have students respond to commands physically in the foreign language. While most of the participants (90%) agreed that teachers should teach the language primarily by having students complete specific tasks rather than grammar-focused exercises, 90% of them disagreed using activities that practice specific grammar points rather than activities whose goal is merely to exchange information. Moreover, they (80%) agreed that teachers should not present a particular grammar point without illustrating how the structure is used in a specific, real-world context and most of them (70%) had the idea that students should be required using the language outside of class with other speakers of language. Moreover, all of the participants stated that teachers should not correct students immediately after they make a mistake in speaking. Also, while 90% of them stated that teachers should only correct repeating back to their students rather than directly stating that they are incorrect when they produce oral errors; 60% of the participants disagreed that teachers should address errors by immediately providing explanations as to why students' responses are incorrect. Additionally, 60% of the participants agreed that teachers should not grade language production primarily for grammatical accuracy.

4. Discussion

The results indicated that both the ELT students and the instructors believe the importance of technology use in language teaching. The studies investigating the perceptions of teachers about the use of technology usually have similar results, for instance in their study Ismail et. al (2010) found out that both teachers of Arabic and teachers of English appreciated the role of technology in promoting teaching and learning. Thus, it could be stated that many teachers view technology as an essential requirement for their classes.

According to the results, ELT students and the instructors have the idea that grammar should be taught by giving examples of grammatical structures before explaining the grammar rules. Also, they stated that teachers should teach the language primarily by having students complete specific tasks rather than grammar-focused exercises. Moreover, ELT students and instructors disagreed that teachers should mostly use activities that practice specific grammar points rather than activities whose goal is merely to exchange information. Considering this, it might be inferred that ELT students and instructors attach more importance to meaningful learning rather than relying heavily on grammar teaching. To add; they claimed that activities fostering communication among classmates to find out unknown information should be used in language teaching. These results show that both ELT students and instructors believe that inductive grammar teaching is more effective in the language classroom rather than direct instruction. In this sense, it may be concluded that they prefer indirect consciousness-raising tasks which aim: "to help learners construct their own explicit grammar of the target language and to encourage communication in the L2 between learners" (Ellis, 1997, p. 87).

The results also show that the participants claim that real-life materials presenting both language and culture should be predominantly used rather than the textbook. They also state that teachers should devote as much time to the teaching of culture as to the teaching of language. Moreover, they have the idea that teachers should be as knowledgeable about culture(s) of those who speak the language as the language itself. They also state that teachers should speak the foreign language with native-like control of both grammar and accent. It is an undeniable fact that language is a part of culture, and culture is a part of language; on the other hand, why and to what extent it should be taught has been a debate in language teaching area. Considering the results of the study, it may be put forward that ELT students and instructors appreciate the importance of culture in language teaching and communication in language class and they believe that language should be taught along with culture. It would not be wrong to state a strong bound between culture and communication since it might be stated that culture forms human behaviour and interaction. For instance, students may know all grammatical points even at advanced level, but they may not ask for a cup of coffee. In this respect, it may be concluded that ELT students and instructors have the idea that it is not possible to imagine language teacher and language teaching independent of culture.

Another result of the study is that ELT students and instructors have the idea that small groups or pair work should be predominantly used to complete activities in class. Furthermore, ELT students and instructors agreed that teachers should not present a grammar point without illustrating how the structure is used in a specific, real-world context. Moreover, ELT students and instructors state that teachers should base at least some part of students' grades on completion of assigned group tasks. Additionally, ELT students and instructors have the idea that teachers should have students respond to commands physically in the foreign language. In other words, they prefer using body language effectively while giving responses to commands.

According to the results of the study, both the number of ELT students and instructors agreeing/disagreeing that an effective language teacher should simplify or modify their speech is close to each other, but both groups support using simplified or modified speech while teaching the language. Furthermore, they declare that teachers should ask students to begin speaking the foreign language only when they feel they are ready to. Moreover, ELT students and instructors declare that students should be required using the language outside the class with other speakers of language. Considering their responses, it could be inferred that ELT students and instructors attach importance to communication in language teaching and avoid using the native language in language classes. Moreover, they support authentic use of language in class rather than having simplification or modification. Furthermore, the participants declare that teachers should not grade language production primarily for grammatical accuracy; instead, they prefer to be encouraged to have interaction even though they make mistakes or errors.

The results also shed light to the ELT students' and instructors' beliefs on feedback and error correction. According to the results, ELT students and instructors believe that teachers should address errors immediately by providing explanations and feedback for the incorrect productions. They assert that teachers should not correct students immediately after they make a mistake in speaking and state that teachers should only correct repeating back to their students rather than directly stating that they are incorrect when they produce oral errors. In his study, Oladejo (1993: 79) finds out that the majority of the respondents think that errors of pronunciation, spelling, and punctuation deserve correction only occasionally or even rarely. Considering the responses, it could be concluded that ELT students and instructors may have the idea that immediate or constant error correction may result in frustration. Moreover, they might believe that oral corrective feedback may hinder fluency and attach much importance to meaning rather than form. Furthermore, both the ELT students and instructors believe that rather than directly stating that the learners are incorrect when they produce oral errors, teachers should only correct repeating back to their students. The results might show that ELT students and instructors prefer implicit error correction and feedback in language teaching.

In the light of the results, some differences were identified between the ELT students' and ELT instructors' ideals for effective language teacher behaviours. One difference between ELT students and instructors is that while ELT students state that teachers should not use Turkish in the language classroom, instructors support using the native language in language class when necessary. Another different view among the ELT students and instructors is that half of the ELT students agreed on using English beginning the first day of class and the other half disagreed on the issue; but ELT instructors support having learners speak in the foreign language beginning the first day of class. But the case may not be generalized for all instructors. Some factors may affect both students' and instructors' views. In the studies carried out in different countries, opposite views were found out. For instance, in his study, Saydee (2016:72) found out that the teachers strongly disagreed with encouraging learners to speak the target language on the first day.

5. Conclusion

The attempt in this study was to investigate the ELT students' and instructors' beliefs about effective language teaching. The study shed light to ELT students' and instructors' beliefs and perceptions about the characteristics of effective language teacher. It came out that there were some similarities and some differences between ELT students' and instructors' beliefs on how an effective language teacher should be. However, there are some other questions that allow for further research. For instance, research could be carried out to investigate whether there is any link between teachers' beliefs and the classroom practices or students' and teachers' beliefs might be studied to get their perceptions about effective language teacher and effective language teaching and learning.

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THE EFFECT OF POLITENESS STRATEGIES INSTRUCTION ON EFL LEARNERS' QUALITY OF APOLOGY AND COMPLAINT LETTERS

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Abstract

The present study investigated the effectiveness of teaching politeness strategies on learners' use of these strategies in writing two types of English letters, apology and complaint letters. To this end, 30 EFL participants were assigned to two groups of control and experimental; one which received instruction on politeness strategies and the other didn't receive instruction on strategies. The results revealed that positive and negative politeness strategies were used by the students in both groups for writing letters. However, in the experimental group, the frequency of these strategies was significantly higher than in the control group, suggesting that the instruction of the strategies affected the use of these strategies in the learners' letter writing. It was revealed that there were no significant differences between the two types of letters with respect to the frequency of politeness strategies, indicating that the types of letters do not influence the use of politeness strategies.

Keywords: politeness strategy, apology letter, complaint letters

1. Introduction

1.1. Background and Purpose

One of the most common forms of text in any language is letters; hence letter writing can be regarded as one of the most common literature activities in human societies (Barton & Hall, 2000). During the process of writing letters, we communicate a particular message in written words and discuss our ideas through a selection and combination of appropriate words. This process can be illustrative of our personality and distinguish us from others. As a result, writing is necessary to be done with great care to maintain the standards of a letter. It should be noted that the characteristics of letters may be quite different depending on the type of letter being written (Barton and Hall, 2000). First of all, it is an undeniable fact that letters need to be written correctly and free from errors, grammatically, conceptually and more importantly pragmatically. Some of the characteristics of standard letters are mentioned by Mohammadi and Nikimaleki (2005), including correctness, clarity, conciseness, coherence, and courteousy. In other words, a letter should not contain any kind of difficult language which may result in misunderstandings.

Strategies of politeness, as mentioned by Brown and Levinson (1987) are culture-specific and may differ across cultures. The Politeness theory proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) has been considered as the basis of theoretical and empirical research in pragmatics for more than thirty years. Conducting research on the politeness strategies, Brown and Levinson (1987) provided a lot of examples of using these strategies in conversations in different languages and cultures, which may simplify it for readers to understand the concept of politeness strategies. Brown and Levinson's (1987) first step was to suppose a 'Model Person', who is a capable adult member of a society that has a tendency to maintain his/her face. In this theory, Brown and Levinson talked about two types of faces, (1) a positive face, in which the model person supposes that his wants are desirable and advantageous for others; and (2) a negative face, where the model person expects his actions and operations to be unrestricted by others. Their second step in defining and understanding the theory is that Brown and Levinson assumed that both faces are naturally threatened when a person participates in communication. For instance, apologies threaten the positive face of the writer, while actions like expressing thankfulness can threaten the negative face of the writer. Acts such as suggestions and orders are threats to the negative face of the addressee, while the positive face of addressee is threatened by criticism, complaints, objections, and disagreements.

Speakers use different strategies to avoid or to minimize threats to face. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 65) presented four strategies in this regard, namely, (1) bald on-record strategy, (2) negative politeness strategy, (3) positive politeness strategy, and (3) off-record indirect strategy. These strategies are what now are known as politeness strategies. Bald on-Record strategy provides no effort by the speakers to minimize the effects of the FTA. The speakers usually shock the hearers, embarrass them, or make them feel uncomfortable. The primary reason for bald-on record strategy is whenever a speaker wants to do the FTA with maximum efficiency more than he wants to satisfy the hearer's face. However, this type of strategy is usually found in conversations between people who know each other very well, and are very comfortable in the situation. Positive politeness strategies, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), are used when the speaker wants what the hearer wants. In other words, they share hearer's positive face wants, i.e. they are the same in some ways, or the speaker likes the hearer in order to have the hearer's positive face. Positive politeness is directed to the addressee's positive face.

Another kind of politeness is negative politeness that is related to negative face. The main focus of negative politeness strategy is on the belief that you may be intruding on the hearer's space. This strategy assumes that there might be some social distance between the speaker and the hearer and it is possible that it will be used anytime a speaker wants to put a social brake on his interaction (Brown and Levinson, 1987). Negative politeness strategy, according to Yule (1996), emphasizes the speaker's and the hearer's independence. In other words, as Hobjila (2012) noted, negative politeness is used to respect the distance between speaker and hearer, to avoid suppositions and to impersonalize. As a result, the purpose of present study is to investigate the effect of politeness strategies instruction on EFL learners' quality of apology and complaint letters. To conduct the present study, the researcher mainly decided to pose some research questions.

1.2 Research Questions

1. What politeness strategies do Iranian EFL learners use in writing apology letters?

2. What politeness strategies do Iranian EFL learners use in writing complaint letters?

3. Does the explicit instruction of politeness strategies to EFL students have any beneficial effects on the use of such strategies in their letters and the quality of their letters?

4. Are there any differences between apology and complaint letters regarding the frequency of the politeness strategies used by Iranian EFL learners after the instruction of politeness strategies to learners?

2. Literature Review

2.1 Politeness Theory

Politeness theory contains in it Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle as well as the Speech Act Theory proposed by Searle (1975), and it has transferred into a basis on which the socially correct and appropriate behavior can be analyzed and evaluated. With respect to its importance in characterizing the elements that are specific to polite behavior, many studies that are related to politeness theory in pragmatics have paved the way to familiarizing the individuals with politeness strategies in different cultures (Hardin, 2001; Pishghadam, 2011). The importance of studying politeness in languages is more conspicuous when attending to Kasper's (1990) argument that people need to keep their relationships and avoid conflicts. People attempt to save their "face" in almost all interactions (Wilson, Kim, & Meischke 1992). Lakoff (1973), Brown and Levinson (1987) and Leech (1983) suggested that the maintenance of interpersonal relationships can be successful by the use of politeness strategies that are rule-governed and rational.

Interactants develop positive politeness and negative politeness. Positive politeness is relevant to the positive face and the positive self-image. Positive politeness is also approach-based. It saves the face of the addressee by indicating that the speaker wants the hearer's wants. Negative politeness, is mainly related to saving or compensating hearer's negative face, which basically maintains the hearer's self-determination (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Leech (1983) stated that linguistic politeness includes several rules. The first rule is the rule of attention which minimizes the limit and maximizes the profit of others. The second rule is the rule of kindness that minimizes the profit of own and maximizes the profit of others. The third is the rule of respectfulness that minimizes the impoliteness of others and maximizes the respect of others. Finally, the forth one is rule of simplicity that minimizes the praise of own and maximizes the praise of others.

2.3 Review of the Previous Studies

In a study conducted by Maier (1992), she analyzed politeness strategies used in writing business letters by both native and non-native speakers. Maier (1992) examined the native speaker letters for specific constructions which could be categorized as politeness strategies based on Brown and Levinson's (1987) model. The non-native speaker data indicated their awareness of various types of politeness strategies. In addition, the non-native speakers avoided using certain politeness strategies and relied more on others compared to the native speakers. These findings suggest that business letter writing in English by non-native speakers, even a letter which is grammatically correct, may be thought of to be negative by the reader because of the inappropriate use of politeness strategies. Many researchers studied on politeness strategies for writing business letters (Pilegaard, 1997; Maier, 1992; Nickerson, 1999) and some other studies discussed politeness strategies used by native and non-native speakers of English (Carrell & Konneker, 1981).

The second research being reported here was conducted by Kitamura (2000) from the school of European, Asian, and Middle Eastern Languages. The title was "Adapting Brown and Levinson's Theory of Politeness to the Analysis of Casual Conversation". Kitamura analyzed a small segment of casual conversation in Japanese to show how Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness can be adapted and applied in non-goal based interactions. This adaptation of their theory to a different type of the interaction has shown some types of politeness strategies not completely described by Brown and Levinson (1987).

3. Method

3.1 Participants

The participants of the study were chosen from among the population of EFL students at the Iran Language Institute in Tehran. 30 EFL students in two intact classes were selected to take part in the study learning English at the intermediate level at one of the branches of the Iran Language Institute in Tehran. In addition, the administration of the Oxford Placement Test ascertained the homogeneity of the participants in terms of their language proficiency, which may be an influential factor affecting learners' quality of the letters.

3.2 Instruments

The following instruments were utilized by the researcher to gather the relevant data:

In order to ensure that the members of the intact classes are at the same level of language proficiency, an English placement test was administered. The test was Quick Oxford placement test which helped indicating that the two groups were not statistically different in language proficiency levels prior to the treatment sessions. The test consists of 60 multiple choice items, and is divided into two parts.

A pre-test measuring the participants' awareness of the politeness strategies was given to the participants prior to the treatment sessions. This test was designed to examine and determine the amounts of the participants' knowledge and awareness of the politeness strategies as well as their letter writing capabilities and skills.

The check list of politeness strategies is another instrument that was utilized in the study. The list was prepared based on the politeness theory proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987). This check list was used to teach the participants of the experimental group the politeness strategies, and second, to evaluate students' writings and determine the frequencies with which the strategies are used after the completion of the treatment sessions. Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory includes four major strategies, namely bald on-record strategies, positive politeness strategies, negative politeness strategies, and off-record indirect strategies.

The participants of the study in both groups were asked to write three apology letters and three complaint letters in the three treatment sessions. In other words, in each treatment session, the participants of both groups were required to write one apology and one complaint letter. Hence, the participants of the experimental group were first provided with the strategies, and then they were asked to write an apology and a complaint letter.

3.3 Data Collection Procedure

The purposeful sampling was applied to select the participants of the study, because two classes that were appropriate both in terms of age range and language proficiency were purposefully selected for the study. The two classes were the assigned to the two groups of the study, the experimental and the control group. The selected 30 students also fit to the intermediate level on the basis of the results obtained from the Quick Oxford Placement Test. Following the sampling for the study, the researcher administered the pre-test, in which the participants of both groups were asked to write two letters, one apology letter, and one complaint letter. The purpose of giving them a pre-test was to determine if they were familiar with the styles of English letters, which was one of the criteria for inclusion in the study. The three treatment sessions began after the administration of the pre-test. The politeness strategies were taught during three sessions to the students of the experimental group only; while the members of the control group received no instruction on the politeness strategies.

The strategies were divided into three sections, and in each session, the participants of the experimental group were presented one section of the strategies on the check list and were subsequently asked to write an apology letter and a complaint letter on the topics presented by the researcher. The letters that were written by the participants after the first session were analyzed by the researcher and written feedback was given to the participants on their letters. This procedure was repeated for the experimental group during the other treatment sessions. That being the case, each participant totally wrote 6 letters by the end of the treatment sessions. As noted previously, the main purpose of the treatment is to determine if teaching the politeness strategies to the participants can increase the frequency of strategies used by them in the two types of letters. The letters were carefully analyzed by the researcher against the politeness strategies checklist, in order to determine the frequency with which any of the strategies were used accurately. This was done after each writing session, and the result of the analyses was given to the participants as a form of feedback so that the whole instruction sessions be more effective.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Pretest Results

The results indicated that the participants of the experimental group used 28 instances of politeness strategies in their letters; while the participants of the control group used 31 strategies in both letters. These frequencies were compared using a Chi-square test.

Table 1. *Chi-square results for politeness strategies frequencies in pre-test*

	Groups
Chi-Square	.021[a]
Df	1
Sig.	.884

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 23.5.

As can be seen in the above table, the frequencies of the politeness strategies used in the letters of both groups are not significantly different (Chi-square= 0.21, p> 0.05). Therefore, the two groups did not use politeness strategies differently in terms of the frequencies prior to performing the experiment.

4.2 Post-test Results

The participants of the experimental group received instruction on politeness strategies and were asked to write an apology and a complaint letter after each session. The participants of the control group; however, didn’t receive any instruction regarding the politeness strategies; yet they were given a placebo instruction in which they were instructed paragraph structure and paragraph writing techniques and were asked to write the same number of letters with the same topics.

4.2.1 Politeness strategies used in apology letters

The participants in both groups were asked to write apology letters after each treatment session. However, the difference between the two groups was that the experimental group received instruction on politeness strategies, while the control group was only exposed to these strategies and explicit instruction was not presented to them. The results can clearly show that the frequency of strategies used by the experimental group (i.e. 226 strategies) is way higher than that of the control group (i.e. 73 strategies). The sub strategies are also displayed in the table with the frequency of each. Of course the frequencies will be compared with a chi-square test; however, it is clear that the experimental group performed better than the control group in using the strategies. Another important issue, which needs to be pointed out is that the frequency of positive strategies is generally higher than the frequency of negative strategies in both groups.

Negative politeness strategies were also used in letters written by both groups; however, with a less frequency than the positive strategies. Again, in all these sub-strategies, the frequency with which the experimental group used them is higher than that of the control group. Finally, as shown above, off-record strategies were also used in the participants' letters of apology. It should be noted that the control group used the sub-strategy of overstatement more frequently than the experimental group did; however it didn't use the strategy of rhetorical question at all, while the experimental group used this sub-strategy one in a letter.

The frequency differences between the two groups were analyzed using a Chi-square test. In this test, the two sets of frequencies are statistically compared to determine if they are significantly different. The results are displayed in Tables 2 and 3 below.

Table 2. *Cross tabulation of the interaction between groups and strategies*

Groups	Positive Strategies	Negative Strategies	Off record Strategies	Total
Experimental	170	54	2	226
Control	58	12	3	73
Total	228	66	5	299

Table 3. C*hi-square results for frequency differences between the two groups*

Strategies	Observed Frequency		Expected Frequency	Chi-square	Sig.
	Experimental	Control			
Positive strategies	170	58	114	55.01	0.00*
Negative strategies	54	12	33	26.72	0.00*
Off-record strategies	2	3	2.5	0.20	0.65

*Note: The frequency difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The results indicate that the difference between the two groups in terms of using the positive and negative politeness strategies is significant (Chi square= 55.01, $p< 0.05$) and (chi-square = 26.72, $p< 0.05$). This shows that the students of the experimental group used more positive and negative politeness strategies in writing apology letters than the control group. Moreover, with regards to the off-record strategies, no difference was found between the two groups (Chi-square= 0.20, p> 0.05).

4.2.2 Politeness strategies used in complaint letters

After the treatment sessions, the researcher collected the letters and analyzed them meticulously to find the frequency with which politeness strategies were used correctly by the students in both groups. It can be observed in the above table that only two types of politeness strategies, namely positive and negative strategies were found in the letters written by the students of both groups. The analysis of the letters revealed that the total frequency with which the positive strategies were used for the complaint letters is 127 for the experimental group, while it is only 64 for the control group. With respect to the second strategy, i.e. negative politeness strategies, the sub-strategies found in the letters include: Be conventionally indirect, be pessimistic, Minimize the imposition, Apologize, Impersonalize speaker and hearer, Go on record and incurring a debt or as not indebting hearer. Another important point is that these sub-strategies were used more frequently by the students of the experimental group than the control group in almost all cases.

In order to determine if these frequency differences are statistically significant or not, a chi-square for goodness of fit was run. The results of the Chi-square test are displayed below in Table 4.

Table 4. *Chi-Square results for the strategies used in complaint letters*

	Groups
Chi-Square	32.05[a]
Df	1
Sig.	.000

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 156.0.

It can be clearly observed that the frequency difference in the strategies used by both groups in writing complaint letters is statistically significant (Chi-square=32.05, P< 0.05). This shows that the experimental group used these strategies more frequently than the control group and this difference is statistically significant. The following Tables indicate the results of the frequency differences between the two groups.

Table 5. *Cross tabulation of the interaction between groups and strategies*

Groups	Positive Strategies	Negative Strategies	Total
Experimental	127	79	206
Control	64	42	106
Total	191	121	312

Table 6. *Chi-square results for frequency differences between the two groups*

Strategies	Observed Frequency		Expected Frequency	Chi-square	Sig.
	Experimental	Control			
Positive strategies	127	64	95.5	20.78	0.00*
Negative strategies	79	42	60.5	11.31	0.001*

*Note: The frequency difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The results indicate that the difference between the two groups in terms of using the positive and negative politeness strategies is significant (Chi square= 20.78, $p < 0.05$) and (chi-square = 11.31, $p < 0.05$). This shows that the students of the experimental group used more positive and negative politeness strategies in writing apology letters than the control group.

4.2.3 Differences between experimental and control groups

The total frequency of the strategies used by experimental group in writing both types of letters after instruction was found to be 432 cases. In the same vein, the total frequency of the strategies used by the control group was found to be 179 cases. A Chi-square for Goodness of Fit was run to determine if the frequency difference between the two groups is significant or not.

Table 7. C*hi-square results for the differences between the two groups*

	Frequency
Chi-Square	135.004[a]
Df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 461.5.

Chi-square results clearly indicate that the frequency difference between the two groups in their use of politeness strategies is significantly different (Chi-square= 135.004, $p < 0.05$). This finding suggests that the experimental group indeed used more politeness strategies in their letter writing. Therefore, the finding backs the idea that the explicit instruction of the politeness strategies can have a beneficial effect on learners' use of these strategies in letters and their mere exposure is not enough.

4.2.4 Differences between apology and complaint letters use of strategies

Overall, the number of 226 strategies was used for apology letters, and 206 strategies were used for complaint letters by the experimental group. The control group, however, used 73 strategies for writing apology letters, while 106 strategies were used by them in writing complaint letters. Table 4.8 displays the results of the chi-square test.

Table 8. *Chi-square results for the differences between the two types of letters*

Groups	Frequency of Apology	Frequency of Complaint	Chi-Square	Df	Sig.
Experimental	226	206	0.926	1	0.336
Control	73	106	1.084	1	0.064

The results obtained from the Chi-square tests indicate that there was no significant difference between the frequencies of strategies used for the two types of letters by both groups.

5. Discussion

The first research question dealt with the frequency of the strategies used in writing apology letters by the two groups of the study. The findings of the study revealed that only the main strategies of positive politeness strategies, negative politeness strategies and off-record strategies were used in the apology letters by both groups. The results of the chi-square test also revealed that the difference between these two frequencies is significant (Chi-square= 55.01, p< 0.05). Therefore, it can be confidently stated that the instruction of politeness strategies does indeed affect the production and use of such strategies in writing apology letters.

The second research question results indicated that overall, the experimental group used 206 cases of politeness strategies in their complaint letters, while the control group produced 106 cases. The results of the chi-square test revealed that the frequency difference between the two groups is significant (Chi-square= 32.05, p< 0.05). It was found that only the two main strategies of positive strategies and negative strategies were used by the students of both groups, and bold on-record strategies and off-record strategies were absent in their letters.

The third research question results indicated that overall, the number of 226 strategies was used by the experimental group in writing apology letters, and 206 strategies were used in writing complaint letters. The results of the chi-square indicated that this frequency difference in the experimental group is not significant (Chi-square= 0.926, p> 0.33). With regards to the control group, the same result was obtained. It was noticed that the control group used 73 cases of strategies in writing apology letters and 106 cases of strategies in writing complaint letters.

Overall, it was found that that the experimental group used 638 cases of strategies in all letters, while the control group used only 285 cases. The results of the chi-square revealed that the frequency difference between the use of strategies in both groups are significantly different (Chi-square= 135.004, p< 0.05). Therefore, the finding of the study with this regard is that the experimental group, which received instruction on politeness strategies before writing letters, indeed used more strategies in their apology and complaint letters compared with the control group, whose instruction was on paragraph writing structure and techniques.

In line with the results of present study, Maier's (1992) study, analyzed politeness strategies used in writing business letters by both native and non-native speakers. Maier (1992) examined the native speaker letters for specific constructions which could be categorized as politeness strategies based on Brown and Levinson's (1987) model. Based on the result of his study, non-native speakers data showed awareness of various types of politeness strategies. In addition, the non-native speakers avoided using certain politeness strategies and relied more on others compared to the native speakers.

The results of the study almost agree with Gillani and Rashid Mahmood (2014) explored the politeness strategies used in Pakistani letters written in English. This study investigates the differences between Pakistani and American ways of using politeness strategies in business letters. They discovered that the Pakistani business English letters have different politeness strategies than American letters. They concluded that using politeness strategies was more effective in American letters. These results are directly in line with the results of the present study.

The results of the study are contradictory with Yuliana's (2003) study who analyzed the politeness strategies that appeared in Probolinggo community. Subsequently, the researcher analyzed which of the politeness of Javanese and Madurese were mostly used by them. The results indicated that almost none pf the politeness strategies were useful in this study.

6. Implications

The results found in this study may have beneficial implications for language teachers, material developers, and foreign language students. Language teachers need to be aware of the fact that speech acts, and specifically politeness is a concept that can be instructed to the students, and it shouldn't be left alone for students to acquire. In other words, it can be taught explicitly, resulting in a better use of them in writing. Moreover, material developers need to incorporate the instruction of such strategies in the materials they develop for language classes. Since one of the most important aspects of any language is the cultural issues of that language, and since culture and language are inseparable, material developers are recommended that they incorporate the teaching of such strategies in their tasks.

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CATEGORIES OF LOAN WORDS: MARKEDNESS/UNMARKEDNESS AND SPEECH LEARNING MODEL

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Abstract

Similarities of loanwords in phonological and semantic aspects help learners discover and learn such words beforehand; thus, cross-linguistic similarities of loanwords may provide learners of L2 with certain facilitative advantages. In this respect, as regards vocabulary learning in general and loanwords in particular, the question debated is whether the impact of L1 on L2 yields positive results or not: if the transfer is positive the result is positive; but if negative, the impact causes to erroneous output. This research report is intended to build an understanding of the recognized pronunciation and orthographic problems of similar lexical forms-loanwords- in both Turkish (L1 of the participants) and English (L2). In this descriptive study, the corpus was gathered from spoken and written productions of L2 learners of English. The results specified that the loanwords in Turkish are the most marked while uttering and writing, though they are unmarked in meaning level.

Key words: marked, unmarked, positive transfer, negative transfer, loanwords

1. Introduction

Learning a foreign language or second language (L2) is a kind of process during which learners attempt to make negative or positive transfer from their own first language (L1) in order to cope with the probable difficulties in the target language. If there exist syntactic, lexical, semantic, or phonetic similarities between L1 and L2, positive transfer from L1 may make L2 learners become familiar with the linguistic information of L2. Of linguistic similarities, predominantly phonetic similarity and orthographic similarity between languages may promote the pace of learning or acquiring the target language; but phonetic similarity may also raise difficulty in discovering and appreciating the identical sounds in both native language and target language (Gass, 2013). Within the context of the similarities and dissimilarities of L1 and L2, this study mainly aims to discuss the case of loanwords in Turkish as L1 and English as L2. The discussion is carried out by taking the Markedness Differential Hypothesis –MDH- and Speech Learning Model–SLM- as references.

1.1. Markedness Differential Hypothesis (MDH)

When some linguistic features are more basic in relation to others, such features are explained with the notions of markedness and unmarkedness (Ortega, 2009). Chomsky distinguishes the rules of a language either core or peripheral in his theory of Universal Grammar (UG) (Ellis, 2008). In the UG core rules are assumed to be belong to universal principles, and peripheral rules are governed by parameters. When the notions of markedness and unmarkedness are examined within the context of Markedness Differential Hypothesis which was put forth by Eckman, marked ones can be categorized within parameter settings, while unmarked ones can be evaluated depending on principles notion (Ellis, 2008). Gass (2013), by discussing Eckman's (1977) Markedness Differential Hypothesis (MDH), which is based on phonological theory of markedness, states that one way to think of markedness is that an unmarked form, whether phonological or syntactic, is more common, more usual in the world's languages than a marked one.

For Ellis (2008), MDH is based on those areas of L2 that are different from L1 and are relatively more marked and difficult than in L1. In other terms, if the sounds of a language are similar to other languages, they are labeled as unmarked ones; but if not, they are labeled as marked ones. Thus, the learners of such languages can find the chance of making transfer, either positive or negative, from their own L1 to L2 or from other language they have learnt to the other language that is being recently learnt. If it leads to positive transfer, language learning process becomes less daunting and easier for the learner (Ringbom, 2007).

1.2. Speech Learning Model (SLM)

Speech Learning Model -SLM- proposed by Flege (1995) claims that how distant an L2 sound is from L1 sound, this sound is more learnable, since the similarity between the two sounds of two different languages cannot be perceived easily by leaners (Gass, 2013); that means learners do not classify them as different and do not tend to set up a contrast theory. Thus, the similar sounds are categorized as marked sounds. In the storage of lexical items, the similarities of both languages have influences on learners' perception and production progress (Rignbom, 1987; Gabrys-Barker, 2006; Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008). The lexical similarity may make it easier for learners to store, but as for the phonetic similarity, learners cannot easily pronounce easily because of the assumption that those sounds are not classified as different.

1.3. Categories of loanwords in terms of Markedness/Unmarkedness and Speech Learning Model

The studies pertaining to loanwords categories specify that some phonological and semantic linguistic modifications take place during the process of borrowing (Kay, 1995; Tsujimura, 1996; Major, 2008; Beel & Felder, 2013). The assumed modifications may stem from the nature of the differences of sound systems of L1 and L2. Loanwords undergo phonological adaptations to make the lexical item be more native and less foreign because of the impact of similarity and markedness on L2 acquisition (Major, 2008). Loanwords, thus, seem to be helpful catalysts for learners during language learning process. In terms of MDH, loanwords are the items that can easily be comprehended and acquired as long as they are unmarked; however, for SLM, if the similarity of sounds of loanwords are greater, they cannot be easily learnt and classified as different.

2. The Study

2.1. Method and participants

This study is a replication of a formerly carried out study by the researcher (Coşgun Ögeyik, 2018). The purpose for designing this replication study is to check and test additional samples of the target population with the same method in order to provide supporting or contradictory evidence of the phenomenon under discussion. In this sense, for contributing to explanatory power of the previous findings, this replication study seems to be required for supporting both the findings and analysis of the former research as well as the findings of the present one.

The present research that is descriptive in nature was carried out through classroom observation reports and written products of the participants who were 24 second year student teachers attending the English Language Teaching Department (ELT) at a Turkish university.

2.2. Research question

The research question, regarding the vocabulary learning in general and loanwords in particular is:

"Does the impact of L1 on L2 yields positive results or not while using loanwords?"

2.3. Data collection and analysis

For data sets, the loanwords used by participants were collected for the corpora. One source of the corpus consists of the oral products recorded during English courses for one semester. The other source is the corpus collected by the use of hand-written documents taken from various ELT course exam papers of the participants. Qualitative analyses were used to evaluate the collected data. As the requirement of qualitative corpus analysis, the study is based on linguistic investigations of actual instances gathered from oral and written communication.

3. Findings

The oral and written sets of the loanwords were classified as positive/negative transfer and unmarkedness/markedness dichotomies.

Table 1. *Similarity of loanwords at phonological level*

	Positive transfer/ Unmarkedness Loanwords and English-Turkish Correspondences		Negative transfer/ Markedness/SLM Loanwords and English-Turkish Correspondences	
Oral performance at phonological level	Actor-aktör	Feminist-feminist	Address-adres	International-enternasyonel
	Alarm-alarm	Graphic-grafik	Agent-acenta	Legal-legal
	Album-albüm	Monologue-monolog	Accessory-aksesuar	Liter-litre
	America-Amerika	Picnic-piknik	Allergy-allerji	Journal-jurnal
	Anonym-anonim	Phonetics-fonetik	Alphabet-alfabe	Material-materyal
	Archeologist-arkeolog	Physics-fizik	Alcohol-alkol	Mathematics-matematik
	Arena-arena	Politics-politika	Alcoholism-alkolizm	Medium-medyum
	Aristocracy-aristokrasi	Professor-profesör	Analysis-analiz	Meteorology-meteoroloji
	Arithmetic-aritmetik	Reform-reform	Abnormal-anormal	Million-milyon
	Artist-artist	Refuse-refuze	Antique-antik	Modern-modern
	Bacteria-bakteri	Restoration-restorasyon	Apartment-apartman	Muslim-müslüman
	Basketball-basketbol	Stabilization-stabilizasyon	Archeology-arkeoloji	Objective-objektif
	Bureaucracy-bürokrasi	Strategy-strateji	Assistant-asistan	Operation-operasyon
	Cacao-kakao	Symmetry-simetri	Atmosphere-atmosfer	Original-orijinal
	Catalog-katalog	Tanker-tanker	Baggage-bagaj	Pajamas-pijama
	Characteristic-karakteristik	Taxi-taksi	Balcony-balkon	Paragraph-paragraf
	Chocolate-çikolata	Telecommunication-telekomünikasyon	Biography-biyografi	Parameter-parametre
	Coffee-kahve	Television-televizyon	Biology-biyoloji	Passport-pasaport
	Commission-komisyon	Tennis-tenis	Cactus-kaktüs	Pedagogy-pedegoji
	Complex-kompleks	Telepathy-telepati	Cafeteria-kafeterya	Performance-performans
	Composition-komposizyon	Telephone-telefon	Calcium-kalsiyum	Philology-filoloji
	Copy-kopya	Terror-terör	Capacity-kapasite	Photography-fotoğraf
	Costume-kostüm	Test-test	Capital-kapital	Pizza-pizza
	Credit-kredi	Thermal-termal	Captain-kaptan	Practical-pratik
	Cristal-kristal	Toast-tost	Caricature-karikatür	Profile-profil
	Critic-kritik	Tone-ton	Category-kategori	Psychiatry-psikiyatri
	Economy-ekonomi	Transformation-transformasyon	Champion-şampiyon	Psychology-psikoloji
	Electronic-elektronik	Transportation-transportasyon	Chimpanzee-şempanze	Regime-rejim
	Emperor-imparator	Transit-transit	Club-klüp	Reception-resepsiyon
	Faculty-fakülte	Tropical-tropik	Coalition-koalisyon	Restaurant-restoran
	Federation-federasyon	Volcanic-volkanik	College-kolej	Romantic-romantik
		Whisky-viski	Communism-kominizm	Schizophrenia-şizofreni
			Compartment-kompartıman	Semester-sömestr
			Conference-konferans	Specific-spesifik
			Concert-konser	Socialist-sosyalist
			Corner-korner	Sociology-sosyoloji
			Cousin-kuzen	Special-spesiyal
			Crisis-kriz	

		Culture-kültür	Speaker-spiker
		Detective-detektif	Station-istasyon
		Decoration-dekorasyon	Statistics-istatistik
		Dynamite-dinamit	Style-stil
		Dialog-diyalog	Sultan-sultan
		Dozen-düzine	Supermarket-süpermarket
		Empathy-empati	Surprise-sürpriz
		Encyclopedia-ansiklopedi	Symbol-sembol
		Energy-enerji	Sympathy-sempati
		Energetic-enerjik	Symposium-sempozyum
		Filter-filtre	Tactic-taktik
		Garage-garaj	Technology-teknoloji
		Gas-gaz	Telegraph-telgraf
		Generator-jeneratör	Textile-tekstil
		Geology-jeoloji	Theory-teori
		Guarantee-garanti	Tolerance-tolarans
		Grammar-gramer	Tour-tur
		Hotel-otel	Tourism-turizm
		Hypermarket-hipermarket	Traffic-trafik
		Icon-ikon	Train-tren
		Ideal-ideal	Transfer-transfer
		Idealism-idealizm	Uniform-üniforma
		Ideology-ideoloji	University-üniversite
		Image-imaj	Vitamin-vitamin
		Internet-internet	Visa-vize
		Industry-endüstri	Zoology-zooloji
		Inflation-enflasyon	

As displayed in Table 1, the loanwords which have similar or identical phonetic features in L1 and L2 were transferred from Turkish to English under the influence of positive transfer and were assumed to be unmarked words. But the ones which are classified as marked were influenced negatively from the transfer due to similar L1 correspondences in L2. In terms of MDH, as long as loanwords are unmarked, they can be comprehended and acquired easily; for SLM, if the similarity of sounds of loanwords are greater, they cannot be easily learnt and classified as different. The findings in Table 1 displays the validity of both MDH and SLM to some extent, though they claim contrast ideas about the power of similarity and dissimilarity during learning process. But in general the unmarked items are mostly exposed to positive transfer; that is the claim of MDH.

Table 2. *Similarity of loanwords at orthographic level*

	Positive transfer/ Unmarkedness Loanwords and English-Turkish Correspondences		Negative transfer/ Markedness Loanwords and English-Turkish Correspondences	
	Actor-aktör	Supermarket-süpermarket	Actress-aktris	Ideal-ideal
	Africa-Afrika	Tactic-taktik	Address-adres	Idealism-idealism
	Alarm-alarm	Tanker-tanker	Agent-acenta	Ideology-ideoloji
	Album-albüm	Taxi-taksi	Accessory-aksesuar	Image-imge, imaj
	America-Amerika	Telecommunication-telekomünikasyon	Allergy-allerji	Industry-endüstri
	Anonym-anonim	Television-televizyon	Aquarium-akvaryum	Inflation-enflasyon
	Argot-argo	Tennis-tenis	Archeologist-arkeolog	Liter-litre
	Arena-arena	Telephone-telefon	Aristocracy-aristokrasi	Journal-jurnal
	Arithmetic-aritmetik	Test-test	Alphabet-alfabe	Mathematics-matematik
	Artist-artist	Thermal-termal	Alcohol-alkol	Medium-medyum
	Bank-banka	Toast-tost	Alcoholism-alkolism	Meteorology-meteoroloji
	Basketball-basketbol	Tone-ton	Amateur-amatör	Million-milyon
	Cacao-kakao			
	Cactus-kaktüs			

Written performance at orthographic level	Cafeteria-kafeterya	Tour-tur	Analysis-analiz	Monologue-monolog
	Calcium-kalsiyum	Tourism-turizm	Abnormal-anormal	Muslim-müslüman
	Catalog-katalog	Traffic-trafik	Antique-antik	Objective-objektif
	Category-kategori	Train-tren	Apartment-apartman	Pajamas-pijama
	Characteristic-karekteristik	Transformation-transformasyon	Archeology-arkeoloji	Paragraph-paragraf
	Chocolate-çikolata	Transportation-transportasyon	Assistant-asistan	Parameter-parametre
	Civil-sivil	Transfer-transfer	Atmosphere-atmosfer	Pedagogy-pedegoji
	Coffee-kahve	Transit-transit	August-Ağustos	Performance-performans
	Complex-kompleks	Tropical-tropic	Bacteria-bakteri	Philology-filoloji
	Composition-komposizyon	University-üniversite	Baggage-bagaj	Photography-fotoğraf
	Copy-kopya	Variation-varyasyon	Balcony-balkon	Physics-fizik
	Costume-kostüm	Visa-vize	Biography-biyografi	Practical-pratik
	Credit-kredi	Vitamin-vitamin	Biology-biyoloji	Profile-profil
	Crisis-kriz	Volcanic-volkanik	Bureaucracy-bürokrasi	Professor-profesör
	Cristal-kristal		Capacity-kapasite	Psychiatry-psikiyatri
	Critic-kritik		Capital-kapital	Psychology-psikoloji
	Diplomatic-diplomatik		Captain-kaptan	Regime-rejim
	Economy-ekonomi		Carbondioxide-karbondioksit	Rehabilitation-rehabilitasyon
	Electronic-elektronik		Caricature-karikatür	Restaurant-restoran
	Energy-enerji		Champion-şampiyon	Schizophrenia-şizofreni
	Faculty-fakülte		Chimpanzee-şempanze	Semester-sömestr
	Federation-federasyon		Club-klüp	Specific-spesifik
	Feminist-feminist		Coalition-koalisyon	Socialist-sosyalist
	Festival-festival		College-kolej	Sociology-sosyoloji
	Function-fonksiyon		Commission-komisyon	Special-spesiyal
	Gas-gaz		Communism-kominizm	Speaker-spiker
	Hotel-otel		Compartment-kompartıman	Speculation-spekülasyon
	International-uluslararası		Conference-konferans	Stabilization-stabilizasyon
	Internet-internet		Concert-konser	Station-istasyon
	Legal-legal		Corner-korner	Statistics-istatistik
	Material-materyal		Corridor-koridor	Style-stil
	Modern-modern		Cousin-kuzen	Surprise-sürpriz
	Operation-operasyon		Culture-kültür	Sweater-süeter
	Original-orijinal		Detective-detektif	Symmetry-simetri
	Passport-pasaport		Decoration-dekorasyon	Symbol-sembol
	Picnic-piknik		Dynamite-dinamit	Sympathy-sempati
	Pizza-pizza		Dialog-diyalog	Symposium-sempozyum
	Politics-politika		Dozen-düzine	Technology-teknoloji
	Phonetic-fonetik		Empathy-empati	Telegraph-telgraf
	Radiation-radyasyon		Emperor-imparator	Telepathy-telepati
	Rational-rasyonel		Encyclopedia-ansiklopedi	Terror-terör
	Reception-resepsiyon		Energetic-enerjik	Terrorism-terörizm
	Reform-reform		Filter-filtre	Textile-tekstil
	Refuse-refuze		Garage-garaj	Theory-teori
	Restoration-restorasyon		Generator-jeneratör	Tolerance-tolerans
	Romantic-romantik		Geology-jeoloji	Uniform-üniforma
	Station-istasyon		Graphic-grafik	Whisky-visky
	Statistics-istatistik		Guarantee-garanti	Zoology-zooloji
	Strategy-strateji		Grammar-gramer	
	Sultan-sultan		Hypermarket-hipermarket	
			Icon-ikon	

In Table 2, the loanwords in Turkish which have close resemblance in English were inscribed in the correct forms in English. They were not assigned as marked items; thus close orthographic similarity caused to positive transfer. In this type of data sets, since orthographic features of loanwords were evaluated, SLM was not processed for evaluation.

Table 3. *Relativity of perception and production of loanwords*

Classification of performance levels	The cross-linguistic influence	Evaluation of cross-linguistic similarity on the base of the perception and production of learners
Oral performance at phonological level	Positive transfer/ Unmarkedness	Learners' perception and classification of L2 sounds as not different from L1 sounds in oral production
	Negative transfer/ Markedness/ SLM	Learners' perception of L2 sounds as similar as L1 written forms and violation of L2 pronunciation in oral production
Written performance at orthographic level	Positive transfer/ Unmarkedness	Learners' successful insertion of L1 graphemes almost equivalent to L2 graphemes in written performance
	Negative transfer/ Markedness	Learners' failure in spelling the loanwords in L1 because of similar sounds and graphemes

The predominance of L1 influence on loanword procedure has been displayed through the collected corpora. Due to the perceived similarity of the loanwords in both Turkish and English, if the loanwords in both languages are identically pronounced, no deviation appeared in the oral productions of the participants. This result is consistent with the MDH proclamation. On the other hand, there exists pronunciation similarity between the words of both L1 and L2, those loanwords were exposed to negative transfer and classified in markedness dichotomy. In this sense, SLM offers a valid theory for language learning process.

In written documents it was detected that L1 similarity led to negative transfer and was evaluated in markedness level, while the loanwords which have identical orthographic forms led to positive transfer and were evaluated in unmarkedness dichotomy.

4. Discussion

In this replicated study, the main aim is to describe the positive and negative aspects of transfer from L1 into L2 while using loanwords. Additionally, it is aimed to question and discuss the validity of the theories, Markedness Differential Hypothesis and Speech Learning Model by assessing the corpus data on the base of these theories.

As consistent with the results of the former study designed by Coşgun Ögeyik (2018) the results of the present indicated that if the similarity of the loanwords is almost equal at phonological level in both Turkish and English, it assists language learners to use the loanwords correctly; and in written performance, if the spelling of loanwords in both languages are identical, learners face no difficulty and influences them positively for developing transcribing ability at orthographic level. The products are produced through positive transfer. On the contrary, the diverse orthographic forms of the loanwords in two languages lead to difficulty and erroneous productions. The results also indicated that the ignorance of the exact dissimilarity and relatively similarity of speech sounds on the surface level leads to negative transfer and results in marked category (Coşgun Ögeyik, 2018). According to Speech Learning Model, the greater the perceived phonetic divergence between L1 and L2 speech sounds, the more likely learners will be able to distinguish the difference between L1 and L2 sounds; but the phonetic convergence of the lexis in the two languages obstructs learners' awareness of the discrepancy of the sounds. In this respect, once again the results of the present analysis verify the idea put forward by this model.

The research report also sought answers to the research question “Does the impact of L1 on L2 yields positive results or not while using loanwords?” If the loanwords are closely identical in both Turkish and English, in both oral and written products, the impact of L1 on L2 is assumed to be positive. As Ringbom (2006) emphasizes learners, consciously or not, do not look for differences, but they look for similarities wherever they can find them. Nevertheless, in markedness level, the participants perceived the L2 sounds as identical to the L1 sounds and disrupted the phonological rules in English. The loanwords that have similar L2 graphemes were inserted successfully, and the participants used positive transfer appropriately in their products. The complicated ones led to difficulties and the participants were exposed to negative transfer. This research report has consistent results with the other studies carried out to indicate the issues that cause to negative transfer of loanwords by introducing the phonological, morphological, semantic changes (Kay, 1995; Simon-Maeda, 1995; Tsujimura, 1996). In order to cope with the possible difficulties that learners may encounter while using loanwords, it would be useful to design a treatment process for exploring the reasons of negative transfer and make learners notice their errors attributable to negative transfer. After treatment process, the developmental stages need to be recorded and evaluated.

5. Conclusion

This descriptive analysis that is a sample diagnostic study was a replicated form of another study conducted by the same researcher in order to verify and validate the collected corpus in terms of loanwords. Based on the findings of both the former and replicated study, it would be possible to conclude that the phonetic and orthographic similarity between L1 and L2 may be both facilitative and debilitative in L2 learning process. When two languages share a number of identical loanwords, it may increase learners’ motivation level and may promt self-confidence in vocabulary learning. When loanwords in L1 have phonetic similarity with the ones in L2, both negative and positive transfer may appear; that is, loanword phonology in L1 may not always conform to L2 phonology. At orthographic level, as a result of different spelling features, learners may also have difficulty and make negative transfer.

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"CAN I TRUST YOU?"
FROM STUDENTS' PERSPECTIVES: HOW USEFUL IS PEER FEEDBACK IN WRITING CLASSES?

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Abstract

In language learning, product is as much important as process. Thus, writing skills are considered to be crucial. In a writing class, do your students feel confident and trust each other? The purpose of this study is to share the findings of an action research which aims at discovering how useful peer feedback is in writing classes. To do this, a questionnaire was applied. According to the results, an interview was administered. There are 27 participants studying at Izmir Institute of Technology School of Foreign Languages. The findings of the questionnaire and interview were analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. The results showed that peer feedback helps students to be more confident, and to learn in a relaxing way. However, they still need teacher feedback and corrections made by the teacher do not have a negative effect on their motivation.

Keywords: writing skills, teacher feedback, peer feedback, action research

1. Introduction

In second language learning, there has always been the idea that teaching should start first with the receptive skills and students should be provided with comprehensible input so that they are able to feel ready to use the language. For this reason, the emergence of productive skills has always been considered as crucial and writing skills have been given the most attention as it is a clear picture of what the students have learned and it provides the learners' output more explicitly.

Although it is given more importance, the area of productive skills, especially writing, has always been more problematic. Students always state that they have the greatest difficulty in writing. In order to help them with this problem and in order to ease the process, different methods have emerged including process based writing and product based writing.

In product writing, as the name suggests, the final version of the students' work, in other words the production is evaluated. However, students don't benefit from this method enough as they are not directed or there is no light throughout the way of writing. It is as if they are trying to find a way out while their eyes are closed.

Process based writing, on the other hand, provides students with a map and helps them to find their way. It evaluates the process including how they begin, how they continue and what they do during the process. At this point a question may appear: who helps them during the process? Even though most will answer this question as “teacher”, the help they get from their peers cannot be ignored.

In traditional classes, teacher is in the centre of education and is seen the most important part of the class. However, with the help of recent studies, it is now accepted that such a way of teaching does not help the learners. Instead, the learners become dependent on the teacher and does not know what to do in the absence of him/her. They always feel the need of being given instructions or directions. Otherwise, they are not able to find their way and in the end they have no other choice but to get lost in education process.

Also, in writing classes, students already lack in self-confidence and there is a great dependency on the teacher. They always expect the teachers to correct their mistakes and they only do what the teacher says as a feedback.

So, what can be done to save the students from this dependency? The solution is quite simple: “peer feedback”. With the help of peer feedback, students will take the responsibility of their learning and they will see how to trust themselves. Peer feedback also helps the learners become autonomous.

The purpose of this study is to share the findings of an action research which aims at discovering how useful peer feedback is in writing classes. 27 students who have a B1 level of English took part in the study. An adapted version of a questionnaire which was developed by Chien and Lin (2009) was applied in class and according to the results an interview was made with 10 of the students who were randomly chosen. Then the result were analysed qualitatively.

In my writing class there are 27 students whose level of English is B1. Process based writing is employed and they get feedback from the teacher on their first drafts. In the light of the feedback given by the teacher, they write their second drafts by correcting their mistakes in the first draft. I have realized that after some time, this teacher feedback process becomes too mechanical and students get too dependent on the teacher. They do not reflect on their learning and they even do not look up a word from a dictionary because they expect the teachers to do everything for them. In my humble opinion, this is nothing but a spoon feeding. In addition, I thought doing peer check and giving peer feedback is necessary at this point because I want them to take some responsibility and trust themselves and also trust each other.

Besides asking them to be more responsible for their own learning, they were supposed to employ peer feedback in my writing class in order to focus on content and cohesion in their drafts. In our university, in order to help teachers to give feedback, a list of correction codes is used. When the first drafts are submitted, the teacher gives feedback by using the codes. However, teachers tend to focus only on grammar mistakes because of the list and we cannot really see what is inside the work of the students. For this reason, before submitting the first drafts to the teacher, students gave feedback to each other on different areas. And the results were quite promising.

2. Literature Review

Since it is a rather effective method especially in writing classes, there has been a great amount of research on the role of peer feedback in foreign language classes. With the help of the previous studies, we can conclude that it is as important as teacher feedback and the way it helps the learning process cannot be neglected.

In one of the studies in which 121 first and second undergraduates participated, Jacobs, Curtis, Braine, and Huang (1998) expected the hypothesis which claims that peer feedback is not valued and not preferable among L2 learners to be rejected. Not surprisingly, after analysing the results of the questionnaire, 93% of the participants indicated that they preferred to have peer feedback.

There is no doubt that giving and receiving peer feedback makes them more active in class and they become more controlled and autonomous for their own learning. However, some students think that teacher feedback helps them more as they are used to traditional teaching settings, or just because of the experience of the teacher. For example, in an another study carried out by Zhang (1995) 75% of the participants preferred teacher feedback. Similarly, in the study by Nelson and Carlson (1998) students preferred teacher comments rather than peers' comments as they are more ineffective. By implementing peer feedback in our classes, it is possible to make students trust themselves and their peers.

According to the study by Lin and Chien (2009) the participants feel that peer feedback makes the learning process more relaxing, confident, and inspiring. However, they think teacher feedback improves them more. At first, they may not feel comfortable as they see the teacher as the expert, but more activities help them become more autonomous.

In some cases, students may prefer teacher feedback because of the field knowledge, experience or being the authority. However, according to Parthasarathy (2014) when students write to get teacher feedback, it becomes mechanical because the student writes about what the teacher wants. Also, it is possible that the student may get stressed because of the fear of making mistakes.

When comparing different methods, the participants in the study done by Katzlinger and Herzog (2014) rated peer review positively by stating that it is an interesting way of learning and it should be applied more often. In a similar study by Altstaedter and Doolittle (2014), it can be concluded that peer feedback is said to be useful and valuable for writing classes.

Besides making students more active in the learning process, peer feedback also improves students' performance in writing. The results of the study carried out by Huisman, van del Broek, van Driel and Saab (2018) shows that students providing feedback improved their essays to a similar degree as students receiving peer feedback.

Considering the importance of feedback in writing classes, the present study seeks answers to following research questions: "1. Does peer feedback really help learners? 2. Which one do the students prefer: teacher feedback or peer feedback?

3. Methodology

The study is a mixed methods design in which both quantitative and qualitative methods were used. By implementing explanatory mixed method design, the results of the questionnaire were supported with the results of the interview. As Cresswell (2008) indicates that in explanatory design, qualitative data are collected after the quantitative data collection and it tries to explain the quantitative results.

3.1. Participants

All of the 27 participants who took part in this study had B1 level of English. They were studying at the School of Foreign Languages of a state university and it was their first year at this school. The study was carried out during the Fall term as the classes would be different in the following term.

3.2. Research Instruments

This process was applied throughout the fall term. After each piece of writing, they provided peer feedback for each other and they make corrections on their paper before they submit their papers to the teacher.

At the end of the term, they were given a questionnaire where they stated their opinions and preferences about peer feedback in writing classes. The questionnaire which was created by Lin & Chien (2009) was used. Some of the questions were modified according to the context of this study. The questionnaire included ten questions and the students were supposed to write a number which stood for Strongly Agree / Agree / Not Agree.

After the analysis of the questionnaire, and in order to support the results the teacher had an interview with 10 of the students who were selected randomly. The interview was audio taped and then transcribed.

The interview which was semi-structured was in line with the questionnaire. In order to support the questionnaire, and to have more reliable results, the questions were developed by the researchers.

The interview questions were as follows:

Table 1. *Interview Questions*

1.	How do you think giving feedback to your classmates is useful for your English?
2.	What did you like about peer feedback?
3.	What are the drawbacks of peer feedback?
4.	How do you feel when the teacher corrects your mistakes? Is it discouraging?
5.	Do you prefer peer feedback or teacher feedback?

3.3. Procedure

As a part of process-based writing, when a topic was given, students were expected to write a first draft. After completing the first draft, they were paired and instructed to check each other’s papers regarding organization and content. They were allowed to correct their mistakes if there were any when they received feedback from their peers. After providing feedback for their partners, they submitted their drafts to the teacher. As a final step, the teacher checked and gave feedback on the papers by using some correction codes.

At the end of the semester, the questionnaire was given and then the researcher had interview with the students.

3.4. Data Analysis

The quantitative analysis of the questionnaire and the qualitative analysis of the interview helped the researchers to reach a conclusion. In order to analyse the quantitative data, the frequencies were used for the questionnaire. As for the qualitative data, content analysis was implemented after transcribing the answers of the students. The qualitative analysis of the interview supports the frequencies in the questionnaire and after analysing the data it is possible to say that peer feedback is a helpful way for students to see their mistakes and to improve their writing skills in a motivating way. After each item, the researchers made some conclusions.

4. Findings

For each item, the frequencies were used to analyse the quantitative data. The conclusions were given under each item. According to the both types of data, the following conclusions could be made for the research questions:

RQ1. Does peer feedback really help learners?

The results showed us that in writing classes peer feedback provides a relaxing atmosphere for the learners. Most of the students feel relaxed, comfortable and confident thanks to peer feedback. It also helps students to get different ideas from each other through social interaction.

- ***Peer – learning***

Working in pairs or groups helps them to learn from each other. When teacher is the authority, students get passive during classes and it bores them. However, in peer feedback sessions they get active because they need to explain the mistakes and provide feedback for each other.

- ***Exchanging Ideas***

Peer feedback sessions also help learners to look at their papers from a different point of view. While giving/receiving feedback, they get inspired or they can give each other new ideas.

- ***Noticing Mistakes***

Because they look for mistakes in the papers, students get familiar with common mistakes and learning from their mistakes helps them to avoid repetition as well as improving their writing skills.

- ***Cooperation***

Working with a partner creates a friendly atmosphere during the learning process. Moreover, supporting a peer helps them to be more comfortable in class.

RQ2. Which one do the students prefer: teacher feedback or peer feedback?

According to the findings, students feel positive towards peer feedback. However, they tend to feel more secure when teacher makes corrections. In contrast to the common belief, teacher correction is not demotivating for them. It is possible to say that rather than providing one type of feedback, it is a better way to support students with different kinds of feedback. When used together, peer feedback and teacher feedback help learners to improve their writing skills.

Table 2. *Questionnaire results #1*

Q1	***I usually feel that my teachers' corrections for my paper influence my emotion and motivation in learning writing. I feel not confident and am nervous after reading my teachers' negative comments.***		
	STRONGLY AGREE	**AGREE**	**NOT AGREE**
	14.8%	3.7%	**81.4%**

81.4% of the whole class stated that teacher correction is not demotivating for them. The motivation level and the characteristics of the learner group plays an important part for this situation. The participants in the study were all motivated towards learning and there was a friendly atmosphere in the class. Due to the fact that the teacher was not dominating the class, they believed that teacher correction was a helpful tool rather than a demotivating one.

Table 3. *Questionnaire results #2*

Q2	***I feel more relaxed to get my classmate's feedback for my writings.***		
	STRONGLY AGREE	**AGREE**	**NOT AGREE**
	40.7%	**48.1%**	11.1%

48.1% of the participants felt relaxed while getting feedback from their peers. At the beginning of the term, during the first peer feedback session, they could not trust the English level of their pairs. For this reason, they did not pay much attention to the feedback they received. However, throughout the term, they got used to it and they learned how to trust each other. It also helped them to have a friendly atmosphere during the learning process.

Table 4. *Questionnaire results #3*

Q3	***I prefer peer feedback to teacher's feedback.***		
	STRONGLY AGREE	**AGREE**	**NOT AGREE**
	7.4%	22.2%	**70.3%**

More than half of the participants indicated that they prefer teacher feedback because of the fact that the teacher is more professional, more reliable and has a better level of English. When they were asked to make a comparison and a preference, they would choose teacher feedback due to the reasons given. However, they also felt relaxed during the peer feedback sessions. Rather than replacing it with teacher feedback, peer feedback could be used a part of the process. For example, in this class, teacher feedback was used as a following step after peer feedback. In this way, students were exposed to more kinds of feedback and instead of waiting for teacher feedback, they actively took part in the learning process.

Table 5. *Questionnaire results #4*

Q4	***I feel that peer feedback makes me learn more in a relaxing way.***		
	STRONGLY AGREE	**AGREE**	**NOT AGREE**
	29.6%	**44.4%**	25.9%

In this question, it could be seen that most of the participants have a positive attitude towards peer feedback. The learning environment is believed to be more relaxing when the students play a more active role in the learning process.

Table 6. *Questionnaire results #5*

Q5	***Through cooperation and cognitive interaction with my peers, I am able to write more confidently and more supportively.***

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NOT AGREE
	37%	**48.1%**	14.8%

Giving and receiving peer feedback is said to be a kind of communicative activity that could be applied in any kind of classes. The results showed that the cooperation and interaction helped students to feel more confident in writing classes and supporting each other on their mistakes that they have on their first drafts helped them to overcome the fear of making mistakes. It can be said that it also helped them to learn from their mistakes.

Table 7. *Questionnaire results #6*

Q6	***Through exchanging ideas and knowing my peer's writing proficiency, I feel much more comfortable in the writing class.***		
	STRONGLY AGREE	**AGREE**	**NOT AGREE**
	37%	**48.1%**	14.8%

According to the results, it could be said that peer feedback helped students feel comfortable during writing classes. As they shared the same level of English supporting and helping each other created a comfortable atmosphere.

Table 8. *Questionnaire results #7*

Q7	***Social interaction through writing and peer feedback, provided me more inspiration (ideas) and motivation in writing.***		
	STRONGLY AGREE	**AGREE**	**NOT AGREE**
	44.4%	33.3%	22.2%

Working collaboratively with a classmate helped them be more motivated and exchanging ideas with a peer eased the process of writing. 44.4 % of the participants indicated that they benefited from these peer feedback sessions in terms of their motivation levels and being inspired from their peers.

Table 9. *Questionnaire results #8*

Q8	***I feel that I have improved my writing skills because of the peer feedback activity in my writing class.***		
	STRONGLY AGREE	**AGREE**	**NOT AGREE**
	29.6%	**48.1%**	22.2%

It can be inferred from the results that peer feedback is thought to be useful and could be used to motivate students. 48.1 % of the participants felt that peer feedback was helpful to improve their writing skills.

Table 10. *Questionnaire results #9*

Q9	***My writing can be revised and proofread by my classmates again because I can learn more.***		
	STRONGLY AGREE	**AGREE**	**NOT AGREE**
	29.6%	**48.1%**	22.2%

It can be clearly seen that most of the students feel positive about learning from each other. As it was mentioned earlier, this group of students were motivated and open to learning from their mistakes. Hence, peer feedback sessions were thought to be beneficial as it provided comfort, opportunities to learn from each other and a friendly learning environment.

Table 11. *Questionnaire results #10*

Q10	***I think peer feedback pedagogy should be applied in English classes.***		
	STRONGLY AGREE	**AGREE**	**NOT AGREE**
	40.7%	**48.1%**	11.1%

In spite of the fact that they preferred teacher feedback when they were asked to make a comparison, according to the results it was obvious that most of the students thought that peer feedback must be applied in classes. It might not be the only feedback form in the class. However, the power of using both types of feedback in writing classes cannot be ignored.

In order to support the questionnaire, the researcher had an interview with the 10 of the participants who were randomly selected. The interview was audio taped and after that it was transcribed. By analysing and combining the results of both the questionnaire and the interview, the final results for the study were reached.

Some of the answers of the students to the questions were as follows:

Q1. *How do you think giving feedback to your classmates is useful for your English?*

“I think I can learn from their mistakes and correct them.”

“We can help each other to improve our English, so I think it’s useful.”

“When I control my classmate’s draft I think my brain works at a high concentration level to focus on the mistakes, so I think it helps me to improve.”

“It’s good because you are searching for mistakes and when you find them it helps you not to the same mistakes when you are writing, so it’s good.”

“It’s useful because my friend notices the mistakes that I couldn’t see. He looks at my draft from a different point, which is good. It is helpful for me to improve my English.”

“I think it’s useful because you can learn different things from your friends. Also, if you discuss about your mistake with your friend, it will be permanent.”

Q2. *What did you like about peer feedback?*

“We are the same age and people who are the same age can learn quickly because they can understand each other quickly and correctly and this is a very important option for us.”

“I think learning from friends is very useful. We are in the same group and we can help each other.”

"It gives an opportunity to improve our English. We have a chance to correct our mistakes."

"It is necessary because before the teacher's check we can find our mistakes and it is useful. It must be done."

"It's social, so you get to talk with your friends more be more social about it and finding other people's mistakes is more fun than passively waiting for your teacher to correct your mistakes."

"Seeing different mistakes helped me not to repeat them. Noticing a mistake of another student taught me how not to make it myself and it also taught me how to correct it."

"We can share information with each other. We are always cooperating in writing lessons and it is useful to interact with friends."

Q3. *What are the drawbacks of peer feedback?*

"Sometimes our pair's English may not be so good and he wants to correct our mistakes but they can be wrong. That's a problem for me."

"In my opinion it is not as useful as teacher feedback because of the English level."

"Maybe you can give wrong feedback."

"When I take the responsibility I wonder if I have given the wrong feedback."

"There are no drawbacks."

"Obviously you can't find all the mistakes or your friend can't find all of the mistakes, so the teacher has to take at least a last look at your paragraph."

"If my partner and I have the same mistake and do not know that it is wrong, it is a disadvantage for us."

"I think there are no bad things."

Q4. *How do you feel when the teacher corrects your mistakes? Is it discouraging?*

"No. Anyone can correct my mistakes. It's OK for me. No problem."

"I think it's good. I can improve my language and I learn from my mistakes."

"I feel comfortable and write more carefully not to repeat my mistakes."

"I feel OK because I learn from my mistakes and I try to fix it, so I think it is good."

"There is nothing to worry about."

"It's not a problem because we can learn something to improve our English. We can learn about some typical mistakes. It is necessary."

"It's nice because you know the teacher doesn't make any mistakes and teacher correcting your mistakes is always better, I think."

Q5. *Do you prefer peer feedback or teacher feedback?*

"Both of them. We correct each other's mistakes mainly as the first step and then get feedback from you. That's very good because you're a professional."

"I think both of them have advantages and disadvantages. Sometimes teacher feedback can be discouraging but I prefer teacher feedback because it's reliable."

"I prefer teacher feedback because of the English level."

"It does not matter for me. Both of them are good. You can learn from your mistakes but I think teacher feedback is more reliable."

"If I had to choose I'd choose teacher feedback but both of them are useful."

"Teacher feedback because of the English level."

"I believe peer feedback should be applied first. Then the student corrects his mistakes. After that teacher feedback should be applied."

5. Discussions

According to the findings of this action research, it is possible to say that it has similar results with other studies on the same subject. It can be concluded that peer feedback provides a motivating and relaxing atmosphere for students in writing classes. It encourages them to work on their mistakes and it is useful for improving their writing skills.

This action research shares similar results with the study carried out by Katzlinger and Herzog (2014). In both studies the participants had a positive attitude towards peer feedback.

Additionally, this study is similar to the one carried out by Lin and Chien (2009) in that participants stated that peer feedback is helpful; however, they still need teacher feedback as well.

6. Conclusion

The study showed us that students have a positive attitude towards peer feedback in writing classes. It is an obvious fact that peer feedback creates a comfortable learning environment, and it also helps them to be more motivated in writing classes.

It can be stated that peer feedback is effective for students as they learn from their mistakes. Peer feedback also helps students to work cooperatively and take part in the lessons actively rather than passively waiting for the teacher feedback. To some extent, it breaks the monotony in writing classes.

On the other hand, when the students are supposed to choose between teacher and peer feedback, they prefer teacher feedback as they claim that it is more reliable. However, this problem could be solved by using both types of feedback in classes. Peer feedback could be applied first and the teacher feedback could be provided as the final step.

It is possible to say that this action research is limited due to the fact that it was carried out during the fall term. It would have been more effective if it had been possible to continue in the spring term as well. In addition, different results could have been reached if it had been a more dependent group. Thus, it could be indicated that the current study could not be generalizable.

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THE ROLE OF CLASROOM ASSESSMENT IN PROMOTING SELF-REGULATED LEARNING

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Abstract

With the recent increasing globalisation and technological revolution, English Foreign Language Learning requires students to develop not just proficiency in the English language but also knowledge and skills in self-regulated learning. Self-regulation is of fundamental importance for effective learning. Current theories of educational psychology suggest that self-regulated learning can be targeted through teachers' practices mainly assessment. The current study seeks to investigate how and to what extent teachers' assessment practices support the development of self-regulatory skills among EFL students. Evidence was gathered from students' experiences through a survey conducted with 73 EFL students at the University of Bejaia, Algeria. Findings revealed that students are encouraged to be self-regulated learners, but they are not equipped with knowledge and necessary skills for doing so. As such, the paper concludes with practical implications to support the use of formative assessment in EFL classrooms as a means to promote self-regulated learning.

Keywords: classroom assessment, EFL students, self-regulated learning, teacher's role

Introduction

With the 21st century increasing globalisation and technological and educational advance, self-regulated learning has become an essential competency in EFL classrooms. Students are required to develop not just proficiency in the English language but also to regulate the learning process and develop awareness of lifelong skills. Students' ability to employ learning strategies and regulate aspects related to their learning is of fundamental importance for effective learning. Students' capacity to self-regulate their learning is referred to as self-regulated learning. This construct is targeted in this paper through classroom assessment.

Self-regulated Learning

Self-regulated learning has been defined and modelled from a variety of perspectives and frameworks (e.g. Boekaerts, Pintrich, Winne, Zimmerman and others). Pintrich (2000, p. 453) offers a fairly comprehensive definition of self-regulated learning. He defines it as "an active, constructive process whereby learners set goals for their learning and then attempt to monitor, regulate, and control their cognition, motivation, and behavior, guided and constrained by their goals and the contextual features in the environment." In this definition, the author described self-regulated learning as multifaceted process involving the interaction between students' personal factors including metacognition, cognition, affect and behaviour and the contextual factors imposed by the learning environment. Students engage in self-regulation by monitoring, controlling and managing all these factors. This is a social cognitive view of self-regulated learning. From this perspective, researchers (e.g, Pintrich, 2000, Boekaerts and Niemivira, 2000; Zimmerman,2002; schunk, 2009) assume the importance of three components: students' active engagement, commitment to learning goals and the use of self-regulated strategies.

As a matter of fact, ample research evidence has been found in the literature on the effect of different factors, both personal and contextual, on self-regulation. Moos and Ringdal (2012, p.2) asserted that self-regulated learning mediates the relationship between performance, individual characteristics and the context. Arguably, students who self-regulate their learning are reported to be intrinsically motivated and self-efficacious, set learning goals then attempt to monitor their time, effort and the environmental distractions to learn effectively (Järvelä & Järvenoja, 2011). Consequently, they are demonstrated to achieve at high levels (Pintrich, 2000, Harris et al., 2017).

In addition to students' internal processes, the social context in which learning occurs plays a pivotal role in effective learning and the development of students' self-regulation skills. This aspect is captured in the social-cognitive theory of self-regulated learning (Bandura, 1991; Zimmerman, 1989, 2002). Given the importance of the social environment in EFL learning, current theories of educational psychology suggest that self-regulated learning can be promoted through teachers' assessment practices.

Classroom Assessment as a Means to Promote Self-regulated Learning

Several recent studies have related classroom assessment to self-regulated learning directly (Boekaerts & Corno, 2005; Black & Wiliam, 2009). In Restrepo's (2013, p. 166) terms, formative assessment "*is the springboard for students to take control of their own learning and for teachers to adjust their instruction in line with students' needs.*" That is, formative assessment guides classroom practice and improves the learning process by emphasising both the personal skills and the learning context required for self-regulate learning.

Several aspects of classroom assessment have been found to promote self-regulated learning among EFL students. In this regard, Ames (1992) maintained that classroom tasks, assessment and authority are among the elements that have an impact on students' motivation and learning. In what follows we consider the role of: classroom assessment environment, assessment task, teacher feedback and support and self-assessment.

Classroom Assessment Environment

From a social cognitive perspective, the classroom environment plays an important role in promoting self-regulation among students (Pintrich, 2000; Zimmerman, 2002; Schunk, 2009). This theory assumes the interplay between students' personal, behavioural and contextual factors. As a matter of fact, an environment which targets reflection and critical thinking skills and supports students' active engagement is likely to promote self-regulation. Features of classroom environment such as complexity of tasks, types of instructional techniques, methods of teacher-student interaction and classroom reward structures have been identified by researchers to affect self-regulation both positively and negatively (Boekaerts & Corno, 2005, p. 208).

Assessment Task

Closely linked to the classroom assessment environment, assessment tasks of certain characteristics are conducive to SRL development. Tasks that are interesting, relevant and challenging promote student self-efficacy (Ames, 1992; Dinther, Dochy, Segers, & Braeken, 2014) and mastery goal orientation (Church, Elliot, & Gable, 2001). As to the structure of the task, open-ended rather than structured tasks encourage metacognitive self-regulation (Ewijk, Dickhäuser & Büttner, 2013).

Teacher feedback and support

A shared view among researchers is that students should be empowered to be self-regulated learners through meaningful and constructive feedback on their performance and learning (e.g. Butler & Winne, 1995; Hattie and Timperley, 2007). In their review of the literature, Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick (2006) concluded that good feedback practice is "anything that might strengthen the students' capacity to self-regulate their own performance." It implies that teachers should respond to students' learning by pointing out areas of both strength and limitation and guide them through the solution process. In their model of feedback, Hattie and Timperley (2007, p.90) discriminated between four levels of feedback: feedback on task (FT), feedback on the leaning process (FP), feedback on self-regulation (FR) and finally feedback on the self (FS) claiming that feedback on the learning process and self-regulation are the most powerful in terms of deep learning and mastery.

Self-assessment

Stefani (1998, p.345) highlights that the major goal of education is the development of self-regulated and lifelong learners, but to develop such skills, students must first develop skills in self-assessment. In the same direction goes Boud (2000, p.156) stressing that if classroom assessment is exclusively in the hand of teachers, it is difficult to see how students can become masters of their learning and develop the self-regulation skills needed to prepare them for lifelong learning. Self-assessment involves students to reflect on and judge the quality of their works and because reflection and judgement are central in self-regulation; self-assessment is a key sub-process in the self-regulation cycle. Through self-assessment, students generate feedback that deepens their understanding and enhances both learning and teaching instruction.

Practically, researchers have investigated the role of self-assessment in the self-regulation process; they found that self-assessment contributes to the development of self-regulated learning in many ways. It promotes metacognitive awareness and reflection on one's own progress (Nunan, 1988; Kurnaz & Çimer (2010, boosts students' motivation (Panadero & Alonso-Tapia, 2013) and increases students' learning responsibility and ownership (Gottlieb, 2000).

The Study

The current study attempted to explore how and to what extent teachers' assessment practices support the development of self-regulatory skills among EFL students at the university of Bejaia. Although self-regulated learning and classroom assessment are well known constructs and are discussed in many previous studies, little, if no, is known about them in the Algerian Context. Therefore, the present study has the potential to make a significant contribution to EFL in the Algerian higher education. Specifically, we aim at addressing the following research questions:

1. What is the assessment policy in EFL classrooms at the department of English at the University of Bejaia?
2. How effective are teachers' assessment practices in promoting self-regulated learning among their EFL students?

Method

The researcher adopted a quantitative method design. Specifically, evidence was gathered from students' experiences through a survey conducted at the University of Bejaia, Algeria in May 2018.

Participants

The participants of this study were 73 EFL students at the University of Bejaia, Algeria. The sample consisted of 63 females and 10 males ranging from 19 to 27 years old. Sixty percent (60%) of the respondents were undergraduate students and 40% were master students. The sample was selected randomly.

Instrument

The survey consists of a questionnaire and a frequency scale (see Appendix). The questionnaire has two sections designed according to the aims of the study. The first section is devoted to the collection of personal information about the participants (age and gender). The second section is composed of seven close-ended questions regarding teachers' assessment practices (assessment mode, approach, techniques, type of questions, criteria and feedback).

The scale comprises eighteen (18) items adapted from previous research. The items are a 4-point frequency scale of measurement ranging from always (4) to never (1). Participants were required to indicate how often their teachers experience the statements. The scale consists of four (4) self-regulation dimensions: self-regulated learning instruction, feedback, feedback opportunities for self-regulation and social support. It is considered reliable with Cronbach alpha equal to .77.

Procedure

The students completed the survey during scheduled lectures period with one of their lecturers. The completion of the survey took up about 30 minutes. The students were ensured that the data would remain anonymous and confidential. The survey was completed under our supervision which gave students opportunity to ask any question regarding the items.

Results obtained were analysed quantitatively using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 18 based on frequencies and descriptive statistics. The research findings are presented in two parts in correspondence with the two research questions: teacher assessment practices and their effect on the development of self-regulated learning among students.

Results

1. **Teacher Assessment Practices**

In this section, we report students' answers to the second section of the questionnaire which concerns teachers' assessment practices in general.

Table 1. *Assessment mode adopted by EFL teachers*

Assessment mode	F	%
Teacher assessment	59	80,8
Self-assessment	5	6,8
Peer-assessment	2	2,7
Teacher + self assessment	3	4,1
Teacher + peer assessment	3	4,1
All of them	1	1,4
Total	73	100

Table 1 displays the participants' answers to the first question regarding the mode of assessment adopted by EFL teachers in Bejaia University. As evident from the table, teacher assessment is the dominant mode of assessment as reported by 80.8% of students. Only few students (4.1%) reported that their teachers use self- and peer- assessment.

Table 2. *Teachers' assessment approach*

Assessment approach	F	%
Summative	38	52.1
Formative	2	2.7
Both approaches	33	45.2
Total	73	100

In terms of the assessment approach used by the teachers, Table 2 shows that many teachers use exclusively summative assessment in their classes as reported by 52.1% of students. Interestingly, an important number of participants (45.2 %) indicated that their teachers use a mixed approach combining both summative and formative forms of assessment.

Table 3. *Assessment techniques in EFL classrooms*

Assessment technique	F	%
Projects	68	93,2
Essay assignments	46	63
Checklists	14	19.2
No answer	1	1.4

As shown in Table 3, two assessment techniques appear to be employed by the teachers. These are projects and essay assignments with 93.2% and 63% of answers respectively. Only a small proportion indicated that their teachers used checklists to assess their learning.

Table 4. *Assessment questions*

Assessment question	F	%
Open- ended questions	63	86.3
Multiple choice questions	45	61.6
True/false	20	27.4
Short exercises	18	24 .7
Gap filling	5	6.8

Table 4 provides more details on the type of questions teachers ask their students. Open-ended type questions which require analysis appear to be the favorable ones for teachers with 86.3% of answers, followed by multiple choice questions (61.6%), true/false questions (27.4%) and short exercises (24.7%).

Table 5. *Provision of assessment criteria*

Answer	F	%
Yes	45	61.6
No	27	37
No answer	1	1.4
Total	73	100

A statistical reading of Table 5 indicates that most of teachers, as reported by 61.6% of students, make assessment explicit by providing their students with the assessment criteria in advance.

Table 6. *Provision of feedback*

Answer	F	%
Yes	60	46.6
No	13	17.8
Total	73	100

As far as feedback is concerned, Table 6 makes it clear that the majority of students (82.2%) receive feedback on their performance.

Table 7. *Teacher focus*

Assessment focus	F	%
Scores	34	46.6
Progress	34	46.6
Both	3	4.1
No answer	2	2.7
Total	73	100

As regards teachers' focus in feedback, it appears from Table 7 that there are teachers who focus on scores (46.6% of answers) and those who give priority to students' understanding and progress (46.6% of answers). This has indeed a direct link to the approach they adopt: summative or formative, as reported in Table 2.

2. The role of teachers' assessment practices in promoting self-regulated learning

In this section, we report students' answers to the scale. The answers are grouped into four elements: instruction on self-regulation, feedback, opportunities for self-regulation and social support.

2.1.Self-regulated Learning Instruction

Table 8. *Teachers' instructional practices*

Item	Descriptive statistics	
	M	SD
1: instruction of goal-setting	2.30	.95
2: Instruction on planning	2,00	.91
3: Instruction on self-assessment	2,25	.98
4: Instruction on peer-assessment	2,12	.93

Note. n=73

Table 8 displays the descriptive statistics related to teachers' instruction on self-regulated learning. The means of students' answers to the four questions vary between 2 and 2.30 which means that most of the students answered by rarely. This implies that teachers rarely provide students with instruction on how to self-regulate their learning or assess their progress.

2.2. Feedback

Table 9. Provision of feedback

Item	Descriptive statistics	
	M	SD
Item 5	2.96	,99
Item 6	2,64	,86
Item 7	2,38	,99

Note. n=73

As regards feedback on students' performance, the participants' answers, as shown in Table 9, are between 2.38 and 2.96 indicating that most of the students answered by sometimes. This means that their teachers provide them with feedback occasionally. If compared to the results of table 6, sixty percent (60%) of participants indicated they do receive feedback, yet when asked the same question with precision, the results of the scale as just explained hint to a low frequency.

2.3. Opportunities for Self-regulation

Table 10 . Opportunities for self-regulation

Item	Descriptive statistics	
	M	SD
Item 8	3,07	,84
Item 9	2,85	,91
Item 10	3,25	,85
Item 11	2,49	,92
Item 12	2,33	,91
Item 13	2,33	,93
Item 14	2,90	,80
Item 15	2,00	,96

Note. n=73

Table 10 reports the descriptive statistics of students' answers regarding teachers' provision of opportunities for self-regulation practice in the classroom. Students' answers can be grouped into two elements: responsibility and reflection. The means reported for questions 2, 13 and 21 vary between, 2.85 and 3.25 indicating that most the students' answers range between sometimes and always. This is indicative of teachers' tendency to encourage and provide students with opportunities to take responsibility for their own learning. Regarding the means of the rest of the questions (3, 8, 9, 10, and 12), they range from 2 to 2.90 which suggests that most of the students answered by rarely. This demonstrates that the students are not provided with opportunities to reflect on and assess their learning.

2.4.Social support

Table 11. *Social support*

Item	Descriptive statistics	
	M	SD
Item 16	3,27	,92
Item 17	2,85	,94
Item 18	3,18	1,00

Note. n=73

In an attempt to explore the role of the social learning context in the development of self-regulation, we shall rely on the results presented in Table 11. The statistics show that the means of students' answers range from 2.85 and 3.27 indicating that the students' answers vary between sometimes and always. We can understand that many teachers tend to provide social assistance and support for their students.

Discussion

The findings obtained in this study helped us explore the extent to which teachers' assessment practices promote self-regulated learning in Algerian EFL classrooms. In regard to the assessment practices of teachers, it seems that teacher assessment is the common assessment mode in Bejaia University as reported by the vast majority of students and that students are rarely involved in the assessment process. In addition; summative assessment appeared to be a dominant approach to assessment too. In other words, the final paper-pencil exams are predominant means of determining success. These findings are compatible with those of Benettayed-Ouahiani (2016), Ghouar (2017) and Kadri and Amziane (2017) who all concluded in their studies that Algerian University teachers are still relying on traditional assessment. As regards the assessment techniques, it became clear that projects and essay writing assignments are the only formative forms of assessment adopted; other assessment tools like rubrics, conferences or portfolios are not used at all. To clarify, students are required to take final exams in most courses. For some courses like speaking/listening and methodology there are teachers who assign project works or oral activities as means of assessment which are, after all, scored. Interestingly, it was noted that most of the teachers focus more on essay type questions which require students to reflect on and analyse a specific topic or issue, though true/false and multiple choice questions remain a major assessment question type. Another interesting finding, we thought, was/is that teachers makes assessment criteria explicit in advance and then provide feedback to students on their performance. However, the results of the scale revealed a low frequency. That is, the majority of participants reported that they receive feedback on their performance, but they specified later in the scale that teachers do not do it regularly. In short, feedback is not an integral part of teachers' assessment practices. What is more, when they do receive feedback, there are teachers who still measure their performance by exclusively attributing scores and others who tend to prioritise and focus on students' understanding and progress. In short, this section provides evidence on teachers' assessment practices at the department of English, university of Bejaia which stands as an answer to the first research question

If we consider the results of the scale, it is clear that the teachers attempt to encourage students to take responsibility for their own learning in the classroom and more importantly create a favourable learning environment. That is, students the students are invited to participate in the classroom and take an active role in the learning process. Pedagogically, this is very significant as it hints to teachers' tendency to adopt a learner-centred approach in their EFL classrooms.

Nevertheless, the results also reveal that teachers play a limited role in the development of self-regulation knowledge and skills among their EFL students. Put simply, students do not receive instruction on how to regulate their learning or assess their progress. This goes hand in hand with Corno and Randi (2000, p.652) and Zimmerman (2002, p.69) who stress that students are ill-prepared or insufficiently encouraged to be self-regulated as their classroom environment provides few if no opportunities for self-regulation to occur.

What is more, the statistics reported indicate that the students are not involved in the process of assessment and are not provide with sufficient opportunities for self-regulation; less situations are created in the classroom for discussion , analysis or regular assessment of students' learning through self- or peer- assessment. These findings can stand as an answer to the second research question: classroom assessment has a limited role in promoting self-regulated learning among the students.

It is indeed important to raise students' awareness of the importance of being in charge of their own learning and encourage them to take responsibility and participate in the classroom activities, but if the students are not assisted and are not engaged in actual reflection, analysis and assessment of their learning, they cannot be self-regulated learners as they lack the necessary skills. Awareness alone is not sufficient; instruction, support and opportunities for practice, as stressed by Paris and Paris (2001), Black, Harrison, Lee Marshall and Wiliam (2004), Scunk and Zimmerman (2007), and Andrade (2010), are other important conditions for the development of students' self-regulated learning.

Arguably, the described situation can be the result of multiple factors. On the one hand, one possible reason is the lack of awareness and knowledge among EFL teachers about classroom assessment and its importance to the development of self-regulated learning. This can be further attributed to a lack of training and development. In regards to previous research (e.g. Sarnou et al., 2012; Boudersa, 2016), it becomes clear that no training has been offered to improve teachers' assessment practices. In their study, Kadri and Benmouhoub (2018) explored Algerian teachers' experiences in teaching at university and found that 84.21% of teachers expressed their need for teacher training not only in assessment but in other aspects of classroom practice as well.

On the other hand, a possible reason can be teachers' reluctance to innovation. Melouk (2013) and Benettayeb-Ouahiani (2016) revealed that Algerian university teachers still rely on old teaching and assessment methods. This puts teachers' motivation and willingness to adopt innovative teaching methods into question.

Classroom size can certainly be another reason why teacher practices cannot promote self-regulation in the classroom. As a matter of fact, most of classrooms in Algerian universities, mainly in Bejaia, are large classes which represent a challenge for teachers who find difficulties to adopt innovative teaching methods and to assist students in their learning. This issue has been addressed in the literature (Meziane & Mahi, 2009; Idri, 2012; Rabehi, 2013). Closely linked to classroom size, time can be another reasonable explanation for teachers' failure to provide instruction or create opportunities for self-regulation. According to Rabehi (2011), teachers claim a lack of time because of the condensed programs. They complain that there is a lot to teach, but there is no sufficient time to do so. As a matter of fact, innovative teaching like self-assessment is time consuming (Black et al., 2004; Oscarson, 2013).

Conclusion

In light of the results obtained in this study, it became clear that although teachers' assessment practices play a pivotal role in the development of students' self-regulation skills, the issue has not been given due interest in the Algerian university. Arguably, many factors can be responsible for such situation, to name teachers' lack of awareness or on self-regulation or knowledge on how to promote it in the classroom, teachers' lack of motivation and unwillingness to adopt innovative assessment methods, lack of training on assessment, time constraints, classroom size and many others. In response to this, we conclude the paper with some important recommendations to help teachers reconsider their assessment practices and help promoting self-regulated learning in their EFL classrooms.

– Changing beliefs regarding the role of the students and the teacher in the educational process

– Raising awareness among students and teachers on the benefits of self-regulated learning and highlighting teachers' role in guiding and supporting students to be self-regulated learners.
– Adopting alternative assessment in EFL classrooms.
– Training students and providing support in developing the skills necessary for self-regulation through self-regulation instruction development programs.
– Adopt existing models of self-assessment and using different techniques
– Practice: teachers should create opportunities for self-assessment to occur in the classroom
– Feedback: teachers should help students understand the meaning of the self-assessment results by providing constant constructive feedback

Given the potential limitations of this study which are related to the sample and the data collection method, further research is required to explore more the topic under investigation. It would be interesting to extend the representative sample to many classes and ideally to other universities to get a wider picture of classroom assessment practices across Algeria. In the same manner, it would also be compelling to involve teachers in the study to gain insight into their experiences and attitudes. In the same direction, the variables of the study can be investigated through an experiment and/or by using other research tools such as classroom observation and interviews.

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Appendix
Student Questionnaire

Dear students,

In this research work, we are investigating the role of classroom assessment practices in developing self-regulated learning. We would like you to answer these questions anonymously and honestly. Your help is a contribution to this work.

Background Information: Could you please indicate?

- Your Age:

- Your gender. ☐ Male Female ☐

Please circle◯the convenient answer or put a cross (x).

1.Assessment mode: how do your teachers evaluate/ test you?

a.Teacher assessment (your teachers evaluate you)
B.Student assessment (you evaluate yourself)
c.Peer assessment (you evaluate your classmates)

2. Assessment approach: what is the **common** approach used to evaluate you?

a.Formal evaluation :Exams and tests (Marks)
b.Informal evaluation: questioning, interviews, conferences, projects
c.Both approaches

3.Assessment techniques: do your teachers use any of these techniques to evaluate you?

a.Projects
b.Essay assignments
c.Checklists
d.Rubrics
e.Portfolios
f.Diaries
g. Conferences
h.None of these

4.Nature of questions: Which kind of questions do your teachers ask more?

a.True/false
b.Multiple questions
c.Filling the gaps
d.Essay writing (reflective)
6. e.Short exercises

5. Do your teachers explain to you what is expected from you when your are evaluated?

Yes ☐ NO ☐

6.Feedback: do your teachers give you feedback (correct/respond to your works) as you are completing tasks? Yes ☐ No ☐

7.Your teachers focus more on:

a.Scores
b.Understating (progress)
c.both

In the classroom, what most of the teachers do	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	always
1.Your teachers teach you how to set goals for your learning				
2.Your teachers teach you how to revise your work and correct your errors				
3.your teachers teach you how to provide feedback to your classmates about their work and learning				
4.Your teachers teach you how to make plans				
5. your teachers check your understanding of the lesson				
6. your teachers explain/discuss your errors with you				
7. Your teachers provide you with suggestions and continuous support				
8. your teachers push you to take responsibility for your own learning				
9. your teachers allow you to choose a topic for a project				
10. your teachers invite you to participate in class discussions				
11. Your teacher push you to take responsibility for your own learing				
12. Your teachers start the lesson on new topics by inviting students to reflect on their prior learning/knowledge				
13. You are provided with opportunities to reflect on, and talk about, your learning, progress and goals.				
14. your teachers asks you and help you to evaluate your own learning based on criteria/standards				
15.your teachers ask you about your point of view				
16.you are encouraged to check/record your progress using, for example, diaries, interviews				
17.your teachers encourage you to ask questions during the lesson				
18. your teachers ask you to share your ideas and strategies with other students				
19. your teachers encourage us to ask for help from them and from your classmates				

Thank you for your collaboration

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEARNER AUTONOMY AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY

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Abstract

Learner autonomy and foreign language learning anxiety are related in a way that autonomy can help lessen the negative effects of anxiety. In order to act autonomously, learners need to set their own realistic goals, regulate their learning process, and self-evaluate learning which can all contribute to increasing learners' awareness of their strong and weak areas. This heightened awareness and self-reflection can relieve the feelings of anxiety as learners start to see their weaknesses as points for development. In this study we aimed to examine the relationship between learner autonomy and foreign language learning anxiety among EFL learners at tertiary level. The Autonomy Perception Scale developed by Demirtaş (2010) and the Turkish version of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Gürsu (2011) were used to determine the relationship between foreign language learning anxiety and learner autonomy as well as the effect of gender on these constructs. The results of this study can provide important insights as to promote learner autonomy not only for enabling the learners to assume a pro-active role in language learning but also for mitigating the effects of anxiety.

Keywords: learner autonomy, foreign language learning anxiety, gender

1. Introduction

Research in second language learning documents the influence of both cognitive and affective factors on language learners' success in learning a second language (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). Affective variables refer to emotional characteristics of individuals that inform and guide their responses/reactions to situations. Affective factors include motivation, anxiety, personality style (Oxford, 1990; Horwitz & Young, 1991) as well as autonomy. As the main concern of this study is to shed light on the relationship between autonomy and anxiety, these two constructs will form the conceptual basis of this study.

1.1. Learner Autonomy

Learner autonomy is a term difficult to describe due to confusions about its nature, especially its perception as self-instruction (Little, 2003). Yet, in formal educational settings, learner autonomy implies learners' ability to take the responsibility of their own learning, their "capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independent action" (Little, 1991, p. 4) and their intention to benefit from learning experience as a motivational element (Little, 2009). This suggests that an autonomous language learner would assume responsibility for his/her own learning and would accomplish this without relying on teacher interference (Kaltenbock, 2001). Holec (1981, p. 3) asserts that "to take charge of one's own learning is to have the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning" including "determining the objectives, defining the contents and progressions, selecting methods and techniques to be used, monitoring the procedure of acquisition of properly speaking (rhythm, time, place, etc.), evaluating what has been acquired".

There is convincing research to support the importance of making learners autonomous. Firstly, language learning is greatly enhanced when learners have control over the goals and the content of a course of study and that there is a close relationship between autonomy and effective learning (Little, 1991). Investigation into the relationship between learner autonomy and language proficiency also suggested that autonomous learners have high language proficiency (i.e. Dafei, 2007; Myartawan, Latief, & Suharmanto, 2013; Zhang & Li, 2004). However, in terms of the effect of gender on autonomy, the findings are inconclusive. Earlier studies reported the findings given below;

1. Girls are more in control of their learning and aware of some learning strategies. In other words, the girls tend to be more autonomous (Grenfell & Harris, 1999).

2. Females tend to keep their relation with others while males are independent learners (Bynum & Kotchick, 2006).

3. Gender is not considered as a factor influencing autonomy (Yılmazer, 2007).

1.2. Anxiety

Anxiety is "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system" (Spielberger, 1983, as cited in Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 125). Horwitz et al. (1986) view foreign language anxiety as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p.125). As foreign language anxiety is situation specific and concerned with performance evaluation in social and academic contexts, it differs from other types of anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986). According to Horwitz et al. (1986), there are three kinds of performance anxieties. These are conceptualized as communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation (Horwitz et al., 1986). Foreign language anxiety can be an important factor that prevents learners from performing successfully in foreign language classes. Accordingly, a negative relationship between language anxiety and language achievement is reported in the literature (Abu-Rabia, 2004; Aida, 1994; Horwitz, 2001; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 2002). Chen and Chang (2004) also showed that the level of foreign language anxiety predicted 36% of learning difficulties in English among university students in Taiwan. When dealing with anxious students, teachers can either help their learners deal with situations that trigger anxiety or they can create stress free learning environments (Haskin, Smith, & Racine, 2003). However, before deciding on the most appropriate method, teachers must first recognize the presence of foreign language anxiety and understand its extent in their classes (Horwitz et al., 1986).

The findings on the effect of gender on foreign language anxiety levels are inconclusive. Research has shown that female students have significantly higher levels of anxiety than male students (Aida, 1994; Aydın, 2008). On the other hand, Sarıgül (2000) found no significant difference in the level of language anxiety, but indicated that female students suffer from higher levels of anxiety. Likewise, it was found that female students get more anxious than male students while speaking in English during language classes (Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2013).

Both high levels of autonomy and lack of anxiety supposedly lead to effective learning. Since autonomous learners have the ability to guide their own learning process by setting goals for themselves and employing strategies accordingly, they are expected to have lower anxiety levels. As there is a paucity of research on the relationship between autonomy and anxiety, this study aims to shed light on understanding how these two affective variables interact with each other.

2. Research Design

2.1. Purpose of the study

By helping decrease the adverse effects of anxiety, learner autonomy can benefit language learning and lead to positive outcomes. Setting their own realistic goals, monitoring the learning process, and self-evaluating learning are all attributes of autonomy which can also increase learners’ awareness regarding their strengths and weaknesses. Such increased self-awareness and self-reflection can relieve the feelings of anxiety as learners start to see their weaknesses as points for development. To this end, in this study we aimed to investigate the perceived autonomy and foreign language anxiety levels of students, the gender effect on these two constructs and the relationship between autonomy and anxiety among EFL learners attending preparatory classes at a state university in Istanbul.

2.2. Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study.

- What are the autonomy levels of EFL learners attending preparatory classes at a state university?
- What are the foreign language anxiety levels of EFL learners attending preparatory classes at a state university?
- How do autonomy and foreign language anxiety levels of EFL learners vary according to gender?
- Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' foreign language anxiety and autonomy?

2.3. Data Collection Instruments

In order to provide answers to the aforementioned research questions, two scales were used.

Autonomy Perception Scale

Autonomy Perception Scale developed by Demirtaş (2010) was used to determine the perceived autonomy levels of the students. It is a one factor 5 point frequency scale ranging from 1 to 5, where 1 means never, 2 means rarely, 3 means sometimes, 4 means often, and 5 means always. The internal consistency of the original scale was .89 indicating a high reliability coefficient. The 30-item instrument designed to measure learner autonomy perception includes such statements as: “I explore ways to learn English better”, “I try to get help from my friends and / or teachers on a topic I don’t understand”, and “I listen to the same listening text a couple times in order to understand it better”.

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

Originally developed by Horwitz et al. (1986), Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) consists of communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation in the foreign language classroom. Turkish version of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Gürsu, 2011) was used in order to assess the participants' anxiety level. The instrument is a self-report scale which contains 25 items scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree =1” to "strongly agree =5” The items are categorized based on three main factors:

Factor 1: Speaking Anxiety in Language Classes consists of 19 items,

Factor 2: Interest towards Language Class consists of 3 items,

Factor 3: Anxiety When Talking with Native Speakers consists of 3 items.

Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was found .751 in the original study. Sample statements are "I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in language class", "I am usually at ease during tests in my language class", and "I get upset when I do not understand what the teacher is correcting".

2.4. Research Setting

This study was conducted at a state university in Istanbul. Students enrolled in the Preparatory School of this university formed the sample for this study. The preparatory school provides compulsory English education for two semesters for students who are admitted to undergraduate programs in which 30% of the courses are given in English. The courses are given throughout two semesters. The aim is to provide students with the basic language skills and enable them to follow the subject matter courses given in English in their departments. To this end, all newly accepted first year students are administered English proficiency tests at the beginning of the academic year. According to the results of the proficiency test, they either pass or located into various proficiency levels and take English courses before they can start their studies in their programs.

2.5. Participants

The data were collected from 332 students from eight different faculties (see Table 1). Among the 332 participants, 205 of them were male making up 61.7% of the sample, while female students formed 38.3% of the sample with 127 participants.

Table 1. *Distribution of participants across the faculties*

FACULTIES	FREQUENCY	PERCENT (%)
Faculty of Chemical and Metallurgical Engineering	63	19.0
Faculty of Electrical and Electronics Engineering	59	17.8
Faculty of Arts and Sciences	52	15.7
Faculty of Mechanical Engineering	41	12.3
Faculty of Civil Engineering	40	12.0
Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences	34	10.2
Faculty of Architecture	33	9.9
Faculty of Naval Architecture and Maritime	10	3.0

Total	**332**	**100.0**

The majority of the participants were from the Faculty of Chemical and Metallurgical Engineering (19%) followed by the Faculty of Electrical and Electronics Engineering (17.8%). The Faculty of Naval Architecture and Maritime was the least represented group with only 10 students making up 3 %. The age of the participants ranged from 17 to 26. The mean age of this sample was 18.78 years.

2.6. Procedure

The questionnaires were administered to the students during class time in the ninth week of the first semester. Students were not asked to provide any information that could be used to identify them. The students were assured that the survey would have no effect on their grades and that participation is totally voluntary.

3. Data Analysis

Descriptive and inferential statistical analyses were applied to the data set. Yet, before running inferential statistical analysis, data set were checked for normality of distribution. Skewness (-.499) and Kurtosis (.655) values confirmed normal distribution for Autonomy Perception Scale. Likewise, Skewness (.224) and Kurtosis (.144) values indicated normal univariate distribution for Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale.

Internal consistency coefficient (α) for the one factor 30 item Autonomy Perception Scale was found .903 indicating an excellent reliability value. The internal-consistency coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha (α) value) for the total Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale was .916. The first subscale (Speaking Anxiety in Language Class) had 19 items with .910 Cornbach's Alpha value. The second subscale in the original study was Interest towards Language class with 3 items. However, as the alpha level calculated for this study was under the acceptability criterion (α <0.5), it was assumed that the items within this factor are not measuring the same underlying construct and therefore this factor was excluded from the analysis. The third factor Anxiety of Talking with Native Speakers with three items yielded an alpha level of .641. As it was within the acceptable band, this factor was kept.

For the interpretation of the results as represented by mean score, the following criteria were taken into account. 1,00 - 1,79 very low; 1,80 - 2,59 low 2,60 - 3,39 medium; 3,40 - 4,19 high; 4,20 - 5,00 very high (Çelik, 2016).

4. Findings

The findings will be given as a response to each research question that guided this study.

RQ1. What are the autonomy levels of EFL learners attending preparatory classes at a state university?

Table 2. *Mean and standard deviation on measures by autonomy level*

	N	**Min.**	**Max.**	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**
Autonomy	332	1.00	4.73	3.10	.62

The mean value for overall learner autonomy is 3.1 According to the results of the scale measuring learners' perceptions of their autonomy; the mean score of 3.10 indicates a medium level of autonomy.

RQ2. What are the foreign language anxiety levels of EFL learners attending preparatory classes at a state university?

Table 3. *Means and standard deviations on measures by anxiety level*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
FLCAS	332	1.00	5.00	2.74	.70
Speaking Anxiety In Language Classes	332	1.00	5.00	2.77	.73
Anxiety of Talking with Native Speakers	332	1.00	5.00	2.61	.83

The mean value of the responses given by the participants to FLCAS is 2.74 (SD = .70). When the results are broken down according to the subscales within FLCAS, it is seen that the mean response values for Speaking Anxiety In Language Classes and Anxiety of Talking with Native Speakers are 2.77 (SD = .73), and 2.61 (SD = .83) respectively. The mean scores for FLCAS and its dimensions indicate a medium level of anxiety.

RQ3. How do autonomy and anxiety levels of EFL learners vary according to gender?

We used an independent samples test procedure to determine whether there were significant differences between male and female EFL learners on their foreign language classroom anxiety and perceived autonomy. Means and standard deviations of each group on each of the measures are reported in Table 4 and Table 5.

Table 4. *Means and standard deviations for the autonomy levels of males and females*

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Sig. (2-tailed)
Autonomy	Male	205	3.00	.65	.000
	Female	127	3.25	.53	

Independent samples t-test showed a significant difference (p <.05) between male and female students in favor of female students in their perceived autonomy levels.

Table 5. *Means and standard deviations for the anxiety levels of males and females*

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Sig. (2-tailed)
FLCAS	Male	205	2.64	.69	.002

	Female	127	2.89	.69	
Speaking Anxiety In Language Class	Male	205	2.68	.72	.003
	Female	127	2.92	.71	
Anxiety of Talking with Native Speakers	Male	205	2.58	.83	.019
	Female	127	2.64	.82	

With an average score of 2.89, women displayed higher FLCA than men, who on average scored 2.64. Independent samples t-test revealed significant differences between females and males in all dimensions.

RQ4. Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' foreign language anxiety and autonomy?

Table 6. *Correlation between autonomy and foreign language anxiety*

		Autonomy	FLCA	Speaking Anxiety In Language Class	Anxiety of Talking with Native Speakers
Autonomy	Pearson Correlation	-			
FLCAS	Pearson Correlation	-.218**	-		
Speaking Anxiety In Language Class	Pearson Correlation	-.211**	.991**	-	
Anxiety of Talking with Native Speakers	Pearson Correlation	-.172**	.677**	.573**	-

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to the results of Pearson's Product-Momentum Correlation Analyses, the responses given to FLCAS and autonomy perception scale showed statistically significant correlations at the 0.01 level. The correlation between FLCA and autonomy is negative, $r = -.218$, $p < .01$ indicating a weak inverse relationship.

5. Conclusion

The main objective of the research was to understand EFL learners' autonomy and foreign language learning anxiety levels and to explore the effect of gender on these two affective domains. The research also attempted to describe the relationship between these two constructs, namely learner autonomy and foreign language learning anxiety.

The results show that our participating students have moderate autonomy levels. This finding supports earlier findings that indicate that enhancing learner autonomy in the EFL classroom in Turkey is a challenge due to learners' traditional educational backgrounds prior to entering English language classrooms (Balçıkanlı, 2008; İnözü, 2011). The analysis of the data revealed that the more autonomous learners get, the less anxious they will feel in their language classes and therefore it is important to equip EFL learners with the skills to take control of their own learning. Regardless of their educational level, they need training to move from being dependent on the teacher to being autonomous. Females were found to be more autonomous compared to male students. The implication for teaching is that the instructors should be more cognizant of different levels of autonomy and adjust their expectations and objectives accordingly.

While anxiety is said to affect one third to half of all foreign language learners (Worde, 1998), our results revealed a moderate level of anxiety among the participants. The students in the preparatory classes of this university do not have high levels of "the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning" (MacIntyre & Gardner 1994, p. 284). Results also showed that females experience higher levels of FLCA corroborating the earlier findings by Aida (1994), Çakıcı (2016), Demirdaş and Bozdoğan (2009) and Park and French (2013) who agreed that female students have higher levels of foreign language anxiety. Pearson correlation analysis revealed a significant and negative relationship between anxiety and autonomy. High levels of anxiety are associated with low levels of autonomy. Yet, the correlation between these two constructs is weak. This finding seems to verify our initial assumption about the relationship between autonomy and anxiety that they are inversely correlated implying that equipping learners with means to act autonomously can facilitate decreasing the negative feelings of anxiety.

6. Limitations

While the sample of 322 university students can be considered sufficiently large for reliable results, generalization to the whole population of all EFL students attending preparatory classes is not plausible. Normally, integrating student proficiency levels as demonstrated by the scores they gained in the language proficiency exam would contribute to the strength of the study. Nonetheless, because the majority of the participants stated they did not take the proficiency exam administered at the beginning of the year; their language proficiency level could not be taken into consideration as a variable. Future research might consider the relationship between language achievement and the two variables examined in this study.

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THE COMPARISON BETWEEN THE IMPACT OF THE FLIPPED CLASSROOM AND BLENDED LEARNING MODEL ON ENGLISH FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

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Abstract

Recent technological and infrastructural developments posit flipped classroom (FC) model ripe for exploration. The flipped classroom is a pedagogical approach that allows students to use technology to access the English foreign language (EFL) class and other instructional resources outside the classroom so as to engage them in active learning during in-class time. Moreover, the FC model can represent the theory of change for educators who strive to change their classroom practice. In this respect, the FC approach challenges and supports the teachers to transform the traditional foreign language learning culture to a more learner-centred. Scholars have reported a number of advantages of the FC or blended learning (BL) to a various fields of studies. However, the comparison between the impact of the FC and hybrid learning on EFL learners' academic achievement seems to be beyond the scope of many researches. The paper aims to present the potential of the FC.

Keywords: flipped classroom, inverted learning, learner-centred, blended learning, EFL learners' achievement, educational technology

1. Introduction

The rapid increase of the technology with the widespread use of the Internet, computers and mobile devices have changed the qualifications and skills expected from people in the 21st century. In the current information age the students are supposed to be involved in creating and interpreting the knowledge rather than be exposed to implicit learning. The majority of the Millennial Students, who were born after 1982, have grown up with digital technologies like the Internet, smart phones and tablets (Monaco & Martin, 2007). As a result, the teachers are under pressure to encourage individuals to think, criticize, solve problems, and thus develop their study programmes in this respect (Seferoglu & Akbiyik, 2006). The main aim of education is to provide effective and efficient ways of instruction. Therefore, the teachers should create higher education programmes to respond their students' diverse needs and abilities (Saglam & Arslan, 2018). The teacher and students' roles have changed. The current learners participate in their knowledge acquisition process actively instead of listening passively, whereas the educators take a counsellor role and guide their students in this process. As a result, teaching becomes students catered-learning which requires learners to take responsibility for their own learning and acquire abilities that make them life-long learners (Spooner, 2015). The teacher creates the environment where students play a central role and their communication, creativity, computer literacy, cooperation and self-direction skills are developed. Such attitude towards teaching corresponds to constructivist approach where learners take initiative for their own learning experiences (Pelech & Pieper, 2010). Jaworski

(1993) claimed that, "Coming to know is a process of adaptation based on and constantly modified by a learner's experience of the world" (cited in Albalawi, p.198, 2018). In addition, Vygotsky stated that individuals come to higher form of thinking according to how their self-organization function work (Gredler, 2005). More and more, traditional education does not fulfil the Millennial Students' expectations, who spend their time using technology as much as they have never had. Hence, it has given way to modern pedagogical methods called a blended approach or flipped classroom method. The following two sections present detailed information on these two models of education.

1.1. The Flipped Classroom Model

Due to the fact that the students use technology and the Internet extensively in their daily lives, the implementation of the most recent technologies in education is inevitable. One of the latest methods in recent years that requires technology use is *the flipped classroom* (FC) model.

The term was first introduced in 2007 by two chemistry teachers in Colorado. Bergmann and Sams (2012) recorded their lectures for the students who often skipped their classes due to sports or other activities. They came up with an idea to use screen capture software to record their classes and post them online so their students could catch up the material. However, the concept of flipped learning was utilized by other teachers who had experimented with similar activities and they called them *inverted classroom* (see Lage, Platt & Treglia, 2000). FC model has been defined in numerous ways. The Flipped Learning Network (2014) defines the term in the following way:

> Flipped Learning is a pedagogical approach in which a direct instruction moves from the group learning space to the individual learning space, and the resulting group space is transformed into a dynamic, interactive learning environment where the educator guides students as they apply concepts and engage creatively in the subject matter. (p.1)

This definition lacks a reference to the use of technology, as typically being one of the defining characteristics of the flipped classroom model, that was emphasised by O'Flaherty and Phillips (2015), Abeysekera and Dawson (2015), and Missildine, Fountain, Summers, and Gosselin (2013).

Considering many different ways the term, *Flipped Classroom model*, has been used, the author adopted a definition derived from Davies, Dean and Ball (2013). They claimed that the FC is a method, whereby traditional lectures and homework are reversed. This means that the material is available to students prior to the classes. The learners study at their own time while the teacher is able to devote in class-time to interactive teaching activities. Figure 1 presents the model of FC in comparison to traditional classroom learning.

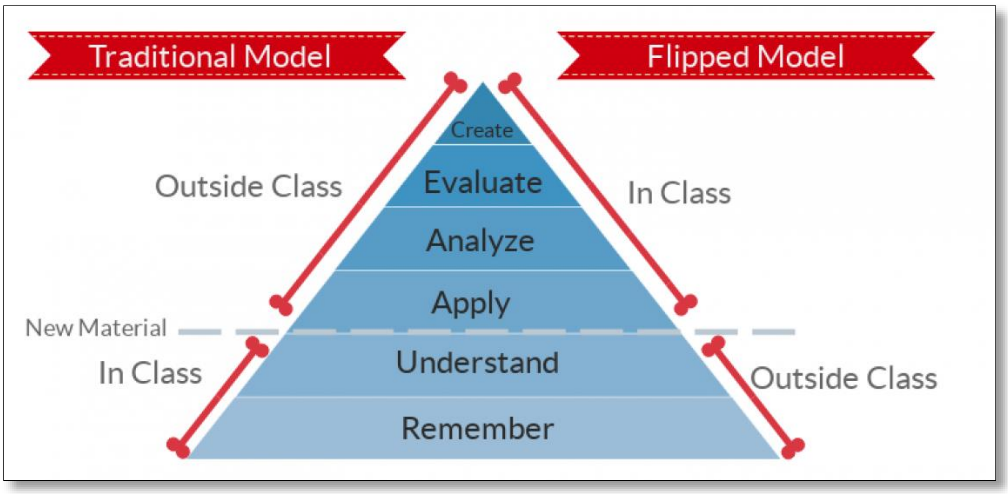

Figure 1. Bloom's Taxonomy in a Flipped Classroom. Source: https://goo.gl/images/LMhK4x

FC model enables students to become active learners through reasoning and concept application such as Kahoot, Quizlet, Quizizz, QR codes and other multimedia services including Teacher-Tube, Google, Slide Share, YouTube and TedEd.

Harris, Harris, Reed and Zelihic (2016) conclude that ''the flipped classroom model is one model educators are experimenting with to address the needs of learners and expand students" capabilities for learning more efficiently and effectively in a time when lifelong learning is crucial to individuals and society'' (Harris et al., p.331, 2016).

Many higher education institutions (HEIs) are increasingly interested in implementing a flipped approach in different fields of research such as education, medicine, sciences or social science with a clear intention of enhancing students' learning (eg. Fulton, 2012; Roehl, Reddy & Shannon, 2013). Steen-Utheim and Foldnes (2018) investigated students' engagement in a FC and traditional classroom, and showed that students were positive about the flipped methods and developed a better understanding of the coursework. Moreover, Day and Foley (2006) reported the positive effect of FC on the students' satisfaction. The learners were also characterized by their final grades improvement.

In FC model students have more control and independence. On the other hand they are more responsible for their learning process than in traditional face-to-face environment (Davies, Dean & Ball, 2013). Research by Song and Hill (2007) revealed that online learning influences self-directed learning and that students with high level of self-directed learning skills are characterized by high level of academic achievement.

Apart from positive aspects of FC, Chellapan and van der Meer (2015) have identified barriers in implementing flipped classrooms, including an increased workload relating to content preparation, their discomfort with technology, and lack of access to technology. Overall, the research on the advantages and disadvantages of implementing FC model in HEIs is still relatively scarce. The next sub-section provide information on the blended learning model.

1.2. The Blended Learning Model

In the past few decades, there have been drastic changes in education systems worldwide that have been constantly advanced with modern technology. Electronic learning (e-learning) enhances students' skills and academic achievement due to various software packages and e-learning platforms that provide increased control over learning hours, pace and methods (Graham, 2013). Due to web enhanced communication systems and various innovative instructional methods the diverse needs of instructors and learners are fulfilled. Thorne (2003) expressed her opinion about blended learning instruction as one of the most important educational advances in the 21st century. On the other hand Hauck and Stickler (2006) see the concept of blended learning as a remedy for problems in HEIs.

Many different definitions of blended learning are provided in the literature (see Bliuc, Goodyear & Ellis, 2007). Nevertheless, Neumeier (2005) emphasized two major modes in blended learning: face-to-face and computer assisted language learning (CALL).

For the purpose of this study, the common understanding of the term ''blended learning'' as a mode of instruction that is a combination of face-to-face form of teaching with e-learning is referred to. Figure 2 presents a blended learning model.

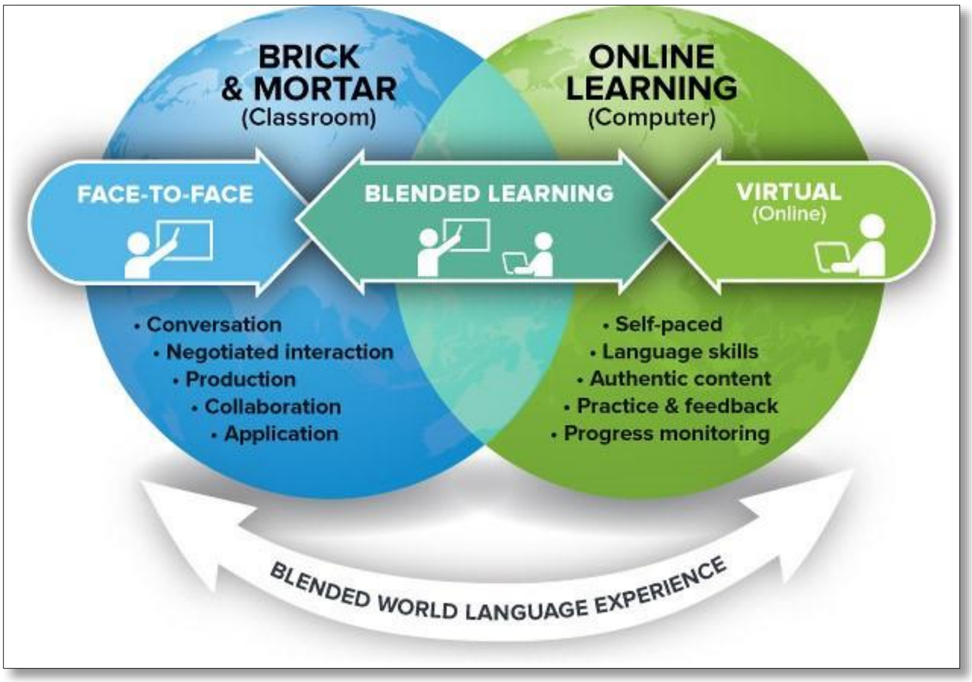

Figure 2. Blended learning model. Source: https://goo.gl/images/rrc5ZF

The two approaches integrate and mix each through the use of tablets, smart phones and other technological devices that can trigger students' interest. Blended learning can take many forms that differ in the amount of time students spend online. Its individual role of HEIs to determine particular percentage of the course that must occur online in order to be considered blended learning (Bernard, Borkhovski, Schmidt, Tamin & Abrami, 2014). As far as this study is concerned the author treated blended learning course supplementary to the course book. Nevertheless, the regulation at the Jan Dlugosz University in Czestochowa lets the educator to conduct no more than 60% of the total number of teaching hours specified in the education curricula for individual fields of study and levels of education using distance learning methods and techniques (Rector's Internal Order No. R-0161/46/2016).

Empirical studies on the use of blended learning instruction with foreign language (FL) learners usually concentrate on the comparison of CALL to face-to-face instruction and the effectiveness of computer based activities on students' performance and their attitude towards web activities (see Adair-Hauck, Willingham-McLain & Youngs, 1999; Barr, Leakey & Ranchoux, 2005; Chenoweth & Murday, 2003; Chenoweth, Ushida & Murday, 2006; Echavez-Solano, 2003; Green & Youngs, 2001; Scida & Saury, 2006). Heterick and Twigg (2003) reported the evidence that blended learning has the potential to be more effective and efficient when compared to traditional face-to-face model. Their investigation revealed that the students not only achieved higher results on exams but also had improved their retention. Moreover, the blended learners were characterized by higher students' attitude towards subject and increased satisfaction with the mode instruction.

Przybyła and Ratalewska (2012) uncover the transformative potential of blended learning approach in HEIs and provide the following advantages:

- flexibility and mobility- the ability to conduct a didactic process anytime and anywhere;
- no territorial restrictions- the opportunity to participate in the classes organized by universities located anywhere in the world;

- better and more effective management of learning time- the student is able to devote a few hours per week for training without having to leave home and family;
- wider access to knowledge;
- the process of learning is individualized- e-learning fulfils learners needs, especially these with different learning styles as they are exposed to various activities and the teacher is able to adapt the content of the course to their learners' needs;
- financial savings- lower costs of commuting, accommodation and renting classrooms;
- development of ICT competences- remote learning not only facilitates acquiring knowledge but also gives the students the opportunity to learn about modern technologies and motivates teachers to develop their ITC competence and raise their qualifications;
- monitoring the learners' progress- proper use of e-learning tools enables constructing a coherent and comprehensive student's assessment;
- development of independence, creativity and collaborative skills- e-learning requires students' autonomy, initiative and activeness.

Blended learning is not deprived from disadvantages. Przybyła and Ratalewska (2012) list the following ones:

- indirect contact with the teacher- e-learning limits the number of non-verbal messages that may cause problems with encoding the message;
- difficulties in maintaining constant activity of the participants- remote learning lacks direct contact between the teacher and the student, such situation may contribute to discouragement and loneliness of the student; improper planning of the students' learning process results in the accumulation of stress and sense of isolation that makes learning difficulties;
- technological obstacles- some students and teachers are not enough computer literate;
- plagiarism- students are tempted to cheat by sending each other the answers to tests, tasks and quizzes;
- financial costs- the design and implementation of the e-learning course require the work of professionals;
- the necessity of having diverse and complex competences essential for creating and implementing the e-learning course; the e-teacher should be equipped with high ICT skills and communication competences so as to be able to create high quality e-materials.

Summing up, blended learning is on one hand a simple process as there is a considerable intuitive appeal to the concept of blending the strengths of synchronous and asynchronous learning activities. On the other hand it is very complex as difficulties appear while implementing it and facing the challenge of virtually limitless design possibilities and applicability to so many contexts.

2. The Purpose of the Study and Its Significance

Due to the fact that flipped classroom method and blended learning have a lot in common as FCs are a blended learning modality where traditional class lectures and home exercise are reversed, it appears significant to investigate these two instructions and their impact on EFL learners' academic achievement. Furthermore, the proposed study seems to be beyond the scope of many researches. This is one of the first applications of BL and FC in the Institute of Foreign Language in the Jan Dlugosz University in Czestochowa. The purpose of the study is to analyze the learners' academic achievements and their attitude towards these two supplementary instructions. BL and FC can be applied at various stages within the scope of FL learning, from Bachelor Degree to Master and Doctoral Studies. Scant scientific literature is available critically apprising the impact of FC versus BL on FL learners in HEIs; thus additional reliable research is required to establish solid evidence. In the scope of this research, the author formulated the following specific research questions:

1. Does FC model support EFL students' achievement in the classroom context when compared to the blended learning instruction?
2. Does FC model increase EFL learners' level of motivation when compared to the blended learning instruction?
3. How do EFL learners perceive the value of FC model and blended learning instruction?

2.1 Method

In order to check whether FC model supports EFL students' achievement in the classroom context when compared to the blended learning instruction and understand students' learning experience with these two methods, the author conducted a quasi-experiment. The method allows the researcher to gain comprehensive and in-depth information and understand the selected subjects. The quasi-experimental design is recognized as the third major research paradigm used today (Louise, Anne-Marie & Gobnait, 2016).

2.2 Design

This study was conducted in two non-equivalent groups, namely control (CG) and experimental (EG). They were not assigned randomly but selected from already existing groups (Gay & Airasian, 2000). Random assignment was to EG and CG was not possible as the student were self-selected into the class. As the research objective, reported in this article, is to examine to what extent FC and blended learning models result in EFL learners' academic achievement development in the classroom, a number of dependent and independent variables can be distinguished (Figure 3).

Two online approaches that complement a traditional language course were subjected to a detailed analysis. According to the model presented in Figure 3, two independent variables influence three dependent variables. One of the independent variables is FC model, whereas the other one is the Moodle e-learning platform. There are three dependent variables, that is: students' academic achievement, motivation and students' attitude towards EFL learning. Academic achievement was measured by pre– and post–tests.

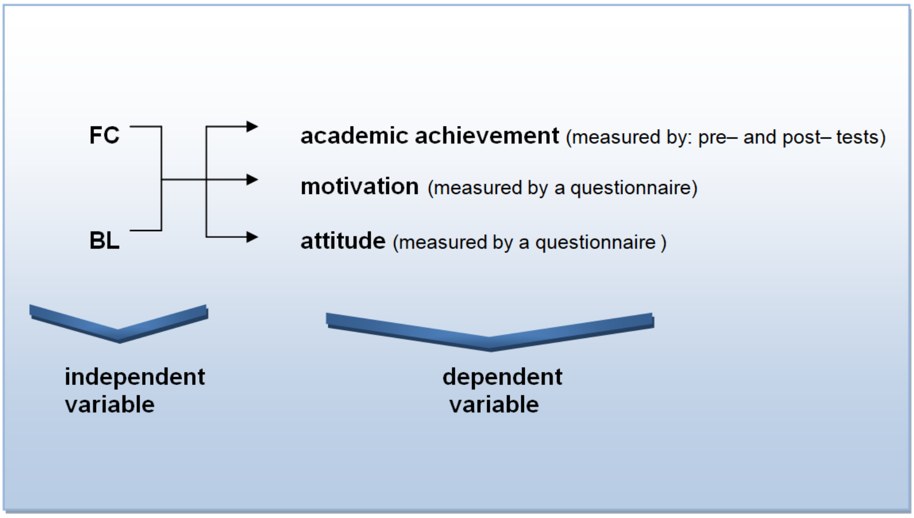

Fig … lended

Before the investigation, a pre-test and a questionnaire were administered to experimental (EG) and control (CG) groups. During the investigation the experimental group was taught according to flipped classroom model, whereas the control group was not inverted and followed blended learning instruction. At the end of the investigation, a post-test and a questionnaire were applied to the EG and CG. The study took five months and it was conducted in the fall semester of 2018/2019 academic year.

The author designed necessary environments for both groups to carry out a treatment. Figure 4 presents the general features of these two learning environments.

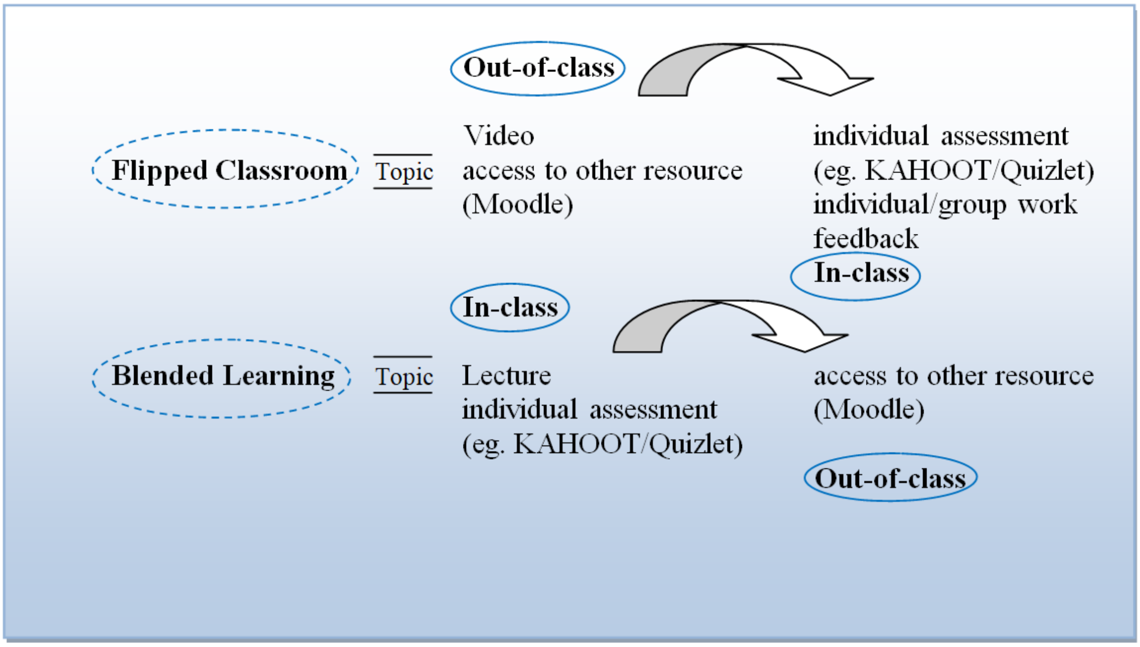

Figure 4. Feature of learning environments for EG (FC) and CG (BL).

2.3 Participants

The study was carried out on a total of 30 students of English Philology at the Jan Dlugosz University in Czestochowa, Poland. They were students of first year Master Degree. The EG consisted of 20 participants (11 female, 9 male) and CG constituted 10 students (8 female, 2 male). Both groups attended traditional EFL classes once a week (90 minutes per week). The EG consists of the students of translation specialization, whereas CG was a group of prospective teachers. The students participated in the English Language Practical Course that includes the following components: use of English, listening, reading and speaking. The purpose of the course is to develop all language skills at the C1 in accordance to the Common European Framework of References for Languages (CEFR) (Consejo de Europa, 2011). All the participants followed the traditional language coursed based on Wilson, Newbrook and Mann (2002) course book: *New proficiency gold*.

2.4 Instruments

For the purpose of this study the author chose two instruments. The first was a pre– and a post– test and the second was a questionnaire. Pre– and post–test design is a method used for many true experimental researches to contrast experimental and control group or groups and calculate the amount of change occurring as a result of treatments or interventions. According to Creswell (2013), pre–and –post test design is the most common and practical way of confirming a high level of internal validity of an experiment. Not only experimental but also CG is pre–tested and post–tested. The only difference between these groups is that the experimental class undergoes intervention, whereas in the CG there is no treatment.

The pre-test was prepared by the leading teacher. It consists of four sections. The first part deals with vocabulary and includes fifteen sentences with gaps and one word formation activity. After that the students had two grammar tasks (sentences transformation and text with gaps). The next two activities concern listening. They listened to five different speakers talking about dealing with forgetfulness and they had to choose what the result of each speaker's forgetfulness was as well as the way each speaker chose to deal with the problem. The students could score 10 point for these two tasks. The last activity was a multiple choice reading activity (Appendix 1). All in all the students could score 74 points. The last significant issue to mention is the fact that one and the same test served as a pre– and –post tests.

Moreover, the author administered a questionnaire in order to find the information about students' motivation, and their attitude towards either FC or blended learning. The questionnaire consisted of 14 statements. Questions related to educational technology and lecture (Appendix 2).

3. Results of the Study

For the purpose of this study the author of this research used numerous instruments. The first was a pre– and a post– test and the second was a questionnaire. The study was carried between 2018 and 2019. Evidence in the form of statistics, tables and graphs to support the findings is provided and an explanation of what the findings mean is given. 30 students aged from 20 to 24 were pre– and post–tested. As the whole investigation was two–step, the first pre–test for EG and CG was performed in October 2018. Then, at the end of the semester in February 2019 the same two groups completed the post–test that measured the level of all the participants' academic achievement. Table 1 shows the results of the pre– and post– tests. The chart is divided into three parts. The first column contains the results of the participants form the EG and CG, the next two deal with percentage outcomes of the pre– and the post–tests.

Table 1. *EG and CG' results of pre– , post–test– Descriptive statistics. Key: (M)–mean given in raw scores, SD-standard deviation, V-vocabulary, G-grammar, R-reading, L-listening, T-total.*

	pre–test					post– test				
	V	**G**	**R**	**L**	**T**	**V**	**G**	**R**	**L**	**T**
EG-M (SD)	16.5 (2.25)	10.4 (2.21)	4.85 (1.22)	4.05 (0.99)	35.45 (3.53)	21.8 (3.36)	12.45 (2.03)	7.3 (1.26)	7.05 (1.35)	48.6 (4.54)
CG-M (SD)	15.6 (2.3)	13.6 (1.83)	5.1 (1.19)	4.5 (1.08)	38.8 (1.87)	20.4 (2.17)	21.4 (2.75)	7.2 (1.22)	6.3 (0.94)	55.3 (3.09)

Individual results from the pre– and post–tests of EG and CG are presented in Appendix 3. It can be seen that EG and CG received similar total mean results on the pre-test. This is true for all the competences. After the treatment, a notable G increase was recorded for CG. CG was characterized by slight total increase on the post-test. Nevertheless, the difference between EG and CG in terms of V, R and L on post-test was not impressive.

Figure 5 presents a comparison of all students' mean percentage results in terms of pre– and post–tests.

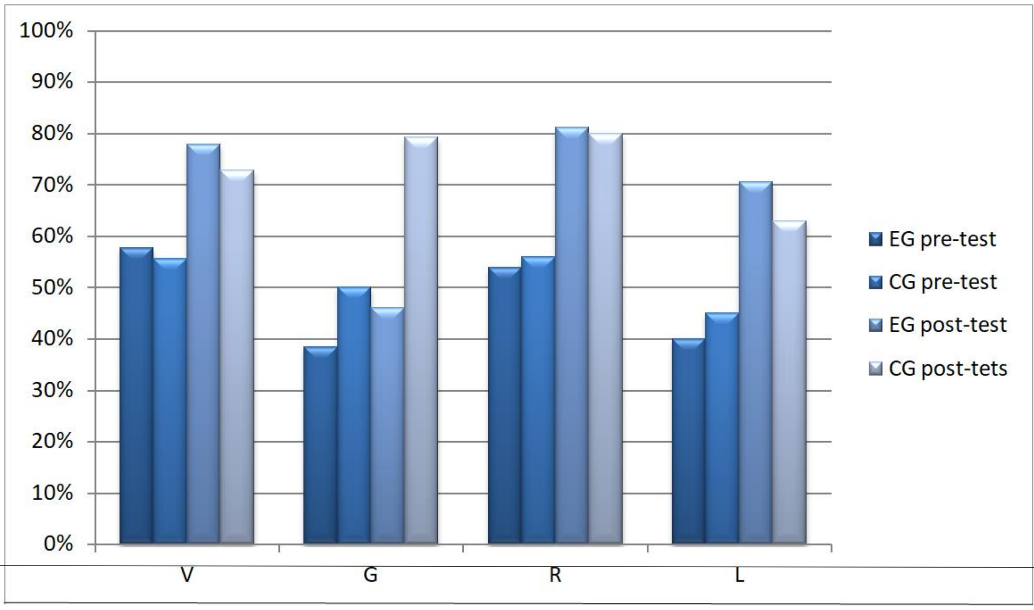

Figure 5. Comparison of all students' mean results in terms of pre– and post–tests.

Data presented in Figure 5 shows that EG and CG received more than 50% on V on pre-test. Their results increased on post-test to almost 80% for EG and 73% for CG. The chart reveals that the students of both groups increased the most their grammar competence, as the researcher reported 8% increase for EG and 29% increase for CG. As far as R is concerned, EG and CG received more than 50%. Their result increased to 80% on post-test. Listening results on the pre-test were much similar to grammar. Nevertheless, CG outcomes for L were not as impressive as for G since the group received on average 63% and EG gained 70%.

In order to compare the EG and CG groups in terms of the increase of knowledge, Kolmogorov–Smirnov test was made on the significance of mean differences of pre-test and post-test. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. *The comparison of the mean values of V, G, R, L and the sum results of pre–test and post–test for the EG the CG. Key: SD–standard deviation, N–number of participants, V–vocabulary, G–grammar, R-reading, L-listening, T-total*

	p	**EG Mean (SD) N=20**	**CG Mean (SD) N=10**
V increase	$p > .10$	5.65 (1.87)	4.8 (1.68)
G increase	$p < .05$	2.09 (0.82)	7.8 (1.81)
R increase	$p > .10$	2.45 (0.68)	2.1 (1.37)
L increase	$p > .10$	3 (1.17)	1.8 (1.03)

T increase	p < .025	13.15 (2.25)	16.5 (3.1)

Data displayed in Table 2 shows that the differences between the mean values for the V, R and L increase and the increase of the sum are statistically not significant. For the variable G, the difference is statistically significant (p > 0.05). The following two conclusions can be drawn. First, the EG and CG did not achieved similar results. Second, the comparison of EG and CG groups for G increase shows the average values are higher for CG than EG.

Apart from pre- and post-test results the author received questionnaire outcomes. They are presented in Table 3. Most of the CG and EG agreed that the availability of technology tools helped them to understand teaching material better. Nevertheless, the study revealed that both group prefer the lecture mode as their primary learning approach. As far as video clips and their impact on students' understanding of the lectures, EG downgraded their usefulness, yet CG rather agree on their positive value. Both groups also agreed that technology enhanced learning helped them to develop vocabulary and receptive skills. However, contrary to CG most of EG disapprove grammar interactive activities as they stated they do not helped them much. Moreover, EG strongly agreed that the online tasks took too much time, whereas CG did not have opinion about this issue. Both groups believe that technology enhanced classes increase students' motivation and develop a more positive attitude towards FL learning.

Table 3. *A 5–level Liker scale for a series of statements included in the questionnaire. Key: SD– standard deviation, 1- strongly disagree2- disagree, 3- neutral, 4- agree, 5- strongly agree*

	1		**2**		**3**		**4**		**5**		**M (SD)**	**M (SD)**
	G	G	G	CG	G	CG	G	G	G	CG	EG	CG
1. The availability of technology tools helped me to understand teaching material better				0		0	2		5	4 0	4.6 (0.06)	4.8 (0.42)
2. I prefer the lecture mode as my primary learning approach				0		0			0	4 5	4.9 (0.3)	4.9 (0.31)
3. Video clips of lecture content helped me to understand the lectures better			8	0	0	1		6		0	2.45 (0.6)	3.9 (0.31)
4. Interactive activities helped me to develop my lexical competence				0		0	2	6		5	3.9 (0.3)	4.1 (0.31)
5.Interactive activities helped me to develop my grammar competence			6	0	8	0		4		1 0	2.25 (0.55)	4.2 (0.42)

6. Technology enhanced learning helped me to develop my receptive skills			0	0		0	4	4	0	0	2	3.7 (0.8)	4.4. (0.51)
7.Online activities took too much time			0		5	1	2	0	0		0	4.1 (0.3)	3.5 (0.52)
8.The introduction to technologies in higher education has enhanced my involvement	0		0	4	5	1		0			0	2.6 (0.68)	3.5 (0.52)
9. I believe that technology enhanced classes develop a more positive attitude towards FL learning			0			0			0	5	4	4.9 (0.3)	4.9 (0.31)
10. Using technology in teaching and learning is likely to enhance students' motivation			0			0			0	5	4	4.9 (0.3)	4.9 (0.31)
11.Technology use in teaching and learning is likely to enhance students' learning needs			0			0	2	6			5	3.9 (0.3)	4.1 (0.31)
12. I prepare for the classes before coming to lectures	0	2	1	4	2	1					0	2.6 (0.68)	2.4 (0.51)
13.The use of video clips/access to Moodle allows the class time to be used for activities such as discussions, developing students' understanding			0			0			0	5	4	4.9 (0.3)	4.9 (0.31)
14. I am willing to continue the technology enhanced classes			2		4	5	2				5	3.9 (0.6)	3.9 (0.73)

Yet, CG was not committed to distance learning due to FC model. EG had neutral opinion about the involvement in the out of the classroom classes. Not only EG but also CG admitted that their learning needs were fulfilled owing to the fact that they had to participate in FC and BL. Unfortunately, all the students admitted they do not prepare for the classes before coming to lectures. The majority of EG and CG allow them to devote their class time for activities such as discussions and tasks aimed at developing students' understanding. Finally, most of them rather agree to continue the technology enhanced classes. The last section of this article deals with conclusions and discussion.

4. Conclusion and Discussion

The challenge of this investigation was to find out a more effective way of technology enhanced classes. The author tested two models, FC and BL. Even though the descriptive statistics for post-test were higher than for pre-test, both approaches to EFL learning appeared to have positive influence on their students' academic achievement. The study revealed only one difference between FC and BL. The investigation showed that BL had supported students' grammar competence as the CG post-test result on G was statistically higher than for EG.

Moreover, the questionnaire revealed that the teacher's role is extremely important and may influence the students' success in FL learning, especially in terms of G competence. The majority of the participants agreed that they appreciate their lectures more than any of technology enhanced classes. On the other hand, the investigation shows that the learners rely too much on the teacher and that they have problem with self-learning outside the classes. The situation may be explained by the fact that they claimed of not having too much time for online activities. They admitted that they do not prepare for the classes before coming to lectures. Hence, the investigation shows that either FC or BL motivate the students and create a more positive attitude toward FL learning. Owing to the fact that the teacher manages the whole teaching process inside and outside the classes the students have pressure to complete the tasks and assignments ordered by the teacher.

As far as general understanding of the teaching material is concerned, it appears that both approaches have positive effect on students comprehension. Nevertheless, the students did not value video clips. The possible explanation is that the broadcasts proposed by the teacher concerned mainly grammar. The investigation revealed that the learners weakest point is grammar and it needs the teacher's explanation. It appears that the students the students may have difficulties in adapting FC as it is a new approach and it requires much time from the students to watch the videos outside the classes (Chen, Wu & Marek, 2017). Siegle (2014) declares that the students may not be successful at completing the online activities while watching the videos outside the classroom. This statement is controversial since the students are able to stop the video or scroll it, thus have more time to think over and complete the exercise. Therefore, it is essential to yield a more in-depth and multi-faceted analysis of the use of videos and students academic achievements.

Even though, they participants feel overloaded they believe that if they complete certain online activities at home, they will have more class time for discussions and other tasks aimed at students' understanding development. The investigation revealed that the classroom interaction is very important.

It also appears that the tools implemented by the researcher (Kahoot, Quizzlet, Wordwall, LearningApps) can motivate students and enhance their learning needs.

The study is limited to a small number of students who take part in the English Language Practical Course. It is advised to conduct similar research with a larger sample in different course and different levels of education. Moreover, it is recommended to investigate the factors that motivate the students to learn outside the classroom before applying FC or BL model. Additionally, rich content video should be chosen or perhaps produced specifically for the students to conduct out-of-class studies. Why not to ask students to record their own videos concerning certain aspects of language? Bussi (2009) states ''If we lead and teach, we will end of teaching others and learning ourselves'' (p.12).

Finally, it seems vital to refer to one of the questionnaire answers, namely that the majority of the students admit to be willing to continue the technology enhanced classes. The present educators should bear the fact in mind that their students are used to new technologies such as tablets, smart phones and laptops, hence the teacher should turn this to their advantage in teaching the Millennial Students.

Appendix 1

Pre- and post-test

Source: Wilson, J., Newbrook, J., & Mann, R. (2002). *New proficiency gold*. Harlow: Pearson Education.

Name: ______________________ Class: ______________________

Section 1: Vocabulary

1 Read the text and decide which answer (A, B, C or D) best fits each gap.

I rarely act on (1) ___ , so when my grandmother, who has the most (2) ___ demeanour of anyone her age, suggested we go on a walking tour of Australia, I nearly passed out. 'I've had a (3) ___ ,' she told me last night. 'Let's have an adventure!' Gran is always telling me to make my (4) ___ on the world, as she wants me to (5) ___ my potential. Sadly, I don't have her optimism and think that her belief is largely (6) ___ thinking on her part. She wants me to be as courageous as she was in her (7) ___ , when she travelled through Africa alone. I was brought up with her amazing stories about when she was (8) ___ with life-or-death choices, all of which have been (9) ___ to my memory like a digital library. But truth be told, I have always felt somewhat in awe of her, as she seems absolutely fearless (10) ___ I seem to be terrified (11) ___ everything. Gran and my parents have never (12) ___ any demands on me and have allowed me to find my own way. They have always been there to guide me but deep down I think they were all hoping that I would (13) ___ Gran's example. When she came up with her suggestion, I found lots of excuses not to go but Gran (14) ___ a command at me: 'Go pack your bag – one only. Nothing that (15) ___ up too much space!' You do not want to argue with my gran when she's like this. She looked up from the computer. 'I can get tickets for tomorrow morning, so go pack,' she said, printing off our tickets.

1	A intuition	B instinct	C impulse	D impression
2	A juvenile	B infant	C childish	D youthful
3	A brainwave	B brainteaser	C brainstorm	D brainchild
4	A sign	B mark	C success	D hit
5	A gain	B grow	C fulfil	D earn
6	A aspiring	B ambitious	C hopeful	D wishful
7	A youth	B infancy	C adolescence	D childhood
8	A encountered	B tackled	C faced	D joined
9	A dedicated	B committed	C promised	D compelled
10	A despite	B whereas	C otherwise	D however
11	A from	B by	C of	D for
12	A had	B made	C forced	D kept
13	A practise	B make	C pursue	D follow
14	A barked	B coughed	C groaned	D muttered
15	A makes	B puts	C uses	D take

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2 Read the text. Use the word given in capitals at the end of some of the lines to form a word that fits in the gap in the same line.

Biodiversity refers to the (1) __________ of ecosystems and living organisms	**VARY**
and constitutes the (2) __________ of life on Earth. It is vital to human	**FOUND**
(3) __________ on the planet. Without it, we would not have the basic	**SURVIVE**
components of life: oxygen, food, freshwater, fertile soils, medicines, a stable	
climate and so on. (4) __________, it is the one natural feature on Earth	**FORTUNE**
which has been most affected by human (5) __________. The main reason	**ACT**
for this is because it is impossible to put a price tag on biodiversity, so its	
(6) __________ importance has been largely ignored by financial markets,	**ECONOMY**
whose (7) __________ to this valuable resource has added to the	**DIFFER**
(8) __________ lack of strategic protection and conservation.	**SHAME**
According to the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, there are between five	
and thirty million species on our planet but the (9) __________ of only	**EXIST**
around two million of those has been formally identified. Every day the	
(10) __________ of species is around 1,000 times more than it would	**EXTINCT**
have been without human (11) __________, due to the	**INTERFERE**
(12) __________ of habitats and land being turned over to agriculture,	**DESTROY**
to name but two causes. Climate change, over-exploitation, habitat loss and	
fragmentation, pollution and the spread of (13) __________ alien species	**INVADE**
are contributing to the biggest disaster and loss of life since dinosaurs	
disappeared from the planet around sixty-five million years ago.	

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Section 2: Grammar

3 Complete the second sentence so that it has a similar meaning to the first sentence, using the word given. Do not change the word given. You must use between three and six words, including the word given.

1 I am always upset when I hear about children starving in Africa.

IT

I ______________________________ hear about children starving in Africa.

2 We have never told the staff that there might be redundancies.

NO

At ______________________________ the staff that there might be redundancies.

3 They worked late and they didn't get paid for it.

DID

Not ______________________________ they also didn't get paid for it.

4 She knows a lot about British history.

GOOD

She ______________________________ British history.

5 My parents wouldn't let me train as an airline pilot.

STOPPED

My parents ______________________________ as an airline pilot.

6 There's no chance whatsoever of getting tickets for the concert.

QUITE

It's ______________________________ tickets for the concert.

7 We don't think he'll be here before 2 o'clock this afternoon.

EXPECTED

He ______________________________ before 2 o'clock this afternoon.

8 The company was in danger of going bankrupt last year.

COULD

The company ______________________________ last year.

9 She hasn't visited her parents for ages.

HIGH

It's ______________________________ her parents.

10 I only know the truth because she told me.

NOT

If she hadn't told me, I ______________________________ the truth.

11 I'll give you a set of keys because I might not be here when you return.

CASE

I'll give you a set of keys ______________________________ when you return.

12 My boss thought I had stolen some money from the office.

ACCUSED

My boss ______________________________ some money from the office.

13 He's a great speaker because of his enthusiasm for the subject.

WHAT

His enthusiasm for the subject ______________________________ a great speaker.

/ 13

4 Complete the text. Use only one word for each gap.

In 1948, Garry Davis, a former American actor and B-17 bomber pilot went to the US Embassy in Paris and declared that he (1) ___________ longer wished to be an American citizen but a citizen of the world. (2) ___________ been through the Second World War, he could not (3) ___________ the thought of a third world war, which threatened as the Cold War (4) ___________ East and West started to ignite. He went to the UN General Assembly and demanded (5) ___________ should become a single world government, for the whole of the planet. His ideas gained many supporters, (6) ___________ Albert Schweitzer and Albert Camus. He founded the World Government of World Citizens, along with the World Service Authority (WSA) in 1953 in Ellsworth, Maine, USA. Today anyone can apply (7) ___________ a World Passport, provided they fill in the application form and send in their payment. The cheapest passport is for three years and costs $45; the most expensive is a World Donor Passport, which lasts for fifteen years and is only issued on a donation of at (8) ___________ $4,000 to the World Refugee Fund, which helps WSA provide documents for needy refugees. A World Passport does not supersede a person's national passport, which, by nature, is exclusive, in (9) ___________ to a World Passport, which is wholly inclusive. It represents the ideal that we are all human beings who belong to one big family (10) ___________ of belonging to sovereign states which are constantly vying for predominance. (11) ___________ Garry Davis' own words, 'The world passport opens the door. Anyone can get it. Everyone is a human being, everyone has a right to travel.' However, not every nation accepts the passport, (12) ___________ there is evidence that more than 160 nations have stamped World Passports at some time or another, (13) ___________ a case-by-case basis. Garry Davis died aged 92 in 2013, without seeing his dream of a peaceful world come true. (14) ___________ his death, his dreams are not forgotten and the organisation he created still carries his message to the world.

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Section 3: Listening

5 **▶ 06 You will hear five different speakers talking about dealing with forgetfulness. While you listen, you must complete both tasks.**

Task 1

For questions 1–5, choose from the list (A–H) what the result of each speaker's forgetfulness is.

A	being unable to do something	Speaker 1	(1) _____
B	failing to deal with a problem	Speaker 2	(2) _____
C	feeling very worried	Speaker 3	(3) _____
D	appearing to be stupid	Speaker 4	(4) _____
E	being unable to get a message across	Speaker 5	(5) _____
F	disappointing someone		
G	ending a relationship		
H	infuriating someone		

Task 2

For questions 6-10, choose from the list (A-H) the way each speaker chose to deal with the problem.

A	taking photos of what they wish to recall	Speaker 1	(6) _____
B	recalling something connected to what they wish to remember	Speaker 2	(7) _____
C	recollecting the original learning experience	Speaker 3	(8) _____
D	acquiring a technological aid	Speaker 4	(9) _____
E	writing lists on small pieces of paper	Speaker	(10) _____
F	having short written reminders		
G	creating an image of what's around them		
H	using a series of different techniques		

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Section 4: Reading

6 **Read the article below and choose the answer (A, B, C or D) which you think fits best according to the text.**

1 What do we learn about Barbara Arrowsmith-Young in the first paragraph?

A She has learned over the years how to help her own child.
B When she was a child, it was thought that she would grow out of her problems.
C Her particular problem went undiagnosed until she was a young woman.
D She believes that children need to be told if they are likely to find school difficult.

2 How did her problem manifest itself?

A She could understand the meaning of difficult words.
B She found it hard to remember anything.
C She had amazing eyesight.
D She could seem quite stupid at times.

3 Her teachers at school

A thought she was just being lazy.
B set exams that were too difficult.
C helped her with special lessons.
D said that she would be unable to pass university entrance exams.

4 When Barbara was twenty-six years old, she

A was studying neuropsychology in Russia.
B discovered that she was not the only person in the world with her problem.
C started to write a book about her disabilities.
D wrote to a Russian soldier who had the same problems as she did.

5 What do we learn about the Russian soldier?

A His language skills were those of a young child.
B He knew that his injury had caused damage to his sight.
C He believed that brain damage might be the cause of his problem.
D His interpretation of his problem was slightly different from Barbara's.

6 According to Mark Rosenzweig,

A rats have much larger brains than people think.
B neuroplasticity is the ability of the brain to keep on growing.
C Barbara would not be able to do anything to improve her brain.
D the brain requires regular and frequent stimulation to function normally.

7 Barbara's attempt at improving her brain

A ended up with her giving up from extreme tiredness.
B made her feel as if her personality was changing.
C included spending a long time focusing on speed tests.
D failed to help her make connections she had always found difficult.

8 What do we learn about the traditional attitude towards people with learning disabilities?

A It was impossible to improve the performance of the brain.
B People were taught how to live with the problem.
C Brain exercises have always been a part of dealing with learning disabilities.
D They would never be able to function in a modern society.

9 Barbara Arrowsmith-Young

A has taught thousands of children to pass exams.
B says that every child is able to improve their brains as she did.
C says if learning disabilities are not diagnosed quickly enough, people cannot find work.
D says that children's problems are often not correctly recognised.

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How to rebuild your own brain

It's not the kind of thing you would ever forget. When Barbara Arrowsmith-Young started school in Canada in the early 1950s, her teacher told her mother – in her presence – that she would never be able to learn. Having helped over 4,000 children overcome exactly the same diagnosis, she can laugh at it. But she didn't at the time. Today Arrowsmith-Young holds a master's degree in psychology and has published a groundbreaking book called *The Woman Who Changed Her Brain*. But until she was in her mid-twenties, she was desperate, tormented and often depressed. She didn't know what was wrong.

On the one hand, she was brilliant with near-total auditory and visual memory. 'I could memorise whole books.' On the other hand, she was a dolt. 'I didn't understand anything,' she says. 'Meaning just never crystallised. Everything was fragmented, disconnected.'

In exams, she sometimes got 100 percent but whenever the task involved reasoning and interpretation she would fail dismally. 'The teachers didn't understand,' she says. 'They thought I wasn't trying and I was often punished.' To help her, her mother devised a series of flash cards with numbers and letters and, after much hard work, she achieved literacy and numeracy of a sort, even getting into university, where she disguised her learning disabilities by working twenty hours a day: 'I used to hide when the security guards came to close the library at night, then come back out and carry on.'

The breakthrough came when she was twenty-six. A fellow student gave her a book by a Russian neuropsychologist, Aleksandr Luria. The book contained his research on the writings of a highly intelligent Russian soldier, Lyova Zazetsky, who had been shot in the brain during a battle, and recorded in great detail his subsequent disabilities.

For the first time, Arrowsmith-Young says, 'I recognised somebody describing exactly what I experienced. His expressions were the same: living life in a fog. His difficulties were the same: he couldn't tell the time from a clock, he couldn't tell the difference between the sentences *The boy chases the dog* and *The dog chases the boy*. I began to see that maybe an area of my brain wasn't working.'

The bullet had lodged in a part of the brain where information from sight, sound, language and touch is synthesised, analysed and made sense of. Arrowsmith-Young began to realise that, in all probability, this was the region of her own brain that had been malfunctioning since she was born.

Then she read about the work of Mark Rosenzweig, an American researcher who found that laboratory rats given a rich and stimulating environment developed larger brains. Rosenzweig concluded that the brain continues developing rather than being fixed at birth: a concept known as 'neuroplasticity'. Arrowsmith-Young decided that if rats could grow bigger and better brains, so could she.

She started devising exercises for herself to work the parts of her brain that weren't functioning. She drew 100 two-handed clockfaces on cards and wrote the time each told on the back. Then she started trying to tell the time from each. She did this eight to ten hours a day, gradually becoming faster and more accurate.

'I was experiencing mental exhaustion like I had never known,' she says, 'so I figured something was happening. After three or four months of this, it really felt like something had fundamentally changed in my brain. I watched an edition of a news programme and I got it. I read pages from ten books, and understood every single one. It was like stepping from darkness into light.'

She developed more exercises, for different parts of her brain, and found they worked, too. Now almost 30, she was finally beginning to function normally.

It was revolutionary work, and not just for her. 'At that time,' she says, 'all the work around learning disabilities involved compensating for what learners couldn't do. It all started from the premise that they were unchangeable.'

Faced with little receptivity for her ideas, Arrowsmith-Young decided to found her own school in Toronto in 1980; she now has thirty-five such schools. Thousands of children dismissed as impossible to teach, have attended Arrowsmith schools and gone on to academic and professional success.

'So much human suffering is caused by cognitive mismatches with the demands of the task,' says Arrowsmith-Young. 'So many wrong diagnoses get made, so many children get written off, so many people take wrong decisions and end up in lives and careers they did not choose for themselves but were chosen for them by cognitive limitations that can be identified and strengthened. There is hope for these people.'

Appendix 2

Questionnaire

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
1. The availability of technology tools helped me to understand teaching material better					
2. I prefer the lecture mode as my primary learning approach					
3. Video clips of lecture content helped me to understand the lectures better					
4. Interactive activities helped me to develop my lexical competence					
5. Interactive activities helped me to develop my grammar competence					
6. Technology enhanced learning helped me to develop my receptive skills					
7. Online activities took too much time					
8. The introduction to technologies in higher education has enhanced my engagement					
9. I believe that technology enhanced classes develop a more positive attitude towards FL learning					
10. Using technology in teaching and learning is likely to enhance students' motivation					
11. Technology use in teaching and learning is likely to enhance students' learning needs					
12. I prepare for the classes before coming to lectures					

13. The use of video clips/access to Moodle allows the class time to be used for activities such as discussions, developing students' understanding	
14. I am willing to continue the technology enhanced classes	

Appendix 3

EG Pre-test results. Key: S1,S2...- student 1, student 2, V- vocabulary, G-grammar, R-reading, L-listening, T-total, M-mean scores, M%- mean percentage

EG	V	G	R	L	T
S1	15	10	5	4	34
S2	18	9	5	3	35
S3	19	8	4	4	35
S4	16	9	3	5	33
S5	11	11	6	3	31
S6	18	7	7	4	36
S7	15	12	4	4	35
S8	20	8	5	3	36
S9	18	9	5	5	37
S10	17	10	7	5	39
S11	14	13	4	3	34
S12	17	15	5	3	40
S13	13	8	3	4	28
S14	14	9	6	2	31
S15	16	9	4	4	33
S16	14	11	5	5	35
S17	15	12	4	5	36

S18	17	11	3	6	37
S19	18	14	6	4	42
S20	18	13	6	5	42
M	16.15	10.4	4.85	4.05	35.45
M %	57.67	38.51	53.88	40.5	47.90

CG Pre-test results. Key: S1,S2...- student 1, student 2, V- vocabulary, G-grammar, R-reading, L-listening, T-total, M-mean scores, M%- mean percentage

CG	**V**	**G**	**R**	**L**	**T**
S1	17	12	5	4	38
S2	13	16	4	5	38
S3	13	14	6	3	36
S4	12	15	5	5	37
S5	16	13	7	6	42
S6	17	16	4	4	41
S7	18	13	6	3	40
S8	16	14	3	5	38
S9	15	13	6	6	40
S10	19	10	5	4	38
M	15,6	13.6	5.1	4.5	38.8
M%	55.71	50.37	56.66	45	

EG Post-test results. Key: S1,S2...- student 1, student 2, V- vocabulary, G-grammar, R-reading, L-listening, T-total, M-mean scores, M%- mean percentage

EG	**V**	**G**	**R**	**L**	**T**
S1	22	12	7	5	46
S2	25	11	7	7	50

S3	25	12	5	7	49
S4	18	13	6	8	45
S5	17	13	8	6	44
S6	22	9	9	6	46
S7	19	14	6	7	46
S8	28	10	8	7	53
S9	24	11	8	10	53
S10	22	13	9	9	53
S11	19	15	6	6	46
S12	20	16	8	6	50
S13	18	10	6	9	43
S14	19	11	8	5	43
S15	20	10	7	8	45
S16	19	12	9	8	48
S17	21	13	6	6	46
S18	24	13	6	7	50
S19	26	16	8	6	56
S20	28	15	9	8	60
M	21.8	12.45	7.3	7.05	48.6
M%	77.85	46.11	81.11	70.5	65.67

CG Post-test results. Key: S1,S2...- student 1, student 2, V- vocabulary, G-grammar, R-reading, L-listening, T-total, M-mean scores, M%- mean percentage

CG	**V**	**G**	**R**	**L**	**T**
S1	20	18	6	6	50
S2	18	22	5	6	51

S3	19	24	8	5	56
S4	17	25	6	7	55
S5	20	19	8	7	54
S6	21	26	7	5	59
S7	22	21	9	6	58
S8	20	20	8	6	54
S9	24	20	7	7	58
S10	23	19	8	8	58
M	20.4	21.4	7.2	6.3	55.3
M%	72.85	79.25	80	63	74.72

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PSYCHOLOGICAL TRAITS OF GENIUSES AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR CURRICULUMS FOR "GIFTED INDIVIDUALS"

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Abstract

Geniuses are the individuals who contribute significantly to the human history. Without Newton, the industrial revolution might not be happened or at least delayed to centuries after him, without al Khwarizmi, mathematics and algorithms might lost many valuable contributions. Therefore, it is important to investigate geniuses and their needs in the context of interdisciplinary perspective. Thus, the psychological characteristics of geniuses come to the fore for such a developmental process based on psychological foundations. The main purpose of this study is to discuss the psychological characteristics of geniuses and their importance in terms of educational programs for gifted individuals. As a result, when the general characteristics and lifestyles of geniuses are examined, it can be said that focusing individual differences in education is significant for their education. In this context, their lives and the problems they face are important in terms of showing the significance of the equal opportunity in education. Thirdly, it is important to emphasize the importance of focusing on challenging educational environments for their education. Additionally, it is important to underline that thinking like a genius can be a learnable and teachable feature. Hence, it is important to regulate the necessary educational content and situations for achieving this. In this context, education programs based on different genius styles or based on the characteristics of special talents should be used in this direction.

Keywords: gifted education, creative thinking styles, gifted curriculum

1. Introduction

Gifted individuals are the ones who perform particular skills and behaviours at a high level compared to their peers in terms of intelligence, creativity, aesthetic, leadership capacity or special academic fields (MEB, 2013: 7).According to Renzulli (1978), giftedness is characterized by general talent, high level of commitment (motivation) and high level of creativity. In this respect, the importance of gifted children is increasing day by day because today's complex technological developments and social and environmental problems require solutions that are more original, sensitive and creative in many ways. History is full of twists and turns produced by the original ideas and products of many geniuses. For example, Einstein's theory of relativity has opened a completely different field in physics. When the idea that the effects of the ideas and products produced by specially talented individuals can be huge in many areas is considered, educating gifted individuals in proper ways and providing required educational environments to the gifted individuals in accordance with their talents and abilities should a must in order to achieve more affective, humanistic and science based educational level.

On the other hand, the characteristics of geniuses can be considered as a cognitive and affective quality which have special places in terms of definitions of giftedness. Giftedness includes the characteristics of creativity, special talent, high intelligence mainly in separate mechanical ways, while the features of geniusess appear to have the characteristics of creativity, aesthetics, and intelligence in an holistic sense. For example, Newton can be regarded as someone standing for a novel genius who produced many novel works in physics, mathematics, optics, chemistry an deven theology because he did invent calculus as well as reflecting lenses for telescopes, he developed anti-counterfeiting measures for coins, including the ridges one can see on quarters today[8]. In this context, the two questions were sought as

1- What are the general characteristics of geniuses and what kind of educational results can be drawn from them?

2- Can the gifted education programs be applicable to genius education?

2. Genius and Giftedness

Cognitive dimensions of giftedness refers the characteristics of gifted individuals in both developmental and behavioral aspects. Comparing to their peers, gifted individuals can mentally develop early. These features may show itself as having a wider and rich vocabulary and solving complex problems with creative ideas (Çağlar, 1972). However, it can be said that early development is not a universal diagnostic sign for all gifted individuals especially for geniuses. Albert Einstein, for example, is a typical example of this as a genius who learnt to speak slowly and very late stages of his development (Pickover, 1998). Similarly, Newton was borned as tiny and weak baby and was not expected to survive his first day of life by his parents. In this context, although some early developmental characteristics may be an important clue for the identification of gifted individuals such as high ability to process information quickly, it may not be a valid definition for geniuses who solve problems creatively within a unique perspective because features of geniuses are not only restricted by cognitive skills based on intelligence but also they are based on education and social structure that is shaped by learning and experiences. Therefore, messianic perpective on geniuses is not hold on in may cases for such individuals. This might be result of the hidden belief and expectation of such indviduals in a miraculous cues and traits like the appearance of Bethlehem star where Jesus Christ came to Earth. This hidden assumptions regarding early signs of intelligence and giftedness may result in ignorance of the significance of environment as well as the learning process.

When the characteristics of both geniuses and gifted individuals come to the frofront, intelligence is undeniably seen as the most important factor explaining it while it is mostly vague what is the real definition of intelligence as a sacred and hidden feature that makes gifted individuals who they are. Actually, there are many theories regarding the types of intelligences such as Triarchic Theory Of Intelligence of Sternberg (1998) or Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences. For example, Sternberg's (1998) theory proposes three different forms of intelligences: analytical, practical and creative in the context of giftedness. Each is given equal status in Sternberg's triarchy, and each can change strongly from person to person. Analytical intelligence is involved when the components of intelligence are applied to analyze, evaluate, judge, or compare and contrast. Analytical intelligence is similar to traditional views of IQ, but practical intelligence and creative intelligence, however, are hardly represented by standard intelligence tests. Practical intelligence refers to the abilities helping the individuals to interpret what they are looking for in social, personal and professional situations, and developing successful strategies to succeed in real situations in the real world contexts. Creative intelligence involves finding unique solutions to solve specific problems, to reduce difficulties, to enrich experiences as well as to transform environmental conditions to desired ones. Within Sternberg's framework, intelligence can be shown in any of the three broad dimensions, as well as how these dimensions interact with each other (Borland, 2003). However, when those multiple intelligence theories are invesstigated, it can be easily seen that

[8] https://www.livescience.com/20296-isaac-newton.html, retrieved from 21.07.19

they mostly don't refer the learning process and experiences which are the vital characters of human cognition but they somehow treat those diverse intelligences as abilities embedded in a cognitive schemes and emerged as a "natural inclination of one's particular cognitive dispositions". This kind of definitions are true regarding them as particular and stable dispositions and inclinations but they maybe misleading for attribuing them to some hidden characteristics that are hidden to each individual rather than emerging in the process of learning as well as the interaction with he environment.

When the theories related to intelligence and giftedness are examined, it is generally emphasized that particular characteristics of geniuses are ragrded as innate features that manifest itself in the process. The term giftedness in English also indicates this characteristics as a special form of "present" given by the nature. This kind of view lead to the perception that geniuses will give the most efficient products when they are given the most appropriate and best apprropriate conditions and opportunities because their innate nature is already inclined to show its essence in such conditions. Today's education system focuses more on the special talent as a gift rather than something is shaped by experiences, personality traits, motivation and more importantly learning processes (Gagné, 1985; Renzulli, 2016). For example, Ataman (2004: 158) lists the learning characteristics of these students, which he describes as gifted and special talented like this:

1. They are capable of storing a wide range of information on various subjects.

2. They have the ability to quickly recall and absorb information.

3. They can easily understand complex objects and events. They can easily separates them into understandable and meaningful parts. They can immediately sees the logical structure of the answers.

4. They are very careful and are sharp observers. They have very high level of intensive vocabulary.

5. They form a rather long and complex sentence compared to their peers.

6. They have a keen interest, especially in science, mathematics and linguistics comparing to their peers.

Similarly, Renzulli (1978) defined the characteristics of gifted individuals as special talent, high level of commitment (motivation) and high level of creativity. When we look at the basic features of these skills, it can be said that these are actually the specialities shaped in the leaarning process. For example, special talent can be related to the abilities that individuals have in painting, dance, music, theater, arts, mathematics, science, chemistry, talent in special areas and to any extent whether these abilitties are belonged to some special intrinsic powers, they depend on learning processes and educational experiences as well (Renzulli, 2003; cited in Tunali, 2018). For instance, although there maybe genetic effects in creativity, it is a learned skill eloborated in the process of problem solving and proposing different perspectives in learning experiences. In this context, altough even today it is also taken as a mystical and some sort of hereditary character just as in the book of Francis Galton's "Hereditary Genius", one of the first books to propose a theory about the concept of genius in which it is described as innate and exceptionally high talent (Kaufman and Sternberg, 2007), it should be emphasized that it is actually a skill that can be learned.

When we look at the lives of geniuses, it can be said that there are challenging situations that first develop their personality. In the simplest case, if we define genius as someone who tangibly or intangibly contributes to his/her society in an unique way, many of the important names who have had a great impact on the history have many significant obstacles in their life such as missing a family member or lack of adequate social or educational support that are depicted as idealized forms. The life of many brilliant individuals such as Moses, Jesus, Prophet Mohammad, Genghis Khan, Leonardo da Vinci, Johannes Kepler, Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz, Isaac Newton, Mustafa Kemal Ataturk, Stewe Jobs show that they are the ones who lost their family members at an early age or grew up without a father or were brought up for adoption, at least in fact, living in difficult living conditions. Altough there can be counter examples for geniuses growing up in good conditions or confronting without any difficulties, the lifestories having such obstacles can be useful for the analysis why equality in education matters and why education should be designed not for “the chosen ones” but for anyone who needs proper education. It is also important for showing the significance for educational factors for human development rather than particular hereditary characteristics.

Table 1. *Brief information about some brilliant individuals and family situations*

Moses	He grew up in Pharaoh's palace far from his family.
Jesus	According to the Bible, he was born and raised without a father.
Prophet Mohammad	Before he was born, his father passed away, his mother was died at the age of six, and his grandfather was died at the age of eight. He had no brothers and grew up as an orphan.
Genghis Khan	His father was poisoned at the age of 10 and his mother had to raise him with his 7 children.
Johannes Kepler	His father left home when he was five and his family was in very difficult conditions when he was born.
Leonardo da Vinci	From existing documents, historians indicate that Leonardo was mostly raised by his father, a lawyer named Ser Piero da Vinci. Scholars also point out that Ser Piero was not married to Leonardo's mother. Some scholars claim Leonardo's mother was a slave from North Africa or Turkey. Leonardo probably spent most of his time as a child with neither parent, but with his paternal uncle Francesco
Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz	His father died when he was six years old, and from that point on he was raised by his mother.
Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel	Hegel's mother, Maria Magdalena Louisa (née Fromm), was the daughter of a lawyer at the High Court of Justice at the Württemberg court. She died of a "bilious fever" (Gallenfieber) when Hegel was thirteen. Hegel and his father also caught the disease, but they narrowly survived

Carl Friedrich Gauss	Johann Carl Friedrich Gauss was born to poor, working-class parents. His mother was illiterate and never recorded the date of his birt.
Fatih Sultan Mehmet	At the age of 12 he had to ascend the throne at the request of his father. As a child he encountered janissary riots in the palace.
Johann Sebastian Bach	Bach was born in 1685 in Eisenach, in the duchy of Saxe-Eisenach, into an extensive musical family. Bach's mother died in 1694, and his father died eight months later when he was 10 years old.
Francis Bacon	Bacon was educated at home in his early years owing to poor health
Robert Boyle	As a child, Boyle was fostered to a local family, as were his elder brothers. Boyle received private tutoring in Latin, Greek, and French and when he was eight years old, following the death of his mother
Michael Faraday	He only received basic school education and his family was very poor. Faraday was one of four children, all of whom were hard put to get enough to eat, since their father was often ill and incapable of working steadily. Faraday later recalled being given one loaf of bread that had to last him for a week.
Isaac Newton	His father died three months before his birth. He led a troubled life with his mother and stepfather.
Thomas Edison	Edison attended school for only a few months, and was instead taught by his mother. Edison developed hearing problems at an early age. The cause of his deafness has been attributed to a bout of scarlet fever during childhood and recurring untreated middle-ear infections.
Mustafa Kemal Atatürk	He lost his father when he was seven years old and he had a difficult childhood
Stewe Jobs	He was born on 1955, to Abdulfattah Jandali and Joanne Schieble, and was adopted by Paul and Clara Jobs. obs had difficulty functioning in a traditional classroom, tended to resist authority figures, frequently misbehaved, and was suspended a few times.
Oktay Sinanoğlu	His father passed away at the age of six and was raised in difficult conditions by his mother.

Indeed, there are many good opportunities and supports in the life of geniuses, however it should be pointed out that negative situations they confroted with may have made them more patient, more persistent, and more powerful. Secondly, the lack of an authority in their families and a role model as authority may cause them to be more creative and out of norms. This may have improved their unusual and often enriching thinking and ability to concentrate on a single activity over long periods of time. Another characteristic of individuals who are called geniuses is that most of them suffer from various psychological problems or have some kind of illness or disability. Some recent studies have shown that many individuals who are described as geniuses suffer from problems such as Asperger syndrome. For example, Arshad and Fitzgerald (2004) suggest that the famous sculptor Michelangelo may have a high level of autism or Asperger syndrome. A similar situation is known for Isaac Newton. He was recognized as a hard-to-maintain person with paranoid characteristics (James, 2006). It is clear in this context that it is not advisable to educate people to engage in emotionally destructive situations or behaviors that are not desired by society in order to raise genius. However, the negative cases of the lifes of geniuses offer many educational hints for the current educational system:

1- Equality opportunity in education is actually for the benefit of the whole society because, as it can be seen in the lives of many geniuses, it can benefit the society with extraordinary contributions in terms of socio-economic aspects by the ones who have various problems such as autism or lived in inadequate life conditions. Although most of them previously are being considered as weak and sick, gifted individuals exhibit more positive physical, social, personality traits than people generally suppose (Gallagher, 2008). Although there are some obstacles and lack of support in the some part of lives of the geniuses, it can be seen that when their lives are examined carefully, they have a role model or guiding teacher, relative, or at least someone who notices the light in inside them and help accordingly. For example, although Newton exhibits anti-social tendencies and quarrelsome personality, it is clear that it would not be Newton without the social institutions and individuals appreciating him scientifically as well as without the necessary opportunities. What is important here is that the individual differences shouldn’t be viewed based on the average marks of the normal distribution. This, of course, doesn’t mean that negative behaviours or life conditions should be evaluated as a mark of a genius but rather this may be seen as a clue as to how individual differences in society should be viewed from an educational perspective. The current education system is a system that tends to select individuals based on normal distribution. According to this kind of view, students’ past experiences, learning readiness, their previous access to educational opportunities, their individuals should be neglected, and they should be selected based on the normal distribution of the data obtained from the students who took the exam in a certain percentile so as to choose the best ones for education based on predetermined standards. Of course, it is very difficult to provide equal opportunities for the countries such as Turkey that has very high young population as in Findland case where more individual oriented programs are provided in education system. However, there should be addtitionally organizations to support such individuals and enable them to become a productive member of their society. Unfortunately, the whole system in Turkey, including in Bilsem centres for gifted students is designed for choosing the adequate ones through testing based on predetermined standards. Those who have hidden potentials and talents are directed toward the out of the system as long as they don’t show their abilities based on those standarts. At least in the current system, it is essential to provide opportunities for individuals to direct their lives from the stage they show their potential and necessary career counseling and guidance should be enabled in this direction. This actually raises the question as “When should special talented children be identified? ” and this leads to question as “Is it possible to identify children as early as possible, ie in pre-school or primary school? and this raises the question of “Should the diagnosis be performed intermittently or continuously? (Karadağ, 2016). Unfortunately, in Turkey, as the individuals progress in levels of education, their educational opportunities are narrowed down and decreasing as if one moves up in a pyramid. This results in the neglect of individual differences and the increasing inequality in education.

The life of individuals who are described as geniuses is important in terms of showing us that even the individuals from the lowest income groups or the problematic individuals can make many great contributions to society. However, this situation is very complicated when the different types of gifted students in risk groups such as gifted children with behavioral problems, gifted children with low academic achievement, gifted children having other obstacles (learning disabilities, autism, etc.) (Montenegro, 2016) are taken into account. In this regard, some argue that providing such a huge efforts might be waste of money or time in case of failure of those individuals. However, it should be remembered that same case is valid for the individuals who are in normal distributions because we don't get maximum efficiency from those individuals.

2- Secondly, the challenges in the life of genius people reveal the necessity of challenging and problematic situations rather than a comfortable environment for the development of gifted individuals because characteristics genius require the ability to think differently and to look outside the norms when dealing with difficulties, solving problems. Even in this context, it is important to provide challanging situations in education. Today the placing of smart boards in educational institutions in Turkey, distributing tablet computers to students are important developments in terms of quality and improving the quality of education. But more important than that, it is necessary to provide compelling, problem-producing educational experiences that requires higher order thinking skills and behavior in order to improve the quality of education. For example, even though Albert Einstein, Isaac Newton or Archimedes, didn't not have any computer, they achieved to solve complicated problems by paper and pencils even by drawing on sand! Likewise, when the libraries of many philosophers in the middle Ages, and the books they could reach are investigated, it can easily be seen that the information they can reach is so small in comparison with the to today's contemporary libraries and digital media. In this context, the priority in education shouldn't be providing comfortable environments but providing educational experiences and contents that will provide cognitive contradictions, confusion to spark their interest and motivation. Secondly, great contrbiutions of geniuses also close the doors on any excuses because the lands where the genius comes out are not green but more barren and rocky areas. This is one of the main points of misunderstanding of constructivist understanding. A typical example of this situation is depicting educational environments as the places that are arranged according to individuality of the students for joy and comfort. When individuals are confronted with a truly challenging situation, they are both motivated and enjoying their work as well as producing something worthy because they make efforts to achieve it. In this context, the difficulties in the lives of geniuses are important in terms of the significance of providing challenging environments instead of focusing on comfort in education and not to be despaired due to lack of opportunities.

3- The third lesson that can be learned from the lives of geniuses is that genius characteristics emerge by working hard. Just as said by Edison, "Origin of genius is 1 percent inspiration and 99 percent perspiration." Unfortunately, thefeatures of geniuses are understood in both popular culture and even in education as a some sort of gifts and these people having these gifts have some messianic features that can be predicted and realized at the some point of their life. This leads to the belief that characteristics of geniuses are not "learnable" but "selectable features". However, examining the lives of geniuses and how they reason in situations they encounter can be used both as sample cases and as methods and techniques to teach different ways of thinking in educational processes for the students. Just as said in famous quote attributed to Einstein, "Everyone is a genius. But if you judge a fish by its ability to climb a tree, it will live its whole life believing that it is stupid." Therefore, education system should focus on improving student's abilities and providing them with learning opportunities to express their creativity and what they learned with their outcomes rather than selecting them based on vague concept what is normal or specia. It should be emphasized that most of the geniuses and inpring individual so far were not selected by exams based on normal dsitributions but with the unique products they create in their areas.

3. Characteristics of Genius and Curriculums

Providing compelling educational situations for children with more than average general intelligence is the main objective of most programs in gifted education (Borland, 2003). However, this shouldn't be restricted with chosen gifted students because as discussed before, genius characteristics like cognitive ones such as creativity, productivity or affective ones like patience, perseverance can be also learnable and teachable because many genius individuals have variety of strategies and ways of solving problems. For example, according to Moser-Wellman's classification of geniuses as Seers, Observers, Alchemists, The Fool and Sage (Moser-Welmann, 2001; Duran, 2019) based on the interviews with forty-five successful artists, scientists and fifty-two businessmen around the world, and thematic analysis of the data obtained from them.

According to this model, **The Seers** see pictures in the eyes of their minds and these pictures become the driving force of ingenious ideas (Moser-Welmann, 2001). In this context, in order to enhance this genius style, students should be encouraged to express their ideas with brain maps, concept maps, pictures and network graphics and educational situations. Therefore individuals should be educated to think through images and mental pictures in their minds through thought experiments and to present ideas through activities in this direction. Therefore, a program based on this genius style should be based on visual and imagination inputs and educational activities, and measurement and evaluation tools should be prepared accordingly.

Observers recognize the details of the world around them and gather them to build new ideas (Moser-Welmann, 2001). In this context, activities based on observation and problem situations requiring observation as well as addressing the five senses should be more focused in order to improve this kind of genius style. Detailed observations with microscopes, telescopes and other laboratory tools should also be the basis of a program based on this type of genius style.

Alchemists bring together different fields of ideas, disciplines or systems of thought and uniquely connect them to develop striking ideas (Moser-Welmann, 2001). A program based on this genius style involves interdisciplinary learning. Therefore, interdisciplinary (Correlative) design and wide area design which are among the subject-based curriculum designs can be used as the basis for the development of this kind of genius style.

Fools focus on the weaknesses. Fools practice three related skills: excelling at inversion, seeing the sense in absurdity, and having unending perseverance (Moser-Welmann, 2001). In this context, it can be said that a program based on the fool genius style can be structured with a process-oriented design focused on critical thinking skills.

Sages use the power of simplification as the primary means to inspiration. They reduce problems to their essence and in the process create an ingenious idea. Simplicity is their credo. (Moser-Welmann, 2001). Such genius style can be based on teaching the simplification of events in process design.

All these genius styles can be developed in learner or problem-centered designs as well as subject-centered design.

In addition, training programs can be developed according to the specific characteristics of gifted students. Teaching practices can be realized according to the characteristics of the gifted individuals based on Table 2.

Table 2. *Gifted Characteristics, Learning Needs, Teaching Practices (Van Tassel-Baska, 1989; Özçelik, 2017)*

Characteristics	Learning Needs	Teaching Practices
Abstraction	Presentation of high-level abstract symbols	Reorganizing simple skills and planning activities that require high level skills
Attention	Planning to allow to work in depth in interesting and challenging areas	Diversity in working time Adequate time planning in small group and special project works
Ability to relate and create relationship between different information groups	Exposure to different perspectives and concepts requiring critical thinking skills	Creating interdisciplinary programs in areas such as social sciences, arts, special areas, science Using various written materials and resources
Fast learning and strong memory	Fast progress in simple skills and traditional field content	Restructuring, accelerating and enriching learning frameworks
Wide knowledge, various interests	Working in depth in the area of interest	Providing learning areas that caan be used for long periods Providing indepedent learning environments Providing learning environments that are sensitive to individual differences

However, it should be pointed out that education based on the characteristics of gifted individuals cannot be restricted by those dimensions. For example, Guilford (1959) proposed 120 different mental skills in the human mental faculties. In this respect, educators have great responsibilities for determining individual characteristics and they have required qualifications for creating and conducting flexible curriculums and learning opportunities. Therefore, another program approach that can be applied is differentiated curriculums because the principles of the differentiated curriculum are more appropriated for the gifted education given as follows (Ayverdi, 2018):

- The content should be broad, interesting and it should be based on discussion topics, themes, facts, concepts or problems. For example, the subject of life on Mars should be given in the context of simple trajectory motion instead of focusing on mere trajectory motion. The psychological difficulties and conditions of life on Mars, the rules of physics and mathematics about how to go to Mars, the technologies that can be used on Mars, nutrition and possible social acitivities on Mars should be structured in an interdisciplined way rather than distinct topics.

- Flexible learning opportunities should be provided to enable them to study more deeply the subjects that are interesting for them.
- Independent working skills of the students should be developed. It is important to provide the environment to take responsibility for this reasong. For example, animal feeding or plant breeding are examples of such activities. Individuals can only contribute more actively when they take responsibility.
- Activities that are based on students' own ideas and which improve their higher level thinking should be included.
- Open-ended activities and tasks should be emphasized and students should be encouraged to put their creativity and original products.
- Students should be encouraged to recognize and use their skills to develop their reflective thinking skills, to be able to orient themselves and to tolerate the similarities and differences between themselves and other people.
- Since being genius includes not only cognitive skills but also affective and behavioral abilities, educational situations should be designed in order to regulate and maintain their curiosity, motivation.

4. Conclusion

As a result, when the general characteristics and lifestyles of geniuses are examined, it can be said that individual differences show the importance of education. In this context, their lives and the problems they face are important in terms of showing the importance of equality of opportunity in education. Thirdly, it is important to emphasize the importance of focusing on challenging educational environments for cognitive development. Fourth, it is important for genius characteristics can be learnable and teachable features and hence regulating the necessary educational content and situations for this is of having significance. As mentioned before as long as being a genius is regarded as a some sort of gift, no curriculum or educational design should be needed except selecting them and providing some educational opportunities based on the interests of chosen ones. In this context, education programs based on different genius styles or based on the characteristics of special abilities or differentiated curriculums can be used in this direction. Especially when organizing differentiated training programs for the development of genius abilities, it may be useful to look for concrete answers to these questions in terms of the functionality of the program (Özçelik, 2017):

- Is the current program capable of responding to the needs and interests of faster and slower learners?

- Are the program objectives flexible enough to respond to differences in interests and needs?

- Is the program complex and challenging enough to allow gifted students to use different thinking strategies, resources and methods?

- Does the program allow in-depth learning of a problem or concept within the subject area?

- Does the program allow for showing creativity?

- Does the program encourage open-ended answers to the questions of individuals?

- Does the program allow for individual self-assessment, peer assessment and expert assessment?

Finally educational objectives should focus on improving wisdom rather than abilities related with the usage of information so that it should emphasize reasoning rather than merely zeroing on intelligence. Therefore it should improve one's intelligence, creativity, commone sense, and knowledge and as mediated by positive ethical values toward the achievement of a common good through a balance among (a) intrapersonal, (b) interpersonal, and (c) extrapersonal interests, over the (a) short and (b) long terms to achieve a balance among (a) adaptation to existing environments, (b) shaping of existing environments, and (c) selection of new environments defined in the balance theory of wisdom by Sternberg (1998).

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THE EFFECTS OF MUSIC ON ATTENTION AND MEDITATION LEVELS OF INDIVIDUALS

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Abstract

The aim of this reseach is to investigate the effects of musıc on attentıon and meditation levels of ındıvıduals and to provide evidence for educational stimuli for the classroom activities. The study is a semi-experimental study based on a single-subject design. An adapted alternating treatments design was used in the study. This design is used to evaluate the effects of two or more independent variables on two or more dependent variable. The sample was formed by convenient sampling method. For this reason, 5 academicians from different departments studying at Iğdır University were taken into sample. First results of the study indicates that It seems that change in the significant differences is depended on the individual cases at least fort his small sample because there are equal amoun of positive and negative changes and it seems that no appearant correlation among the attention and meditation levels. Therefore the subsequent studies should be done with the sample having more participants. The results of neural network analysis is compatible with the characteristics of the brain waves as well as the expected characteristics of two different states as resting and listening music. When we look at the classification results for brain waves, test and validity set, it is possible to state that the artificial neural network created gives good results especially in the classification of different states of the brain rather than the mere values of attention and meditation levels. Therefore, our research indicates that altough it seems to be difficult for determining a common song for collective groups, through using neural networks, it is possible to provide individualized stimuli for educational purposes.

1. Introduction

Electrical recordings from the brain surface indicate that the brain has a continuous electrical activation (Valverde, 2016). The first major breakthrough in our understanding of the brain in recent years was Donald O. Hebb's principle that when two neurons fire together the synapse is altered through growth and they will tend to wire together. This biological principle is the reason for the brain's great efficiency, because the organ from the beginning of its development tends to link neural groups into loops or maps that oscillate in synchronous rhythms (which principle has long underlain the practice of meditation), allowing actions to be coordinated and thereby enhancing the output among different populations of neurons (Mallgrave, 2010). The oscillations in these electrical potentials are called brain waves. The electrical activity of the brain in the sleep-wake state can be plotted on paper, and the electrical activity of the brain according to the functional state can be measured by EEG. These are recorded from the brain surface as local and whole brain fields by techniques such as EEG (Electroencephalogram) and MEG (Magneto Ensafalo Gram). This activity can be measured in terms of the number of oscillations per second (Hz), depending on the brain's different states of consciousness.Recent years, using portable EEG devices especially for educational purposes and researches is very popular in Turkey as well as in the World (İnel, 2014, Dündar, 2012; Yıldız, 2006; Sezer, İnel and Seçkin, 2015, Aydoğan and Aydoğan, 2016, Sezer, İnel and Seçkin, 2017; Duran, Barut, Budak, 2017).

2. Method

The study is a semi-experimental study based on a single-subject design. Single-subject studies are the kind of designs studies, in which the effectiveness of an application is assessed in each subject by taking replicate measurements under standard conditions, shown among the quasi-experimental studies because participants can not be unbiased (Sönmez, Kot, Pınar, 2017). Alternating Treatments Design compares the effects of two or more treatments on the same behavior. It answers the question "Is one treatment more effective than another?" The purpose is to determine which condition is more effective in changing one behavior (Tekinİftar ve Kırcaali-İftar, 2006; Tekin-İftar, 2012; Tekin-İftar, 2000). An adapted alternating treatments design was used in the study. This design is used to evaluate the effects of two or more independent variables on two or more dependent variable. In the case of adapted alternating treatments design independent two or more treatments are alternated rapidly in time. Alternating Treatments Design is used when it is required to determine the relative effectiveness of more than one treatment on a given behavior baseline data are either unavailable or might be unstable, treatments are sufficiently different from each other, participants can discriminate the treatment conditions (Tekin, 2000).

In this study, firstly, the meditation and attention levels of individuals in the resting mood were obtained in one phase called as resting phase, and then their meditation and attention levels are taken while they are listening music (for groups the music is Köçekçe (Ulvi Cemal Erkin), and for the one participant for neural network analysis is Bedia Akartürk's song Kesik Çayır because he loves this music. Finally, those results are investigated whether there was a significant difference among the variables of pre and post test result as well as these variables were varied according to neural network analysis.

3. Participants

The sample was formed by convenient sampling method. Due to the limitations in terms of time, money and labor, sampling is to be selected from easily accessible and practicable units in this sample. For this reason, 5 academicians from different departments studying at Iğdır University were taken into sample. The study was conducted with 2 different measurements of participants from different age groups.

4. Data Collection Tools

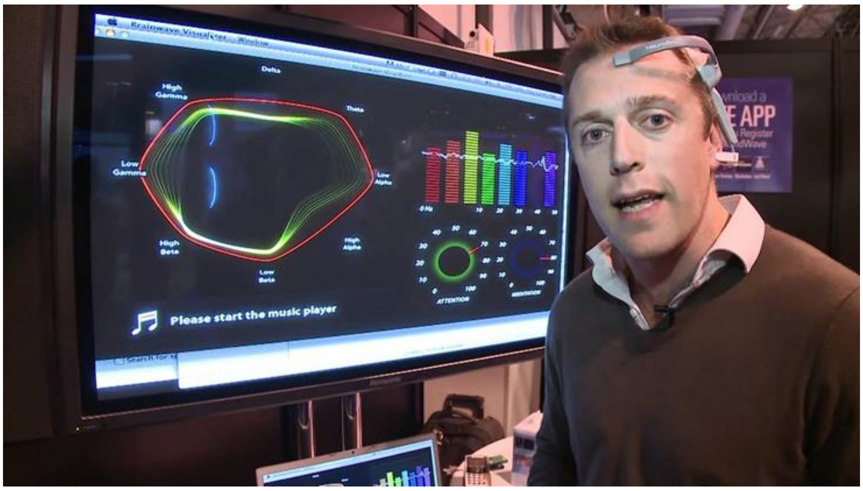

*Figure 1***.** Neurosky brain wave device

By the Neurosky brain wave device (Fig. 1), attention and meditation levels can be shown in a range of .00- 100.00, and, the average of attention and meditation levels within a certain period of time can be obtained with appropriate treatment. This type of data can give feedback about the cognitive states of individuals like the same heart rate measuring devices.

In this experiment time limitation is 1 minute time interval and data taken in this interval was analyzed by Brainzen mobile application for the data of brain waves which is an application that works in conjunction with the Neurosky EEG that allows to evaluate and train brain..

5. Analysis of the Data

In this experiment time limitation is approximately 5 minutes time interval and data taken in this interval was analyzed by Puzzlebox mobile application for the data of brain waves which is an application that works in conjunction with the Neurosky EEG that allows to evaluate and train brain for the groups.For the single case experiment with the participant 1 Mind visualizer 2 was used in order to get both attention and meditation levels as well as raw brainwave values.

6. Findings

Because the distibutions of attention and meditation level of the participants weren't normally distributed, non-parametric tests were performed to investigate whether there was significant differences before and after the music intervention.

When the mean ranks of participant 1 was examined it can be observed that mean rank of resting is higher than the mean rank of listening music in terms of attention and meditation levels.

Table 1. *The average values of attention and meditation levels of participant 1*

	Group Participant 1	N	Mean Rank
Attention of participant 1 (Male, 32)	Resting	242	265,86
	Music	273	251,03
	Total	515	
Meditation of participant 1 (Male, 32).	Resting	242	309,23
	Music	273	212,59
	Total	515	

Furthermore, it was found a significant difference in terms of meditation for resting whereas no significant difference was found in terms of attention at this point. Altough participant indicated that he loved the music, it seems that in resting case he was more relaxed than the actual perception.

Table 2. *Mann-Whitney U test for resting and listening music cases*

Test Statistics[a]		
	attention	meditation
Mann-Whitney U	31130,500	20635,000
Wilcoxon W	68531,500	58036,000
Z	-1,129	-7,361
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,259	,000
a. Grouping Variable: grupvol		

When the mean ranks of participant 2 was examined it can be observed that mean rank of listening music was higher than the mean rank of resting in terms of attention and meditation levels.

Table 3. *The average values of attention and meditation levels of participant 2*

	gruptan	N	Mean Rank
Attention of participant 2 (Male, 42)	Resting	273	259,34
	Music	301	313,04
	Total	574	
Meditation of participant 1 (Male, 42).	Resting	273	266,62
	Music	301	306,44
	Total	574	

Furthermore, it was found a significant difference in terms of meditation and attention for listening music. Altough participant indicated that he didn't like the music, it seems that in listening music case he was more relaxed and focused than the actual perception.

Table 4. *Mann-Whitney U test for resting and listening music cases for participant 2*

Test Statistics[a]		
	attentiontan	meditationtan
Mann-Whitney U	33399,000	35386,000
Wilcoxon W	70800,000	72787,000
Z	-3,875	-2,874
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,004
a. Grouping Variable: gruptan		

When the mean ranks of participant 3 was examined it can be observed that mean rank of listening music was higher than the mean rank of resting in terms of attention and meditation levels.

Table 5. *The average values of attention and meditation levels of participant 3*

	gruopz	N	Mean Rank
Attention of participant 3 (Female, 30)	Resting	279	251,63
	Music	272	300,99
	Total	551	
Meditation of participant 3 (Female,30).	Resting	279	292,92
	Music	272	258,65
	Total	551	

Furthermore, it was found a significant difference in terms of attention for listening music whereas it was found a significant difference for resting in terms of meditation. Altough participant indicated that she did like the music, it seems that in listening music case she was more relaxed and focused than the resting case.

Table 6. *Mann-Whitney U test for resting and listening music cases for participant 3*

Test Statistics[a]		
	attentionoz	meditationoz
Mann-Whitney U	31145,500	33224,000
Wilcoxon W	70205,500	70352,000
Z	-3,640	-2,528
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,011

a. Grouping Variable: gruopz

When the mean ranks of participant 4 was examined it can be observed that the mean rank of listening music was higher than the mean rank of resting in terms of meditation levels whereas the mean rank of listening music was lower than the mean rank of resting in terms of attention.

Table 7. *The average values of attention and meditation levels of participant 4*

	groupnil	N	Mean Rank
Attention of Participant 4(Female 40)	Resting	266	299,23
	Music	281	250,12
	Total	547	
Mediatiom of Participant 4(Female 40)	Resting	266	264,48
	Music	281	283,01
	Total	547	

Furthermore, it was found a significant difference in terms of meditation and attention for resting. Altough participant indicated that he did like the music, it seems that in listening music case she was less focused than the listening music case.

Table 8. *Mann-Whitney U test for resting and listening music cases for participant 4*

Test Statistics[a]		
	attentionnil	meditationnil
Mann-Whitney U	30663,000	34842,000
Wilcoxon W	70284,000	70353,000
Z	-3,634	-1,371
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,170
a. Grouping Variable: groupnil		

When the mean ranks of participant 5 was examined it can be observed that the mean rank of listening music was higher than the mean rank of resting in terms of meditation levels whereas the mean rank of listening music was lower than the mean rank of resting in terms of attention.

Table 7. *The average values of attention and meditation levels of participant*

attentionlok	Resting	N	Mean Rank
Attention of Participant 5(M 35)	Music	279	373,77
	Total	293	203,40
	Resting	572	
Meditation of Participant 5(M 35)	Music	279	249,54
	Resting	293	321,69
	Music	572	

Furthermore, it was found a significant difference in terms of meditation and attention for resting. Altough participant indicated that he did like the music, it seems that in listening music case she was less focused than the listening music case whereas he was more relaxed in listening music case than the resting case.

Table 8. *Mann-Whitney U test for resting and listening music cases for participant 5*

Test Statistics[a]

	atenntionlok	meditationlok
Mann-Whitney U	16525,000	30563,000
Wilcoxon W	59596,000	69623,000
Z	-12,329	-5,222
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000

a. Grouping Variable: gruplok

When the data of 5 participants were investigated it was found that two of them have similar rise and two of them similar fall from resting to listening states in terms of both meditation and attention levels which seems to be independent from each other.

Table 9. *Overall interpretation of tha data of the participants*

	Attention	Meditation
Participant 1 (Male, 32)	0 (No Significant Difference)	$resting \rightarrow (-) listening\ music$
Participant 2 (Male, 42)	$resting \rightarrow (+) listening\ music$	$resting \rightarrow (+) listening\ music$
Participant 3 (Female, 30)	$resting \rightarrow (+) listening\ music$	$resting \rightarrow (-) listening\ music$
Participant 4(Female 40)	$resting \rightarrow (-) listening\ music$	0 (No Significant Difference)
Participant 5(M 35)	$resting \rightarrow (-) listening\ music$	$resting \rightarrow (+) listening\ music$

It seems that change in the significant differences is depended on the individual cases at least fort his small sample because there are equal amoun of positive and negative changes and it seems that no appearant correlation among the attention and meditation levels.

Therefore in the secon part of the experiment one of the participant in the experiment was selected to investigate its attention and meditation levels in terms of alpha, beta and gamma ways through neural networks.

When resting case of the participant 1 (Male, 32) was investigated, 69 of the total sample was in training category and 38 of them was in testing category summing up 107 in total.

Table 10. *Case Processing Summary*

		N	Percent
Sample	Training	69	64,5%
	Testing	38	35,5%
Valid		107	100,0%
Excluded		0	
Total		107	

As it can be seen in Table 11, there are eight covariates as delta (0.5 - 2.75Hz), theta (3.5 6.75Hz), low-alpha (7.5 - 9.25Hz), high-alpha (10 - 11.75Hz), low-beta (13 - 16.75Hz), high-beta (18 - 29.75Hz), low-gamma (31 - 39.75Hz), mid-gamma (41 - 49.75Hz) and there are two dependent variables as Meditation, Attention.

Table 11. *Network Information*

Input Layer	Covariates	1	delta
		2	theta
		3	lowalpha
		4	highalpha
		5	lowbeta
		6	highbeta
		7	lowgamma
		8	midgamma
	Number of Units[a]		8
	Rescaling Method for Covariates		Standardized
Hidden Layer(s)	Number of Hidden Layers		1
	Number of Units in Hidden Layer 1[a]		5
	Activation Function		Hyperbolic tangent
Output Layer	Dependent Variables	1	Meditation
		2	Attention

	Number of Units	2
	Rescaling Method for Scale Dependents	Standardized
	Activation Function	Identity
	Error Function	Sum of Squares
a. Excluding the bias unit		

Model summary can be given as Table 12.

Table 12. *Model Summary*

Model Summary			
Training	Sum of Squares Error		51,994
	Average Overall Relative Error		,765
	Relative Error for Scale Dependents	Meditation	,547
		Attention	,982
	Stopping Rule Used		1 consecutive step(s) with no decrease in error[a]
	Training Time		0:00:00,10
Testing	Sum of Squares Error		33,222
	Average Overall Relative Error		,915
	Relative Error for Scale Dependents	Meditation	,878
		Attention	,948

a. Error computations are based on the testing sample.

38 attempts were made to find the architecture of the artificial neural network that provides the best performance in predicting attention and meditation levels. In these experiments, network architectures with different number of hidden layers and different number of artificial neural cells in each layer were compared with each other. The schematic representation of the multi-layer sensor network obtained as a result of these trials is shown in Figure 2. As can be seen, the formed web consists of three layers. In the first layer, which is the input layer, there are 8 artificial nerve cells. These artificial nerve cells represent the levels of independent variables. The second layer, which is a hidden layer, has a total of 6 artificial nerve cells. In the third layer, which is the output layer, there are two artificial neural cells representing each level of the dependent variable (attention and meditation). The Hyperbolic Tangent Function" was

used as the activation function of the artificial nerve cells in the hidden layer and the “Identity Function” was used as the activation function of the artificial nerve cells in the output layer.

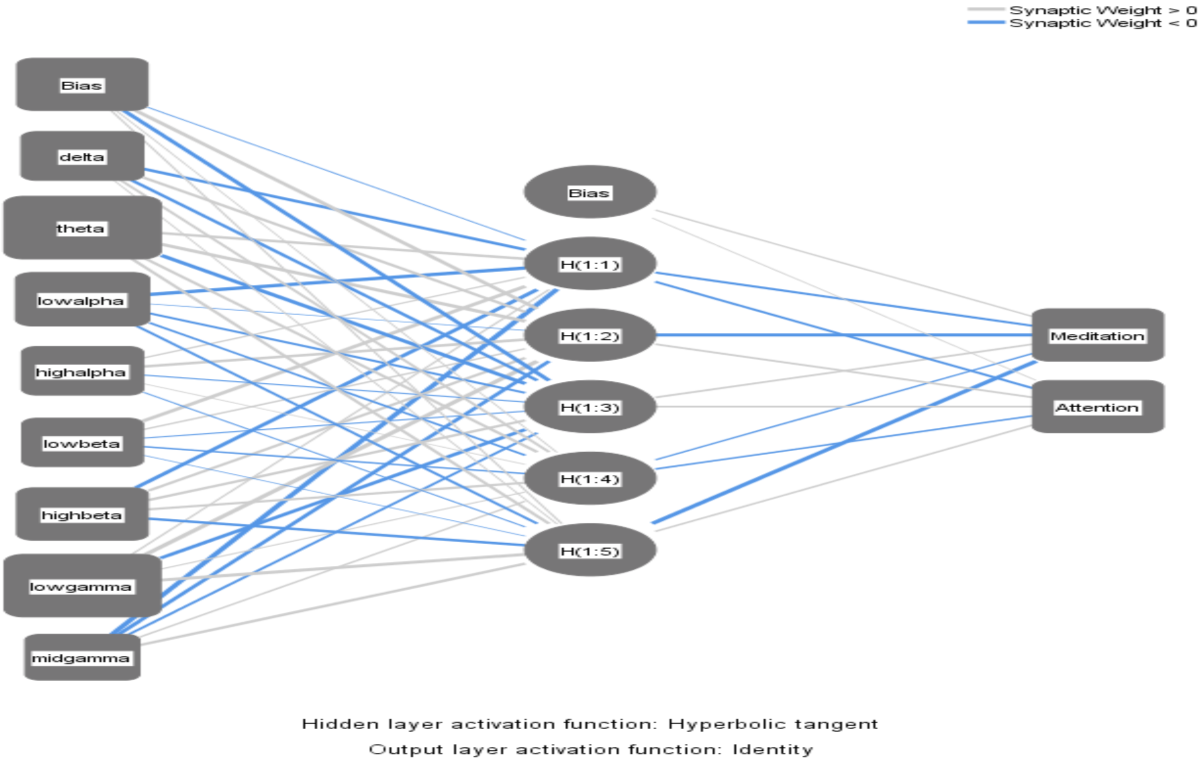

Figure 2. The layers of the structure

After determining the classification performance of the network, the significance of independent variables used in the classification of attention and meditation levels in the artificial neural network model was determined according to the weights connecting the artificial neural cells in the network, and the significance levels of the independent variables were determined as percentages in Table 13.

Table 13. *Independent Variable Importance*

	Importance	Normalized Importance
delta	,080	33,8%
theta	,237	100,0%
lowalpha	,133	56,0%
highalpha	,077	32,4%
lowbeta	,075	31,5%
highbeta	,121	51,1%
lowgamma	,234	99,0%

midgamma	,045	18,9%

When the importance of brain waves in the context of attention and meditation levels in resting phase , it seems that theta (3.5 6.75Hz) and low-gamma (31 - 39.75Hz) waves are the most significant waves for the model predicting the attention and meditation levels. Besides, low-alpha (7.5 - 9.25Hz), and high-beta (18 - 29.75Hz) waves are of having secondary significance for the model.

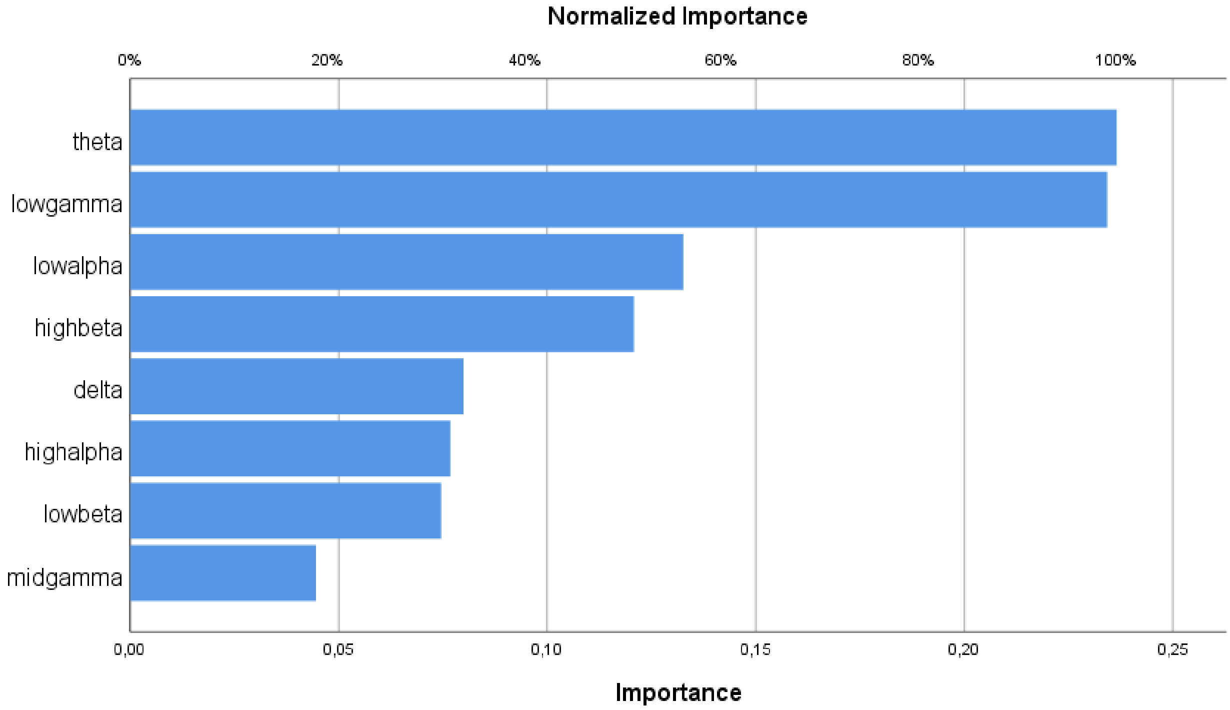

Figure 3. The importance of brain waves in the context of attention and meditation levels in resting phase

When listening music case of the participant 1 (Male, 32) was investigated, 68 of the total sample was in training category and 21 of them was in testing category summing up 89 in total.

Table 14. *Case Processing Summary*

		N	Percent
Sample	Training	68	76,4%
	Testing	21	23,6%
Valid		89	100,0%
Excluded		0	
Total		89	

As it can be seen in Table 15, there are eight covariates as delta (0.5 - 2.75Hz), theta (3.5 6.75Hz), low-alpha (7.5 - 9.25Hz), high-alpha (10 - 11.75Hz), low-beta (13 - 16.75Hz), high-beta (18 - 29.75Hz), low-gamma (31 - 39.75Hz), mid-gamma (41 - 49.75Hz) and there are two dependent variables as Meditation, Attention.

Table 15. *Network Information*

Network Information			
Input Layer	Covariates	1	delta
		2	theta
		3	lowalpha
		4	highalpha
		5	lowbeta
		6	highbeta
		7	lowgamma
		8	midgamma
	Number of Units[a]		8
	Rescaling Method for Covariates		Standardized
Hidden Layer(s)	Number of Hidden Layers		1
	Number of Units in Hidden Layer 1[a]		5
	Activation Function		Hyperbolic tangent
Output Layer	Dependent Variables	1	Meditation
		2	Attention
	Number of Units		2
	Rescaling Method for Scale Dependents		Standardized
	Activation Function		Identity
	Error Function		Sum of Squares

a. Excluding the bias unit

Model summary can be given as Table 16.

Table 16. *Model Summary*

Training	Sum of Squares Error		66,839
	Average Overall Relative Error		,998
	Relative Error for Scale Dependents	Meditation	,997
		Attention	,998
	Stopping Rule Used		1 consecutive step(s) with no decrease in error[a]
	Training Time		0:00:00,10
Testing	Sum of Squares Error		20,764
	Average Overall Relative Error		,957
	Relative Error for Scale Dependents	Meditation	,923
		Attention	1,034

a. Error computations are based on the testing sample.

21 attempts were made to find the architecture of the artificial neural network that provides the best performance in predicting attention and meditation levels. In these experiments, network architectures with different number of hidden layers and different number of artificial neural cells in each layer were compared with each other. The schematic representation of the multi-layer sensor network obtained as a result of these trials is shown in Figure 4. As can be seen, the formed web consists of three layers. In the first layer, which is the input layer, there are 8 artificial nerve cells. These artificial nerve cells represent the levels of independent variables. The second layer, which is a hidden layer, has a total of 6 artificial nerve cells. In the third layer, which is the output layer, there are two artificial neural cells representing each level of the dependent variable (attention and meditation). The Hyperbolic Tangent Function" was used as the activation function of the artificial nerve cells in the hidden layer and the "Identity Function" was used as the activation function of the artificial nerve cells in the output layer.

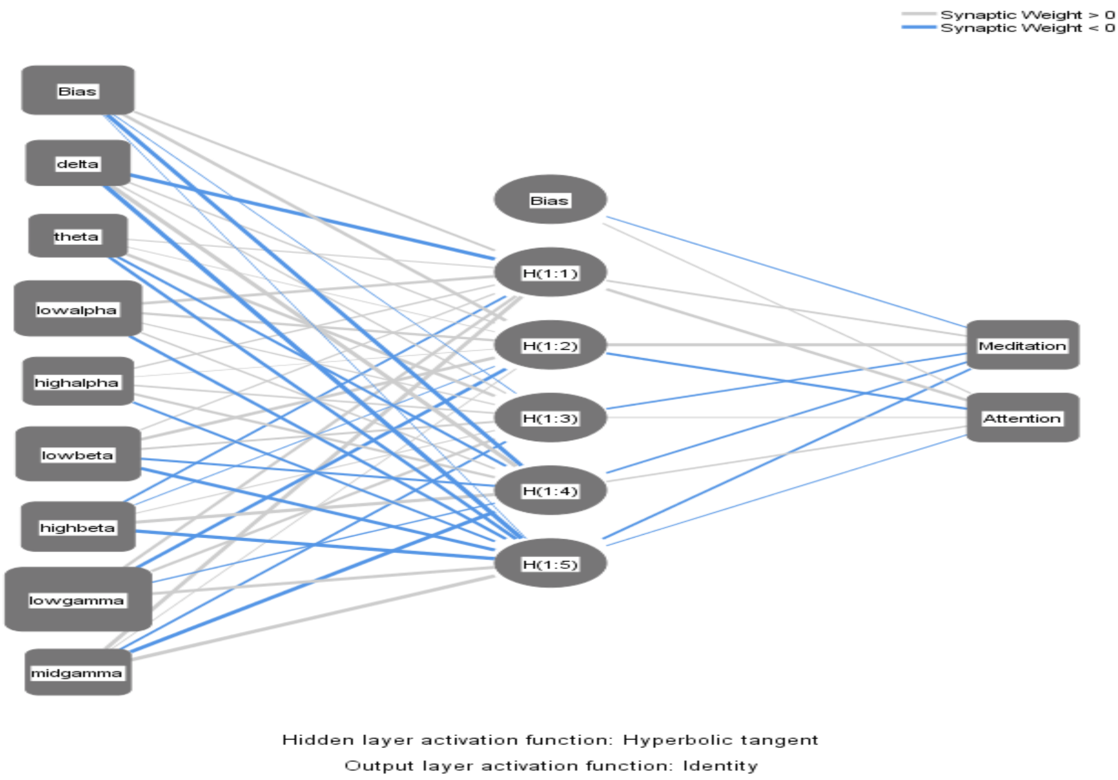

Figure 4. The layers of the structure

After determining the classification performance of the network, the significance of independent variables used in the classification of attention and meditation levels in the artificial neural network model was determined according to the weights connecting the artificial neural cells in the network, and the significance levels of the independent variables were determined as percentages in Table 17.

Table 17. *Independent Variable Importance*

	Importance	Normalized Importance
delta	,086	38,7%
theta	,067	30,1%
lowalpha	,160	72,2%
highalpha	,106	48,0%
lowbeta	,151	68,2%
highbeta	,116	52,5%
lowgamma	,222	100,0%
midgamma	,091	40,8%

When the importance of brain waves in the context of attention and meditation levels in listening music phase, it seems that low-gamma (31 - 39.75Hz) and low-alpha (7.5 - 9.25Hz) waves are the most significant waves for the model predicting the attention and meditation levels. Besides, low-beta (13 - 16.75Hz), high-beta (18 - 29.75Hz) and high-alpha (10 - 11.75Hz) waves are of having secondary significance for the model.

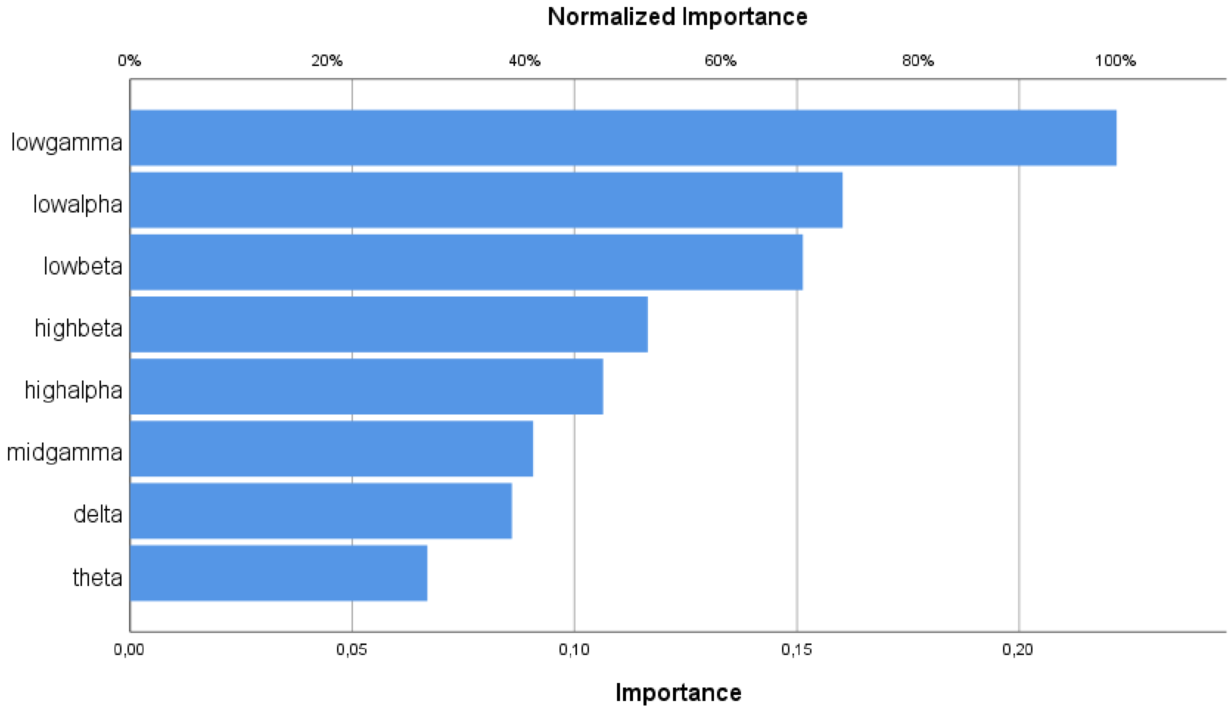

Figure 5. The importance of brain waves in the context of attention and meditation levels in listening music phase

7. Conclusion and Discussion

First results of the study indicates that It seems that change in the significant differences is depended on the individual cases at least fort his small sample because there are equal amoun of positive and negative changes and it seems that no appearant correlation among the attention and meditation levels. Therefore the subsequent studies should be done with the sample having more participants.

When the importance of brain waves in the context of attention and meditation levels in resting phase, it seems that theta (3.5 6.75Hz) and low-gamma (31 - 39.75Hz) waves are the most significant waves for the model predicting the attention and meditation levels. Besides, low-alpha (7.5 - 9.25Hz), and high-beta (18 - 29.75Hz) waves are of having secondary significance for the model.

When the importance of brain waves in the context of attention and meditation levels in listening music phase , it seems that low-gamma (31 - 39.75Hz) and low-alpha (7.5 - 9.25Hz) waves are the most significant waves for the model predicting the attention and meditation levels. Besides, low-beta (13 - 16.75Hz), high-beta (18 - 29.75Hz) and high-alpha (10 - 11.75Hz) waves are of having secondary significance for the model.

Table 18. *Comparison table for the brain waves*

	Resting Phase	Percentage	Listening Music Phase	Percentage
The Most significant waves	theta (3.5 6.75Hz)	100 %	low-gamma (31 - 39.75Hz)	100 %
	low-gamma (31 - 39.75Hz)	99,0%	low-alpha (7.5 - 9.25Hz)	72,2%
The secondary significant waves	low-alpha (7.5 - 9.25Hz)	56,0%	low-beta (13 - 16.75Hz)	68,2%
	high-beta (18 - 29.75Hz)	51,1%	high-beta (18 - 29.75Hz)	52,5%
	-		high-alpha (10 - 11.75Hz)	48,0%

When the significance of the brain waves are investigated, it seems that low-gamma (31 - 39.75Hz) waves are existing both in resting and listening music phase. Gamma waves are generally related to simultaneous processing of information from different brain areas. It passes information rapidly, and is the subtlest of the brainwave frequencies. The mind has to be quiet to access it (Das, 2017: 3). Low- Gamma waves are related to multi-sensory processing. Because gamma brain waves are a frequency pattern of brain activity that measures between 25 and 100 Hz, with around 40 Hz being typical in humans, in other words the average value of gamma waves are 40 (Malik, Dahiya, Kumari, 2018), it is natural to expect that low-gamma wave both in resting and listening music phases. Gamma waves are involved in higher processing tasks as well as cognitive functioning. Gamma waves are important for learning, memory and information processing. It is thought that the 40 Hz gamma wave is important for the binding of our senses in regards to perception and is involved in learning new material (Das, 2017: 3).

Beta waves are regarded as the types of waves are similar to gamma waves, being involved in learning, focusing and thinking logically, though they are somewhat less intensive when compared to gamma waves and occur at 12Hz-40Hz (Kalkavan, 2016: 45). High frequencies of beta waves may increase focus and awareness, they reduce creativity and emotional awareness and they drain us of energy. According to Das (2017:3): *“Beta3 (23-40 Hz) is highly complex thought, integrating new experiences, high anxiety, or excitement. They are involved in conscious thought, logical thinking, and tend to have a stimulating affect. Having the right amount of beta waves allows us to focus and complete school or work-based tasks easily. Having too much beta may lead to us experiencing excessive stress and/or anxiety. The higher beta frequencies are associated with high levels of arousal. When you drink caffeine or have another stimulant, your beta activity will naturally increase. These are fast brain waves that most people exhibit throughout the day in order to complete conscious tasks such as: critical thinking, writing, reading, and socialization.”* It seems that our participant is in an excitement state for a new experience.

The last common wave is low-alpha wave which is related to eyes closed, relaxed states. While we might normally associate alpha waves with relaxation, they can also be associated with states of productivity, awareness and even ‘flow states’(Kalkavan, 2016: 45). Therefore, increase in the alpha values seems to be related with higher relaxation and awareness in this regard. Therefore increase in low-alpha waves can be used as a partial source for the differences of two states.

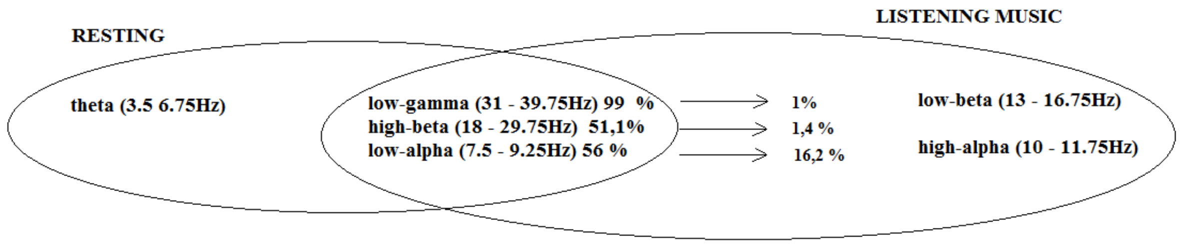

Figure 3. Differences between two states.

When resting phase is investigated, the main difference of it seems to be related with Theta waves. Theta waves occur between 4Hz and 8Hz and are associated with daydreaming and sleep. Theta waves are also present during trance, meditative or hypnotic states, as well as “hypnagogia” which is the period just before we fall asleep and certain restorative points during sleep (Kalkavan, 2016: 45). In theta, our senses are withdrawn from the external world and focused on signals originating from within. Theta waves are connected to us experiencing and feeling deep and raw emotions (Das, 2017:3). Theta waves are related with relaxed, meditative states (Alshear, 2018) which is compatible with the definition of the case also. Because our participant is in resting state it is natural to expect that the dominant different wave is theta waves.

When listening music phase is investigated, low-beta (13 - 16.75Hz) and high-alpha (10 - 11.75Hz) values are thought the dominant brain waves distinguishing it from resting state. Beta waves are characteristics of a strongly engaged mind. A person in active conversation would be in beta. A debater would be in high beta. A person making a speech, or a teacher, or a talk show host would all be in beta when they are engaged in their work (Brahmankar, Dange, Makar, 2012). Beta waves generally dominate our normal waking state of consciousness when attention is directed towards cognitive tasks and the outside world. Beta is a ‘fast’ activity, present when we are alert, attentive, and engaged in problem solving, judgment, decision making, and focused mental activity. Low beta waves (13-15Hz) can be thought of as 'fast idle, or musing. The lower ends of beta brainwaves are the most common and tend to dominate our waking lives (Kalkavan, 2016: 45). It seems that listening the music make increase the Beta waves of the partipant so that it result in an alert, attentive, and engaged state (Alshear, 2018).

High-alpha (10 - 11.75Hz) value is found to be another different characteristics of listening music phase. They are dominant during quietly flowing thoughts, and in some meditative states. They aid overall mental coordination, calmness, alertness, mind/body integration and learning. This frequency range bridges the gap between our conscious thinking and subconscious mind (Das, 2017: 3). Generally, more alpha waves mean fewer beta and gamma waves and vice versa (Kalkavan, 2016: 45) which is compatible with our analysis where high alpha waves with low beta and low gamma waves.

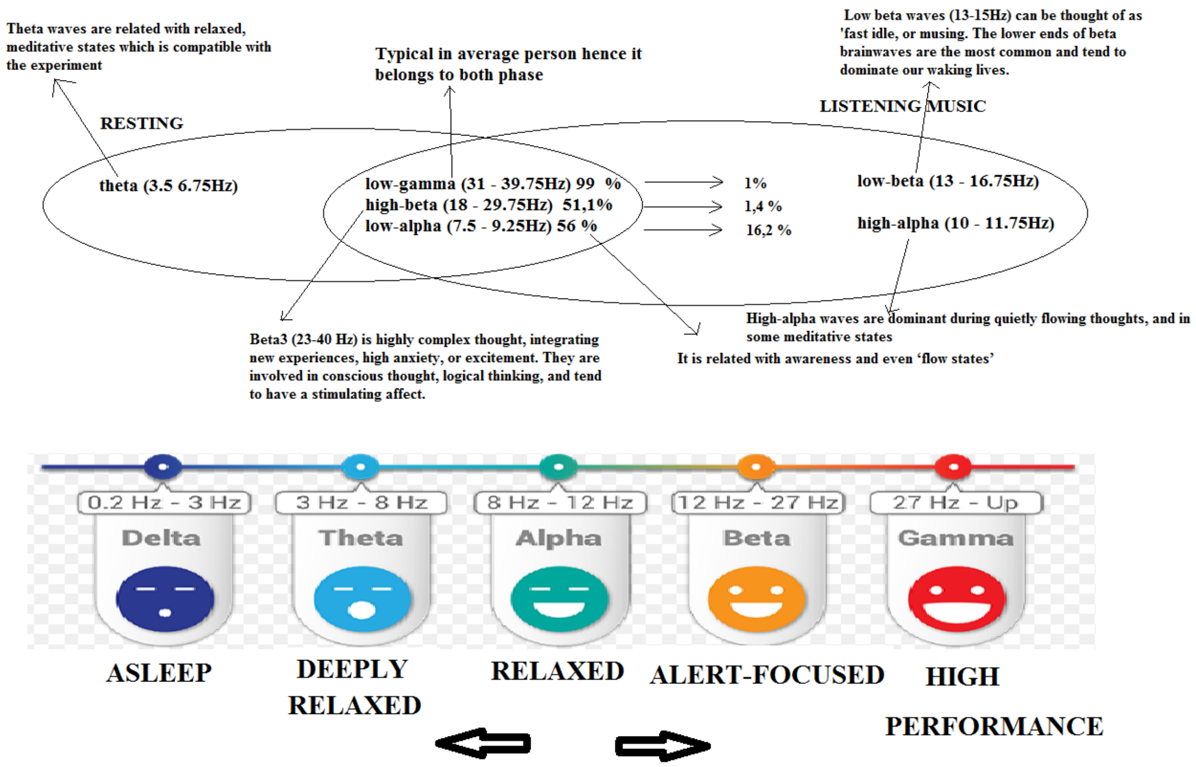

*Figure 4***.** The results of neural network analysis is compatible with the characteristics of the brain waves as well as the expected characteristics of two different states as resting and listening music.

To sum up, the results of neural network analysis is compatible with the characteristics of the brain waves as well as the expected characteristics of two different states as resting and listening music. When we look at the classification results for brain waves, test and validity set, it is possible to state that the artificial neural network created gives good results especially in the classification of different states of the brain rather than the mere values of attention and meditation levels. Our research indicates that altough it seems to be difficult for determining a common song for collective groups, through using neural networks, it is possible to provide individualized stimuli for educational purposes.

8. Recommedations

- Fibonacci Analysis and Elliott Wave Theory can be used to interpret the brain waves which is also the subsequent topic of this research.

- Different experimental designs can be used to evaluate the attention and meditation levels with differen populations consisting of participants in different ages, occupations and having different social status.

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PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PERCEPTIONS AND ACTIVITIES OF IN-SERVICE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS IN BURDUR

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Abstract

This study explores a small number of in-service language teachers' professional development perceptions and activities. The data were collected from 18 in-service English teachers, working at different state schools in Burdur, Turkey. For data collection, we formulated an open-ended survey in which the teachers were asked five open-ended questions. With an aim to derive frequent and important themes from the data, we decided to quantify the data for descriptive purposes through thematic analysis. The findings demonstrated that most teachers perceived professional development to be a lifelong and ongoing process accelerated through experience in the profession. The oft-mentioned professional development activities they were involved are as follows: in-service teacher training sessions, international and national projects (e.g. eTwinning, Erasmus) and reading scholarly publications. The most commonly perceived challenges regarding professional development are listed as financial problems, lack of time and poor technological infrastructure and issues posed by the school management. The paper offers some implications and suggestions drawing on the findings.

Keywords: English language teaching, in-service English language teachers, professional development

1. Introduction

Needless to say, English is spoken and used around the world as an international language in different domains. In this regard, English teachers' Professional Development (PD henceforth) is given much importance by the countries in which English is used either as a second language or as an additional language since language teachers are considered to play a vital role throughout the whole teaching process (Zhang, 2015). Accordingly, language teachers are expected to invest in their PD by reflecting upon their teaching beliefs and practices. Above all, they are bound to bear responsibility for their PD in their teaching process (Alfaki, 2014). PD is seen as a fundamental factor for improving the teaching and learning process to maximize student learning. Furthermore, PD is conceived of as a key element of the teacher professionalism and quality (Al Asmari, 2016).

It needs to be noted, though that PD is not just a short term commitment, but a long process starting from teacher training at university level and continuing throughout one's professional career (Murray, 2010; Richter et al., 2011; Şener & Çokçalışkan, 2017). The reason for this is that teaching materials, techniques and methods are constantly altering and being updated accordingly (Alfaki, 2014). Therefore, teachers must be equipped with sufficient knowledge, skills, and awareness in order to better teach their subject matter (Atay, 2006). Teachers always have something new to learn and share with others. This is the true nature of their profession, namely disseminating, learning and reflecting. Consequently, teachers need to be given the required time to engage in PD activities (Alfaki, 2014).

The previous literature abounds in definitions of the term. For example, Şener and Çokçalışkan (2017) define PD as "the development of a person's learning experiences, which are formal or informal, throughout his/her professional life from starting point of a profession to retirement" (p. 206). From a different point of view, PD is delineated as teachers' learning to learn and putting their scholarly knowledge into practice to support students' learning (Postholm, 2012).

However, for some scholars, it refers, at its simplest, to a process in which teachers attend in-service trainings and workshops under the supervision of experienced trainers to get experience with the chief aim of regulating their teaching practices in accordance with the needs and expectations of their students (Hişmanoglu, 2010). Moreover, PD includes many activities that help teachers to improve their instructional skills, pedagogical and subject matter knowledge, professional skills and many other traits (OECD, 2009). In truth, PD offers no special technique applicable to anyone. Some PD activities deemed instrumental by a teacher might not work for another colleague. Likewise, the activities involved and the techniques used at present may not be appropriate for the needs of the following years (Murray, 2010).

Given the vital importance of PD for teachers and the quality of language teaching, it has become a serious issue of research. To date, as we will document in the next section, researchers have investigated language teachers' PD perceptions around the world from different perspectives. In this study, we set out to explore PD perceptions and activities of in-service English teachers in a small city.

1.1. Review of Research on Teacher Professional Development

Research on language teachers' PD has prospered over the years and researchers have carried out studies with different stakeholders of the field, e.g. student teachers, in-service teachers, teachers at different stages of their career. It has been observed that cooperation among teachers is an important factor for PD and, alongside cooperation with external resource persons, a positive school culture with a good atmosphere and appreciation of teacher learning by school administrations can influence teachers' PD perceptions and activities (Postholm, 2012). Some researchers, like Masuda et al. (2013), draw attention to teachers' belief that anything learned from PD requires a practical component and that the content of PD activities need to be relevant to teaching contexts. Similar results appeared in Muyan's study (2013), in which teachers viewed PD activities as part of their professional life, but when it comes to implementation, they were not engaged in such activities at a satisfactory level.

Unlike the findings of the above studies, Shoqair and Shaaban (2013) conducted a research study with 675 EFL and technology teachers at the Gaza Strip schools to determine the most common PD strategies used. The results indicated that the most commonly used strategies by teachers included conducting action research, using social networks (e.g. Twitter, Facebook), exchanging views and experiences, and participating in educational e-forums. That is, as Alfaki (2014) found in the Sudanese context, teachers should be willing to take initiative for their PD along with the governmental support. Similarly, Alibakhshi and Dehvari (2015) observed in Iran that experienced teachers perceived continuing professional development as skills development, continuous learning, keeping up to date, learning for interest, and professional revitalization.

However, perceptions of PD were not always favorable. For instance, Al Asmari's (2016) survey with 121 English language teachers showed that teachers perceived PD as a challenge to their existing knowledge and classroom practices. Additionally, in terms of barriers and challenges encountered, it emerged that lack of self-motivation was among the most important factors hindering teachers' PD efforts (Muyan, 2013). Other than this, the constraints relating to time, money and accountability were seen to badly hamper teachers' involvement in PD activities (Matsuda et al., 2013).

When we turn to the case of PD studies in Turkey, a more or less similar scenario presents itself with several small-scale case studies. For instance, researchers have found that not only novice but also experienced teachers would like to benefited from PD activities, but they differed in the types of PD activities they carry out (Mahmoudi & Özkan, 2015) and that teachers outlined PD as the use of various resources and use of skills and knowledge, while PD activities included attending courses and seminars, following professional publications, and collaborating with colleagues (Zehir, Topkaya, & Çelik, 2016). It would not be wrong to postulate that most language teachers perceived professional development as a life-long and ongoing process (Babanoğlu & Yardımcı, 2017).

Similarly, another study on the perceptions of PD and the PD strategies used by language teachers demonstrated that most ELT teachers are aware of the need to be involved in PD and the positive correlation between high motivation, self-confidence and PD qualifications, yet only a small number of participants reported to actually take advantage of PD strategies like involvement in participatory practitioner research, professional development portfolios and study groups (Hişmanoğlu, 2010; Şener & Çokçalışkan, 2017). Unlike these studies, a metaphor study on PD pointed to a different aspect of PD, which teachers often associated with an object. That is, PD was regarded as a growing and developing entity as well as a demanding task encompassing change at its core (Yurtseven, 2017).

In another line of research, some researchers drew attention to the challenges faced by language teachers in their attempts for PD. In this sense, Yurtseven (2017) argued in favor providing teachers with the required resources, budget and time to take part in PD activities. In a different context, i.e. the Northern Cyprus, Özbilgin et al. (2016) observed that teachers are aware of the constraints in the system, further recommending that a needs analysis should be done to design PD activities that will appeal to teachers' needs and interests. Lastly, in one of the rare studies into pre-service language teachers' PD agenda, Kartal and Özmen (2018) found that the teacher candidates had a wide range of plans about PD, including plans for further education (e.g. doing MA and PhD in ELT), work-related plans (e.g. working as teachers at state schools and instructors at higher education) and plans about their linguistic proficiency (e.g. enhancing their aural and oral skills) and pedagogical skills (e.g. using/designing miscellaneous materials and textbooks). They noted that several factors played a role in making PD plans such as, practicum experience, competence-related issues, and familial issues, to name a few.

2. Method

2.1. Context and participants

The participants of the study were 18 in-service English teachers working at different state schools in Burdur (see Table 1 below). All of them had a bachelor's degree, and also according to Burden (1982) they were at the mature stage (the fifth year of the teaching and beyond). A purposeful sampling method was employed to sample the participants.

Table 1. *Characteristics of in-service English teachers*

No	School type	Gender	Age[1]	Teaching Experience[1]
1	Primary School	Female	36	13
2			33	10

3			30	7
4			33	11
5		Male	37	15
6			42	18
7			32	7
8		Female	30	7
9	Secondary School		34	9
10			34	7
11		Male	38	16
12			40	20
13			34	10
14		Female	44	22
15	High School		35	11
16		Male	51	24
17			43	21
18			45	22

[1]: Age was divided into four groups as 0-10, 11-20, 21-30 and over 31; teaching experience was divided into three groups as 20-35, 36-45 and over 46.

2.2. Data collection procedures

This study was conducted in the fall term of the 2018-2019 school year. Open-ended survey questions were used to collect data. The questions were developed after examining some previous studies (e.g., Atay, 2006; Hişmanoglu, 2010; Zehir Topkaya & Çelik, 2016; Şener & Çokçalışkan, 2017). The following questions were asked to the participants.

1. How do you define PD?
2. How do you describe PD activities?
3. What strategies do you employ for their own PD?
4. What do you think about the benefits of PD?
5. What kind of challenges do you encounter while enhancing their PD?

The questions were first formulated in English and then translated into Turkish to ensure that the participants could understand the questions and express their views freely and naturally without any language constraints. We distributed the open-ended questionnaires to the teachers on different days in their work places. The survey completion roughly took half an hour for each participant.

2.3. Data analysis

The data were firstly organized into manageable chunks and next coded for certain themes. After coding, the most outstanding characteristics obtained for each of the five questions were tabulated by focusing on the similarities across participants' responses. Namely, the data obtained were first quantified through descriptive analysis (i.e. frequencies) using the computer software Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 22 and then crosstabulated to provide a detailed analysis of the given responses.

3. Results and discussion

Following the order of our research questions, we present the findings in the form of crosstabulations between school type, gender, and age to draw a clear and broad picture of the responses to the questions (see Tables 2 - 6).

3.1. How do teachers define PD?

Nine teachers defined PD as a lifelong/an ongoing process. Especially, 20-35 aged teachers defined PD as a lifelong/an ongoing process. This findings echoes what Alfaki (2014) previously observed. He argued that ongoing PD is crucial in today's world as the current age continuously urges teachers to be life-long learners. Thus, they often strive to be up-to-date in their field of teaching. Likewise, Şener and Çokçalışkan (2017) maintained that teachers at the mature stage describe PD as a lifelong and ongoing process of developing themselves personally and professionally to reach their best potential in their work.

On the other hand, several teachers stated that PD is gained via experience in the profession and closely keeping themselves up-to-date with scientific, technological innovations and new learning-teaching methods and techniques (Table 2). This finding is in line with the findings of Özbilgin et al. (2016) who contend that PD processes are related to teachers' past experiences and that of Alfaki (2014) who suggests that teachers bear responsibility for their PD, rather than awaiting for administrative support.

Table 2. *Crosstabulation between the first question and school type, gender and age*

	School Type			Gender		Age			
	P*	S	H	F	M	20-35	36-45	46+	Total
PD is a lifelong/an ongoing process	4	1	4	5	4	6	3	-	9
PD is keeping oneself up to date	-	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	1
PD is personal	1	2	-	1	2	1	2	-	3
PD is to feel sufficient	-	1	1	1	1	1	-	1	2
PD is gained with experience during work	2	3	2	4	3	3	4	-	7
PD is gained with the attended trainings	-	2	-	1	1	1	1	-	2
PD is gained with practices	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1
PD is gained by keeping up with science, technology, learning-teaching methods and techniques, and innovations	3	1	2	3	3	2	4	-	6

* P: Primary school, S: Secondary school, H: High school, F: Female, M: male

3.2. How do teachers describe PD activities?

13 teachers firstly described in-service training as PD activities. Secondly, seven of them talked of eTwinning projects and project-based studies and interestingly only five were 20-35 age years old. Attending seminars, workshops, and courses (paid-free) was in the same frequency for five teachers. That is, attending workshops and conferences is a key factor in teacher PD (Alfaki, 2014).

Another important result was that there was an inclination among a few teachers to consult expert opinions, read foreign publications (books, journals, etc.), and educational media (Table 3). In fact, reading ELT journals can keep a teacher up-to-date about his/her filed of study (Alfaki, 2014). Boyle et al. (2004) reported that observation of colleagues and sharing good practices were the most common long-term PD activities for primary and secondary school teachers. Teachers are not working in isolation but they are working together because they face similar challenges due to the nature of school environment (Alfaki, 2014). Learning in school is the best arena for further development of teachers (Postholm, 2012).

The four common activities indicating a larger impact on teachers' PD for the experienced teachers are as follows: (1) mentoring and/or peer observation and coaching (2) reading professional literature (e.g. journals, evidence-based papers, thesis papers), (3) attending educational conferences or seminars (where teachers and/or researchers present their research results and discuss educational problems) and (4) observation visits to other schools/institutes. These findings echo the arguments raised by Al Asmari (2016) who noted that teachers prefer learning with and from their colleagues. However, Muyan (2013) put forward that teachers select activities in line with their years of teaching experience and that female teachers are in favor of collaborative activities more than their male counterparts.

Table 3. *Crosstabulation between the second question with school type, gender and age*

	School Type			Gender		Age			
	P*	S	H	F	M	20-35	36-45	46+	Total
Seminars and workshops	1	2	2	4	1	3	3	-	5
In-service training	5	4	4	8	5	7	6	-	13
Courses (paid-free)	1	2	2	4	1	4	1	-	5
Teacher exchange	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1
School performance activities	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	1
eTwining projects and project-based studies	2	3	2	4	3	5	2	-	7
Web 2.0 teaching tools	1	1	1	3	-	3	-	-	3
Follow-up of expert opinions, foreign publications (books, journals, etc.), and media	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	-	3
Working in a successful classroom	1	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	1
Collaboration in the study groups of school	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	1
Overseas experience	-	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	1

* P: Primary school, S: Secondary school, H: High school, F: Female, M: male

3.3. What strategies do teachers employ for PD?

The majority of English teachers attended in-service training, and national and international projects (eTwinning, KI, Erasmus, Comenius, etc.) for their PD. Young teachers mostly attended in-service training (Table 4). It seems that especially eTwinning projects provided opportunities for them to conduct collaborative activities or exchange teaching experiences with the teachers from other countries and to gain a new perspective related to their PD. In this regard, Şener and Çokçalışkan (2017) reported that attending a course, workshop, seminar, and webinar are the most used strategies by teachers.

On the other hand, mostly male teachers attend online courses, follow videos and publications of successful people in their field more than female teachers whereas female teachers attend in-service training more than male teachers do (Table 4). This result is consistent with the challenges caused by marriage and lack of time concerning the question *What kind of limitations do teachers have while employing their PD*. Confirming our finding, Şener and Çokçalışkan (2017) previously evidenced that teachers rarely follow publications about their field.

Table 4. *Crosstabulation between the third question with school type, gender and age*

	School Type			Gender		Age			
	P*	S	H	F	M	20-35	36-45	46+	Total
I attend to national and international projects (eTwining, KI, Erasmus, Comenius, etc.)	2	3	2	4	3	4	3	-	7
I attend to online courses	1	1	1	3	-	2	1	-	3
I follow drama plays	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1
I attend to workshops	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1

I use Web 2.0 teaching tool	-	1	2	3	-	3	-	-	3
I follow videos and publications of successful people in my field	2	1	1	1	3	2	2	-	4
I follow web pages and groups in my field	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1
I do academic translation and take foreign language exam	1	-	1	1	1	1	1	-	2
I attend to in-service training	4	2	3	7	2	6	3	-	9
I follow national and international language teaching methods and techniques	1	-	1	-	2	-	2	-	2
I follow science and technology	-	1	1	1	1	2	-	-	2

* P: Primary school, S: Secondary school, H: High school, F: Female, M: male

3.4. What do teachers think about benefits of PD?

The majority of teachers indicated that PD makes them feel more qualified and effective, and increases their self-confidence, motivation and personal satisfaction. It also emerged that PD is viewed as strengthening one's way of teaching, reflecting on teaching practices, gaining self-confidence, engaging in sharing, influencing, cooperating, affecting others, being active, improving both teachers' and students' performance, adding to the existing professional knowledge, updating and being informed with new trends, to name a few, as was already observed in previous studies (e.g. Bal Gezegin & Solak, 2016). Additionally, some high school teachers argued that PD increases the use of different methods.

Table 5. *Crosstabulation between the fourth question and school type, gender and age*

	School Type			Gender		Age			
	P*	S	H	F	M	20-35	36-45	46+	Total
PD increases creativity	-	3	1	3	1	3	1	-	4
New method and technique is learnt by PD	1	2	4	3	4	2	4	1	7
PD makes teachers more qualified and effective	2	5	3	6	4	7	2	1	10
PD increases collegial communication	1	1	-	2	-	2	-	-	2
PD makes teaching easier	2	1	-	1	2	1	2	-	3
PD increases the usage of different method	2	1	3	3	3	4	2	-	6
Teachers dominate their field by PD	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1
PD keeps teachers updated	1	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	1
PD increases self-confidence, motivation and personal satisfaction	4	3	3	4	6	6	3	1	10
PD provides practically working out in the classroom	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	1
PD provides book independence	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	0	1

* P: Primary school, S: Secondary school, H: High school, F: Female, M: male

3.5 What kind of challenges do teachers encounter while enhancing their PD?

It emerged from the analysis that the most prevalent challenges bothering teachers in their struggle for PD are financial problems, lack of time, problems caused by school management, and lack of technological infrastructure (e.g. limited internet access. As seen in Table 6, younger teachers feel more constrained while seeking out PD compared to their female colleagues. Most female teachers viewed lack of time and technological infrastructure as the major challenges while pursuing PD. In accordance with this finding, Hismanoglu's (2010) study indicated that language teachers mentioned some impediments to their effective PD, among which time allocation, heavy work schedule, strict working hours, limited funding, lack of communication among staff, lack of motivation, lack of support from administrative units strikingly stand out. Similarly, OECD (2009) and Muyan (2013) pointed to similar factors preventing teachers' PD (e.g. lack of self-motivation, excessive workload, strict working hours and financial problems). It can be further concluded that the factors of cost and time are also influential in the implementation of well-designed PD activities, as already put by Archibald et al. (2011). Hence, it is important that teachers be provided with the required resources, budget and time to enhance their PD (Masuda et al., 2013; Alfaki, 2014; Yurtseven, 2017).

Table 6. *Crosstabulation between the fifth question with school type, gender and age*

	School Type			Gender		Age			
	P*	S	H	F	M	20-35	36-45	46+	Total
Marriage	-	2	-	1	1	2	-	-	2
Financial problems	5	4	2	6	5	7	4	-	11
Challenges relating to school management (manager's unawareness of new method and technique, etc.)	1	1	2	2	2	1	3	-	4
Lack of time	5	2	1	6	2	5	3	-	8
Lack of technological infrastructure (internet limitation, etc.)	-	1	3	3	1	3	1	-	4
Limited and inadequate support of Ministry	1	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	1
Syllabus pressure in the school	1	-	1	2	-	2	-	-	2
Courses are mostly out of town	2	-	-	1	1	2	-	-	2
Inequality of opportunity between teachers	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	1
Inadequacy of allocation for project-based training	-	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	1
Absence of teacher exchange	-	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	1
Dissatisfaction relating to the school	-	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	1
Lack of sufficient qualifications of trainers in the study group of school	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	1
Randomly planned courses	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	1
Failure of the transfer of course to application	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	1

* P: Primary school, S: Secondary school, H: High school, F: Female, M: male

This finding broadly supports the work of other studies in this area. For instance, a research study by Koç (2016) with language teachers at elementary schools in Turkey showed that the teachers were not satisfied with their in-service teacher-training programs and that in-service training did not fulfil their needs. In addition, officials need to be much less directive and rigid in terms of evaluating teachers' performance in order to motivate them to enhance their PD (Mohammadi & Moradi, 2017). Moreover, the schools must be equipped with the products of the new technology so as to encourage the teachers to keep themselves up-to-date with the advancements in their fields and educational technology (Alfaki, 2014).

4. Final Remarks

In the present study, the majority of English language teachers stated that PD is a lifelong/an ongoing process and gained through experience in the workplace. They mostly considered their in-service teacher training among the PD activities and frequently attended in-service training seminars and workshops. They also reported that PD makes them feel more qualified and effective, and increases their self-confidence, motivation and personal job satisfaction. The most common challenges felt by teachers in their effort to enhance their PD include financial problems, lack of time, challenges posed by school management and lack of technological infrastructure in their workplace. These findings provided evidence that teachers' perceptions of PD correspond to the traditional means of PD rather than more creative and collaborative activities. Finally, we suggest that PD programs be planned and implemented based on the needs and demands of teachers in light of the current results.

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THE EVALUATION OF WORD CLOUDS IN TEACHING VOCABULARY

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Abstract

This study investigates the effectiveness of using Word Clouds a data visualization tool, in enhancing vocabulary knowledge among students of privately founded language course in Ankara, Turkey. The participants for this study were forty students from two classes. Twenty students in one class were chosen as the experimental group and twenty students in another class were chosen as the control group. These students were given a pre-vocabulary test in order to measure their vocabulary knowledge. Then one class (experimental group) twenty (20) students are exposed to the use of Word Clouds as a learning tool in enhancing their English vocabulary while placebo was given to the traditional method group (control group). Treatment length was six weeks. After that, both groups were given an immediate post vocabulary test and two weeks later a delayed post vocabulary test. The data obtained by t-test, showed that students who used Word Clouds to learn highly new vocabulary, learned a significantly larger number of words than those in the control group. They decreased their reaction time for word learning as compared to the control group and they exhibited significantly better vocabulary retention than the control group. The students in the experimental group studied approximately ninety five of the highly new words in English using word clouds whereas the students in the control group spent the same amount of time in vocabulary learning through traditional method. Although both groups showed progression in vocabulary gain and a decrease in reaction time for learning new words, the experimental group showed significantly greater gains than the control group students. They are given a pre-test, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test and the findings indicate that students perform significantly better in the post-tests compared to the pre-test. It appears that word clouds could be considered as a supplementary learning tool with meaningful and engaging activities that require students to collaborate in practicing new words. Students showed progression in vocabulary gain and a decrease in reaction time for learning new words.

Keywords: vocabulary teaching, vocabulary learning, vocabulary retention, word clouds;

Introduction

It cannot be denied that vocabulary learning is an essential part in learning a language, be it a mother tongue or the second/foreign language. According to Nunan (1991), learning vocabulary in the very early stages is more fundamental than grammar, since without vocabulary one would not be able to use the structures and functions for effective communication. Wilkins (1972) wrote that ". . . while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed". Therefore special importance should be given to vocabulary learning activities in language learning and teaching. The English language is considered to have the largest vocabulary in the world (Crystal, 2002). "In order to learn words, learners need to have many opportunities to encounter a word as often as possible and to repeatedly rehearse the material. The former can be achieved through constant exposure to the target language, the latter through sufficient practice. After some time, learners need to be asked to retrieve studied words from their memory and use them in new contexts. This should be done regularly so that they have a chance to use the learned words as often as possible" (Gondová, 2012). It is this continual need for active repetition and using the foreign words in new contexts that opens the possibilities for computer assisted vocabulary teaching (CAVT) and learning (CAVL). There is simply not enough time and space to copy the natural and thus the most effective way of vocabulary acquisition (mostly incidental) in the limited time of teaching a foreign language in the classroom (Pokrivčáková, 2015). New technologies challenge traditional conceptions of both teaching and learning, information and communication technologies (ICT) provide an array of powerful tools that may help in transforming the present isolated, teacher-centered and text-bound classrooms into rich, student-focused and interactive knowledge environments (The UNESCO World Education, 2005). Using widely available Web 2.0 tools, users can now easily create data visualizations without needing to know the technology very well. Data visualization tools have recently generated increased interest in multiple disciplines due to their ability to present and summarize data in ways that appeal to different types of learners. One type of data visualization, Word Clouds, assists in accentuating the main points of text-based information. Word Clouds are one of the most popular forms of data visualization. The purpose of the current study is to identify the potential benefits of Word Clouds in vocabulary teaching and learning.

Statement of Problem:

Students do not learn enough vocabulary to meet their needs for paraphrasing, summarizing, reading comprehension.

Research Questions:

To investigate the potential of word clouds in teaching vocabulary, the present study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. Does using Word Clouds have any significant effect on vocabulary learning of intermediate Turkish EFL learners?

2. Does using Word Clouds have any significant effect on vocabulary retention of intermediate Turkish EFL learners?

Considering the importance of using Word Clouds in learning vocabulary, the two following null hypotheses were developed:

H01: Teaching vocabulary using Word Clouds does not have significant effect on vocabulary learning of intermediate Turkish EFL learners.

H02: Teaching vocabulary by using Word Clouds does not have any significant effect on vocabulary retention of intermediate Turkish EFL learners.

Review of the Related Literature

Researchers such as Laufer and Nation (1997); Nation (2001; 2005); Maximo (2000); Read (2000; 2004); Gu (2003); Marion (2008); Susanto (2016); and Nation (2001) and others have realized that the acquisition of vocabulary is essential for successful foreign language use and plays an important role in the formation of complete spoken and written texts. Learning vocabulary items plays a vital role in all language skills (eg. listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Nation, 2001). As new technological developments affected language teaching it attracted the interests of many researchers (e.g., Chen, Belkada, & Okamoto, 2004; Hubbard & Levy, 2006; Son, 2008). Using technology not only facilitates learning processes (Gorjian, 2008), but also holds other great potentialities for language learning. For example the ability to present information in different formats using graphics, sound, text, and video with links to other chunks of information through using Web-Based Language Learning activities (Cummins, 2008b). Some researchers have tried to create computer programs that can facilitate vocabulary learning (Goodfellow, 1994; Groot, 2000; Boers, Eyckmans, & Stengers, 2004). These programs generally included a single language learning activity, such as text reconstruction, gap-filling, speed-reading, simulation, or vocabulary games (Levy, 1997). Although many research have been carried out on Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), little attention has been paid to using Word Clouds in vocabulary teaching. Only a small number of studies (Cidell, 2010; McNaught & Lam, 2010; Pendergast, 2010; Ramsden & Bate, 2008) has conducted research with Word Clouds, all within the last four years. Pendergast (2010) used “tag clouds” to perform an analysis of the most commonly used terms from documents published by the American Association for Family and Consumer Sciences (AAFCS), creating what she referred to as a “folksonomy” of texts. She showed that the clouds revealed a visual hierarchy of text, and concluded by suggesting that tag clouds be included on Websites next to the published documents. Pendergast argued that doing so would appeal to multiple generations, including the “millennials,” who, according to her, are multiliterate and tend to prefer visual over textual information. Cidell (2010) suggested that “content clouds” may serve as a form of exploratory qualitative data analysis. She carried out a study with geographical data from public meeting transcripts and newspaper articles about “green” buildings. Using both visual content clouds and word frequency reports to carry out two case studies, Cidell showed visually how the same environmental issues are understood in different ways across the country. McNaught and Lam (2010) also supported the use of Word Clouds, arguing that they can be used as supplementary research tools for the triangulation of data (i.e., using multiple methods and data sources to obtain a more reliable picture of the phenomenon being explored).They carried out a study in which transcripts from two student focus groups, Chinese secondary school science students and second year law students, were analyzed. The researchers used Wordle to assess students’ blog entries about their educational experiences as well as the use of ebooks. They were able to demonstrate the vast differences among student experiences, as well as to qualitatively corroborate their quantitative findings about students’ perception of the value of both the focus groups and ebooks. Finally, Ramsden and Bate (2008) discussed the potential for Word Clouds to contribute to the field of education. They described how Word Clouds can be used to examine teacher responses to a survey about podcasting in educational contexts. The authors concluded by suggesting other uses for wordles (e.g., gathering informal feedback during large group instruction), as well as considerations teachers should take into account when creating Word Clouds, for example, the selection of software, data preparation, and how to interpret a Word Cloud.

In view of the lack of substantial prior research into the use of Word Clouds as a learning tool, it is not possible to know how generalizable the results of this research may be but it is possible to state that the tendency of students to use Word Clouds in ways consistent with their learning style preferences was so marked that further research is desirable into how students use Word Clouds, or more broadly, whether students constrain their use of learning tools to those consistent with or adaptable to individual learning style preferences and any implications for teaching and learning. As such there is a clear need to carry out studies that show whether and if so, how, Word Clouds can enhance learning vocabulary.

What is a Word Cloud (Wordsift)?

A word cloud is a visual representation for text data which is usually used to depict and visualize keyword metadata (tags) on websites free form text. Tags are usually single words, and the importance of each tag is shown with font size color, or other visual techniques (Halvey & Keane, 2007). Wordsift is a free website which provides the users with the opportunity to use word clouds to analyze texts. It attempts to address one of the greatest challenges facing educators of English Language Learners: how to grow and enrich the academic vocabulary of their students across the grade levels, and especially through academic content instruction Hakuta (2011). Newly Web-based visualization technology designed by Hakuta and Greg Wientjes is great for helping teachers and their students focus on the academic language that reaches across content areas (Farkas, 2009). There are other visual tools that have served as predecessors, including Tag Crowd, Wordle, and vocab Grabber, but this is the only site that integrates web-based images (Hakuta, 2011). The following tools are part of the Wordsift website: 1. Tag Cloud. A Tag Cloud of the 50 most frequent words in the text, excluding function words (such as is, of, at, the). Certain word lists can be highlighted from the most frequent words, such as the Academic Word List. 2.The most frequent word is entered into the Visual Thesaurus and the result is displayed as a word web. It displays the word, plus related words including antonyms and synonyms The Visual Thesaurus display is interactive: the definition of each word on the display pops up when the cursor is scrolled over it. 3. Google Image Search. The results of Google searches are also displayed. 4. Google Video Search. The videos can be displayed by clicking on Video. 5. Sample Sentences. All relevant examples from the input text are listed. According to Hakuta (2011) Wordsift can be used in the classroom as the following ways:

1. Lesson preparation: Identifies the challenging words or concepts prior to a lesson; can help find pictures and videos to illustrate and pre-teach vocabulary.

2. Previewing text: Can help students better understand the concept of skimming; helps identify the key content words in a passage; the Word Cloud can be used to help students to identify main ideas, themes, goals of the passage, intended audience, or to develop questions they believe should be answered by the passage; by “sifting” the course description, it can help students preview a course.

3. Class learning activities: Students are given a Visual Thesaurus display and students need to discuss how the words are related. This reinforces the concepts of antonym and synonym; students could be assigned weekly reading or listening logs where they would find their own passage and enter it into WordSift. They could be responsible for sharing 5 words in an online forum with the class. Students can look at how the words are used in context throughout the passage and discuss if the word was used in the same way in every instance; students can create their own online dictionaries via a blog with the Google pictures/illustrations. They could also discuss whether or not the pictures that Google came up with represent the word well or not.

4. Literacy support: Individual students can use WordSift as they read text, or as they write a response or summary; can help students identify key academic vocabulary in a given passage; is especially helpful for students in need of English for Special Purposes vocabulary when enrolled in a general English course.

Assessment: Whole-class vocabulary assessment can be done on-the-fly by showing the images from selected words, having them identify unfamiliar words, and having students talk about which picture is the best representation of a given word; teachers can also tailor their own assessments by copying and pasting the images, words, and sentences identified by

WordSift into a separate file such as in Word or Power point. The following example of a Word Cloud was generated using Word Cloud (www.wordclouds.com). It is generated from the definition of Word Cloud.

Methodology

A quantitative method was used to conduct the research on the effectiveness of Word Clouds in teaching vocabulary. For collecting data quasi-experimental design was chosen because it allows to use existing groups, as this study was conducted with the participation of forty students from two intact classes.

Participants

Forty intermediate male and female students studying English at privately founded language course in Ankara participated in this study. Most of the participants had previously passed in elementary and pre- intermediate classes and aimed to obtain an English language certificate at intermediate level. The classes were held two times a week that is eight sessions on weekends, 40 minutes for each session. The duration of the study was 6 weeks. All the participants were either high school or university students in different fields. The participants' age ranged from 16 to 24. This study was conducted with the participation of forty students from two intact classes. The number of both classes was equal twenty students in each class. The researcher herself taught both classes. Twenty students in a class were taught by using Word Clouds and the other twenty students were taught by the traditional method. So the book under this study was New Headway Intermediate (Liz and John Soars, Oxford University Press, 2014). Members of both groups consisted of both male and female subjects.

Instruments

The instruments used in this study consisted of a Nelson English proficiency test and three vocabulary tests: the first one as the pre-test, the second is the immediate post-test, other as the delayed post-test.

Procedure

Nelson 350 A test (Flower & Coe, 1976) was used for homogenizing the subjects regarding their proficiency level. This test consists of 50 multiple choice items. Before starting the treatment, Nelson test was administered to the experimental and control groups to ensure their homogeneity regarding their proficiency level. The validity and reliability of the Nelson test have been estimated several times before by other researchers and it is considered as highly valid and reliable test of English proficiency (Shahivand & Pazhakh, 2012). One hundred vocabularies were chosen from six units of "New Headway Intermediate level fourth edition" by Liz and John Soars, as the content of the instruction. But before starting the treatment, it had to be determined how many of the words were known to the students to check the effectiveness of the Word Clouds on vocabulary learning and vocabulary retention. Therefore, the list of words were given to the students of both groups in order to measure the vocabulary knowledge of students and they were asked to write the meaning of the words either in English or Turkish. This list served as the pre-test. The same vocabulary items were used as the post-tests in the same way. The only difference was in the order of the items.

Experimental group students were shown how to create Word Clouds using material from lecture Power Points and internet sites. They were warned about the limitations of Word Clouds and to use them as an adjunct to rather than substitute for other learning techniques. Students were actively engaged in vocabulary practice using interactive web browser 'WordSift' which provided the subjects with different options including Word Clouds, concept maps, definitions, pictures and videos for presenting the words. Students who were taught in a traditional method, on the other hand, listened to the pronunciation of vocabulary items existed in their book. The researcher pronounced words for students. The traditional method group (control group) was asked to write new words on their notebooks at home and memorize word lists with L1 equivalents for the purpose of being asked questions orally. Students were required to answer the book's vocabulary questions such as fill in the blank with missing words, guessing words from the context, synonyms and antonyms tests in book exercises. After each activity, the researcher checked the answers of students and made any necessary corrections. In traditional teaching, vocabulary was measured by paper and pencil tests or oral examination. Treatment was six weeks for experimental group. After six weeks, both groups were given the immediate post- test. A delayed vocabulary post-test was administered to students two weeks later in order to test the retention. It took 40 minutes for students to answer the questions of this exam. The questions of pre-test, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test were similar. The period of instruction for both groups was same and it lasted six weeks.

Results and Discussion

Tables 1 and 2 show the results of the T-test for the Nelson proficiency test which was used to see whether there was any significant difference between participants' test scores in the experimental and control groups.

Table 1. *Sample Statistics for the the control and experimental groups' Nelson Proficiency Test*

Items	N	Mean	SD	SD Error Mean
6. Control	20	68,3000	5,03775	1,12648
7. Experimental	20	68,3000	5,51648	1,23352

As the table 1 shows the mean score for both groups were the same. The experimental group in the Nelson proficiency test was 68.30 and for the control group was 68.30 and the standard deviations were 5.03 and 5.51 respectively.

Table 2. *Independent Samples T-test for the control and experimental groups' Nelson Proficiency Test*

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	0,217	0,644	0,000	38	1,000	0,00000	1,67049	-3,38172	3,38172
Equal variances not assumed			0,000	37,691	1,000	0,00000	1,67049	-3,38263	3,38263

As the results of T-test for Nelson proficiency test in table 2 represents the t value for equal variances is 0.000, which with 38 degree of freedom has an exact two-tailed significance level of 1.000. The results indicate that the groups were homogenous on the proficiency level before starting the treatment.

Researcher checked vocabulary background knowledge to see how many of the words are known to the participants of both groups. Results indicate that mean score of the experimental group on the pre- test was 10.00 and for the control group was 10.80 and the standard deviations were 4.81 and 4.56 respectively (Table 3).

Table 3. *Sample Statistics for the control and experimental groups' Pre-test*

Items	N	Mean	SD	SD Error Mean
1. Control	20	11,6000	5,29548	1,18411
2. Experimental	20	11,8000	5,34691	1,19561

For the vocabulary test given at the beginning of the study, the mean scores for the experimental and control groups were (11.60) and (11.80), relatively. Besides, the standard deviation for the control group was somewhat higher than that of the experimental group (SD experimental group = 5.29, SD control group =5.34). The independent sample t-test procedure was conducted for any statistical difference between the treatment group and the traditional method group (control and experimental groups). The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. *Independent Samples T- test for the control and experimental groups' Pre-test*

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	,004	,951	-,119	38	,906	-,20000	1,68273	-3,60651	3,20651
Equal variances not assumed	,004	,951	-,119	38	,906	-,20000	1,68273	-3,60651	3,20651

Since Sig. (2-tailed) was higher than (0.05), it could be assumed that the two groups had equal variances and as a result the first test was taken into consideration. Based on Table 4 there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups in pre-test of vocabulary ($t= -.119$, $p>0.05$), that is the control and experimental groups were almost at the same level of proficiency in terms of their vocabulary in the administered vocabulary test at the beginning of the study.

After the treatment, immediate post-test was given to the students of both groups. The sample statistics are provided in Table 5. In fact, learners' performance in the experimental group (Mean =74.30) far outweighed that of the control group (Mean =61.30) in immediate post-test of vocabulary test.

Table 5. *Sample statistics for the control and experimental groups' immediate post-test*

Items	N	Mean	SD	SD Error Mean
1. Control	20	74,3000	5,43962	1,21634
2. Experimental	20	61,3000	6,96684	1,55783

Table 6. *Independent sample t-test for the control and experimental groups' immediate post-test (IPO)*

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	,929	,341	6,577	38	,000	13,00000	1,97644	8,99891	17,00109
Equal variances not assumed			6,577	35,889	,000	13,00000	1,97644	8,99116	17,00884

However, this difference of means needed to be checked for statistical significance. After the experimental group received the treatment, another independent samples t-test was executed to compare the experimental and control groups in terms of their vocabulary learning after introducing the specific treatment to the experimental group and placebo for the control group. Levene's test for equality of variances shows that the variances are equal and there is no significant differences between them but, test of equality of means indicates t= 6.57 by degree of freedom of 38 and significant level of (sig= 0.000) the reported P-value is lower than the critical P-value which means there is a significant difference between the performances of the participants in the experimental group comparing it to the control group. According to the findings, the experimental group significantly performed better than the control group in the immediate post-test of vocabulary. The results showed that using Word Clouds in teaching vocabulary had been advantages in the improvement of students' vocabulary ability for the experimental group and thus the first null hypothesis is rejected. Regarding the second research, to measure the students' retention of vocabularies, a delayed post test was conducted to compare the obtained results of the two groups. The sample statistics results of the delayed post-test given to the participants two weeks after the end of the intervention is presented in the table 7.

Table 7. *Sample statistics for the control and experimental groups' delayed post-test (DPO)*

Items	N	Mean	SD	SD Error Mean
1. Control	20	92,6000	4,25997	0,95256
2. Experimental	20	85,1000	5,63728	1,26053

The mean score of the experimental group (mean=92.60) was (7.5) points higher than that of the control group (mean experimental group= 85.10). In addition, the degree of scatteredness of the scores for the control group (SD control group=5.63) was somewhat higher than the degree of deviation of scores around the mean score for the experimental group (SD experimental group=4.25). A delayed post-test was also conducted to check if the difference between immediate and delayed post-test scores has been statistically significant or not. T-test results are shown in Table 8.

Table 8. *Independent sample t-test for the control and experimental groups' delayed post-test (DPO)*

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	,948	,336	4,747	38	,000	7,50000	1,57997	4,30151	10,69849
Equal variances not assumed			4,747	35,364	,000	7,50000	1,57997	4,29366	10,70634

Independent sample t-test was performed to compare delayed retention of vocabulary items measured at two different periods. For the purpose of testing hypothesis concerning parameter estimates, the independent samples t-test. T-test results indicated that there is a significant difference between students of the two groups in terms of delayed post-test vocabulary scores (Sig=0.000< 0.05). As a result, the second null hypothesis was also rejected. So with the 95% confidence the researcher can conclude that teaching vocabulary using word clouds have a significance effect on vocabulary retention of intermediate Turkish EFL learners.

Discussion

The present study compared the effect of teaching vocabulary using Word Clouds on learning vocabulary of Intermediate Turkish EFL learners. For the purpose of conducting the study, forty students of privately founded language course participated in this study. Two classes were selected for conducting the study. One class was chosen as the experimental group and the other class was chosen as the control group. The researcher herself taught both classes. After pre-test and two post-tests (immediate and delayed), the results of the study revealed that the Word Clouds group carried out better than the translation method group. This indicates that the experimental group learned and remembered more vocabulary than the control group. Therefore, it can be claimed that the subjects who were instructed with "Word Clouds" seemed to have retained the meaning of more words than those in the control group. The success of the experimental group in terms of vocabulary achievement might be explained with the following factors:

The use of visual representations such as pictures and drawings can promote vocabulary retention. EFL textual information was not as easily processed as that of picture and text information, and, as a result, the picture supplemented or strengthened the learning and retaining of the words. Creating different images promotes collaborative learning. Students not only acquire knowledge together, but also share diverse learning experiences from one another in order to express themselves and reflect on their learning. A possible reason for better retention of the words in the experimental group is that, brain has separate processing systems. Verbal information is stored in the left hemisphere of the brain and visual-spatial information in the right (Chastain, 1988). Visual aids have long been assumed to be beneficial to second language learning. In reviewing the techniques used in learning L2 vocabulary, Oxford and Crookall (1990) acknowledged the effectiveness of visual imagery and maintained that, "most learners are capable of associating new information to concepts in memory by means of meaningful visual images, and that visual images make learning more efficient" and "the pictorial verbal combination involves many parts of the brain, thus providing greater cognitive power". In this study, pictures provided by Word Clouds have been used to clarify the meaning of those unknown words learners encounter in reading which resulted in better retention of words. According to dual coding theory, the way learners comprehend pictures differs greatly from that of comprehending textual information (Paivio, 1971). In other words, text is processed by the verbal cognitive subsystem, while a picture is processed by the non-verbal cognitive subsystem. It is apparent that Word Clouds utilizes both systems efficiently since the Word Clouds has a strong element of both visual information and verbal information. Information to be learnt enters the brain via two channels. In this study the control group in which vocabularies were presented in the form of written texts, learners probably used only their verbal cognitive subsystem but, learners in the experimental group in which vocabularies were presented by texts and pictures via Word Clouds used both their verbal and non-verbal subsystems to process the information which result in better retention. Finally by creating their own images with using words students had an opportunity to show their Word Cloud art for others to admire or where they could use their Word Cloud to aid their participation in discussions. Students were also adamant that being able to create a unique Word Cloud gave them a sense of ownership of the Word Cloud and the associated learning.

Implications and Recommendations for Teaching

The most important implication is that as the technology develops, we also need to improve the ways of using technology. This study shows that using Word Clouds in vocabulary learning is significant. The outcomes of this study suggest some pedagogical implication that could be taken into consideration by EFL designers, textbook writers, teachers, institute managers and so on. Although Word Clouds are not included in the text books yet, but teachers might use them as a helpful tool.

Limitations

The study has been done at Privately Founded Language Course, so just the students of this center participated in the study. Just two intact classes with the total number of 40 students (20 and 20) were the participants of this study. The researcher himself taught both classes. Covered materials in the study were based on an already designed curriculum of the Language Course.

Conclusion

The problem of this study was how to improve vocabulary retention of the students and the question was whether using interactive web tool word clouds affects vocabulary learning and retention or not. Regarding the results of the study, it can be concluded that using word clouds affects vocabulary learning and retention positively and it can help both teachers, in presenting the materials, and learners, to improve their vocabulary retention. The limited evidence of this study has showed that using word clouds facilitates the process of learning new words and makes them more retainable.

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