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## **AN EVALUATION OF AN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING EDUCATION PROGRAM IN TERMS OF TEACHER AUTONOMY**

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## AN EVALUATION OF AN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING EDUCATION PROGRAM IN TERMS OF TEACHER AUTONOMY

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### Abstract

The present study aims to evaluate an English Language Teaching (ELT) Program of a university in Turkey in terms of teacher autonomy development. It attempts to do so by investigating course catalogues described in the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) of the program through the framework of European Profile for Language Teacher Education (EPLTE). The paper reports on the research findings from that analysis and the other qualitative analysis using a semi-structured interview conducted with seven teacher educators who have had experience with the ELT program. The results show that the ELT program has covered most of the aspects included in the checklist and the teacher educators shared positive views about the program in terms of autonomy development. They also gave some suggestions about the program and the context of the courses.

*Keywords:* Teacher autonomy, ELT program, European Profile for Language Teacher Education

### 1. Introduction

For more than two decades now, ‘autonomy’ has been a popular focus of discussion in second and foreign language teaching (Benson; 2011; Little, 1995; Littlewood, 1996). This popularization is not surprising as there has been a shift towards ‘learner-centered’ methods in language teaching. As a result of this shift, much research has been conducted on learner autonomy which can be defined in broadest terms as “the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of learning” (Chan, 2001, p. 505). There seems to be a general consensus that learners do not easily accept this responsibility for their own learning and they need to be mediated by someone else. In formal educational contexts, it is the role of the language teachers to provide learners with the appropriate tools and opportunities to enhance autonomy levels of their students (Little, 1995). At that point, much emphasis should be drawn upon the language teacher education programs as the target is to equip language teachers with the necessary qualifications through pre-service education.

Language teaching education programs need to be designed in lines with a reference framework which promotes the development of teacher autonomy by employing necessary knowledge and skills for student teachers to act in an autonomous way. Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR, Council of Europe, 2001) has been recently used for language teaching as it describes the capabilities of a language learner and promotes the learner autonomy with the use of portfolios (Reinders & Balcikanli, 2011). European Profile for Language Teacher Education (EPLTE) is a comprehensible guide developed by a team at the University of Southampton which was supported by the Council of Europe. The Profile supports the idea of teacher and learner autonomy and includes some strategies, skills and values in accordance with the dimensions of teacher autonomy.

In the 2006-2007 academic year, there has been a drastic change in the ELT programs of Turkey and the programs have been redesigned in compliance with the CEFR by Turkish

Higher Education Council. There has, however, been surprisingly little research into these ELT programs and their course contents regarding teacher autonomy. Therefore, it is the aim of this study to evaluate an ELT program in terms of teacher autonomy by using a checklist developed in line with the items in EPLTE (visit the website for more information about the profile <http://www.lang.soton.ac.uk/profile/report/MainReport.pdf>) and a semi-structured interview with teacher trainers.

## 2. Teacher Autonomy and Curriculum

The concept of learner autonomy has long been an area of interest for many researchers (Benson, 2001; Dam, 1995; Little, 1991; Sinclair, McGrath, & Lamb, 2000) since a project was reported to the Council of Europe by Holec (1981) on the field. As a result of these studies, the research on teacher autonomy has gained more importance for both researchers and educators. In recent years, teacher autonomy has been recognized as a major factor that affects the development of learner autonomy in foreign or second language teaching (Huang, 2005). This has increased the importance of teacher autonomy and much research has been conducted to illustrate that to enhance learner autonomy, teacher autonomy needs to be enhanced as well (Benson, 2001; Little, 1995; McGrath, 2000).

Despite the research studies on teacher autonomy, there has been little consensus on the definition of it as it is a multidimensional concept. Little (1995) was among the first to discuss the definition of teacher autonomy and argued that “genuinely successful teachers have always been autonomous in the sense of having a strong sense of personal responsibility for their teaching” (p. 179). However, this perspective has been criticized as it undermines the teachers’ influence over teaching and learning constraints (Mackenzie, 2002). A more comprehensive definition from McGrath (2000) views teacher autonomy in two different dimensions: teacher autonomy as self-directed action or development and teacher autonomy as freedom of control by others. There is a reciprocal relationship between these two dimensions; if teachers are self-directed, they have freedom from control by others or if teachers are free from control, they are self-directed (Benson, 2001). ‘Control’ is a key term in the definition of teacher autonomy as in the concept of ‘learner autonomy’. Similar views on ‘control’ dimension of teacher autonomy have been expressed by Powell and McGowan (1996) who argue that teacher autonomy is the control over their working environments and in the context of teacher education programs. In the same vein, Clement and Vandenberghe (2000) described teacher autonomy as a workplace condition which implies control over the working environment. Along with all the definitions above, Aoki’s (2002) analogy on teacher and learner autonomy has been widely recognized among the researchers. Aoki (2002, p. 111) defines teacher autonomy as:

‘If learner autonomy is the capacity, freedom, and/or responsibility to make choices concerning one’s own learning... teacher autonomy, by analogy, can be defined as the capacity, freedom, and/or responsibility to make choices concerning one’s own teaching.’

However, Aoki (2002) herself criticizes this definition as it falls behind to explain the effect of teacher autonomy on learner autonomy.

Different from all the definitions above, Smith (2000) proposed a new term ‘teacher-learner autonomy’. Smith (2000) defined the terms as “the ability to develop appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes for oneself as a teacher, in corporation with others” (p. 1). This perspective can be regarded as the one which is most directly related to teacher education. Smith (2000) claims that the enhancement of teacher autonomy in relation to pedagogical and practical knowledge has an intrinsic value within teacher education

programs. Benson and Huang (2008), following Smith (2000), have favored a conception of teacher autonomy that “incorporates elements of professionalism, professional freedom and self-direction within the process of learning how to teach” (p. 435). It is clear from this conception that Benson and Huang (2008) suggest practical implications for both pre-service and in-service ELT education programs.

Huang’s (2005) definition of teacher autonomy as teachers’ willingness, capacity and freedom to take control of their own teaching and learning is directly related to practical implications suggested by Smith (2000). It is most appropriate for teacher educators and teacher education programs to focus directly on developing a willingness and capacity for self-directed teaching (Smith, 2000). Little (1995) also emphasized the prominence of teacher education programs in terms of developing student teachers’ awareness of learner autonomy by stating that prospective language teachers should be trained to appreciate the importance of learner autonomy. Language teachers are more likely to achieve learner autonomy in their own contexts if they are also trained to become autonomous learners. Therefore, it should be aim of the ELT education programs to develop awareness of student teachers’ their own autonomy and for their future teaching practices. Fostering teacher autonomy via education programs can be achieved by using various frameworks or portfolios such as EPLTE which have been designed to train language teachers with necessary qualifications.

### **3. The EPLTE**

The EPLTE is a frame of reference developed by a team at the University of Southampton led by Professor Michael Kelly and Dr. Michael Grenfell in 2004. The items in the Profile are based on the interviews with teacher educators around the world and findings from the analysis of various teacher education programs. The Profile is actually rooted in an earlier report, ‘The Training of Teachers of a Foreign Language: Developments in Europe’, which investigated the language teacher education programs of over 32 countries. There are 40 items in the Profile which can be used as a guideline while designing teacher education programs to equip language teachers with necessary qualifications and professional competences of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Kelly and Grenfell (2004) suggest that although the Profile is not a mandatory regulation for teacher education programs, it can be used as a checklist or guideline to analyze and improve their teacher education programs. This suggestion has led the researcher to use EPLTE as a checklist and criteria for the analysis of the program and the interviews conducted with teacher educators.

In a meeting of European Council in 2002, it was proposed that each European citizen should be taught two foreign languages along with their mother tongue. As a result of this, the importance of language teacher education is increasing not only in Europe, but also in an international level. Moreover, Kelly and Grenfell (2004) claim that the Profile is not only designed for European countries, but it can also be employed by other counties across Europe. The profile is comprised of 40 items divided into 4 sections: Structure; Knowledge and Understanding; Strategies and Skills; and Values. All the sections in the Profile interact to form a comprehensive guide to language teacher education programs in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Within these 40 items, there were some items which were closely related to the dimensions of teacher and learner autonomy. As a result of this inclusiveness and extensiveness, the EPLTE is used as a baseline for this research.

## **4. Methodology**

### **4.1. Research Questions**

There are two main research questions in this study:

- 1) Does the ELT program contribute to train autonomous student teachers?

- 2) Does the ELT program equip student teachers with the necessary competences to train autonomous learners in their future contexts?

#### 4.2. Context of the Evaluation

Higher Education Council in Turkey is responsible for the organization, planning, recognition and supervision of all higher education institutions including the universities which train teachers. The Council also makes program reforms by updating the content of the courses offered by different departments in education faculties at Turkish universities. ELT programs have recently been reshaped in accordance with the changing social and educational necessities and developments. New ELT programs were introduced in the 2006-2007 academic year. This new program is based on both CEFR which provides a common ground for language programs to train autonomous teachers with professional development opportunities and European Portfolio for Student Teachers of English (EPOSTL) promoting professional growth through dialogue and reflection (Cosgun-Ogeyik, 2009).

The ELT program evaluated in this study has also been reshaped in the 2006-2007 reform. The program belongs to one of the universities located in the Central Anatolia in Turkey. At the time of the research, there were 1120 student teachers attending the program and 28 teacher trainers. The program provides student teachers with four-year education including theoretical and practical courses. In the first year of the program, student teachers are provided knowledge about how English works from different skills (e.g. contextual grammar, listening, speaking). In the following three years, the program mainly focuses on professional expertise (e.g. teaching methodology, teaching English to young learners, testing). The program also includes practice-based courses which give the student teachers opportunities to observe classes at primary and secondary schools (School Experience) and practice teaching at these schools (Teaching Practice). As the program is the main focus in this research, all the courses described in the ECTS are analyzed in terms of teacher autonomy development (See Appendix I for all the courses in the program).

ECTS can be described as a central tool which makes higher education more transparent and compatible across Europe. It allows learning experiences for students in different countries by offering greater student mobility and similar curriculum designs and credit systems. Thus, it gets easier for students to study abroad as the participating institutions share their course catalogues on the web, including detailed descriptions and objectives of the courses, regulations and services. The researcher also reached these course catalogues in the website of the related ELT department (See Appendix II for a sample course catalogue form).

#### 4.3. Participants

Along with the analysis of the ELT program, a semi-structured interview was conducted to gather the views of six teacher educators (F=2, M=4) in the department. While three of the teacher educators have had experience (changing from 2 to 9) with the current ELT program, the others have experienced (from 14 to 27 years) the current and the previous program. Some of the courses they have been lecturing at the department currently are *Teaching English to Young Learners*, *Second Language Acquisition*, *Teaching Language Skills*, *Special Teaching Methods*, *Advanced Reading and Listening*, *Oral Communication Skills* and *Teaching Practice*. (For the detailed information, see Table 1 below.)

Table 1. *Detailed Information about the Participants*

<i>Teacher Educators(TE)</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Years of experience</i>	<i>The courses lectured currently</i>
TE1	M	27	Teaching English to Young Learners, School Experience, Teaching Practice
TE2	M	25	Special Teaching Methods, Teaching Language Skills, School Experience, Teaching Practice
TE3	F	14	Approaches to ELT, Teaching English to Young Learners
TE4	M	9	Second Language Acquisition, Special Teaching Methods, Teaching Language Skills
TE5	M	3	Advanced Reading and Writing, Oral Communication Skills, Listening and Pronunciation
TE6	F	2	Teaching English to Young Learners, Effective Communication Skills, Approaches to ELT

#### 4.4. Evaluation Design

The main purpose of this evaluation is to reveal the aspects of an ELT program which needs to be maintained or improved for the development of student teachers' autonomous behaviors. As there has not been any attempt to develop a questionnaire or checklist for that kind of evaluation, the researcher employed a new evaluation checklist to analyze the ECTS of the program. In the same vein, the semi-structured interview conducted with teacher educators was designed in conformity with the same checklist. The items in the EPLTE developed by Kelly and Grenfell (2004) were the core of analysis. The aim was to analyze the items in this framework and gather the ones which were related to the dimensions of teacher autonomy. In order to be able to do so, the researcher had regular meetings with two experienced experts in the field and the items were analyzed one by one. Out of these 40 items in the framework, 8 items were chosen which were identified as the stages in the development of learner autonomy (Reinders, 2010). Reinders and Balcikanli (2011) also employed this framework including 8 stages for the evaluation of textbooks used commonly at ELT programs in terms of developing autonomy. Therefore, the stages in his model has been adopted in order to determine the items in the checklist. These stages are shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2. *The Eight Stages in the Development of Learner Autonomy* (Reinders, 2010, p. 46)

<i>Learning Stages</i>	<i>Examples</i>
Identifying needs	Learner experiences/difficulties in using the language.
Setting goals	Contextually determined, relatively flexible.
Planning learning	Contextually determined. Very flexible.
Selecting resources	Self-selection by learners.
Selecting learning strategies	Self-selection by learners.
Practice	Implementation (language use) and experimentation.
Monitoring progress	Self-monitoring, peer-feedback
Assessment and revision	Self-assessment, reflection

By taking these stages into consideration, the items were chosen from the EPLTE and they were employed both for the checklist to analyze the course catalogues and the semi-structured interview with the teacher educators. The items in the EPLTE are originally formed in sentence format. The researcher transformed the sentences into question format. The questions are as follows:

Does the program...

- 1) ... provide student teachers with an intercultural and multicultural context?
- 2) ... train student teachers in information and communication technology for pedagogical use in the classroom?
- 3) ... train student teachers in the ways of adapting teaching approaches to the individual needs of learners?
- 4) ... train student teachers in the critical evaluation, development and practical application of teaching materials and resources?
- 5) ... train student teachers in the development of reflective practice and self-evaluation?
- 6) ... train student teachers in 'how to learn'?
- 7) ... train student teachers in the application of various ways of recording learners' progress?
- 8) ... train student teachers in order to do action research?

#### **4.5. Data Collection Procedure**

Firstly, the ECTS of the program was obtained to reveal the aspects that support or need to be supported in terms of teacher autonomy. It should be noted here that the ECTS forms are created by lecturer of each course. Secondly, it seemed necessary to gather information from the teacher educators who can reflect on the aspects related to teacher autonomy and come up with new ideas. Six teacher educators were chosen for the semi-structured interviews to elicit their views and comments about the program and teacher autonomy dimension in the program. The reason why a semi-structured interview was used was to collect information as much as possible and to add and revise on previous questions depending on participants' responses (Barriball & While, 1994). This revision and expanding the questions give the opportunity for a more in-depth understanding of what teacher educators think. The participating teacher educators were provided with eight questions and asked to make related comments especially on the improvement of teacher autonomy dimensions. The interviews were conducted orally and tape-recorded and then transcribed by the researcher.

#### **4.6. Data Analysis**

Before the administration of the interview, in order to ensure the construct validity two experts were consulted about whether the items in the interview were appropriate for evaluating the program in terms of teacher autonomy. After the consultation, the experts did not offer any modifications.

The analysis of both course catalogues and semi-structured interviews with teacher educators were made through content analysis. That is to say, the qualitative analysis was employed by the researcher. The ECTS forms created by the lecturer of each course were analyzed in terms of course content, course objectives, learning outcomes and competences and the textbooks in the light of the questions in the checklist. For the each question, the researcher looked for the related elements and items throughout the course catalogues. For instance, the first question was intended for finding whether the program provides students teachers with an intercultural and multicultural context. As a result, the contents of the course catalogues were examined in order to find intercultural or multicultural elements. Moreover,

semi-structured interviews were conducted with one participant at a time, between 15 and 25 minutes. The audio taped and transcribed interviews were also analyzed by using the checklist and sample utterances from the teacher educators were given to exemplify the findings.

## 5. Findings and Discussion

The present study aims at evaluating an ELT program about whether it improves teacher autonomy and these teachers can become competent enough to train autonomous learners in their future contexts. In order to be able to seek answers for research questions, the course catalogues were analyzed and a semi-structured interview was conducted with six seven teacher educators in the department.

The first question in the checklist looked for whether the courses in the program provide student teachers with an intercultural and multicultural context. When the ECTS of the program was analyzed, it was seen that there were four courses which aimed at creating an awareness of the target culture in student teachers. These courses were *English Literature I*, *English Literature II*, *English in Mass Communication* (elective) and *Comparative Education*. The instructor of *English Literature I* described the learning outcomes and competences of that course as ‘to gain insight into literature in the framework of culture’. In *English in Mass Communication* course, the students were expected to analyze and evaluate the effectiveness of formal and informal means of mass communication in terms of cultural elements and its reflection on the language. These courses are of crucial importance for the student teachers as Sercu (2002, p. 72) claims ‘language-and-culture courses’ are needed for intercultural communicative competence and learner autonomy. Interview results also showed that the teacher educators think that the ELT program had some courses that enhance teaching intercultural elements. However, TE1 expressed that although the program had some related courses, the number of the courses was not sufficient enough to equip student teachers with intercultural communicative competences. Moreover, TE4 claimed that the program should promote learning other cultures autonomously as Sercu (2002) also implied that competences need to be acquired to learn about other cultures autonomously.

When it comes to the second question which seeks whether the program trains student teachers in information and communication technology for pedagogical use in the classroom, it was concluded that most of the courses in the program required using that technology for the course presentations and micro teaching. There were two courses in the program, *Computing Skills I* and *II*, which were not related to pedagogical competences but rather aimed at making use of office programs efficiently. After the interview with the TE2, the researcher was informed about a new elective course which would be held in the next academic year. The course is called *Technological Applications in ELT* which would aim at making student teachers effective users of web 2.0 technologies for pedagogical aims. One of the objectives of the course identified by the instructor was to develop an awareness of the use of web 2.0 technologies outside the classrooms in the context of ‘autonomous learning’, ‘individualized learning’ and ‘learning ecologies’. This is an appreciated reform for the program as many researchers (Bhattacharya & Chauhan, 2010; Littlewood, 1997; Schwienhorst, 2003) claim that it is an opportunity to use information and communication technologies as means to promote and develop autonomous teaching and learning skills.

The third question in the checklist and interview asked whether the program trains student teachers in the ways of adapting teaching approaches to the individual needs of learners. All the teacher educators stated that their program definitely focused on student teachers’ teaching skills. TE6 had the following views:



*'I am also a graduate of that department. Although we were not trained with the same program employed currently, the aim was the same. We were taught to become aware of the individual needs of our learners and find ways to develop our teaching for their needs. This requires total autonomy for future teaching contexts.'*

The courses in the program were in the step with the comments of the teacher educators. There were many courses which aim at developing pedagogical competences of the student teachers to adapt their teaching to the individual needs of their students. The objective of the course *Special Teaching Methods I* was stated as 'to embellish the students with the necessary knowledge and skills to be able to examine and modify texts for the individual needs of the students'. Moreover, there was a course called *Special Education* which focused on the training of students with special needs. There were more courses such as *Teaching English to Young Learners*, *Teaching Language Skills*, *ELT Methodology*, *Approaches to ELT* all of which somehow took the individual needs into consideration. As Reinders (2010) also stated it is crucial for language teachers to know how learners differ in their capacity to process, store, and retrieve information; how they differ in terms of age, intelligence, beliefs about language learning; and how they differ in their approaches to learning. Then it is the task of teacher education programs to train teachers accordingly for autonomous learning and teaching environments.

Following question 3, the fourth question looked for the answers whether the ELT program trains student teachers in the critical evaluation, development and practical application of teaching materials and resources. The interviews with teacher educators showed that the student teachers in the department were always encouraged to come up with ideas and implementations of materials development and design. TE3 commented as:

*'In my Teaching English to Young Learners classes, I sometimes get amazed at the materials our students design. Most of the time, they are really creative and make use of authentic materials for their micro teaching. You should see the walls; there are traces of these materials.'*

While almost all the pedagogical competence courses such as *Teaching English to Young Learners* or *Special Teaching Methods* emphasized the importance of material development, the program offered two courses specifically given for that aim, *Materials Adaptation and Evaluation* and *Educational Technologies and Material Design*. After completing these courses, the students were expected to evaluate syllabuses and teaching materials; prepare and use teaching materials and make the necessary adaptations. These tasks identified in the learning outcomes and competences of the courses are entirely autonomous behaviors expected from student teachers. All the teacher educators interviewed claimed that their student teachers became ready to do so after graduation. As Reinders and Balcikanli (2011) also emphasized, choosing appropriate materials for both learners and student teachers is crucial for promoting autonomy.

The next question targeted the answer for whether the ELT program trains student teachers in the development of reflective practice and self-evaluation. This question was directly related to teacher autonomy and employed to see if the student teachers are encouraged to reflect on their teaching. Little (1991) argued that autonomy in language learning depends on the development and exercise of a capacity for critical reflection. About this dimension of teacher autonomy, TE4 commented as follows:

*'Actually the program does not have any course specifically designed for that aim. However, the students in my courses are always encouraged to do reflection as it is a legitimate goal of my training in the courses. They are asked to write reflective journals at the end of each class and reflect on what they learnt or did not learn in the class.'*

Another teacher educator claimed that the program needed to have such courses to build an initial baseline for the professional development of the student teachers in their future contexts. The contents of the course catalogues indicated by the instructors at the department did not show any signs of developing reflective practices or self-evaluation. That is to say, the instructors may be employing some activities to do reflection in their courses, yet, it seems that this is not the main aim of any course. In one of the courses, *Special Teaching Methods*, a textbook called as ‘Tasks for Teacher Education: A Reflective Approach’ by Tanner and Green (1998) is used. However, as textbook evaluation is not in the scope of our evaluation, it would not be reasonable to say something about the content of the book.

In question 6, the aim was to find whether the ELT program trains student teachers in ‘how to learn’. If an autonomous teacher wants to train autonomous language learners, he/she should be able to train his/her learners on ‘how to learn’ (Benson, 2011). In the ELT program, almost all the courses focused on ‘how to teach’. When the course objectives, learning outcomes and competences were analyzed, it was found out that the courses in the ECTS did not include any activities or objectives directly related to learner training. Along the same line, the teacher educators in the interviews told the researcher that they accept these student teachers as if they know how to learn. One of the teacher educators commented as:

*‘To face the truth, when our student teachers graduate, they may have to train their students on how to learn. When I was teaching English at the preparatory school, I remember my students used to ask me how to learn English. They did not know what to do; they did not have any learning strategies and were not aware of their learning styles.’*

Even though the program did not include any courses specifically designed for learner training, in *Teaching Principles and Methods* course the students were expected to explain learning strategies at the end of the course.

Question 7 sought answers for whether the program trains student teachers in the application of various ways of recording learners’ progress. In the famous analogy of Aoki (2002), it was claimed that autonomous teachers are the ones who take control of their teaching. That is to say, an autonomous teacher should evaluate both his/her teaching and students’ learning. In the ELT program, one of the objectives was to select and use teaching materials to follow students’ progress in *Testing and Evaluation* course. This course was lectured in Turkish by the faculty in the Educational Sciences. In addition to that course, the program also included one more course, *Testing and Evaluation in ELT*. After completing that course, the students are expected to understand and be aware of alternative assessment types and evaluation of students’ success. TE1 shared his views:

*‘For our department, the primary goal is to be able to train successful teachers. One of the primary objectives that we impose upon our student teachers is to become responsible for their teaching and students. In all the methodological courses, we always talk about how to keep track of the students.’*

The last question in the interview and the checklist asked whether the ELT program trains student teachers in order to do action research. As a part of reflective model by Wallace (1991), the teachers who can achieve to reflect on their teaching and act in an autonomous way know how to do action research. They are both teachers and researchers of their classrooms. Out of 59 courses in the program, there was only one course, *Scientific Research Methods*, which aimed to teach scientific research methods, techniques and applications to the student teachers. However, four of the teacher educators interviewed did not find the number of these courses enough for the students teachers. TE 2 commented as:

*'As the aim is to train successful teachers, the program mostly focuses on teacher training in a more pedagogical way. However, it is better to keep in mind that we are also under the responsibility of preparing our students as both teachers and researchers.'*

Overall, analyzing the course catalogues in the ECTS and teacher educators' perspectives on the program, there are some common noteworthy thoughts shared by all six of them. There seems to be a feeling among teacher educators that the ELT program puts more emphasis on student teachers' pedagogic competence and more courses are needed to develop their research competences. A common opinion among teacher educators was to include some courses about learner training and research. The results also show that the courses of the program evaluated in this study focused on the stages of autonomy suggested by Reinders (2010). As the motive behind this study was to evaluate the ELT program in terms of teacher autonomy, it would be reasonable to probe into whether the course objectives, learning competences or outcomes are actually covered by the teacher educators for future research.

## **6. Concluding Remarks**

The present study set out to evaluate an ELT program in terms of teacher autonomy development by using the EPLTE as a guideline. There are two main research questions sought to answer in the study, one covering areas regarding the student teachers' autonomy development, while the other mainly focusing on the competences the student teachers have to foster their students' autonomy. The findings reveal that the ECTS of the program supports the autonomy development for the student teachers from many aspects. The student teachers are encouraged to learn about the target culture autonomously, to effectively use information and communication technologies for pedagogical purposes and to adapt to the individual needs of the students in the classroom. However, some aspects related to teaching 'how to learn' and doing research are not included in specifically designed courses for these purposes. Furthermore, teacher educators with whom semi-structured interviews are conducted agree with the findings of the ECTS analysis. They have given some suggestions such as including more research based courses or supporting reflective practices.

As autonomy has been an indispensable part of teacher and learner training, this has necessitated the restructuring of teacher education programs (Cakir & Balcikanli, 2012). The ELT program evaluated in this study has been reshaped in the 2006-2007 academic year in accordance with the CEFR. As a requirement of CEFR, the findings show that the program has some components of learner and teacher autonomy such as intercultural awareness, technology use and material selection. This study has been conducted on just one ELT program applied in one of the Turkish universities. The same evaluation can be done with more programs and teacher educators' views in order to reach broader and more definite conclusions on the field. For a more in-depth analysis of the ELT programs, the teaching and learning processes can be observed as a necessity of formal evaluation.

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## **Appendix I**

### **The courses in the ELT Program**

Contextual Grammar I/II	Teaching Principles and Methods
Advanced Reading and Writing I/II	History of Turkish Education
Listening and Pronunciation I/II	Language Acquisition
Computing Skills I/II	Special Teaching Methods
Effective Communication Skills	Educational Technologies and Material Design
Introduction to Educational Sciences	Scientific Research Methods
Oral Communication Skills I/II	Teaching English to Young Learners I/II
Turkish Writing Expression	ELT Methodology
Lexical Competence	Teaching Language Skills I/II
Educational Psychology	Literature and Language Teaching I/II
Turkish Oral Expression	Second Foreign Language I/II/III
English Literature I/II	Testing and Evaluation
Linguistics I/II	Social Service
Approached to ELT I/II	History of Turkish Republic I/II
English-Turkish Translation	Language Teaching Materials Adaptation and Development
Turkish-English Translation	Special Education
Oral Expression and Public Speaking	English Language Testing and Evaluation
School Observation	Teaching Practice
Cognitive Strategies	Semantics and Language Teaching
Mass Media Communication	Pragmatics and Language Teaching
Comparative Education	Sociolinguistics and Language Teaching
Drama	Discourse Analysis and Language Teaching
Classroom Management	

## Appendix II

## Sample Course Catalogue Form of the ELT Program

Course Title:							<u>English Language Teaching (ELT)</u>		
<u>Semester</u>	<u>Teaching Methods</u>						<u>Credits</u>		
	<u>Lecture</u>	<u>Recite</u>	<u>Lab.</u>			<u>Other</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Credit</u>	ECTS Credit
<u>Language</u>									
<u>Compulsory / Elective</u>									
<u>Prerequisites</u>									
<u>Course Contents</u>									
Course Objectives									
Learning Outcomes and Competences									
Textbook and /or References									
Assessment Criteria							<i>If any, mark as (X)</i>	Percent (%)	
	Midterm Exams								
	Final Exam								
Instructors									
Week	Subject								



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## **FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY OF TURKISH CHILDREN AT DIFFERENT AGES**

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# FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY OF TURKISH CHILDREN AT DIFFERENT AGES

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## Abstract

Although it is always under debate that anxiety has been experienced by most learners in the process of learning a foreign language, their culture is normally expected to help children avoid such a psychological risk in their language classes regardless of their age. In this study foreign language learning anxiety of Turkish children have been examined as a learning barrier. For the study both qualitative and quantitative data were collected from six EFL teachers and 544 students in randomly selected primary, secondary and high schools in Ankara. The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), developed by Horwitz et.al. (1986), was administered as the data collection tool. The internal reliability achieved an alpha coefficient of 0.93 with all items producing significant corrected item total scale correlations and test- retest reliability over 8 weeks yielded the correlation coefficient 0.83( $p < .0001$ ). The results of the study revealed that as Turkish children get older, their level of anxiety rises too, and their culture of trust in their teachers and parents does not help them overcome this kind of a learning barrier.

*Keywords:* Turkish children, culture, foreign language learning anxiety, learning barrier

## 1. Introduction

Family environment is one of the factors influencing child's development, it stimulates intellectual and emotional development, shapes values, etc., which has a great impact on their school life (Mikos and Czerwicz 2008). Mothers are the first teachers at home, private tutors of their children when they start school, even grandparents start school each time their grandchildren do. And relatives are always ready as reliable helping hands any time their children are in need of their warm support for education. Therefore there is no visible risk for children to feel anxious in or outside of the educational contexts regardless of their age or educational level. However, according to most researches in the field of foreign language learning, anxiety is one of the most important affective factors that influence foreign language learning (Bailey 1983; MacIntyre and Gardner 1994; Young 1991; Chen and Chang 2004; Na 2007; Spielman and Radnofsky 2001).

Studies conducted over the years have shown that language anxieties are caused by several factors. These factors might significantly have an effect on learners in learning a foreign language (Lucas 2011). Bailey (1983) claims that in order to get positive feedback from their teachers with regard to their progress and competence, the learners outperform each other. Such competitive behaviors may cause anxiety among them. MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) discuss that students with language anxiety have difficulty in expressing their own views and underestimate their abilities. The reason why students prefer to be silent instead of being active might be their fear of making mistakes in front of other students (Tunaboylu 1993). It is derived from lack of self-confidence and lack of confidence affects success negatively. Nunan (1999) reports that sense of confidence is a factor which influences learning so the confidence level of the student is important. The attitudes and motivation towards learning,



teaching, school and target language affect the achievement level in foreign language learning (McDonough and Shaw 1998). Among all language skills speaking is accepted as the most difficult one. Because of this while students are improving their speaking skills; communication with others is likely to create anxiety (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1994). Foreign language learning anxiety takes its roots from the student, the teacher or the quality of education. Personal problems of language learner, communication difficulties, low self-esteem, fear of identity loss, rivalry, unrealistic beliefs and expectations towards learning cause anxiety. Unfair and wrong behavior of some teachers is among the factors which cause anxiety (Young 1992). Williams and Andrade (2008) state that language anxiety is often associated with the performance of productive skills. He also claims that tests and the learner perceived relationship with their teacher also contribute to the learners' language anxiety (Bailey 1983 as cited in Na 2007).

Horwitz et al. (1986) have developed Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) as they realized the profound effects of anxiety on many aspects of foreign language learning. They claim that it is important to be able to identify those students who are particularly anxious in foreign language classes. The scale has commonly been used in various studies (Maeng 2007; Arnaiz and Guillén 2012; Ay 2010; Elkhafifi 2005; Wörde 2003; Salim 2004; Bekleyen 2004; Batumlu 2006; Na 2007). Some studies were conducted to indicate the level of anxiety of elementary school, secondary school and high school students by using FLCAS developed by Horwitz et al. (1986). Maeng (2007) studied with 167 primary school students and identified communication anxiety of the students specially emphasized on speaking skills. Ay (2011) examined foreign language anxiety of 160 young adolescent Turkish students who were learning English as a foreign language in relation to language skills at different levels. FLCAS (1986) was used to collect data and results showed that the foreign language anxiety experienced by young adolescent students differs in relation to levels of instruction and to basic language skills. Chan and Wu (2004) used FLCAS, interviews, classroom observations in order to obtain and suggest possible solutions to elementary students' foreign language learning anxiety. In Taiwan 601 fifth grade students answered FLCAS and among them 18 high anxious students and 9 teachers had a semi structured interview besides classroom observations to explore the possible sources and anxiety-provoking situations. It was found that low proficiency, fear of negative evaluation, competition of games, anxious personality, and pressure from students themselves and their parents were sources of language anxiety. Tests, speaking in front of others, spelling, incomprehensible input, and speaking to native speakers were said to be anxiety-provoking situations. Oner and Gedikoglu (2007) determined a negative correlation between Turkish secondary school students' foreign language anxiety levels and their English learning academic successes. Na (2007) revealed that Chinese students had comparatively high anxiety in learning English and high anxiety plays a somewhat debilitating role in high school students' language learning. In the study it was also shown that male learners had higher anxiety of English classes than females. Piniel (2006) found that Hungarian secondary school 9<sup>th</sup> grade students' foreign language learning anxiety may occur regardless of low levels of trait anxiety. Teacher was a significant factor in influencing students' levels of foreign language learning anxiety.

When the researches above are reviewed, researchers focus on the effects of anxiety in language classrooms with respect to different variables such as success, gender or skills development. Despite the extensive literature in the area, there has not been much research that probes a potential association between age and foreign language learning anxiety.

Age in foreign language learning is considered to be an important factor and children learn a foreign language faster and easier than an adult (Cekic 2002; Krashen and Terrell 1983) but

what philosophy to use and which theories to conduct are the issues which are still being discussed (Mirici 2001). Sarigul (2000) asserts that by getting older students experience foreign language learning anxiety and added that the younger the age they were, the less they were affected by the harmful effects of foreign language learning anxiety. When a child is young s/he isn't able to perceive and control herself/himself well. They aren't afraid of making mistakes like adults. This leads them to adapt learning environments better (Brown 1994; Sarigul 2000). According to Brustal (1974) when children are learning a foreign language, they don't have a negative attitude towards the language and its rules so the barrier in front of language learning is deleted spontaneously and children learn a foreign language easily. It is safe to state that learning a language easily may prevent anxiety. Krashen and Terrell (1983) claim that after puberty effective filter starts to develop causing some limitations in the process of language learning. Similar to Krashen and Terrell, Littlewood (1988) reports that there is a critical age period when brain is more flexible that makes learning easier. This period ends up with puberty, with adulthood natural capacity of language learning is lost and language learning becomes an artificial process. As this is not seen in young learners, it may cause anxiety by getting older. He also emphasizes that age factor and brain development are effective in language learning. Beck (1997) compared young and adult learners' foreign language learning process and states that children have a special capacity of learning languages but this capacity disappears by getting older. When Beck (1997) examined brain maps of people who know two languages, he found that there were striking differences between ages. He claimed that children put the foreign language in the same place with their native language in their brains whereas adults placed them separately. Having a capacity of learning a foreign language at an early age would make learning easy and stop experiencing anxiety in the process.

As age is mentioned to be one of the important factors of foreign language learners this study aims at investigating the level of foreign language learning anxiety between the ages of 10 to 18, and reveals the sources of foreign language learning anxiety of Turkish children with some possible practical solutions.

## **2. Methodology**

### **2.1. Participants**

The participants of the study were 544 students at the ages of 10 and 18 from different schools obtained with convenience sampling. 22.1 % of the students were from elementary schools, 32.1% from secondary schools and 45.8% from high schools. In addition, 2 elementary, 2 secondary and 2 high school teachers also took part in the research.

### **2.2. Instruments**

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative data was collected. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) which was developed by Horwitz et.al. (1986) was administered in order to collect quantitative data. It was considered by several researchers as a "valid" and "credible" measuring instrument (Aida 1994; Horwitz 1986; Price 1991). The internal reliability achieved an alpha coefficient of 0.93 with all items producing significant corrected item total scale correlations and test- retest reliability over 8 weeks yielded the correlation coefficient 0.83( $p < .0001$ ). The adaptation of FLCAS for Turkish students was done by Aydin (1999). Batumlu (2006) did the reliability study with 150 university students and found internal reliability alpha coefficient of the scale as 0.90. In this scale, there were 33 question items and a 5-point scale ranging from "strongly agree" (5 points) to "strongly disagree" (1 point). Each anxiety score was gained by summing the ratings of the thirty-three items. The theoretical range of this scale was from 33 to 165. The higher the total points

were, the more anxious the student was. As the validity of FLCAS was done by Aydin (1999), no validity search was conducted in this study. The scale was used with 544 elementary, secondary and high school students in total and the reliability coefficient of the scale was found 0.78. For collecting qualitative research data, a semi structured interview was organized and 6 volunteer elementary, secondary and high school teachers; 2 from each level; were interviewed about the factors of language anxiety.

### 2.3. Procedure and data analysis

Two elementary schools, two secondary schools, two high schools were visited to conduct FLCAS. From each school, the scale was conducted to randomly select two classes and from each class volunteer students filled the scale. From 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> grades the data was collected from 120 students. From 6<sup>th</sup> to 8<sup>th</sup> grades 175 students and from 9<sup>th</sup> to 12<sup>th</sup> grades 249 students participated to the study. In the study 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> grades were categorized as elementary, 6<sup>th</sup> to 8<sup>th</sup> classes as secondary and 9<sup>th</sup> to 12<sup>th</sup> classes as high school.

The collected data was analyzed by using SPSS 12. There was no normal distribution among students' foreign language learning anxiety scores and their ages ( $p < .05$ ). Consequently, the non-parametric test of Kruskal Wallis H Test was administered.

### 3. Findings

The findings of the study are as follows:

Table 1. *The comparison of FL anxiety scores and elementary, secondary and high school grades*

		Foreign Language Learning Anxiety						Kruskal Wallis H Test			Paired comp.
		N	Mean	Med	Min	Max	SS	Mean Rank	H	p	
Grades	4-5 <sup>th</sup> grades Elementary	120	83,5	80,5	43,0	145,0	23,1	219,2	93,089	0,000*	1-3 2-3
	6-7-8 <sup>th</sup> grades Secondary	175	81,2	81,0	36,0	153,0	22,9	208,5			
	9-10-11- 12 <sup>th</sup> grades High school	249	107,9	110	38,0	161,0	31,5	343,1			
	Total	544	93,9	91,0	36,0	161,0	30,1				

\* $p < 0,05$

Table 2. *The comparison of FL anxiety scores and ages*

		Foreign Language Learning Anxiety						Kruskal Wallis H Test			Paired comp.
		N	Mean	Med.	Min	Max	SS	Mean Rank	H	p	
Ages	Age 10	59	83,2	81	51	145	21,4	216,7	116,390	0,000*	4-6
	Age 11	61	83,9	78,0	43	136	24,8	221,6			4-9
	Age 12	54	72,3	70,0	36	115	19,4	159,0			4-10
	Age 13	63	83,6	81,0	39	145	23,9	222,2			4-11
	Age 14	58	86,8	86,5	45	153	22,6	239,8			4-12
	Age 15	65	105,5	112,0	40	159	36,2	325,6			5-6
	Age 16	66	102,7	106,5	38	158	29,8	320,8			5-9
	Age 17	58	102,9	99,5	41	161	31,3	317,3			5-10
	Age 18	60	121,1	128,5	47	155	24,2	411,7			5-11
	Total	544	93,9	91,0	36	161	30,1				

\* $p < 0,05$

As is seen above there was no significant difference between anxiety scores among grades statistically ( $p < 0,05$ ). The anxiety score of 18 year olds was significantly higher than the other grades. The 17 year olds' anxiety scores were higher than 10 and 14 year old students. The 12 year olds' anxiety scores were significantly lower than other grades. The anxiety scores of 15 and 16 year old students were significantly higher than 10, 11, 13 and 14 year old students.

### 3.1. Interview with Teachers

Six volunteer foreign language teachers, who were interviewed, had 5-10 year experience in foreign language classrooms. Two teachers were teaching at elementary school with students of 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> graders. The other two of them were teaching to 6<sup>th</sup> to 8<sup>th</sup> graders and 2 of them were teaching to 9<sup>th</sup> to 12<sup>th</sup> graders. The teachers were coded as T1, T2, T3 so on.

The interview started with ‘Do you think you have anxious students in your class? If yes, what causes this anxiety and what do you do to decrease it?’ The analyses of the interviews were stated below.

### **3.2. Interview with Elementary School Teachers (4<sup>th</sup>-5<sup>th</sup> Grades)**

Two teachers were interviewed and they mostly pointed out that they didn’t have major anxiety behaviors during the lessons and they supported this with the sample quotations as follows;

‘We had only 3 hours of English lessons a week. The curriculum is not loaded and it is suitable for their age. I usually use games in the class so this attracts their attention. They really enjoy them. This may be one of the reasons of not having anxiety during language classes’ (T1).

‘They enjoy learning new things and a new culture. They all seem to be interested in. The tests do not seem hard to them as their scores are satisfactory enough. This is an indication that they do not experience anxiety in language classes’ (T2).

Mc Donough (1989), stated that Chomsky’s language acquisition device in brain never hinders children’s language learning and added that children are the best examples in language learning. The students’ ages were between 10 and 12 so without any barriers in their brains, learning became an easy process. When there was no hardness in learning, there wouldn’t be anxiety. The world of children was very different from adults so the experts had crucial mission in foreign language teaching to young learners. A foreign language teacher should be aware of child psychology and she/he should know that inserting games, stories, songs or charades in teaching languages process accelerated children’s language learning adventure (Angi 1999). It should be kept in mind that foreign language can only be constructed on native language. Foreign language learning achievement was closely connected with the maturity of native language development (Kotil 2002). Because these students were mature enough in their native language, they might not experience anxiety much.

### **3.3. Interview with Secondary School Teachers (6<sup>th</sup>-8<sup>th</sup> Grades)**

Two teachers mentioned that they have anxious students in their classrooms and they realized that this occurs much in the exams. Some quotations from secondary school language teachers are as in the following;

‘The course is 4 hours a week and the students seem that they enjoy the course book but they are sometimes unsuccessful in the exams. For me, this is an indication of anxiety’ (T3).

‘Whenever they watch a video related to the course topic they become more productive. Even the most silent one says something. This encourages the students and they do not experience anxiety. I also prefer pair work, in fact it is less noisy and more productive. The students rely on each other and this may be a factor decreases anxiety of learning English’ (T4).

‘I feel sympathy towards English culture and teaching English. I give authentic examples. I think this motivates my students and reduce their anxiety of learning a new language’ (T4).

According to the obtained results secondary school students didn’t have anxiety as much as high school students. The methods used in the classroom, the attitude of the teacher towards the students or as their ages were between 12-14 which was the very beginning of adolescent age, were factors decreases anxiety in the class. The adolescent age was still under discussion. Biologically it began at 10 but some social factors could affect this so it could be

accepted as 12. In contrast to critical age hypothesis it seemed that although the students were at the adolescent period they didn't have much difficulty in learning a foreign language in accordance with that their anxiety level was low.

The teachers mentioned that their students were motivated enough in learning a new language and they saw this as a positive factor in decreasing anxiety. This view overlapped with Krashen and Terrell (1983) affective filter hypothesis. According to them students with high motivation could generally learn better. The ones with high confidence were more successful and the learners with low anxiety level learn a foreign language easier than the ones with high anxiety.

### **3.4. Interview with High School Teachers (9<sup>th</sup> to 12<sup>th</sup> Grades)**

In Turkey, at high schools there are foreign language lessons 9 hours a week for 9<sup>th</sup> grades and for 10<sup>th</sup> to 12<sup>th</sup> graders lessons are 4 hours a week. Two teachers who were teaching to 15-18 year olds asserted that they observed students who had the feeling of anxiety in their classrooms. They put forward their point of views about foreign language learning anxiety as follows;

'Although I try hard I sometimes cannot reach calling their attention. They think that English is the course that should be put aside as there are others that are more important. As they do not deal much with this course they cannot achieve in the exams so this leads to failure anxiety. Especially 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> graders' university entrance exam anxiety reflects on not only English lessons but rest of all courses' (T5).

'9<sup>th</sup> graders are more interested in English than others. It is the only time with the biggest amount of time for language classes, 10 hours a week. It should be the same for every grade, otherwise they forget English gradually they pass classes. Forgetting could be a reason of experiencing anxiety in language classrooms' (T5).

'The students always want me to ask simple questions in the exam. This is an evidence of exam anxiety. This arises from their lack of knowledge and leads to anxiety. Although they seem they like English, they do not give importance to English courses' (T6).

According to the results, the highest level of anxiety was experienced by high school students. Anxiety was accepted destructive in language learning (Abu-Rabia 2004; Matsuda and Gobel 2004; Spielmann and Radnofsky 2001). Bailey (1983) asserted that students with anxiety were in tendency of not contributing to the lessons, coming to the class without any preparation and avoiding making eye contact with the teacher. Oxford (1999) defined anxiety as the source of failure not the result. Negative effects of language anxiety would decrease when language level rises with less undesirable experience. The researchers put forward the reasons of anxiety which were similar to the teachers' opinions. MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) argued that, the increase in anxiety would result in with a negative effect on student's performance and language learning.

The students' ages were between 15 and 18, which was the age of adolescence. According to Krashen and Terrell (1983) it was the time when the effective filter process started and the time when critical age Littlewood (1988) finished when brain lost its plasticity and learning a foreign language became harder.

## **4. Discussion and Conclusion**

Young learners in language classes are considered to be more successful learners of foreign languages than adolescents. It is believed that since young learners have lower level of affective filter and thus their anxiety level should be lower as well (Krashen and Terrell 1983, Krashen 1985). However it is also believed that culture is one of the most influential

factors in the educational procedure (Gollnick and Chinn 2002, Bennett 2003). However, the results of the study show that the culture of the Turkish children did not have any influence in their English classes in that as they get older their level of anxiety rises too just like in any other educational settings in different parts of the world.

The results also showed that high school students between 15 and 18 showed higher anxiety level than secondary and elementary school students. The critical age period might be the reason of high anxiety level as with the beginning of adolescence language learning became harder and this led to anxiety in language classroom. For teachers the course hours of language lessons should be the same for every level. They thought it was an important component in providing motivation to language learning. The higher motivation was, the least anxiety was. Another point was that when the course hour was less in 10<sup>th</sup> to 12<sup>th</sup> grades, this was perceived as an unimportant course among students and this led them study languages less than other courses. As a result of this, when they felt that they would fail they had exam anxiety which reflected on the whole course as foreign language learning anxiety. At this point, for the policy makers it could be suggested that from elementary till the end of high school, the foreign language course hours should be stabilized in order not to lose the attention of the students towards foreign languages.

The secondary school students' anxiety scores were as low as elementary school students. Although these students' ages were between 12 and 14 which was the period of adolescence they didn't have anxiety level as much as high school students. There was a contradiction with literature as they were at the age of puberty when learning became somewhat an artificial process, they enjoyed learning and didn't experience anxiety. Secondary school students' anxiety scores were as low as elementary students. This could be accepted as a pleasing result which should be turned into an advantage. With students with low anxiety level, teachers could enrich their learning. Teachers could perform better in classes with low anxiety level. They should make their classes attractive for the learners by making a well-organized lesson plan, by choosing the most appropriate method, technique or strategy, by using proper materials and by applying the suitable activities. They may arrange learning environments which were suitable for the learners' ages. Teachers' awareness of the developmental stages and psychology of their students was another crucial point. Their positive attitude towards foreign language learning could also facilitate learning.



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## **POSITION OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN PROVIDING HEALTH EDUCATION AND PROMOTION OF HEALTH LITERACY**

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## POSITION OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN PROVIDING HEALTH EDUCATION AND PROMOTION OF HEALTH LITERACY

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### Abstract

This research aims to find out the condition of public primary schools in Manavgat, Antalya in terms of social health care and the learning needs of parents about this issue. The universe of this research that is in screen model comprises public primary schools in Manavgat. In data analysis, frequency, percentage and chi square techniques were used. The majority of parents who did not take any education about the health education which affect student success are willing to take an education like that. Nearly half of these parents prefer to take this education at the weekends in the daytime and one third of them prefer this education on weekdays in the daytime.

*Keywords:* Health Education, Health Literacy, Student Success, Parent Education

### 1. Introduction

Schools in Turkey are hosting 20 millions of school children (pre-school, primary and middle schools) which constitutes significant portion of Turkey's population (Ministry of National Education, 2012). Schools are the most important elements of education system since they satisfy educational needs of a social and economic environment. Basic function of school in an education system is to ensure that students gain desired behaviors and to arrange appropriate environment to accomplish this objective (Taymaz, 2003, 4).

The first article of the 222<sup>nd</sup> of the Primary Education Law describes the Primary Education as an institution which provides service to students for their physical, intellectual and moral developments.

One of the factors which have been observed that it has an impact on students' academic success and their moral and physical development considered as other expected tasks of schools is health literacy. The significance of health literacy concept has been increased in both education and in health disciplines. The concept is defined differently in medical and educational sciences:

Health literacy is a personal capacity regarding acquisition, evaluation and comprehension of basic health knowledge and services; and personal competency to use these sorts of information in terms of betterment of health (Marx *at al.*, 2007, 158).

Health literacy is the degree of personal comprehension concerning health related information and services to make right decisions about their health. Health literacy is supportive tool in regard to social skills and personal development areas such as self-confidence (US. Department of Health and Human Services, 2010).

In health literacy, a three-stage hierarchy is suggested (Nutbeam, 2000, 263-264):

- (Level 1): Communication of basic/ functional health literacy - information,
- (Level 2): Development of communication/interactive health literacy-personal skills,
- (Level 3): Critical health literacy- personal strengthening /authorization and group strengthening / authorization.

Functional health literacy (level 1) includes transmitting of basic information hygiene, nutrition, safety, drugs, relationships, sexuality, and parenthood. For example, classes, books and brochures. Interactive health literacy (level 2) includes development of personal skills in personal problem solving, cooking, hygiene, and communication. For example, small study groups at school, analysis of the current health problems and discussion homework. Critical health literacy (level 3) includes learning opportunities in classroom and society to consider social injustices, health determinants, policy development efforts, and ways to influence the change (e.g. participation into the school society discussions which handle current policy and applications selected by students (Leger, 2001, 201).

Application of these skills are not only enable students to increase their academic success, but also to help them to have mental, social, emotional, and physical health which are important in appreciating all opportunities and in overcoming all challenges which they may encounter along with their lives. Healthy students learn better and these students establish healthy societies (Marx *et al.*, 2007, 157).

Some researches reveal that there is a positive strong correlation between poor health and success in education (Lavin, Shapiro & Well, 1992; Devaney,, Thornton, Fasciano & Gavin., 1993; Igoe, 1993; World Bank, 1993; WHO, 1996a; Leger, 2001, 198). Low level of health literacy skill makes strong contribution individuals' health. According to the Institute of Medicine, low level of health literacy has more significant impact on personal health compared to factors of age, income level, occupation, education level, and race (Ickes and Cottrell, 2010, 492).

The general literacy rate in Turkey is above 88%; while the rate among women is 80.4% and among men is 96% (Turkey Statistics Agency, 2012). However, the average education year per person is 5.97 (among men 7.01 years, and women 4.96 years) is quite low than the western countries (Turkish Census and Health Research, 2008). There are few researches in Turkey in the area of health literacy. However, when the fact that the average education period is 5.97, years/person is considered, it can be deducted that health literacy level must be rather low.

Although provision of health education at school has essential importance regarding physical, mental and moral development of students, some researches reveal that the health education provided at schools in Turkey is not sufficient. It was understood that parents who make significant amount of sacrifice and spending for academic success, do not pay required attention to health literacy which has impact on children's physical, moral and social development in addition to their academic success. This situation suggests that school administrations and parents do not comprehend significance of health education services in students' physical, mental and moral development.

In order to gain more word and to take over more responsibility on students' education is only possible for parents to acquire sufficient and accurate information about education. If the importance and functionality of health literacy are appreciated and known at schools, perhaps they would not have disregarded. Negligence of health education suggests that school administrations and parents are not aware of this issue.

The starting point of adult education is need. Being aware of their needs and knowing whether adults are aware of their needs are essential in terms of adult education. Therefore, there is requirement to determine educational needs in the initial stage of adult education.

Based on this information, the research subject is consisted of determination of position of public primary schools in Manavgat County of Antalya Province regarding provision of health education and examination of learning requirements of parents concerning this subject

## **2.Method**

### **2.1. Research Model**

The research is a descriptive study using screening model and aims to reveal current position of public primary schools operating under the Ministry of National Education and located in Manavgat Country of Antalya Province in terms of provision of health education based on the views of parents and school principals and to determine learning needs of parents concerning this subject.

#### **2.1.1. Research Population**

The universe of the research was consisted of parents of the students who were attending to the public primary schools in Manavgat County of Antalya Province. Within the universe of the research, there were 10 public primary schools. These public primary schools include 13,928 student parents and 44 school administrators (manager, assistant manager) (Ministry of National Education, 2012).

#### **2.1.2. Research Sampling**

Following the research universe description, all of the schools were included in the research sampling based on the school districts. While constructing parent sampling, the “Stratified Sampling” method was used. Accordingly, each school’s share within the total based on the number of students was found first; and a sampling group was taken from each school according to this rate (Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz & Demirel, 2010, 85-86). It is paid attention that the sampling was covering several student parents from various classes so that sampling was conducted through disproportionate element sampling approach.

In determination of sampling size, hypothetical sampling size scheme was utilized for universes in different sizes. Based on this scheme, sampling size was determined for student parents. It can be seen that 13,928 student parents can be represented by 384 samples according to the scheme for 95% reliability level and for 5% deviation rate (Balçı, 2001, 107). As this scale was taken into account, number of parent which would be included into the sampling was determined as 384. In each school, number of students’ parent was determined as its proportion to the total number of parent from all schools.

Number of student parents who were included in the research sampling was selected through impartial stratified sampling method by taking student lists from each school to determine each school’s proportion to the total number of students. While number of student parent which was planned to be included in the research sampling was 384, number of respondent was 349 (90.88%). When we look at the distribution of the respondents according to the schools, it was observed that there were 35 parents who did not fill out the inquiry form and these forms were not taken into the consideration.

#### **2.1.3. Development of the data collection tool**

A survey was developed by the researcher to determine views of parents who have children studying at the public primary schools operating under the Ministry of National

Education and located in Manavgat County Municipality of Antalya Province and school principals concerning health literacy.

Survey questions regarding “health literacy” were prepared by the researcher based on the health literacy and scales in the literature (Leger, 1999; Leger, 2001; Nutbeam, 2000; Brown, Teufel & Birch, 2007; World Health Organization, 2009; World Health Organization, 2011; Marks *et al.*, 2007). The scale draft was submitted for critics of specialists. According to their views, some questions were rewritten by taking some factors such as comprehensibility, clarity and grammar rules into consideration. Thus, the scale draft was prepared for preliminary application. The designated scale is consisted of choices of “Yes”, “No” and “preliminary”. In the present section, there are open-ended questions as well.

The draft inquiry form was submitted to the specialists for coverage and facial validity evaluation. The draft was rearranged in terms of life-long learning and adult education, education management policy according to the opinions of specialist in the field of research and measurement evolution. Moreover, opinion of a group of parents was taken into consideration. Along with the specialists’ opinions, some expressions were rewritten due to some principles such as comprehensibility, distinctiveness, and grammar rules. Therefore, draft scale was prepared for preliminary application.

A preliminary inquiry application was conducted to measure validity and reliability of the Health Literacy. The preliminary application was applied to the schools which would not affect the schools in which the essential study would be carried on. An inquiry form was distributed to 33 parents whose children were attending to the public primary schools; and then these 33 responding were taken into consideration.

The inquiry form was re-evaluated for conceptual validity by the specialist persons (face validity) ( Balci, 2005). According to this evaluation result, few of the expressions were dismissed while some other was being added into the inquiry; some expressions were amended due to the suggestions of specialists so as to give the final form to the inquiry form.

The draft inquiry form was re-arranged based on the opinions of the specialist in the areas of life-long learning and adult education, education management and policy, research and statistics; and opinions of a group of parents were taken into consideration as well.

It was planned to collect data through interviews. For this application, an inquiry form copy and a copy of permission taken from the city directorship of national education was left to the school directorships. The appointments for the interview process with the parents were determined over telephone calls for dates of 21<sup>st</sup> June and 6<sup>th</sup> September 2011; and the interview was conducted with the parents who came to the school on designated dates. For parents who were not able to come to the school, a field visit was arranged to interview them in their house or in the place found appropriate by them. The inquiry was applied as an interview. After relevant explanation, school managers and student parents were asked to fill out the inquiry form.

### **3. Data Analysis**

Acquired views of parents and school principals were evaluated based on their frequencies and percentages.

### **4. Findings**

This section is consisted of findings and assessments of answers given by school principals, parents and other student relatives to the questions regarding health literacy.



Table 1: Demographic information regarding guardians or parents of students covered in the research

Characteristic	f	%
<b>Age (<math>\bar{x} = 40.02</math>)</b>		
-25	4	1.1
26-30	23	6.6
31-35	54	15.5
36-40	122	35.0
41-45	84	24.0
46+	62	17.8
Unanswered	54	15.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>349</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Are you the Children</b>		
Mother	180	51.6
Father	158	45.3
Grandmother	4	1.1
Grandfather	2	0.6
Another relative of children	4	1.1
Unanswered	1	0.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>349</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Educational Status</b>		
Illiterate	9	2.6
Literate	13	3.7
Primary School	154	44.1
Secondary School	35	10.0
High School	68	19.5
College	25	7.2
University	38	10.9
Graduate School	7	2.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>349</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Marital Status</b>		
Married	327	93.7
Widow	6	1.7
Single	6	1.7
Divorced	10	2.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>349</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Number Of Children</b>		
1	36	10.3
2	174	49.9
3	98	28.1
4	22	6.3
5	7	2.0
6 +	4	1.1
Unanswered	8	2.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>349</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Economic Status</b>		
Very Good	15	4.3
Good	80	22.9

Average	174	49.9
Bad	46	13.2
Very Bad	33	9.4
Unanswered	1	0.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>349</b>	<b>100.0</b>

As it can be seen from the Table 1, in terms of their ages, while 1.1% of the parents or relatives of the students within the research coverage were 25 and younger, 6.6% of them were in the range of 26-30, 15.5% of them were in the range of 31-35, and 35% of them in 36-40, 24% of them in 41-45, and 17.8% of them were 46 and older.

From the Table 1, it was stated that 51.6% of the respondents were mother of the students, 45.3% of them were father of the students, 1.1% of them were grandmother of the students, 0.6% of them were grandfather of the students, and 1.1% of the respondents were another relative of the students. While 2.6% of the respondents were illiterate, 3.7% of them were only literate with no any graduation, 44.1% of them were graduated from a primary school, 10% of them secondary school graduate, 19.5% of them were graduated from a high school, 7.2% of them were graduated from a college, 10.9% of them were graduated from a university, and 2% of them were holding a master degree.

As 93.7% of the respondents were married, 1.7% of them were widowed, 1.7% of them were single, and 2.9% of them were divorced. When the respondents were asked about their economic conditions, 4.3% of them answered as “very good”, 22.9% were answered as “good”, 49.9% of them were answered as “average”, 13.2% of them were answered as “bad”, and 9.5% of them were answered as “very bad”.

#### 4.1. Positions of Schools in Provision of Health Education

Table 2. *Distribution of answers given by school principals to the question of “Have teachers at your school taken first-aid training?”*

Yes		No		Total	
f	%	f	%	f	%
9	90.0	10	10.0	10	100

When the Table 2 is considered, it is seen that 90% of the answers were “Yes”, and 10% of them were “No”.

Table 3. *Distribution of answers given by school principals to the question of “In the last 12 months, has your school provided any health training to parents of students?”*

Yes		No		Total	
f	%	f	%	f	%
3	30.0	7	70.0	10	100

As it can be seen in Table 3, parents have been given health training in three out of ten schools; no training has been given in seven of ten schools.

Table 4. *Distribution of answers to the question of “Have you given any training at your child’s school regarding environmental impacts (e.g. nutrition, hygiene, and safe environment) on your child’s success?”*

Yes		No		Unanswered		Total	
f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
28	8.1	257	73.6	64	18.3	349	100

When the Table 4 is considered, it is seen that 8.1% of the parents said “Yes”, 73.6% of them said “No”, and 18.3% did not answer this question.

#### 4.3. Whether the Parents Need Health Training

Table 5. *Distribution of answers to the question of “Would you like to receive training at your child’s school regarding the environmental factors affecting student success?”*

Yes		No		Unanswered		Total	
f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
237	67.9	33	9.5	79	22.6	349	100

According to the Table 5, it can be seen that while 67.9% of the participants responded “Yes” to this question, 9.5% said “No”; and 22.6% did not answer.

Table 6. *Distribution of answers to the question of “When would you like to have training at your child’s school regarding factors affecting student success?”*

Weekdays Morning		Weekend Morning		Weekdays Afternoon		Weekend Afternoon	
f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
85	35.5	115	48.5	20	8.4	18	8.5

According to Table 6, 34.2% of the respondents preferred weekday morning, 46.4% of them preferred weekend morning, 10.8% preferred weekdays afternoon, and 8.5% preferred weekend afternoon.

Table 7. *Distribution of answers to the question of “Do you find foods sold in the student cafeteria healthy?”*

Yes		No		No Idea		Total	
f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
68	20.4	181	54.4	84	25.2	333	100

When Table 7 is considered, 20.4% of the respondents said “Yes” to this question, 54.4% said “No”, and 25.2% said “No idea”.

Table 8. *The parents who said “Yes” to the question of “Do you find foods sold in the student cafeteria healthy?” were asked about reasons of their point of view. Distribution of their answers was exhibited in the table below:*

	<b>f</b>	<b>%</b>
1. Cafeteria staff treats sensitive to this issue	30	32.97
2. Cafeteria is inspected by the county agricultural directorship	21	23.08
3. The school administration inspects frequently	21	23.08
4. Children say there are good food sold in the cafeteria	12	13.19
5. Unhealthy foods (chips, soda etc.) are not sold in the cafeteria	2	2.20
6. Food sold are in packages	5	5.49

According to Table 8, while 32.97% of the respondents indicated that “Cafeteria personnel’s sensitive approach to this issue”, 23.08% said “Cafeteria is inspected by the county agricultural directorship” and another 23.08% said “The school administration inspects frequently”; 2.20% said “Unhealthy foods (chips, soda etc.) are not sold in the cafeteria”, and 5.49% said “Food sold are in packages”.

Table 9. *Distribution of answers to the question of “Why don’t you find the food sold in the student cafeteria healthy?”*

	<b>f</b>	<b>%</b>
1. All foods are pre-packaged and they contain additives	57	30.32
2. Cheap and low quality food are sold	45	23.94
3. Hygiene is not paid attention sufficiently	41	21.81
4. Out-dated foods are sold	28	14.89
5. Employees view this only commercial point of view	14	7.45
6. Poor hygiene inspection	1	0.53
7. No idea	2	1.06

When Table 9 is considered, it can be seen that while 30.32% respondents said that “all foods are pre-packaged and they contain additives”, 23.94% said that “cheap and low quality food are sold”; 0.53% said “poor hygiene inspection” and 1.06% said “no idea”.

Table 10. *Distribution of answers to the question of “If you do not find foods sold in the school cafeteria healthy, what would parents do to make them healthy?”*

	<b>f</b>	<b>%</b>
1. Employees are required to be inspected periodically by the parent-teacher association.	45	28.90
2. Students’ awareness about healthy nutrition is required to be raised by their parents.	44	28.20
3. Parents are required to cooperate with school administration.	27	17.30
4. Home-made foods can be offered.	18	11.50
5. No idea	11	7.10
6. We cannot interfere in as an outsider.	10	5.38
7. Foods sold are required be inspected individually.	1	0.60

According to Table 10, while 28.2% of participants said “Students’ awareness about healthy nutrition is required to be raised by their parents”, 28.9% said “Employees are required to be inspected periodically by the parent-teacher association”; 0.06% said “Foods

sold are required be inspected individually” and 11.5% said “Home-made foods can be offered”.

**Table 11.** *Distribution of answers to question of “if you do not find foods sold in the school cafeteria healthy, in your opinion, what should 1) school administration, 2) teachers, and 3) Ministry of National Education do about this issue?”*

	<b>f</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>School administration</b>		
1. School administration needs to ban sales of unhealthy food	111	61.67
2. School administration must take parents’ opinions into consideration	36	20.0
3. School administration must assign a vice manager in charge of school cafeteria	20	11.11
4. No idea about what the school administration could do	8	4.44
5. School administration must cooperate with contractor of the school cafeteria	5	2.78
<b>Teachers</b>		
1. Teachers need to raise awareness of students and parents regarding the issue	107	63.31
2. No idea about what teachers could do	36	21.30
3. Hall monitors must be authorized to make inspection any time	26	15.38
<b>Ministry of National Education</b>		
1. School cafeterias should not be given to contractors determined by central tenders carried out by the Ministry of National Education; instead, they must be given to the contractors determined by parent-teacher association.	65	35.91
2. Ministry of National Education must apply school cafeteria code of conduct and discharge contractors doing inappropriate actions	55	30.39
3. The National Education Ministry must perform strict inspections	50	27.6
4. No idea	22	12.2

When Table 11 is considered, concerning the school administration subject, while 61.67% of the parents were of the opinion that “school administration needs to ban sales of unhealthy food in the school cafeteria”, 2.78% think that “School administration must cooperate with contractor of the school cafeteria”. Concerning the teacher subject, while 63.31% of parents think that “teachers need to raise awareness of students and parents regarding the issue”, 15.38% of them think that “Hall monitors must be authorized to make inspection any time”. Concerning the National Education Ministry subject, while 35.91% of parents claim that “School cafeterias should not be leased by the contractors determined by central tenders carried out by the National Education Ministry; and instead, they must be leased by the contractors determined by parent-teacher association; 30.39% think that “the National Education Ministry must apply school cafeteria code of conduct and discharge contractors doing inappropriate actions”.

Table 12. *Distribution of answers to the question of “If you do not find foods sold in the school cafeteria healthy, in your opinion, what would municipalities do to make them more healthy?”*

	f	%
1. They must inspect and serious fines must be applied.	117	71.78
2. No idea	21	12.88
3. Municipalities have nothing to do with this issue.	11	6.75
4. They must provide financial support.	14	8.59

According to Table 12, while 71.78% of parents said “they must be inspected”, 6.75% of them said “municipalities have nothing to do with the subject”.

## 5. Results and Conclusion

In the research, it was revealed that almost all of teachers have received first-aid training. However, according to the observations, school principals meant the first-aid training given during driver license courses. In his study, Karabayır (2004) reported that 57.9% of school principals expressed that they had received training about first-aid. While training studies on regulations were 29.2% of the over all activities in the in-service training plan framework of 1993, budget-investment and equipment-tools subjects were only 10.88%. These results indicate deficiency of teachers and principals in the subject of first-aid. Health education provided by teachers can have immediate impact on students and effect students’ behaviors until their adulthood (McGinnis, 1992; Nutbeam, 1992; Nutbeam, 1998). It is strongly possible that healthy students outperform than others (Lavin, Shapiro & Well, 1994); and their learning process can be more extensive, quick and fun. After witnessing these advantages, it can be surprising to face reluctance regarding admitting significance of health education readily. First-aid knowledge is not only important in terms of students’ health, but also, it is important extra scholastic life as well. Basic first-aid training is required to be an obligation for school personnel (Rhode Island Department of Health, 2009, 32).

According to Çakır (2005), the fact that there are only 8 health district branches (8.6%) that provide health training to teachers and that these training activities are not on regular base indicates deliberately that parents and teacher factors which have significant roles in basic education are omitted. Research results reported by Bulduk (2002) support this finding. However, if health personnel provide training parents and teachers simultaneously, students who receive basic health knowledge from the most trustworthy individuals at their early ages can conveniently internalize behaviors for healthy life. Professional health personnel must guide students in consolidation of gained behavior patterns by means of training provided so as to create new generations whose basic purpose is to live healthy.

In the schools under the research coverage, majority of school principals stated that they do not provide health training to parents in any subject. Nevertheless, one of the most important applications at schools regarding health services is “Health Training”. In the study of Karabayır (2004), women principals stated that effective health training can be provided by teachers and parents together. Parents are one of the target groups of social health services and also they are part of it. This result emphasizes significance of health training provided to parents.

Almost all of the students parents participated into the research indicated that there was no any training provided regarding environmental factors that have impact on student success. Additionally, almost all of school principals and parents answered “No” to the question of “Has any training been provided at your school regarding environmental factors (e.g. nutrition, hygiene, safe environment) affecting student success?” This answer suggests

that answers of school principles and parents were similar to each other. Another study supporting our findings in terms of importance of parents' training was suggested by Fişek (1959). According to this study, providing training to mothers affects children health in a positive way and plays significant role in reduction of child death rate (Dirican, 1990, 17). Schools are responsible for developing life-long learning skills. These education skills have essential importance to accommodate and overcome nutritional changes that can arise because of incidents in life such as an illness or sickness and understand, and to comprehend a discussion about a social issue, for instance genetically modified organisms.

Some researches reveal that students receive health knowledge from their parents. For example, according to study of Hekimoğlu and Ertunga (1990), 42.6% of students receive health related knowledge from their teachers, 26.1% of them receive from health personnel, 15.9% of them receive from parents and 15.4% of them receive from published materials and media. At this point, it is seen that although the authority belongs to the teachers in charge, parents also have great role in health education. Therefore, health personnel need to provide training to parents and their students simultaneously. According to the study of Yiğit (1990; 1991), which was conducted on mothers of 225 student attending a primary school, it was exposed that their knowledge concerning hand hygiene, dental health, nutrition order, nutrition of primary school students, infectious diseases, determination of conditions of health impairment and reasons for taking children to the health check-ups were usually insufficient (Yiğit, 1992). This result indicates their need for health training. According to the study conducted by Çakır (2005), the fact that there are only 8 health district health offices (8.6%) that provide health training program for teachers and irregular characteristics of these trainings reveal clearly that parent and teacher factors who have significant roles in the basic education of students are omitted. Research results reported by Bulduk (2002) also support this finding. Nevertheless, if health personnel provide training to students together with parents and teachers simultaneously, students who receive basic health knowledge from trustworthy individuals at their early ages would internalize healthy behavior patterns more conveniently.

Majority of parents stated that there was no training about environmental factors affecting student success; almost one fifth did not answer. Schools aim to elevate results of education to the highest possible levels for students. It is required to remind that essential activity of schools is education and their competency level regarding health issues are at the lowest profession level. Researches deliberately report that there are strong correlations between poor health and educational success (Lavin, Shapiro & Well, 1992; Devaney, Schochet, Thornton, Fasciano & Gavin, 1993; Igoe, 1993; World Bank, 1993; WHO, 1996b).

Whereas majority of parents do not find foods sold in the cafeteria healthy, almost one fifth of them have contrasting idea. One fourth of parents stated that they do not have any idea about this subject. As basic reasons to find cafeteria foods healthy, parents indicate their faith in cafeteria personnel's sensitivity and ongoing inspections.

As basic reasons not to find cafeteria foods healthy, parents indicate sales of artificial, pre-packaged, cheap and low quality foods, and lack of confidence in cafeteria personnel's hygiene understanding. It is also interesting that 13% of parents are of the opinion that there are expired foods are sold in the student cafeteria.

Almost one third of parents recommend that cafeteria employees should be inspected by parent-teacher organization at the school; and another one third recommends that awareness of students should be raised by their parents. The last proposal suggests that parents do not have sufficient knowledge about how healthy foods should be. If they should have known about healthy food, they would have informed their children about this issue.

Majority of parents expect from school principals to ban sales of unhealthy foods and to make cooperation with them; again, majority of parents expect from teachers to inform students about healthy food and to participate into inspection of school cafeterias; and almost all of parents expect from the MNE more strict rules and more inspection. Other studies reveal similar results that parents have the same point of views. For example, 64.1% of parents in Ohio stressed importance of not to sale chocolate, chips and soda in school cafeterias. 69.8% of the parents in Ohio consider teachers' role important in teaching benefits of healthy nutrition (Murnan, Price, Telljohann, Dake & Boardley, 2006). Opinions of these parents support parent participated into the present research.

Majority of parents who find foods sold in the school cafeteria unhealthy indicate that municipalities must be authorized to carry out inspection and to charge fines.

Nutrition is more sensitive for the students who shop from school cafeterias because of their ages compared to other groups. When the fact that majority of students shop from school cafeterias is taken into account, it can be seen that school cafeteria has significant place in nutrition of children in this age group (Gündoğan, 2008, 4). Since students supply almost one meal from school cafeterias daily, these places have primary place students' consumption patterns. It is required that nutritious, hygienic and packaged foods are sold in school cafeterias; and food sales should not be allowed in school garden without proper facility. Sanitation of schools and cafeterias are required to be inspected frequently and health check-ups of the cafeteria personnel must be implemented (İbili & Yıldız, 1999, 46). It is recommended that nutritious foods (low-fat foods, fruits and dairy products) should be sold in school cafeterias instead of food with no nutrition value (for example; cookies, candy bars, and potatoes chips etc.) or of with low nutrition value (e.g. soda and chocolate) in school cafeterias (Murnan, Price, Dake & Boardley, 2006, 502-511).

## **6.Suggestions**

- Schools can required to arrange training activities in the health subjects (e.g. nutrition, hygiene, safe environment and etc...) for parents to increase success of students at school based on needs analysis. This training must be provided at the appropriate times for parents.

- Ministry of National Education can required to ban sales of unhealthy and low nutritious food in cafeterias and to increase frequency of inspection of school cafeterias.

- Ministry of National Education can required to provide training to the contractors who operate school cafeteria in subjects of healthy food and hygiene.

-Ministry of National Education can required to provide training to teachers and school principals about health-related subjects (e.g. first-aid, nutrition, hygiene, safe environment and etc...) effective on student.



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## THE EFFECTS OF FORM-FOCUSED INSTRUCTION ON LOWER-INTERMEDIATE EFL IRANIAN LEARNERS' GRAMMAR LEARNING

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### Abstract

One of the most controversial questions raised by classroom second language acquisition (SLA) researchers is whether and how to include grammar in second language (L<sub>2</sub>) classrooms. This study tried to investigate how the form-focused instruction affects lower-intermediate EFL Iranian learners' grammar learning. Based on an experimental data collection and analysis, the study followed the pre-test and post-test design performed on 45 female participants at the pre-intermediate level. The pre-test was administered at the beginning of the course; then, the researcher divided the participants into two groups: experimental (FFI) and control group (traditional method). The researcher also used an observation checklist to ascertain if the teacher used the related items in classes. Afterwards, the researcher provided the frequency of observation of teachers' operations which showed differences between the FFI and the traditional instruction. After observing the teaching sessions, the researchers administered the same test as a post-test to both groups. The data were analyzed using independent t-test and paired t-test.

*Keywords:* form-focused Instruction (FFI); traditional Grammar Instruction.

### 1. Introduction

Researchers in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) usually confront the controversial issue if it is beneficial to learners to include grammar into SLA syllabus. Diller (1978) stated that in 1960s up to early 1970s, educational experts introduced form-focused instruction (FFI). Scholars discovered that second language learning resembles the first language acquisition in the sense that both appear to be a gradual process through which the learner perpetually learns to match form and meaning, to meet the communication needs. Similarly, Pawlak (2006) maintains that second language learning, like first language acquisition, is a sort of developmental process, following a pre-defined order.

Some researchers (e.g., Doughty, 1991) referred to the beneficial influences of FFI on second language instruction compared to other types of approaches to instruction. FFI in second language teaching was defined by Long (1991) as an attempt to shift attention towards linguistic units that are at the service of various meaning and functions in different contexts. Focus on forms instruction, however, as Long (ibid) maintains, instructs grammatical patterns separately without relating them to their meanings. This, unlike more recent educational methods which take meaning and function into account, is in close association with traditional methods of instruction, devoid of communicative functions.



As stated by Norris and Ortega (2000: 438), an L2 instructional approach is known as FFI when form and meaning are integrated for the following reasons: “designing tasks to promote learner engagement with meaning prior to form; seeking to attain and document task essentialness or naturalness of the L2 forms; attempting to ensure that instruction is unobtrusive; and documenting learner mental processes (i.e., noticing)”.

Furthermore, a number of studies carried out on FFI adding some criteria to the aforementioned ones, as follows: “selecting target form(s) by analysis of learners’ needs; or considering inter-language constraints when choosing the targets of instruction and when interpreting the outcomes of instruction” Norris and Ortega (*ibid.*).

## **2. Review of the Related Literature**

### **2.1. Focus on Form Background**

Long and Robinson (1998) present a historical overview of FFI and refer to creating a pedagogical grammar through the analysis of the target language as the primary task in the syllabus design. This approach is termed the synthetic approach in materials development and syllabus design procedures by Wilkins (1976). As suggested by Long and Robinson (1998), FFI is defined as every task to direct learners’ attention towards available facilities for practicing different aspects of the linguistic syllabus and helping learners develop their interlanguage systems. This is believed to help learners to draw the system and conceptual grammar through the input they are exposed to ( Ellis, 1995) and hence to use grammar appropriately to communicate ideas in the target language.

There are various definitions for the focus on form, some of which are presented below: Schmidt (2001), for instance, maintains that focus on form is known as the approach in which the learner’s attention is directed towards the formal aspects of language. Ellis (2001), on the other hand, disagrees with the term “global attention hypothesis” and argues that the learner’s attention should be paid to formal linguistic features. As defined by Long and Robinson (1998), FFI consists of a balanced integration of focus on form and meaning in teaching language. Or as Poole (2005) contended, FFI is an educational method in which whereas the importance of communicative principles is appreciated, learners are directed to occasionally shift their attention towards linguistic feature. It should be noted, however, that some scholars (e.g., Schmidt, 2001) do not refer to this second definition and postulate that focus on form corresponds to mapping functions and meanings into their related forms. In this regard, Schmidt (2001), holds that focus on form refers to attaining knowledge of the abstract linguistic representations. It is worth mentioning that this definition has been implies that one could make sense of focus on form not as knowledge of grammatical rules, but rather as gaining awareness of particular linguistic signals provided by the input (Schmidt, 2001).

So far, a number of scholars have addressed the significance of instructing grammar for the purposes of language learning. According to Richards and Renandya (2002), teaching grammar plays an important role in language teaching systems. In the same vein, Saeidi (2009) maintains that there is a consensus among people that language learning may not be possible without grammar instruction. Furthermore, unless learners are equipped with grammatical knowledge, they face challenges effectively using that language (Saeidi, 2009).

Various categorizations have been proposed for the notion of FFI. Some studies (e.g., Schmidt, 1994; Sharwood Smith, 1993) have concentrated their attention on the possible functions of noticing. As such, the existing relations between implicit and explicit language knowledge types have been the main concerns of numerous studies (Dekeyser, 1998; Ellis,

2003). Accordingly, a series of grammar learning methods including metalinguistic awareness and implicit input improvement have been suggested by scholars (Doughty & Varela, 1998).

Doughty and Williams (1998) emphasize that focus on form differs from focus on forms instruction. That is to say, they consider focus on form a more beneficial approach activating the cognitive resources by directing learners' attention to meaning and communicative functions of language. They further state that this advantage of focus on form instruction helps learners to find the linguistic items and forms that are at the service of different communicative functions of language (Doughty & Williams, 1998).

## **2.2. Form-Focused Instruction versus Traditional Method**

As suggested by Spada (2008), focus on form instruction answers the demands of the learners for grammar learning; this type of instruction differs from communicative approaches to language instruction in the way that FFI does not merely revolve around functions and notions of language. That is, in FFI, learners attend to the instructions of their teachers and try to attend to the linguistic rules of language to be able to perform grammar learning activities appropriately. It should be noted, however, that learners attain knowledge of language grammar by paying close attention to the grammatical forms and their functions. Ellis (2006) more specifically defines FFI as followed: FFI "entails a focus on meaning with attention to form arising out of the communicative activity" (p. 100)

As Long (1991) maintains, the difference between the FFI and the traditional or focus on forms instruction is that unlike FFI, in traditional approach, focus revolves around forms in isolation. A number of scholars, namely Elgün-Gündüz et al, 2012, Spada, N., & Lightbown, 2008, Long, 1991, call the former approach, 'integrated form-focused instruction' and the latter, 'isolated form-focused instruction'. Or, in line with these scholars, Laufer and Girsai (2008) consider the focus on forms instruction equal to the traditional grammar teaching approaches and pinpoint that in such types of instruction, linguistic units are presented in isolation and, following a pre-specified order, are learned in a rote manner. This may be the reason underlying Richards and Rogers' (2001) argument concerning the gradual decrease in popularity of the traditional approaches such as grammar translation method and audio-lingual approach.

One main benefit of FFI, in contrast with focus on forms or traditional methods, is its focus on meaning and communicative functions of language that has led to the suggestion of the strong version of communicative approach to the teaching of language (Howatt 1984 cited in Baleghizadeh, 2010). Among the scholars who favored such strong version of communicative approach, Krashen and Terrell (1983) made use of the meaning focused FFI approach to develop their Natural Approach with its focus on the comprehensible input as the prerequisite for natural use and learning of communication in a relaxed context. Further, Prabhu (1987 cited in Baleghizadeh 2010) developed his task-based language teaching approach on the basis of Bangalore Project and with special attention to meaning-based focus on form instruction.

Some researchers (e.g. Doughty, 2001; Long, 1991) prefer the focus on form approach as a more beneficial instruction compared to focus on forms instruction. They hold that, owing to the following four reasons, FFI is to the advantage of the learner: firstly, the learner should learn the communicative functions of the language through meaning-based instruction to be able to grasp the communicative dimensions of the language; secondly, to be exposed to the meaning alone may not help learners to use the language appropriately.



(Long, 1991); thirdly, as learners might find it challenging to focus on both meaning and form simultaneously, meaning overtakes form (Van Patten, 1990); and last, but not least, some activities should be designed to expose the learners to different forms in different context of situation. One proposed argument by (Doughty 2001 cited in Ellis, 2002) is that what makes FFI different from any other teaching approaches is its simultaneous attention to form, meaning and use in cognitive learning processes.

### **3. Research Questions**

Two research questions were addressed in this study:

1. How does the FFI affect Iranian lower-intermediate EFL learners' grammar learning?
2. Are there any meaningful differences between FFI and traditional grammar instruction in teaching English grammar to Iranian lower-intermediate EFL learners?

### **4. Methodology**

#### **4.1. Participants**

The participants were 45 female students of a Language Institute. They were given a homogeneity test at lower intermediate Iranian learners. Their ages ranged between 12 and 17.

They were first randomly divided into two groups: 23 participants in the experimental group (FFI group) and 22 participants in the control group; then, each group was further divided into two classes. All groups were taught by only one teacher twice a week during the project.

#### **4.2. Materials**

For this study, the textbook entitled, "Summit 1A" by Joan Saslow and Allen Ascher (2007) was selected. The book was designed for students at the lower-intermediate level; the book comprised different passages with related grammatical points. The structural patterns in passages were taught through FFI and traditional methods.

#### **4.3. Instrumentation**

To have a homogeneous research sample, the researcher employed a validated teacher-made achievement test, including grammar items. It included 30 multiple-choice items on grammatical patterns suitable for the lower intermediate level. Its reliability index was calculated through Cronbach's alpha formula as ( $r= 0.624$ ).

Tests constituted the main instruments for this study. The pre-test (Appendix A) was administered at the beginning of the course. In order to have a more reliable test, it was administered to the similar group of students (who has passed level 8 of Real course) before the beginning of the study. The post-test was another instrument with the same format and form. The researchers' observation of the classes made another instrument to ensure that the teacher was following the method he aimed at; that is to say, the researcher wanted to make sure that the teacher was using the FFI and traditional method in related classes.



#### 4.4. Procedures

Initially, the pre-test was administered at the beginning of the course. Two classes had the same syllabus and course book. These classes were held two days a week for two hours.

The study lasted for 12 sessions. Each session comprised one grammar lesson including “gerunds and infinitives”, “the present perfect and the present perfect continuous”, “future plans and finished future actions” and so on. At the end of the semester, the same test was administered as the post-test to both groups: the experimental and the control groups.

The main purpose of this study was to find out whether FFI and focus on forms had any effects on the grammar proficiency of EFL learners and if yes, which one was more effective. Hence, the initial procedure is as follows:

Pre-test Experimental Group 1 ( FFI) -Post-test
Pre-test Control Group 2 ( focus on forms)-Post-test

In FFI class, the teacher and learners first discussed the main theme and the content of each unit; then they went through the formal structures and grammatical rules. In this class, the teacher attempted to raise learners’ attention towards grammatical patterns used in passages indirectly; the teacher’s initiatives aimed at making the students active. During this procedure, the teacher did not correct the learners’ errors.

The Post-test (with the same format and form of the pre-test) was administered after six weeks of instructions. Mean scores of the pre-test and post-test were calculated separately. Having reported the scores of two sets of tests (pre/ post-tests), the researchers evaluated the learning gains (progress from pre to posttest) of each learner by comparing the mean scores of each group in the form of paired t-test in pre-tests and post-tests for each group. The level of significance was pre-set to .05 ( $p < .05$ ).

After the pre/ post-tests, the researcher took two types of t-test, an independent t-test and a paired t-test. Independent t-test was tabulated for comparing the pre-tests and the post-tests of two groups (experimental and control group); paired t-tests were run between pre-tests and post-tests of each group separately.

The researchers used an observation checklist (Appendix B) that contained some items to see if the teacher used the related items in classes. That is to say, the researchers observed the classes for six weeks to ascertain that the teacher was following FFI or traditional method in classes.

#### 5. Results and Discussion

The descriptive statistics for the pre-test scores of FFI and traditional method of grammar teaching are presented in table 1.

Table1. *The Descriptive Statistics of the Experimental and Control Groups*

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	23	14.65	1.071	.223
Control	22	13.98	1.053	.224



Table 2. *Independent Samples Test on the Pre-test of the Experimental and Control Groups*

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	f	Sig.	t	df	Significance-value	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of Difference	
							Lower	Upper	
<b>Pre</b>									
<b>Equal variances assumed</b>	.085	.772	4.643	4342.695	.12	1.470	.317	.832	2.109
<b>Equal variances not assumed</b>			4.645		.12	1.470	.317	.832	2.109

As depicted in table 2, there was no statistically significant difference between the means of pre-tests administered to both control and experimental groups. This revealed the two groups' grammatical knowledge was not different prior to the study.

Table 3 depicts the descriptive statistics for the post-test scores of FFI and the traditional method of grammar teaching.

Table 3. *Descriptive Statistics of the Experimental and Control Groups*

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	23	16.22	1.278	.266
Control	22	15.14	1.283	.274

Table 4. *Independent Sample T-Test on the Post-test of the Experimental and Control Groups*

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	f	Sig.	T	Df	Significance-value	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of Difference	
							Lower	Upper	
<b>post</b>									
<b>Equal variances assumed</b>	.003	.959	2.831	43	.007	1.081	.382	.311	1.851
<b>Equal variances not assumed</b>			2.831	42.893	.007	1.081	.382	.311	1.851

According to table 4, the experimental group, who received FFI, had significantly outperformed the control group, who received the traditional method of teaching grammar. This clearly indicates that FFI has been an effective method for teaching grammar to the pre intermediate EFL learners.



Table 5 shows the results of the paired samples statistics.

Table 5. *Paired Samples Statistics between the Pre-test and Post-Test Scores of the Experimental Group*

		Paired Differences			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	df	Significance -value
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
<b>Pair1</b>	<b>pre - post</b>	-	1.56165	.32563	-	-	-	22	.000
		1.56522			2.24052	.88991	4.807		

Table 5 illustrates the results of paired samples t-test. A significant difference was found between pre-test and post-test scores of FFI, demonstrating that the scores of post-test of experimental group were significantly improved. Therefore, FFI positively affected lower intermediate EFL Iranian learners' grammar learning.

Table 6. *Paired Samples Statistics between Pre-Test and Post-Test Scores of the Control Group*

		Paired Differences			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	Df	Significance -value
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
<b>Pair1</b>	<b>pre - post</b>	-	1.704	.363	-	-	-	2	.25
		1.955			2.710	1.199	5.381	1	

Table 6 showed the results of Paired Samples t-test. There was no significant difference between pre-test/post-test scores of learners who received traditional grammar method. Therefore, traditional method did not have any significant effect on the lower intermediate EFL Iranian learners' grammar learning.

## 6. Discussion

The study was performed with the aim of assessing the effect of FFI instruction on Iranian lower-intermediate EFL learners' grammar learning. The findings of the study indicate that the FFI approach positively affected grammar learning of the lower intermediate EFL Iranian learners. This is, in line with the findings of the study carried out by Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen, (2001), illustrating that when the second language learning context is entirely experiential and the focus is on meaning, learners may not acquire all linguistics features and their functions like the natives. This is true even if the learners are exposed to meaningful input and have interactive opportunities at hand. Furthermore, the research work performed in classrooms shows that, in order to compensate for the limitations of SLA atmosphere, some communicative activities should be introduced. In addition, to enhance the learners' communicative competence, the inclusion of 'focus on form' into the mainstream instruction syllabus is shown to be necessary. So FFI is effective and beneficial method to second language learners.



In addition, although the experimental group and the control group received the same syllabus, the results highlighted some significant differences between the achievement of learners attending FFI and traditional grammar instruction in teaching English grammar to lower-intermediate EFL learners. Long(2000), Laufer and Girsai ( 2008) , and Fotos and Nassaji's (2007), found similar results; according to Long "FFI is in sharp contrast with traditional grammar instruction or focus on forms instruction, which places a focus on forms themselves in isolation" (Long, as cited in Muranoi, 2000, p. 618). Focus on forms is an approach equated with the traditional method of language teaching which entails teaching discrete linguistic structures in separate lessons in a sequence determined by the syllabus (Laufer and Girsai, 2008). Long (2000) emphasized the great thing about FFI is that it is learner-centered, taking the needs of the learner into account, and hence, matching the learner's internal learning process. (Fotos and Nassaji, 2007) Therefore, this can account for the advantages of FFI over focus on forms or traditional instruction.

## **7. Conclusion**

This research attempted to compare the effectiveness of two methods of teaching grammar (FFI and traditional grammar focus on forms) to intermediate students. As (Wilkins 1976 cited in Long and Robinson, 1998) states, FFI by introducing certain activities into the grammar teaching syllabus aims at raising learners' attention and helping them to accurately and appropriately use the language. Despite the crucial roles the FFI approach plays in enhancing the learners' grammatical competence, grammar teaching is still taught traditionally. Owing to the fact that most grammar classes require learners to observe grammatical accuracy and use grammar to communicate ideas, the inclusion of the focus on form approach seems to be of utmost importance in EFL contexts. Teachers by employing integrated, skills-based grammar lessons in their classes can help learners to acquire and use the language more appropriately. The findings of this study are useful for language teachers and syllabus designers. It requires teacher to incorporate FFI in teaching grammar in the class. It mainly encourages teachers to use FFI as an effective method to teach grammar. Setting appropriate educational conditions and instructional methods for students is one of the important implications of this study as well.

## **8. Limitations of the study**

Although the study sufficiently addressed the research questions of this study, there are a number of limitations. The participants of the study were all females and from one city and hence might not be the true example of Iranian EFL learners. The same study could be replicated with samples of different cities as well as with male learners.

Furthermore, since the instrument used for collecting the data was multiple choice tests only, the findings might not be generalized thoroughly. Employing different types of tests would make it more practicable to generalize the results.

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## Appendix A

### Grammar Questionnaire

1. Robert.....away two or three times a year.  
a) is going usually b) is usually going c) usually goes d) goes usually
2. It was a boring weekend. ....anything.  
a) I didn't b) I don't do c) I didn't do d) I don't
3. Sarah has lost her passport again. It's the second time this .....  
a) has happened b) happens c) happened d) is happening
4. ....a car when you were living in London?  
a) Had you b) Were you having c) Have you had d) Did you have
5. Don't worry .....late tonight.  
a) if I'm b) when I'm c) when I'll be d) if I'll be
6. ----- it was not a good stadium, we won the match.  
a. However b. Although c. So d. Therefore
7. Whenever I come here, I remember----- of childhood  
a. ----- b. memories c. to memorize d. memorizing
8. It is very pleasant to camp out in this good weather. I wish my mom ----- also here.  
a. was b. were c. is d. would be
9. She looks -----.  
a. a tired b. a tired person c. tired d. tired person
10. What ----- you do if you ----- in that difficult situation.  
a. will/if b. would/were c. will/was d. will/were
11. It was -----hot that we went to the beach  
a. so b. such c. such a d. too
12. He ----a happy life since his wife --- in an accident two years ago.  
a. does not have-has died c. did not have-died  
b. has not had-has died d. has not had-died
13. If I ----- him I ----- accept that stupid suggestion.  
a. was/wouldn't b. were/didn't c. were/wouldn't d. was/didn't
14. I talked to her ----- she changed her mind.  
a. so b. so that c. that d. as
15. As the youngest member of the club, Mr. Johnson ----- tennis there regularly from 1960 to 1970.  
a. is used to playing b. used to play  
c. was used to play d. used to playing
16. The candidates ----- by the jury after many interviews.  
a. were selected b. will select c. is being selected d. selected
17. I know why you failed the exam. You ----- studied harder.  
a. should b. should have c. should had d. had to
18. She was a student at Oxford University ----- he was studying law.  
a. so b. where c. therefore d. hence
19. a) How many chocolates did you eat?  
b) -----  
a. Too much b. A few c. Any d. More
20. You ----- tried to repair your TV. Whenever your TV has a problem--- an electrician to repair it.  
a. shouldn't/have b. shouldn't have/get  
c. shouldn't have/have d. shouldn't get







**Key Answer**

1		/		
2			/	
3	/			
4				/
5	/			
6		/		
7		/		
8		/		
9			/	
10		/		
11	/			
12				/
13			/	
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16	/			
17		/		
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26				/
27		/		
28			/	
29		/		
30		/		



**Appendix B: Observations Checklists**

observation of FFI class(A1)	
1. Input flooding (providing a plethora of natural examples of the form in focus in a text on the assumption that the very high frequency of the structure in question will attract the learner's attention to the relevant formal regularities)(Doughty and Williams, 1998a)	1
2.Focused on forms is an approach equated with the traditional method of language teaching which entails teaching discrete linguistic structures in separate lessons in a sequence determined by the syllabus (Laufer and Girsai, 2008).	0
3.Focused on forms does not match learning processes, is not needs-based, and often results in boring lessons(cited in Fotos and Nassaji, 2007, p.12).	0
4. Negotiation (asking and answering questions about how a special form is learnt and taught)(Lightbown, 1998)	1
5.Task-essential language (the necessity of using specific forms to complete a task)	1
6.The approaches to teacher education, the point has often been made ( Carandall 2000:35) that traditional approaches have usually been top-down viewing teachers as passive knowledge recipients, whereas current constructivist approaches emphasize active roles for teacher cognition, reflection, and research.	0
7.Form focused instruction involves attempts to intervene directly in interlanguage construction by drawing learners' attention to or providing opportunities for them to practice specific features based on a linguistic syllabus and systematic treatment.	1
8.explicit correction,where a teacher clearly indicates that the learner has said something incorrectly, and provides the correct form own output by reconstructing a text which is read to them)	1
9.elicitation, where the teacher attempts to draw out the correct forms from learners (Ellis 2001).	1
10.By means of methodological options that induce attention to form in the context of performing a task. Two methodological options that have received considerable attention from researchers are (a) the provision of time for strategic and on-line planning (Yuan and Ellis, 2003; Foster and Skehan, 1996) and (b) corrective feedback (Lyster, 2004) explicit correction,where a teacher clearly indicates that the learner has said something incorrectly, and provides the correct form.	1

observation of FFI class(A2)	
1. Input flooding (providing a plethora of natural examples of the form in focus in a text on the assumption that the very high frequency of the structure in question will attract the learner's attention to the relevant formal regularities)(Doughty and Williams, 1998a)	1
2.Focused on forms is an approach equated with the traditional method of language teaching which entails teaching discrete linguistic structures in separate lessons in a sequence determined by the syllabus (Laufer and Girsai, 2008).	0
3.Focused on forms does not match learning processes, is not needs-based, and often results in boring lessons(cited in Fotos and Nassaji, 2007, p.12).	0
4. Negotiation (asking and answering questions about how a special form is learnt and taught)(Lightbown, 1998)	1
5.Task-essential language (the necessity of using specific forms to complete a task)	1
6.The approaches to teacher education, the point has often been made ( Carandall 2000:35) that traditional approaches have usually been top-down viewing teachers as passive knowledge recipients, whereas current constructivist approaches emphasize active roles for teacher cognition, reflection, and research.	0
7.Form focused instruction involves attempts to intervene directly in interlanguage construction by drawing learners' attention to or providing opportunities for them to practice specific features based on a linguistic syllabus and systematic treatment.	1
8.explicit correction,where a teacher clearly indicates that the learner has said something incorrectly, and provides the correct form own output by reconstructing a text which is read to them)	1
9.elicitation, where the teacher attempts to draw out the correct forms from learners (Ellis 2001).	1
10.By means of methodological options that induce attention to form in the context of performing a task. Two methodological options that have received considerable attention from researchers are (a) the provision of time for strategic and on-line planning (Yuan and Ellis, 2003; Foster and Skehan, 1996) and (b) corrective feedback (Lyster, 2004) explicit correction,where a teacher clearly indicates that the learner has said something incorrectly, and provides the correct form.	1

observation of FFI class(A3)	
1. Input flooding (providing a plethora of natural examples of the form in focus in a text on the assumption that the very high frequency of the structure in question will attract the learner's attention to the relevant formal regularities)(Doughty and Williams, 1998a)	1
2.Focused on forms is an approach equated with the traditional method of language teaching which entails teaching discrete linguistic structures in separate lessons in a sequence determined by the syllabus (Laufer and Girsai, 2008).	0
3.Focused on forms does not match learning processes, is not needs-based, and often results in boring lessons(cited in Fotos and Nassaji, 2007, p.12).	0
4. Negotiation (asking and answering questions about how a special form is learnt and taught)(Lightbown, 1998)	1
5.Task-essential language (the necessity of using specific forms to complete a task)	1
6.The approaches to teacher education, the point has often been made ( Carandall 2000:35) that traditional approaches have usually been top-down viewing teachers as passive knowledge recipients, whereas current constructivist approaches emphasize active roles for teacher cognition, reflection, and research.	0
7.Form focused instruction involves attempts to intervene directly in interlanguage construction by drawing learners' attention to or providing opportunities for them to practice specific features based on a linguistic syllabus and systematic treatment.	1
8.explicit correction,where a teacher clearly indicates that the learner has said something incorrectly, and provides the correct form own output by reconstructing a text which is read to them)	1
9.elicitation, where the teacher attempts to draw out the correct forms from learners (Ellis 2001).	1
10.By means of methodological options that induce attention to form in the context of performing a task. Two methodological options that have received considerable attention from researchers are (a) the provision of time for strategic and on-line planning (Yuan and Ellis, 2003; Foster and Skehan, 1996) and (b) corrective feedback (Lyster, 2004) explicit correction,where a teacher clearly indicates that the learner has said something incorrectly, and provides the correct form.	1

	1
observation of FFI class(A4)	
1. Input flooding (providing a plethora of natural examples of the form in focus in a text on the assumption that the very high frequency of the structure in question will attract the learner's attention to the relevant formal regularities)(Doughty and Williams, 1998a)	0
2.Focused on forms is an approach equated with the traditional method of language teaching which entails teaching discrete linguistic structures in separate lessons in a sequence determined by the syllabus (Laufer and Girsai, 2008).	0
3.Focused on forms does not match learning processes, is not needs-based, and often results in boring lessons(cited in Fotos and Nassaji, 2007, p.12).	1
4. Negotiation (asking and answering questions about how a special form is learnt and taught)(Lightbown, 1998)	1
5.Task-essential language (the necessity of using specific forms to complete a task)	0
6.The approaches to teacher education, the point has often been made ( Carandall 2000:35) that traditional approaches have usually been top-down viewing teachers as passive knowledge recipients, whereas current constructivist approaches emphasize active roles for teacher cognition, reflection, and research.	1
7.Form focused instruction involves attempts to intervene directly in interlanguage construction by drawing learners' attention to or providing opportunities for them to practice specific features based on a linguistic syllabus and systematic treatment.	1
8.explicit correction,where a teacher clearly indicates that the learner has said something incorrectly, and provides the correct form own output by reconstructing a text which is read to them)	1
9.elicitation, where the teacher attempts to draw out the correct forms from learners (Ellis 2001).	1
10.By means of methodological options that induce attention to form in the context of performing a task. Two methodological options that have received considerable attention from researchers are (a) the provision of time for strategic and on-line planning (Yuan and Ellis, 2003; Foster and Skehan, 1996) and (b) corrective feedback (Lyster, 2004) explicit correction,where a teacher clearly indicates that the learner has said something incorrectly, and provides the correct form.	

observation of Traditional Instruction class(A1)	
1. Input flooding (providing a plethora of natural examples of the form in focus in a text on the assumption that the very high frequency of the structure in question will attract the learner's attention to the relevant formal regularities)(Doughty and Williams, 1998a)	0
2.Focused on forms is an approach equated with the traditional method of language teaching which entails teaching discrete linguistic structures in separate lessons in a sequence determined by the syllabus (Laufer and Girsai, 2008).	1
3.Focused on forms does not match learning processes, is not needs-based, and often results in boring lessons(cited in Fotos and Nassaji, 2007, p.12).	0
4. Negotiation (asking and answering questions about how a special form is learnt and taught)(Lightbown, 1998)	0
5.Task-essential language (the necessity of using specific forms to complete a task)	1
6.The approaches to teacher education, the point has often been made ( Carandall 2000:35) that traditional approaches have usually been top-down viewing teachers as passive knowledge recipients, whereas current constructivist approaches emphasize active roles for teacher cognition, reflection, and research.	0
7.Form focused instruction involves attempts to intervene directly in interlanguage construction by drawing learners' attention to or providing opportunities for them to practice specific features based on a linguistic syllabus and systematic treatment.	0
8.explicit correction,where a teacher clearly indicates that the learner has said something incorrectly, and provides the correct form own output by reconstructing a text which is read to them)	0
9.elicitation, where the teacher attempts to draw out the correct forms from learners (Ellis 2001).	0
10.By means of methodological options that induce attention to form in the context of performing a task. Two methodological options that have received considerable attention from researchers are (a) the provision of time for strategic and on-line planning (Yuan and Ellis, 2003; Foster and Skehan, 1996) and (b) corrective feedback (Lyster, 2004) explicit correction,where a teacher clearly indicates that the learner has said something incorrectly, and provides the correct form.	

observation of Traditional Instruction class(A2)	0
1. Input flooding (providing a plethora of natural examples of the form in focus in a text on the assumption that the very high frequency of the structure in question will attract the learner's attention to the relevant formal regularities)(Doughty and Williams, 1998a)	1
2.Focused on forms is an approach equated with the traditional method of language teaching which entails teaching discrete linguistic structures in separate lessons in a sequence determined by the syllabus (Laufer and Girsai, 2008).	1
3.Focused on forms does not match learning processes, is not needs-based, and often results in boring lessons(cited in Fotos and Nassaji, 2007, p.12).	0
4. Negotiation (asking and answering questions about how a special form is learnt and taught)(Lightbown, 1998)	0
5.Task-essential language (the necessity of using specific forms to complete a task)	1
6.The approaches to teacher education, the point has often been made ( Carandall 2000:35) that traditional approaches have usually been top-down viewing teachers as passive knowledge recipients, whereas current constructivist approaches emphasize active roles for teacher cognition, reflection, and research.	0
7.Form focused instruction involves attempts to intervene directly in interlanguage construction by drawing learners' attention to or providing opportunities for them to practice specific features based on a linguistic syllabus and systematic treatment.	0
8.explicit correction,where a teacher clearly indicates that the learner has said something incorrectly, and provides the correct form own output by reconstructing a text which is read to them)	0
9.elicitation, where the teacher attempts to draw out the correct forms from learners (Ellis 2001).	0
10.By means of methodological options that induce attention to form in the context of performing a task. Two methodological options that have received considerable attention from researchers are (a) the provision of time for strategic and on-line planning (Yuan and Ellis, 2003; Foster and Skehan, 1996) and (b) corrective feedback (Lyster, 2004) explicit correction,where a teacher clearly indicates that the learner has said something incorrectly, and provides the correct form.	

observation of Traditional Instruction class(A3)	0
1. Input flooding (providing a plethora of natural examples of the form in focus in a text on the assumption that the very high frequency of the structure in question will attract the learner's attention to the relevant formal regularities)(Doughty and Williams, 1998a)	1
2.Focused on forms is an approach equated with the traditional method of language teaching which entails teaching discrete linguistic structures in separate lessons in a sequence determined by the syllabus (Laufer and Girsai, 2008).	1
3.Focused on forms does not match learning processes, is not needs-based, and often results in boring lessons(cited in Fotos and Nassaji, 2007, p.12).	0
4. Negotiation (asking and answering questions about how a special form is learnt and taught)(Lightbown, 1998)	0
5.Task-essential language (the necessity of using specific forms to complete a task)	1
6.The approaches to teacher education, the point has often been made ( Carandall 2000:35) that traditional approaches have usually been top-down viewing teachers as passive knowledge recipients, whereas current constructivist approaches emphasize active roles for teacher cognition, reflection, and research.	0
7.Form focused instruction involves attempts to intervene directly in interlanguage construction by drawing learners' attention to or providing opportunities for them to practice specific features based on a linguistic syllabus and systematic treatment.	0
8.explicit correction,where a teacher clearly indicates that the learner has said something incorrectly, and provides the correct form own output by reconstructing a text which is read to them)	0
9.elicitation, where the teacher attempts to draw out the correct forms from learners (Ellis 2001).	0
10.By means of methodological options that induce attention to form in the context of performing a task. Two methodological options that have received considerable attention from researchers are (a) the provision of time for strategic and on-line planning (Yuan and Ellis, 2003; Foster and Skehan, 1996) and (b) corrective feedback (Lyster, 2004) explicit correction,where a teacher clearly indicates that the learner has said something incorrectly, and provides the correct form.	



observation of Traditional Instruction class(A4)	
1. Input flooding (providing a plethora of natural examples of the form in focus in a text on the assumption that the very high frequency of the structure in question will attract the learner's attention to the relevant formal regularities)(Doughty and Williams, 1998a)	0
2.Focused on forms is an approach equated with the traditional method of language teaching which entails teaching discrete linguistic structures in separate lessons in a sequence determined by the syllabus (Laufer and Girsai, 2008).	1
3.Focused on forms does not match learning processes, is not needs-based, and often results in boring lessons(cited in Fotos and Nassaji, 2007, p.12).	1
4. Negotiation (asking and answering questions about how a special form is learnt and taught)(Lightbown, 1998)	0
5.Task-essential language (the necessity of using specific forms to complete a task)	0
6.The approaches to teacher education, the point has often been made ( Carandall 2000:35) that traditional approaches have usually been top-down viewing teachers as passive knowledge recipients, whereas current constructivist approaches emphasize active roles for teacher cognition, reflection, and research.	1
7.Form focused instruction involves attempts to intervene directly in interlanguage construction by drawing learners' attention to or providing opportunities for them to practice specific features based on a linguistic syllabus and systematic treatment.	0
8.explicit correction,where a teacher clearly indicates that the learner has said something incorrectly, and provides the correct form	0
own output by reconstructing a text which is read to them)	
9.elicitation, where the teacher attempts to draw out the correct forms from learners (Ellis 2001).	0
10.By means of methodological options that induce attention to form in the context of performing a task. Two methodological options that have received considerable attention from researchers are (a) the provision of time for strategic and on-line planning (Yuan and Ellis, 2003; Foster and Skehan, 1996) and (b) corrective feedback (Lyster, 2004) explicit correction,where a teacher clearly indicates that the learner has said something incorrectly, and provides the correct form.	0



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<http://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/70/109>

## **USE, MISUSE AND OVERUSE OF ‘ON THE OTHER HAND’: A CORPUS STUDY COMPARING ENGLISH OF NATIVE SPEAKERS AND LEARNERS**

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## USE, MISUSE AND OVERUSE OF ‘ON THE OTHER HAND’: A CORPUS STUDY COMPARING ENGLISH OF NATIVE SPEAKERS AND LEARNERS

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*The spoken word belongs half to the one who speaks it and half to the one who hears.*

*French proverb*

### Abstract

This study investigates the use of ‘on the other hand’ as a logical connector in the academic writing of Turkish doctoral students. The learner corpus used is composed of academically-advanced non-native students’ doctoral dissertations (applied and theoretical linguistics fields) and the study also compiled the control corpora, the first one is a corpus of academic essays written by professional native speakers and the second control corpus is The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA). Students’ own writings are made comparisons between established writers’ papers in their field and COCA. Despite different genres, established writers’ edited papers are preferred instead of native students’ doctoral dissertations, it gives corpus analysis comparing with genres. The results revealed that the overall frequency of ‘on the other hand’ used by the Turkish doctoral students were greater than that used by the professional writers. However, the Turkish doctoral students did use ‘on the other hand’ in proper manner as natives did, that is, there was not a misused situation from the point of academically-advanced non-native users. The findings also showed that, according to the COCA results, ‘on the other hand’ is more frequent in academic genre, less frequent in spoken, magazine, fiction and newspaper genres, respectively.

### 1. Introduction

The use of connectives has always been a trouble spot for second or foreign language learners (SLL/FLL) of English. For example, the use of ‘on the other hand’, ‘besides’, ‘therefore’ ‘so’, ‘that is’, ‘furthermore’, ‘still’ as connectives appears to be problematic (Chen, 2014; Bolton, Nelson, & Hung 2002; Leedham & Cai, 2013; Heino, 2010). There may be various reasons for this, in terms of qualitative perspective; misuse, including a lack of awareness of semantic properties and syntactic positioning of it, additionally overuse and underuse could also led to important problem with regard to quantitative perspective (Tseng & Liou, 2006). According to literature, the causes of overuse and misuse are lined up as learners’ first language interference, because as Mauranen (1993) states connector usage can vary from one language to another, also misleading lists of connectives in textbooks demonstrated, improper mechanical exercises on some connectives are other reasons (Crewe, 1990; Kuo, 2002).

This paper makes an attempt to study the use of ‘on the other hand’ in the academic writing of Turkish EFL doctoral students, instead of high-school, college, undergraduate students’ writings, because a great deal of research on connectives has been conducted on



those EFL students' writings, (c.f. Bolton, Nelson, & Hung, 2002; Milton & Tsang, 1993; Tseng & Liou, 2006; Yeung, 2009). Additionally, some of the learner corpus studies revealed that higher usage or misuse of particular linking adverbials (e.g., besides, on the other hand). (Field & Yip, 1992; Lei, 2012; Milton, 1999; Tanko, 2004). The focus in this paper has been solely on one problematic linking adverbial "on the other hand" and its usage, apparently the aforementioned studies investigate several linking adverbials and found the most problematic ones. Some of the previous studies (e.g. Leedham & Chai, 2013, Yeung, 2009) focused on "besides, therefore etc." however there is a gap the existing literature about the use of 'on the other hand' in more standard varieties of English and non-native advanced English users.

To be able to use certain individual adverbials appropriately and effectively, the researcher has investigated the question exactly why and how Turkish advanced EFL learners has misused/overused 'on the other hand' in their academic writings.

The purpose of this paper is to describe the occurrence of 'on the other hand' in terms of particular academic usage though corpus-based research comparing native speakers' and learners' English and also by using corpus examples as well as constructed examples, the researcher investigates what kind of problems that may arise when learners do not have the necessary knowledge and mastery over the use of 'on the other hand'. The research questions addressed in the study are as follows:

1. How frequently do the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) as a control corpus and published academic writers (native & non-native) in the disciplines of Applied and Theoretical Linguistics use 'on the other hand' as logical connector?
2. Do non-native users (compare with control corpora) gain the knowledge and acquire the ability to use 'on the other hand' correctly? What kind of problems may arise if users do not have necessary knowledge?

## 2. Literature Review

Adverbial connectives such as 'furthermore', 'thus', 'therefore', 'on the other hand' are used for connecting sentences, create textual cohesion between them and also they state the writer's perception of the relationship between two units of discourse. They have been called 'linking adverbials' (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999), 'signal expressions' (Jenkins, 1986), 'cohesive conjunctions' (Halliday & Hasan, 1976), 'linking expressions' (Raimes, 1987), 'logical connectors' (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973). The native speakers (NS) and SLL/FLL use these adverbials appropriately to make clear the connections between their ideas in their writings. However, what is 'appropriate' in using connectives is a complicated question, because, as Conrad (1999) states that they have a number of characteristics (i.e. they are optional, cover variety of meaning, appear in a variety of grammatical forms and they can occur at different positions in the clause) that make them distinctive as grammatical structures.

'On the other hand' is one of these logical connectors (adversative, contrastive), most dictionaries (e.g. Oxford Advanced Learner's English, 2013; Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2005) gloss as meaning, "introduce different points of view, ideas, especially two opposite ways of thinking about a situation". Similar to the dictionaries, ELT textbooks also classify 'on the other hand' in the category as the contrastive conjunction. Biber *et al.* (1999) state that 'on the other hand' is in the category of contrast/concession, it contains items that in some way mark incompatibility between information in different discourse units, or that signal concessive relationships. It clearly marks contrasts, alternatives, or differences; they have used following sentence to show it.

### *Contrastive/Concessive*

Administration officials, notably the White House Chief of Staff and Deputy Treasury Secretary, were irked by his independence. **On the other hand**, Taylor reportedly is well - regarded by Treasury officials for his low-key, out-of-the-lime-light style. (NEWS)

(Biber *et al.*, 1999, p.878)

‘On the other hand’, the conjoining function of discourse connectives, is minimally to join two sentences. It is categorized as a contrastive adverbial connector within *concessive* sub-category; however ‘on the other hand’ can take part in different sub- types as well such as *replacive*, *antithetic* (Babanoğlu, 2012). These sub-categories have important nuance among each other, that is, whereas *concessive* is used where one unit is seen as unexpected in the light of the other, *replacive* helps to replace an item with a more important one, and *antithetic* introduces direct antithesis when an item contrasts the preceding one (Babanoğlu, 2012).

In the literature, for learners of English, the use of connectives has repeatedly been mentioned as a problem area. Use, overuse, misuse have been searched, with overuse being the most predominant, leading to problems of coherence of the discourse (Biber *et al.* 1999; Milton & Tsang, 1993; Silva, 1993; Yeung, 2009). The logical connector ‘on the other hand’ is typically overused and misused by SLL/FLL (Field & Yip, 1992; Milton, 1999).

According to previous corpus research (Leedham & Cai, 2013), the researchers analyzed the data of two-thousand-word corpus of Chinese learners compared with various expert corpora. A simple frequency counting reveals that ‘on the other hand’ has been overused and misused by the Chinese students. Additionally, Bolton, Nelson and Hung (2002) compared the use of connectives in Hong Kong EFL students and native British students’ of the International Corpus of English (ICE) to a sample of published academic writing and the results showed that a tendency for both groups of students to overuse connectors, when compared to published academic writing; while native speakers did not use, Hong Kong students commonly overused some connectives, ‘on the other hand’ was one of these connectives (the others were ‘and’, ‘but’, ‘therefore’, ‘moreover’). Babanoğlu (2012) investigated the use of adverbial connector in L2 writings of Turkish adult learners. To understand whether any similarities existed or not (any L1 interference), the researcher searched Turkish learner corpus and compared it with native speakers corpus. Additionally, it is also compared with other two different language corpus (Japanese and Spanish). The results showed that some connectors were overused and ‘on the other hand’ has been overused in Turkish International Corpus of Learner English (TICLE) and Spanish International Corpus of Learner English (SPICLE).

Although the problem of ‘on the other hand’ has often been observed by some researchers, hereinbefore, there has not been a thorough investigation of the question of exactly how and why ‘on the other hand’ has been misused and overused. This paper makes an attempt to study one of the logical connectors, ‘on the other hand’, which seems to be particularly problem-prone. It aims at unraveling the native patterns of use, as compared with those of learners, taking Turkish learners’ English as an example. To achieve the aim, the researcher concentrates on corpus linguistics with relatively large amounts of textual data grounded in a variety of theoretical perspectives.

Corpus studies within second/foreign language writing research have increased and some studies have featured the use of connectives. As the other researchers have done, the present study will use corpora to explain various occurrence of ‘on the other hand’ and this kind of corpus studies serve a representative for the grammar of a whole language variety and empirical data for testing hypotheses of grammar theories (McEnery & Wilson, 2001).



Conrad (1999) also states that corpus linguistics is a growing field, it not only provides some facilities for language teachers, users, learners who want to understand and design effective materials for their studies, but also beyond classroom, it analyzes the actual patterns of use in natural texts, indicates the interactions of many aspects of a concordancing and lexical/lexico-grammatical analyses, and differences in use across language varieties can all be analyzed together and can all be tied to the communicative functions fulfilled by the feature.

### **3. Methodology**

#### **3.1 Corpora**

##### **3.1.1. Learners' corpus**

The Turkish learner corpus used in the present study is composed of 20 applied and theoretical linguistics doctoral dissertations (1,477,660 running words and 45,840 sentences). The reason for the selection of dissertations only in the discipline of applied and theoretical linguistics was that, the doctoral candidates at departments of foreign languages have satisfied English language requirement at sufficient level and most of such candidates have chance to take academic writing lectures as practical support to write their dissertations and additionally they are allowed to write their dissertation in English language. The doctoral dissertations were downloaded at random from the Internet (Council of Higher Education-Thesis Center).

##### **3.1.2. Control corpora**

English native speakers' corpora, consisting of two different corpora, the first one is the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA - 450 million words, all genres; 91 million words are only used in academic genre (Davies, 2013)), there are 19.769 occurrences of the connector 'on the other hand' in the COCA, 7.638 words occur in academic texts, and the second control corpus is 100 published journal articles in seven international English-language journals (987.193 words). The researcher randomly choose the articles from seven recognized journals, such as System, Lingua, Journal of Pragmatics, Journal of English for Academic Purposes.

### **4. Findings**

#### **4.1 Frequencies compared**

##### **4.1.1 The Corpus of Contemporary American English - COCA**

It is very useful to see the contrasting list of genres from the corpus, to help determine and find of 'on the other hand' in various genres. As can be seen in Figure 1 and Figure 2 (frequency & percentage chart), 'on the other hand' is more frequent in academic genre (83%) and it has a similar frequency of occurrence in fiction (21%) and newspaper (24%), spoken (40%) and magazine (42%) genres. That is, there are marked differences non-academic and academic genres. In other words, there is a significant difference between them.

Figure 1. Frequency use of 'on the other hand' in the COCA

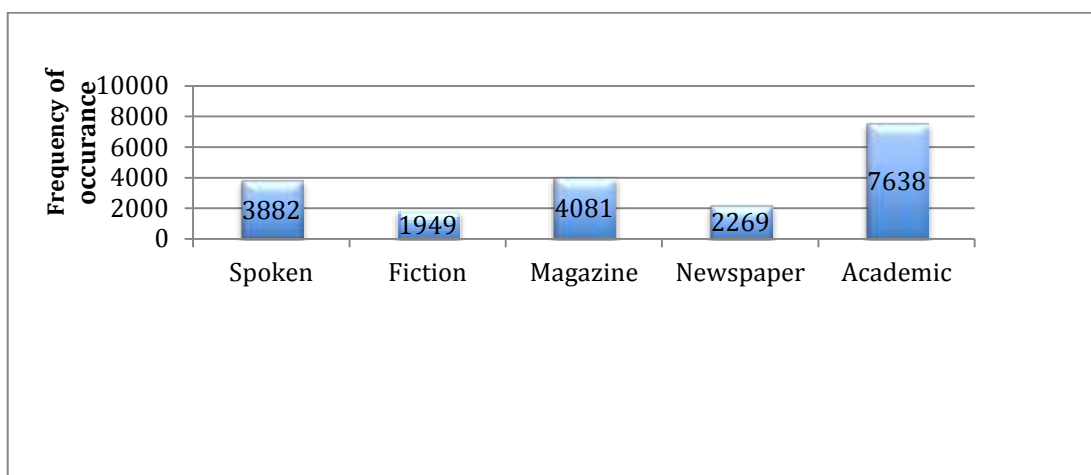
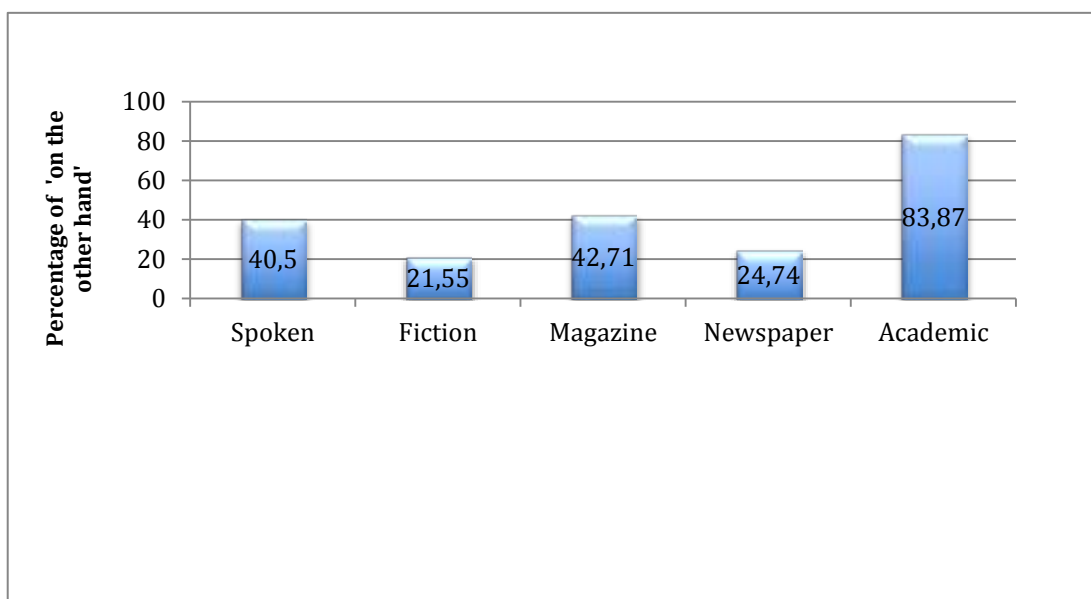


Figure 2. Percentage (per million) of 'on the other hand' in the COCA



#### 4.1.2 Native speakers' corpus (Published academic writings) & Non-native speakers' corpus (Published doctoral thesis)

A frequency count was also made of the instances of use of 'on the other hand' in the native speakers' corpus. The frequencies of occurrence of 'on the other hand' in the experts' and learners' corpora were compared. There is a register difference in the native speakers' corpus compare with learners'. The researcher found that, compared to the native speakers' usage of 'on the other hand', the Turkish students used it more in their thesis than their native counterparts. As can be seen from Table 1 the Turkish doctoral student writers used 'on the other hand' most often. In other words, the professional writers used this connector less often than the Turkish doctoral writers (2% versus 9%). Though the findings did show overall overuse of 'on the other hand' by the Turkish learners, a closer look indicated that the Turkish writers did use 'on the other hand' in proper manner as natives did, that is, they did not misuse the under-researched connector 'on the other hand. It has been explained in detail the following section.

Table 1. Frequency and percentage use of the linking adverbials in the native speaker corpus

	Control Corpus		Learner corpus			
	Raw frequency	Frequency per million words	%	Raw frequency	Frequency per million words	%
'on the other hand'	176	138	2 %	388	573	9 %

## 4.2 Discourse pattern of use

### 4.2.1 (Some) Concordance lines from the COCA.

Table 2 shows that some sample lines of 'on the other hand' chosen from the COCA academic genre. In the present experts' corpus, 'on the other hand' is often used as a contrastive connector as concessive and antithetic roles. Below is a typical example: "... Islam, **on the other hand**, rejects ontological proximity between god, nature and man and establishes an ontological hierarchy". (*antithetic*) or "... before the enigmas of sexuality, woman, and male identity, **on the other hand**. In this respect, he has something in common with the emasculated Philip Salomons". (*concessive*). Mostly, it gives a new thought after a conclusion is drawn on a previous argument.

Table 2. Concordance lines of 'on the other hand' in academic genre.

LanguageSpeech	A B C	age 7, even the children with LI were near ceiling. <b>On the other hand</b> , the more difficult evaluation measures -- ToM and false belief understanding -- appeared to
LanguageSpeech	A B C	connections immediately on encountering a new word. The present study, <b>on the other hand</b> , investigated word naming and generation accuracy at easy, medium, and
Bioscience	A B C	services; e.g., Mace et al. 2011) and, <b>on the other hand</b> , their responses to a particular management action (e.g., Bennett et al.
JournalAmerican	A B C	part of one's (public) self. Tattooed people, <b>on the other hand</b> , get tattoos that are always visible to others. Bold tattoos on the hand
JournalAmerican	A B C	" (103). Pitts' review of news articles, <b>on the other hand</b> , led her to conclude that the media, largely influenced by mental health professionals
JournalAmerican	A B C	were tattooed during their visit to the shop. Potential tattooees, <b>on the other hand</b> , include those considering a tattoo, such as those entering the shop for a
JournalAmerican	A B C	63-4); for Tompkins in Sensational Designs (1985), <b>on the other hand</b> , sentimentality functions as " a complex and effective affirmation of women's power "
JournalAmerican	A B C	it helps to enforce. What is remarkable about Leung's explanation <b>on the other hand</b> is that it portrays homosexuality as the problem and all but ignores the issue of
JournalAmerican	A B C	before the enigmas of sexuality, women, and male identity, <b>on the other hand</b> . In this respect, he has something in common with the emasculated Philip Salomons
JournalAmerican	A B C	; those that scorn her secretly envy her Isaac's appearance, <b>on the other hand</b> , is only regarded as the ugly exterior of a despicable man. Somehow,
ExceptionalChildren	A B C	latent means were constrained to be equal. The control group, <b>on the other hand</b> , showed only slight increases in self-determination. The control group improved from
MiddleEastQ	A B C	level. I named this " ontological proximity. " Islam, <b>on the other hand</b> , rejects ontological proximity between god, nature and man and establishes an ontological hierar
MiddleEastQ	A B C	more difficult to finance the repair of damaged nuclear facilities.3 " # <b>On the other hand</b> , Tehran may double down by sending its own ground troops to Lebanon or Syr
MiddleEastQ	A B C	their control would be met with severe counterterrorism retaliatory strikes. # <b>On the other hand</b> , a broader approach to regional negotiations is required, which can ad
Futurist	A B C	ruin sports, and in some cases they may be right. <b>On the other hand</b> , was it ever really " fair " that a few people are lucky enough
Futurist	A B C	to a future that most appeals to us. The innovator, <b>on the other hand</b> , aims to realize a possible future by getting ideas (i.e., possibilities for
MechanicalEng	A B C	organ, or tissue, exists as a CAD model. # <b>On the other hand</b> , physicians could use the CAD system to directly create a design to be used
EnvironmentalHealth	A B C	in commercial fish consumers (Hanrahan et al. 1999b). <b>On the other hand</b> , based on contamination levels, risks from mercury exposure may be less in Great
EnvironmentalHealth	A B C	that are specific to that particular area. Global climate models, <b>on the other hand</b> , are able to simulate extreme weather events, but because their simulations are glob
GeneralMusicToday	A B C	2006, chap. 1). # Experienced music readers, <b>on the other hand</b> , can adeptly store and also retain the information they see displayed (Sloboda,

### 4.2.2 (Some) Concordance lines from Learners' corpus and the learners' use of 'on the other hand' as a connector.

In the learners' corpus, 'on the other hand' is frequently found at the beginning of the sentences mostly as a *concessive*, *antithetic*, *replacive* as has been seen in-group (a) on the



other hand, it also reflects and compares different viewpoints, opposing argument in-group (b) sentences.

(a)

-**On the other hand**, unlike general proficiency test, **on the other hand**, testing pragmatics is very complicated because there are no true or false answers. (*antithetic*)

-**On the other hand**, the message is ambiguous in the second example. (*concessive*)

-**On the other hand**, such permutations cannot be applied in English; the basic word order of English is SVO, and English has an inflexible word order. (*concessive*)

-**On the other hand**, this activity cannot be named as a personal writing because the previously given leading questions restrict the... (*antithetic*)

-Perceptions of teachers and parents, **on the other hand**, do not differ. (*concessive*)

-Part II, **on the other hand**, includes some interview questions prior. (*concessive*) Although, **on the other hand**, conveys concession relation and adversative relation (the incompatibility is between an implication of the first clause and an implication of the second clause). (*replacive*)

-A comparable corpus **on the other hand** does not contain translations but consists of texts from different languages which are similar or comparable with regard to a number of parameters such as text type, formality, subject-matter, time span, etc. (*antithetic*)

-*Communicative stress*, **on the other hand**, focuses on the degree of communicative competence. (*replacive*)

-Debilitating anxiety, **on the other hand**, is not favored because it may inhibit the FL learning process. (*concessive*)

-Qualitative data, **on the other hand**, consist of more holistic information based on observations that may not generally be converted into quantities or numbers such as, classroom observations or interviews. (*replacive*)

-Words with procedural meaning, **on the other hand**, encode information about how these representations are to be used in inference, they tell you how to 'take' these representations. (*replacive*)

(b)

-**On the other hand**, as Lynch (1996) further discusses, using multiple sources of data and analysis techniques does not necessarily provide consistency of data in this study which seeks to understand the perceptions of different groups.

-**On the other hand**, the study of Nunan (1992) on the interactive decisions of ESL teachers indicated that teachers' instructional decisions were related little to language concerns.

-**On the other hand**, Situation 16, in which the speaker is a customer representative at a bank who keeps a customer waiting, gave results close to the intended design.

-Fraser (1999), **on the other hand**, defines DMs as a type of pragmatic markers which occur as part of a discourse segment but are not part of the propositional content of the message conveyed, which do not contribute to the meaning of the proposition.

-**On the other hand**, *emotional expression* was used by American participants significantly more.

4.2.3 (Some) Concordance lines from Experts' corpus and the experts' use of 'on the other hand' as a connector.

The data of the native speakers' writings reflects that they used a small number of logical connector 'on the other hand' in their writings; moreover, they mostly preferred to use 'on the other hand' in company with 'on the one hand', while it was never encountered in Turkish doctoral students' writings.



As is seen from following samples, the professional writers apparently had great awareness of the rhetorical force of the present connector being used. The common semantic meaning was obviously contrastive (*concessive, replacive, antithetic*, respectively). Syntactically, the use of ‘on the other hand’ was mostly the first word of sentences or if it was in mid-sentence, aforementioned, it was used in company with ‘on the one hand’,

-They can also signal that an item has a similar force to a preceding one (e.g. *equally, similarly*) or, **on the other hand**, assess an item as adding greater weight to a preceding one. (*replacive*)

-**On the other hand**, some dimensions of Altenberg and Tapper’s study are not included here considering the scope of the study. (*concessive*)

-**On the other hand**, Hoyer (1997) explains that formal downtoners (e.g. *fairly, merely, nearly, partly, partially, sufficiently*) are pre- dominant in formal and written discourse. (*different viewpoint, opposing argument*)

-**On the other hand**, one can point to syntagmatic units, some collocations, that do not correspond to syntactic constituents and one might also claim that the language associated with spoken usage is quite different from the example sentences underspinning syntactic rules. (*antithetic*)

-**On the other hand**, German man does not have the flexibility with respect to gender and number that Egerland observes for Scandinavian man, French on, and Italian si. (*concessive*)

-The international teaching assistants, **on the other hand**, did not exploit choices of pitch and pause consistently to create recognisable intonational paragraphs, leading Pickering (2004) to conclude that “ITAs may be unable to make the finer distinctions between key choices needed for the pitch sequence structure”(concessive)

-Firth, that relate language in use to, **on the one hand**, the study of texts, and, **on the other hand**, the study of society or culture. This aspect of corpus linguistics, which goes beyond lexicogrammar and takes on a broader framework, is well represented by Stubbs (1996).(*replacive*)

-**On the one hand**, a dismissal of facts about usage as being of no theoretical interest to, **on the other hand**, the view that the wide- spread use of collocations and the heavy functional load that they bear means that any framework adopting a strict grammar/lexicon division is untenable. (*replacive*)

-**On the one hand**, they suggest that, despite the time-consuming nature of the analysis of corpus data, intermediate students still saw benefits in their corpus activity. **On the other hand**, they raise a concern about students at this level—those who might, in fact, need or benefit most from corpora because of their intermediate level of ability—ultimately turning away from corpus use and its possible benefits out of frustration over what is involved in such use. (*replacive*)

-Section 3 provides further corroborating evidence for the two types of arbs based on their effect on subsequent discourse, while also demonstrating surprising differences between, **on the one hand**, the definite and variable arbs, and **on the other hand**, the non-arbitrary definites and indefinites. (*replacive*)

#### 4. Discussions and Conclusion

This present paper makes an attempt to study one of the logical connectives, the meaning and use of ‘on the other hand’ by studying on a control corpus of 100 published articles in seven international journals of linguistics to use as the norm of the analysis and expert corpora, dictionary definitions, as well as comparing and contrasting the experts’ use with that of the learners, using Turkish learners’ English as an example. It is important to note that all non-native speakers whose thesis were analyzed in this study were academically advanced and proficient L2 learners, who had received years of exposure to and instruction in L2 use in English language environments. Additionally, the expert corpora (the COCA and professional native writes paper) were searched hypercorrectly. Firstly, in the line with the

aim of this study, the obtained results have revealed that the total results of frequency analysis of ‘on the other hand’ in Turkish doctoral students’ corpus indicated similar conditions to previous researches. Overall overuse of ‘on the other hand’, in learner corpus obtained from the frequency analysis indicate identical conditions with many of the previous research studies (Babanoğlu, 2012; Biber *et al.*1999; Milton & Tsang, 1993; Silva, 1993; Yeung, 2009). That is, non-native users overused the present under-investigated connector. On the other hand, even though the COCA results show that ‘on the other hand’ is more frequent in academic genre (in all field), the data of the native speakers’ writings (in applied and theoretical linguistics field) reflect that they used a small number of logical connector ‘on the other hand’ in their papers and natives mostly prefer to use ‘on the other hand’ in company with ‘on the one hand’.

Secondly, in terms of semantics, the findings allow concluding that the Turkish doctoral students did use ‘on the other hand’ in proper manner as natives did, they had gained the knowledge and acquire the ability to use ‘on the other hand’ correctly. It is also important to note that, previous studies have always compared high-school, college, undergraduate students’ writings with native speakers’ writings and mostly the revealed a significant differences between them. There are also studies comparing academic articles in terms of cohesive devices, for example, Milton and Hyland (1999) investigated NS and NNS students’, who were similar ages and educational level, essay scripts to identify the lexical devices and formulaic expressions that learners employ to express academic claims. The researchers contrasted corpora of comparable genres and size. Results showed, in parallel with similar studies(e.g. Hu, Brown & Brown,1982; Milton & Tsang, 1993; ) NNSs have tended to use the wrong types of words and expressions and have used too limited a variety of words and word chunks. On the other hand, Hinkel (2003) compared academic essays written by first-year NS and academically-advanced NNS students in terms of median frequency rates and focused on deictic, modifying, intensifying adverbials and adverb clauses. The results reveal that academically advanced and proficient NNS students have learned how to use adverbs and adverbial clauses grammatically and syntactically, however the greatest differences between the essays of NS and NNS are the frequency rates of amplifiers and emphatic adverbs, both types are very common in spoken informal language. It shows NNSs use adverbials correctly but have some restriction of lexical features common in the written discourse. The present study also allows us to deduce if non-native learners are academically advanced and proficient, they can use adverbial connectors correctly, even the problematic ones, such as ‘on the other hand’. The only difference between native and non-native writers, natives mostly preferred to use ‘on the other hand’ in company with ‘on the one hand’, while it was never encountered in non-natives’ paper.

In summary, all of this data on academic English is investigated various aspects, (i.e. control corpora and learner corpus). In comparison to natives and non-natives (academically advanced), the connector ‘on the other hand’ is overused by non-natives and underused by natives. This result has reported similar overuse by non-natives in a great deal of study in literature. However, as aforementioned, while some non-native users (college, high-school, undergraduate students) both overuse and misuse this connector, it has not occurred in academically advanced users’ writings. They use this kind of problematic connectors as natives do.

## 5. Limitation and future research

The current study is limited in terms of focusing on only one linking adverbial ‘on the other hand’ and representing a wide range of frequency distribution in texts, it presents ‘frequencies’. Even though it has been done discourse analysis, keyword analysis and



relationship analysis could be done for statistical significance. These limitations of this study give ground for future research. For future research, more focus may be placed on more than one linking adverbial, it can be investigated the most misused/overused adverbials using by non-native advanced English learners and focusing on the use of several linking adverbials in their writings and the control corpus could be selected in the same genre.

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## THE POSSIBLE CONSEQUENCES OF TEACHERS' TYPES OF FORGIVENESS ON SCHOOL ORGANISATION

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### Abstract

The aim of this research is to find out primary school teachers' types of forgiveness and to discuss organisational reflections of these types. The research is based on a qualitative study. The selection of participants is based on the criterion sampling method which is categorized under purposive sampling. The data for this research was obtained through interviews with five teachers working in the same school. The data from these interviews was categorised into 20 case studies. Data is analysed by descriptive analysis. The results show that teachers totally forgive students, parents and other teachers whereas they do not forgive school managers.

*Keywords:* Organisational forgiveness, types of forgiveness, school, teacher.

### 1. Introduction

Forgiveness is accepted as one the universal human virtues and it is being discussed for centuries with regard to its affective, cognitive, behavioural, moral and cultural features and from a theological, philosophical and personal aspect (Kerns, 2009; Peterson & Seligman, 2000). At first, the concept of forgiveness was seen by Hegel and Kant as a concept that damages justice and as an "unethical human reaction" encouraging wrong-doing or the guilty (Aquino, Grover, Goldman & Folger, 2003). Later on, it was discussed on an **individual level** by psychologists. Psychologists argue that forgiving is a cognitive process based on understanding, sympathy and affective reactions that decreases a person's negative judgement about a guilty person despite any negative feelings (Goodstein & Aquino, 2010). Bright (2005) defines forgiving the disappearance of rage, anger, revenge, negative feelings and ideas despite negative experiences. Worthington (1998) defines forgiveness as a behaviour of insisting on retaliation against a person who displayed anger, revenge and offending behaviours, and staying away from or avoiding the person who hurts. In other words, forgiveness is the act of decreasing the negative feelings and disposition against the person who hurts or is guilty. As it can be understood in definitions, forgiveness happens at an individual and intrapersonal level.

From an **interpersonal level**, forgiveness is forgiving a person who hurts or harms. When the party who is harmed forgives, then the person who harmed receives undeserved apology. Thus, both of parties or one of the parties move from a negative situation to a positive one and the relationship is characterized by reconciliation (Paul, 2009). Aquino and others (2003) define intrapersonal forgiveness as a relational process during which the person who is damaged copes with the negative feelings of rage, anger and hostility against the guilty person, starts to show understanding towards the guilty and avoids hurting the guilty. In other



words, such a change in feelings, behaviours and opinions has an intrapersonal characteristic and is formed not suddenly but it rather extends over a period of time. This process does not only involve the change of behaviour, opinion and feeling at an individual level of a person who is hurt but also includes a shift to a positive situation in which both parties reconcile and reconstruct their relation or a shift to a neutral situation in their relation. In this context, forgiveness is assessed as an interpersonal and social process due to its interactional nature, and efforts of forming a balance, reconciliation and creating a neutral situation (Kelley & Waldron, 2006).

Forgiveness may emerge in different forms depending on whether it materializes at an intrapersonal or interpersonal level (Kelley & Waldron, 2006; Zechmeister & Romero, 2002). The types of forgiveness may vary depending on how people feel, think and what they do when they face hurting behaviours. If a person who is hurt is not a forgiver either at an intrapersonal level or in interpersonal relations, this is called *no forgiveness*. If the person is a forgiver both at an intrapersonal level and interpersonal relations, it is a *total forgiveness* situation. When the person is a forgiver at an intrapersonal level but not a forgiver in interpersonal relations, it is a *silent forgiveness* situation. Finally, if the person is a forgiver in interpersonal relations but not a forgiver at intrapersonal level, then it is a *hollow forgiveness* (Baumeister, Exline & Sommer, 1998). In cases of **no forgiveness**, the person who is hurt does not forgive the person who harms at the intrapersonal level, does not forget the incident and shows to the other party that he did not forgive. **Total forgiveness** brings reconciliation with the hurting person. In this type, the person who is hurt puts an end to his sadness and rage against the guilty person and makes the person who hurt him feel this or shows him this by the behaviours. In such a case, relationship may go back to the situation it was in the beginning or even if the relationship does not go back to normal, the person who hurt gives up feeling guilty as he will be aware of the good intention of the person who is hurt. In **silent forgiveness**, the person ends the feelings of rage and hostility against the person who harmed him but he does not explicitly express this. Not showing through verbal means and body language that one has forgiven would not create an effect on the person who harmed, and therefore there is only a small possibility that the behaviours of the person who harmed will change. Another point that needs to be emphasized is that in such a situation, there is not a tendency for compromising between parties at an interpersonal level. **Hollow forgiveness** describes the situation in which interpersonal forgiving occurs regardless of the intrapersonal forgiving attitude. In this case, the person who is hurt does not forgive but the person who hurt thinks that he has been forgiven and therefore, it makes it possible for the relationship to continue.

Forgiveness is an important topic that needs to be focused at **organisational level** by both institutional theorists and managers. **Organisational forgiveness** adopts a positive and forward-looking perspective for the future of organisation and it is a process of materializing a transformation through forgiving and a process of helping individuals implement this transformation (Cameron & Caza, 2002). Forgiveness in organisations provides the individual with the opportunity of reconstructing the relations and coping with the negative emotions and ideas arising from interpersonal damages (Aquino et al., 2003). When people face with an offending behaviour or mistakes in the organisations they work, such acts may bear detrimental consequences for the maintenance of organisational relations. Forgiving provides an important exit in coping with these negative results (Paul, 2009). Forgiveness which is seen as a reaction against interpersonal hurting behaviours in organisation and the reconciliation education following this are perceived as alternatives to revenge or maintaining the anger (Palanski, 2011). In institutions in which a person faces injustice and a mistake, leaders seek different solutions to restore the organisation and to provide and increase

positive energy and efficiency. Forgiving is accepted as an effective mechanism in reaching such conclusions (Cameron, 2014).

Researchers also studied effect of forgiveness on organisational operation. Stanton (2011) prepared a counselling programme about forgiveness for the employees in a medical centre and the program showed to be successful in improving the performances of employees. Law (2013) argues that forgiving help employees work in a more harmonious and fruitful in organisations and it also motivates individuals and positively support their job performances. Lagzian, Kafashpor, Mansourian & Farhadinejad (2013) argues that forgivers in organisations have higher level of physical health, spiritual peace and adaptability. Researchers looking into positive effects of forgiving on different levels of organisation found out that forgiveness lead positive results in issues such as focusing on collaboration at organisational level, development of honour in organisation, respect for human values, flexibility and improving social trust culture.

The concept of forgiving and its relation with organisations is a topic that is not being studied much in Turkey. There only few studies and these do not look into the topic in education organisations. A study conducted with 290 employees in various public and private organisation (Akın, Özdevecioğlu & Ünlü, 2012) showed that dispositions of forgiving have a positive and meaningful impact on employees' mental health. The study of Yılmaz (2014) in five star hotel managements in Izmir determined that there is a negative relationship between perceptions of victimisation among employees and forgiving dispositions. The study conducted with 436 teachers by Sariçam, Çardak & Yaman (2014) showed that there is a negative but a meaningful relation between mobbing and forgiveness behaviours. This issue has not been studied within the education organisations in Turkey so far. Therefore, studying this issue together with the concepts of organisational climate, organisational culture, organisational justice and related concepts will scientifically contribute to the knowledge in this field. The forgiving types of employees in school organisations, the level of forgiveness and the person whom they forgive are topics that should be researched.

Teachers try to materialise main aims of school with school managers, students and parents who are the fundamental components of school community. In doing so, teachers may face various problems with these people during. The act of forgiveness may play an important role in overcoming these problems without causing organisational conflicts. Therefore, it is necessary to research how teachers forgive the problems they experience with other people in order to understand the effectiveness of organisational operation. The main aim of this research is to find out teachers' types of forgiveness and to discuss the organisational reflection drawing from the incidents primary school teachers experience at school. Thus, the research seeks to answer two following questions:

- 1) What type of forgiveness teachers prefer when they experience a hurting incident at school?
- 2) What sort of consequences can teachers' type of forgiveness bear in operation of schools?

## **2.Method**

In this study qualitative research design is used to find out teachers' types of forgiveness.

### **2.1. Study Group**

The participants of this research are five primary school teachers who were working in the same school in Samsun during 2013-2014 academic year. The negative and hurting incidents teachers experienced with their school managers, students, parents and other teachers during their service were taken into consideration in selection of teachers to be interviewed. In other

words, not experiencing a problem with any of these groups played a role in not selecting teachers into study group. The study group was determined by criterion sampling which is one of the methods of purposive sampling. The selection criterion for this study was that teachers in their relations with four different groups should experience an incident, which harmed them, and which required forgiveness.

## 2.2. Data Collection and Analysis

To determine the types of forgiveness of teachers, teachers were asked if they experienced any unpleasant events with school managers, parents, students or with other teachers that harmed them; only the teachers who experienced such an event separately with each of this group are selected. Only five teachers were identified who had experienced such an incident with all groups. The aim of the study was explained to teachers and they were asked whether they would want to participate in the research. The teachers were asked to tell a case they experienced with these groups. A separate interview was held with each participant and thus “interaction effect” was prevented. The case studies were noted down and additional questions were asked during the interviews to elaborate on case studies if they were not clear enough. The written notes were read to teachers after the interview and their approval was received. Each teacher told about 4 different cases and in total 20 exemplary case studies.

The participants were given following codes and pseudonyms in data analysis: T1, T2, T3, T4 and T5. Then, the noted transcripts were read a few times. This is followed by a categorization of transcripts of each participants as “incidents experienced with students”, “incidents experienced with parents”, incidents experienced with managers” and “incidents experienced with other teachers.” Descriptive analysis was used to analyse of each incident. Table 1 presents **types of forgiveness matrix** to show types of forgiveness of teachers. This matrix is formed by using **two variables** such as ending the resentment and anger at intrapersonal level and expressing that one has forgiven the person who hurt (interpersonal level). The sign of “x” in the table indicates that the person did not show forgiveness behaviour in that level whereas the sign of check stands for the display of forgiveness in the related level.

Table 1. *Types of forgiveness matrix*

Level of forgiveness Types of Forgiveness	Intrapersonal (individual level)	Interpersonal (dyad or interpersonal level)
No forgiveness	x	x
Total forgiveness	✓	✓
Silent forgiveness	✓	x
Hollow forgiveness	x	✓

The types of forgiveness teachers showed in the incidents are coded based on the attitudes they displayed at the end of the incident. Coding was done separately by the researchers. Researchers calculated the agreement percentage by using Miles and Huberman’s reliability formula. The agreement between the coders was calculated as 82%. This percentage shows that the research is reliable.

### 3. Findings

The research findings were obtained through analysis of incidents teachers experienced with students, school managers, parents and other teachers at school. Analysis helped us identify the forgiveness types. Reflections of these on the way school operates were analysed.

#### 3.1. Teachers' Types of Forgiveness

Below, teachers' different types of forgiveness based on their experiences are presented.

##### 3.1.1. Types of forgiveness in the incidents teachers experienced with *students*

When each case told by teachers was analysed, it could be seen that teachers warned students in case of disobedience to rules and if students did not take this warning into consideration and displayed disobedient behaviours, these behaviours can be argued to hurt teachers.

**T1:** *During the class one of my students' mobile phone rang, I warned him and asked him to give the phone to me. But he insulted me. His parents came and apologized. For the first time, I forgave him quite reluctantly after the request of the parent. After I forgave him, there were positive changes in students' behaviours and attitudes. When we were saying goodbye to students in the last school day of the academic year, he approached embarrassingly and said: "I have been disrespectful to you, Please forgive me and give your blessings." I really forgave him when he said me this. I do not regret forgiving him. I am happy that I forgave him. I feel myself better.*

**T2:** *One of my students was using slang words when talking with his friends in school garden, I warned him. A week later, I realized that my car had a flat tire and tires were cut. After I investigated, I found out that he was responsible for damaging my tires. His parent kindly asked me to forgive him and I did so and he did not get any punishment. Then, student apologized yet it was not a sincere one. So, I did not genuinely forgive because I did not see a maturity and an embarrassment in his behaviours. Even if I did not forgive him, there was nothing to do. The school management did not do anything about it and did not want to deal with legal procedures. I forgave reluctantly just to please the parent. Indeed, I did not forgive him and could not get over this incident. It affected me a lot.*

**T3:** *I was on duty that day. Some students were also expected to be on duty but one of them was not there and I asked that student to join his friends for duty. He attacked me. His friends helped him by holding my arms tightly. After I was beaten up, I forgave neither students nor others. No one apologized anyway. I was psychologically affected, I could not go to school for a while and some other health problems appeared. Nothing happened to student. To be honest, I would like student to be punished but nothing could be done because it was a student with learning difficulties. It was a very bitter experience for me. I never forgave the student. Even now while I am talking about this incident, I go back to those days. It was an incident that put me off from working as a teacher.*

**T4:** *It was time for class. I warned one of the students to go into class. That student complained about me to his parent at home and accused me of applying physical violence to him. Then, he came and apologized. There was a change in his behaviours after the apology because he was feeling embarrassed and whenever he saw me; he understood that what he did was wrong. He became more interested in my class. I could feel that he was feeling embarrassed even when he was looking into my eyes and he was trying to overcome this embarrassment by actively participating into my class. Therefore, I took this incident easily*

*and I did not develop hatred or feel like taking revenge. I forgave. He was like other students for me.*

**T5:** *I was invigilating an exam and I saw that one of the students was cheating. I wanted to take his exam paper but he threw the paper and left the class. Then, he apologized. I forgave him when he apologized and there was a change in his behaviours after the apology. It did not happen again. I was relieved that the incident resulted in this way and the student's behaviours improved.*

When these incidents were analysed, it can be seen that three teachers (T1, T4 ve T5) totally forgave the students who apologized after their hurting behaviours. Upon forgiving the students, it can be understood that teachers felt good and relieved and their relations with those students were normalized. It could be argued that in the forgiving behaviours of teachers, the genuine and sincere apology of students and the display of positive changes in their behaviour played an important role. Decrease in teachers' anger in due course can also be said to be effective in these behaviours. Another important point is that when teachers displayed forgiveness behaviour, the situation resulted in favour of both them and students.

Moreover, there are a number of important incidents in schools that teachers did not forgive. For instance, two teachers (T2 and T3) did not forgive the students who applied physical violence irrespective of whether students apologized or not. It can be argued that ignorance of school management about behaviours of violence played a role. It can be said that teachers who did not display forgiveness may still be under the effect or influence of the incident. Kerns (2009) expressed in his research that forgiving has a positive impact on job satisfaction, physical health and happiness and forgiveness eases the psychological recovery by reducing stress. It could be seen that teachers who genuinely forgave feel peaceful and do not experience any negative feelings in the workplace. On the other hand, it can be understood that performance of teachers who were not forgivers were affected by the experienced incidents and they even felt alienated from their profession.

### 3.1.2. Types of forgiveness in the incidents teachers experienced with *parents*

When incidents teachers experienced with parents were analysed, it could be seen that students mostly reflected the problems they faced in school to their parents and parents usually came to school upon this. The problems faced by parents can be summarized as follows:

**T1:** *There was a student who was constantly causing a problem in the class. I warned him a few times in the class. He told this situation to his parent differently. The parent came to school with the idea that "the teacher gives a hard time to my kid." We quarrelled with the parent and she was disrespectful to me. I felt very sad. However, after she listened to the situation both from me and from other teachers, she apologized. Then, she started to come to school regularly to see if anything can be done about the student. Then, everything returned back to normal.*

**T2:** *I had a girl who constantly spoke and giggled in the class. I told her to act like a lady and she told this very differently at home. Upon this, her brother came, he was very angry and he literally challenged me. I felt resented by his words. When he learned the actual story, he apologized to me. Then, the student also felt embarrassed about what she did. I forgave. In the end the brother was also young and uneducated. So, there may have been a misunderstanding.*

**T3:** *A parent came to warn a student for the rude words the student uttered to her child. Is such a thing possible? We are also responsible for safety of children at school. We quarrelled with the parent. She said she only wanted to talk to that student but I did not allow her to do*

so. Then, she uttered rude words to me. I got disappointed. She was such an inconsiderate person. I asked her to leave since I had to go to class. I did not make a big deal about it and the parent did not apologize. We have serious cultural differences in our parent profile so I could understand her. I am OK with the student but I have always tried to avoid the parent.

**T4:** A parent came to school to complain that the projects done in the class were very difficult and the materials used for them were very expensive. Then, the parent nagged and told me that I was inconsiderate. I felt sad. Then, it was understood that the student was doing projects at home for pleasure and then was telling his parent that the projects were asked by the teacher. So, he constantly made the parent buy something. When the parent found out this, she apologized. I did not make a big deal because the parent believed the child's words when he said that the teacher asked for the projects. We did not experience the same thing again.

**T5:** The student had severe behaviour and failure problems and I warned him. Then the parent came and told me that his child did not want to come into my class. He questioned my teachership and uttered rude words to me. Then we talked with the teacher who was responsible for that class. Then, it was understood that student did not come to school many days without his parents' knowledge. When the parent listened to other teachers, he apologized. I was relieved that everything came into light.

Except for one (T3), all teachers indicated that students reflected and told the incidents at school differently to their parents and once parents understood the truth, they apologized to teachers. Teachers expressed that they totally forgave the parents (total forgiveness) and felt relieved afterwards. This finding shows that teachers display forgiving behaviours if the person who does wrong apologizes and the incident is not repeated again. Thus, teachers feel relieved. On the other hand, T3 justifies the cause of incident with the low educational level of parents. It could be understood that despite the rude and hurting words of the parent and unapologetic attitude, the teacher showed understanding and ended the negative feelings at an intrapersonal level. Moreover, teacher's explanation shows that she did not mention this to the parent, so it could be thought that teacher showed silent forgiveness. It could be seen that the problems teachers face with parents results from the problems they experience with students at schools. These problems were generally solved when parents saw that teacher was right and apologized to them. It could be seen that teachers forgave parents and thus they did not make something out of nothing.

### 3.1.3. Types of forgiveness in the incidents teachers experienced with *other teachers*

The problems teachers faced with *other teachers* are not only school related but they also involve personal problems. These problems can be summarized as follows:

**T1:** My friend made students imitate me and then he was telling this to our colleague to make fun. He told this in teachers' room as if it was something pleasant. First, I also laughed but then I felt disappointed. I said "Are you dealing with such things in class instead of teaching? It is not pleasant at all. You decrease the respectability of teachers." She apologized once she realized that I did not like it. She told me that I would enjoy it. I could see that she felt really sad. I forgave.

**T2:** In every celebration at school, we, as the branch teachers, are very active but primary school teachers are not doing much. They even don't want to deliver a speech. Our workload is increasing and we don't have much time for other activities. It is very unjust to assign work to the same teachers all the time. This created a problem at school. Upon this, there was a big discussion among teachers. Some teachers uttered rude words to us. No one talked to

*each other for a long while. Then, it was agreed that tasks would be distributed equally to everyone and the problem was solved. Resentments were forgotten. We are ok now.*

**T3:** *I had an excuse and kindly asked one of my colleagues to invigilate in my exam. This friend let students cheat and also provided the answers of some questions. I repeated the exam. I also got mad at her as she fooled me. I also said this to her. She apologized and said that she did so because she felt pity for students. But I had to repeat the exam. It caused me more workload. My anger did not last a lot. We are good now but I can never ask such a thing from her again.*

**T4:** *There is a committee in our school who is responsible from buying presents to staff on special days. We had a small discussion upon seeing that this committee arbitrarily bought presents and sometimes they did not buy presents for certain people and made excuses for this. We abolished the committee and the problem was solved. One friend from the committee spoke a bit harsh to me so I am not talking with him anymore. I will never speak. He is a primary school teacher and I am a branch teacher, so we don't need to talk each other. He really hurt me.*

**T5:** *We had a problem with a colleague of mine about allocation of courses. The school managers backed him. This was unfair. I did not discuss about it with my colleague. I did not say anything about it. During the year, he was sarcastic to me a few times. I was angry at him for the entire year. He also became part of this injustice. I am still angry. We are not talking at all.*

The problems between teachers are thought to result from both formal and informal relations. Yet, most teachers (T1, T2 and T3) remarked that they talked about the problems they faced with their friends. Although most of these talks were hurting, the problems were solved. The apology of teachers who hurt or the fair solutions of school managers resulted in teachers' forgiving the people who hurt them (total forgiveness). Apology and fair decisions can be argued to play a meaningful role in ending the resentments among teachers. When the persons who have harmed other individuals do not apologize or when the person who is hurt feels that the school management treats him unfairly then these situations lead teachers who are hurt (T4 and T5) not to forgive their colleagues (no forgiveness). In summary, individuals who forgive within the organisation are more successful in solving the problem and have inner peace whereas individuals who do not display forgiveness can be argued to experience problems in accessing inner peace.

#### 3.1.4. Types of forgiveness in the incidents teachers experienced with *school managers*

The problems teachers experience with school managers involves permission request, course programme, duties and responsibilities. The problems they face with school management can be summarized as follows:

**T1:** *When there were new regulations about the dress codes, our principal was frequently commenting on what we should wear and what we should not wear. When he was saying all these, as a principal, he was not even wearing a tie. I criticized this situation. I told him that there was freedom about the dress code and he cannot just tell us what to wear. Then we had a discussion and some other friends also involved in it. A year passed and I did not forgive the principal. His attitude was not nice. It did not affect my performance and I was keeping a distance from him. I did not talk to him unless I had to.*

**T2:** *I was not going to attend annual meeting due to my health problems but the principal started to criticize me without even saying get well soon. He said that I was a new teacher and therefore I needed to attend this meeting. He reluctantly gave permission. I felt sad. I*

seemed as if I was a teacher who was avoiding my duties. I did not talk much with him after this incident.

**T3:** *The principal was assigning a duty to me in every meeting for years. He was excusing other teachers by saying that they have babies or they could not undertake such a task. When I told him that this was unfair, he got angry and reprimanded me. He said unpleasant words. He is discriminating. I started to feel myself like a dump after a while. I am not talking him to at all unless I have to.*

**T4:** *I came to my morning duty early in the morning. There was no one at school and we decided to have tea with other colleagues who were on duty. The principal assistant came and talked as if he was reprimanding us. We got disappointed but we did not say a word out of courtesy. After that incident, we did not talk except from exchanging hellos. What he did was quite wrong, I witnessed that he also treated other teachers in the same way. Then I realized that this person was not liked in the school. While he had an authoritarian attitude and approach towards staff the teachers would not obey to what he was saying.*

**T5:** *I was assigned to another school but I was also planning to teach in my school. The school manager distributed the courses to the other teachers at school. I was feeling tired since I was going to another school and I was also teaching very few classes in my school. I was unjustly treated. The school managers were a bit unfair to me both in terms of material and psychological terms. When I voiced this concern, next term they even scheduled a worse teaching programme. This situation affected my performance and psychology a lot. I never forgave them. We are not talking anyway.*

It could be understood from the explanations that all teachers displayed no forgiveness attitude in the problems experienced by school managers. Teachers expressed that they lost their trust in school management and they were seeing the school manager only when they had to. It could be understood that teachers kept a distance from the school managers and they hardly talked with them except when they had to discuss important issues. This situation negatively affects the performance, psychology of employee and organisation climate. It is known that forgiving plays an important role in improving relations and creating a positive interaction between people at the workplace (Struthers, Dupuis & Eaton, 2005). The results of the research that Akin, Özdevecioğlu & Ünlü (2012) carried out in different private and public sectors show that there is a meaningful and positive relation between the forgiving others and mental health. In addition, the study also revealed that there is a meaningful and negative relation between mental health and intentions of revenge. In this case, unlike their relations with other groups, teachers displayed a stricter attitude towards the school managers.

### **3.2. The Possible Consequences of Teachers' Types of Forgiveness on School Organisation**

Mistakes and hurting behaviours in organisations may cause problems that could create difficulties for organisational operation and affect interpersonal relations and lead dismissal. They could even cause national tragedies. These mistakes can affect an individual, a family, an institution or the entire country (Madsen, Gygi, Hammond & Plowman, 2009). In such situations, there could be dispositions such as seeking revenge or not tolerating the mistake as a counter response. These reactions not only make the individual and the others sad but also damage the relations. These behaviours were effective in the case of individuals seeking revenge if the individuals who harmed continued to make a mistake. Replying to these negative reactions by forgiving rather than by acting aggressively or acting in a way that could damage the relations is a much stronger behaviour. Forgiveness does not mean



compromising with the guilty person or with the one who makes the mistake, and overlooking the incident. Forgiveness means reducing and stopping the urge of harming or avoiding mistakes and anger. The person who benefits the most from forgiveness is the forgiver and this reaction positively affects the efficiency in the organisation (Kerns, 2009). In this respect, the act of forgiving within the organisation will positively affect both the individual and the organisation.

According to Bradfield and Aquino (1999), the experienced incident is important in determining whether employee will display forgiveness or revenge as a reaction to organisational injustice. Several researchers indicated that there are some situations which ease the process of forgiving. These situations are related to the individuals' intentions, the level of intimacy with the harmed party, apology or the feeling of regret from the person who hurt, the severity of the mistake, personal characteristics, social conditions, whether the hurt party is still harmed, and the attitudes of other people (Gauché & Mullet, 2005; Kamat, Jones & Row, 2006; Sastre, Vinsonneau, Neto & Mullet, 2003; Molden & Finkel, 2010). The differences in teachers' disposition of forgiveness may result from any of the aforementioned reasons.

When research findings are looked into in terms of forgiveness types (total forgiveness, no forgiveness, silent forgiveness and hollow forgiveness), it could be seen that teachers displayed 10 for total forgiveness, 9 for no forgiveness and 1 for silent forgiveness behaviours (Table 2).

Teachers did not forgive the incident that hurt them at an intrapersonal level yet they did not show hollow forgiveness which means that they did not pretend to have forgiven the persons who harmed them. It can be argued that teachers generally display forgiveness behaviours. This result is important for organisational life. Cameron and Caza (2002) define organisational forgiveness as the capacity of collectively abandoning the rightful pain and resentment and indicate that positive and forward looking effort will form a good foundation to face the possible negative situations in the future with courage.

Table 2. *Teachers' different forgiving behaviours related to various groups*

Teacher Code	Students	Parents	Other teachers	School managers
T1	Total forgiveness	Total forgiveness	Total forgiveness	No forgiveness
T2	No forgiveness	Total forgiveness	Total forgiveness	No forgiveness
T3	No forgiveness	Silent forgiveness	Total forgiveness	No forgiveness
T4	Total forgiveness	Total forgiveness	No forgiveness	No forgiveness
T5	Total forgiveness	Total forgiveness	No forgiveness	No forgiveness

When variables affecting teachers' types of forgiveness are looked into, the behaviour of apology affects the type of forgiveness. When the incidents in which teachers totally forgave (total forgiveness) were analysed, in 9 out of 10 incidents, the person who hurt apologized. In that one incident, despite there was no direct apology due to intervene of school management, the teacher still displayed total forgiveness. In one of the cases in which teacher did not forgive at all, the person who hurt apologized superficially and reluctantly and therefore apology did not seem genuine to the teacher. These results reveal that genuine and sincere apology positively affects teachers' behaviour of forgiveness and teachers prefer total forgiveness in such a case. Enright & Coyle (1998) think that genuine forgiveness is showing mercy to the person who hurt and renouncing the right of retaliation. Apology, in this respect, led teachers to display total forgiveness.

Another variable that affects the type of forgiveness that teachers show is the **perception** of the hurt person about the severity level of the harming behaviour. Teachers do not forgive if they think that the incidents involved "fight, insult and violence." For instance, the reason why two teachers (T2 and T3) did not forgive the students was the violent behaviours. Violence causes a broken relationship between two parties (Sells & Hargrave, 1998) and it deeply affects the life of the person who was exposed to violence for a long time (Hammond & Madsen, 2008). Severe offenses may lead to irreversible results both at a personal level and in the work environment. This situation will negatively affect the classroom atmosphere in which teacher meets students and works collaboratively for an aim.

Teachers did not forgive the school managers in all the incidents experienced with them. The reasons for this can be found in the unapologetic behaviour of school managers and teachers' belief that school managers act unjustly in their practices and in solving problems. Aquino, Tripp & Bies (2006) observed an interactional relationship between hierarchal position and procedural justice. According to researchers, when the person who is hurt is in a lower-position than the person who hurt and if the person who is hurt believes that the organisation will punish the person who did harm, then the person who is hurt will most probably show forgiveness. However, in this study, the managers did not get a warning or enforcement for hurting teachers. Teachers expressed that they were still offended although the incident happened long time ago. It could be argued that school managers, who are supposed to display fair and appropriate conflict management behaviour in organisations, have poor behaviours regarding how to work with other people in school environment and how to manage conflict. This situation will obstruct collaborative work of teachers and managers due to long lasting resentments. In addition, it will also prevent establishing a "forgiveness culture" in school organisation.

It is argued that in organisation where there are behaviours of forgiveness are not common, job satisfaction and performance reduces, relations are broken, negative feelings prevail, efficiency decrease and turnover intentions of employees increase (Worthington, Greer, Hook, Davis, Gartner, Jennings, Norton, Tongeren, Greer & Toussain, 2013). Teachers who did not display forgiveness expressed that they feel angry when they remember the incidents where people harmed them and that their performance and psychology was negatively influenced. Some teachers did not even want to see the people whom they did not forgive and did not interact with them unless they had to. Furthermore, teachers who showed forgiveness behaviours feel more peaceful and they do not regret forgiving the people who hurt them. Teachers who forgave students and parents said that they saw positive developments in students' behaviours and parents became more interested in their children. This situation is robust evidence that forgiving has a positive impact on individual and organisation.

#### **4. Conclusion and Recommendations**

The main finding of this research is that teachers generally forgive parents, students and colleagues, except for special situations, but they do not forgive school managers whom they hold responsible for solving conflicts at school and maintaining justice. Managers who are responsible for the performance of employees in organisations and efficiency of organisation seem unsuccessful in solving long-lasting resentments. This situation weakens the possibility of future collaboration with teachers and creates a discouraging environment that could prevent the way teachers work. Thus, it could also decrease teachers' motivation, job satisfaction, trust and high efficiency. This environment can be argued to create ethical and legal problems or it could weaken teachers' behaviours supporting education and initiatives. Yet contemporary organisation necessities and prioritizes efforts of development based on competencies and strategies for employers. To achieve this, school managers should work towards establishing a forgiveness culture at schools. In this respect, teachers and managers, being the most fundamental groups of schools, should receive education on "organisational forgiveness" both in pre-service and in-service training; such an education could work as a precautionary measure in terms of organisational health.



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