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LANGUAGE TRAVEL SUPPLY: LANGUAGE TOURISM PRODUCT COMPOSITION

Montserrat Iglesias

EUHT CETT-UB, University of Barcelona

Montserrat.iglesias@cett.cat

Av. Can Marcet 36-38, Barcelona 08035, Spain

Biodata

Senior Lecturer of English as a Foreign Language and Head of Studies at CETT Language School. My research focuses on oral competence in English for Specific Purposes and on language tourism. Co-author of an elementary English course for catering students

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Montserrat Iglesias

montserrat.iglesias@cett.cat

Abstract

A systematic review of literature up to date reflects great scholarly interest in the impacts of study abroad (SA) sojourns on foreign language learners' communicative competence. This paper provides an overview on gains in sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences drawing upon research carried out in this field, which in broad terms supports the belief that both types of competences are effectively developed in SA stays. This article also offers a detailed account of the main constituents of the language tourism product -the travel component and the language learning component- with a special focus on the educational input and the language learning complements included in the latter. Thus, a fundamental part of the language tourism market system will be depicted from a supply perspective. Following an exploratory approach, a literature review was conducted in order to identify existing and missing knowledge in the field of language travel supply, and key aspects were pinpointed and classified. The taxonomy and underpinning concepts resulting from the categorisation of those key features may be considered the starting point for future investigations on SA programmes. The model offered in this exploratory study aims at constituting the underlying conceptual framework for subsequent research on the role of different SA programme design characteristics within the language tourism experience.

Keywords: language tourism, study abroad, foreign language learning

1. Introduction

1.1. The Language Travel Industry

The Association of Language Travel Organisations (ALTO) encompasses decision makers from different areas of the language tourism sector worldwide, such as educational agencies, international and domestic language schools, national associations and accreditation organisations, and auxiliary services providers. In 2015 Deloitte carried out a survey for ALTO among 59 intermediation agencies from 27 countries. Their report offers a representative general picture of the language travel sector.

The results showed that English courses were in high demand (34%), followed by French (195), Spanish and German (15% each), Italian (6%), Chinese (5%), Russian (3%) and other languages. The most visited outbound destinations in terms of student weeks were the UK, the US, Canada and Ireland.

The net revenue was USD$40.0 million and 31% of the agencies' net revenue derived from commission, while the gross value of services represented 69%.The commission income was mainly generated by adult users (61%).

As for the origins of bookings on a weighted average basis, 59% were made by agents' sales teams and 5% by sub agents, while 29% of the courses were booked through the internet and only 2% were direct bookings to schools. The most popular accommodation option for both juniors and adults was the host-family stay, followed by residential lodging.

When asked about the negative impacts on the agents' business activity some aspects were pinpointed, namely the increasing competition by schools, economic aspects in outbound markets and their government policies, restrictive visa conditions and currency exchange rates. Conversely, government support by means of scholarships and educational projects was perceived as affecting agency businesses rather positively.

When it comes to the students' profile, 39% were younger than 18, 36% were aged between 19 and 25, 20% between 26 and 45, and 5% were older than 45. Juniors' study abroad stays took an average 3.3 weeks and the average length of adults' stays was 4.2 weeks. Adult students were the main consumers, as 76% of student weeks were purchased by this segment in search for general language tuition, exam preparation, university pathway, specialised or executive language courses.

SA sojourners are supposed to benefit from their stays in many different ways. This article will focus on language learning outcomes in SA contexts, and then will move on to some SA programme design characteristics which may be conducive to effective foreign language acquisition and satisfactory SA experiences. To conclude, future lines of action will be presented.

1.2. Language Gains Deriving from Study Abroad Stays

A systematic review of literature up to date reflects great scholarly interest in the impacts of SA sojourns on communicative competence, which according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) is composed of linguistic competences -including lexical, grammatical and phonological knowledge and skills-, sociolinguistic competences -concerning the socio-cultural conditions of language use-, and pragmatic competences -related to the functional use of linguistic resources. Whereas some works reveal gains in general proficiency (Carroll, 1967; Churchill & DuFon, 2006; Coleman, 1998; Coleman et al., 1994; Freed, 1998; Ginsberg, 1992; Huebner, 1995; Liskin-Gasparro & Urdaneta, 1995; Rissel, 1995), most researchers have focused on specific aspects of communicative competence. A close look at the research outcomes produced in the last decades -excluding unpublished PhD dissertations and conference proceedings- reveals that while a number of authors have investigated sociolinguistic competences (Allen, Dristas & Mills, 2007; Bacon, 2002; Einbeck, 2002; Engle & Engle, 2004; Hashimoto, 1994; Iino, 2006; Jackson, 2008, 2011; Krzic, 1995; Marriott, 1993, 1995; Marriott & Enomoto, 1995; Mauranen, 1994; Watson, Siska & Wolfel, 2013), other authors have drawn their attention to gains in pragmatic competences (Campbell, 1996; Hassall, 2006; Kinginger & Belz, 2005; Kinginger & Farrell, 2004; Matsumura, 2001, 2003, 2007; McMeekin, 2006; Owen, 2002; Taguchi, 2011), and a few have researched both, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences (Barron, 2003, 2006, 2007; Cohen & Shively, 2007; DuFon, 2006; Paige, Cohen & Shively, 2004; Reynolds-Case, 2013; Siegal, 1995a, 1995b, 1996).

The development of pragmatic competence in SA contexts has mainly been studied following ethnographic methods, i.e. analyzing routines, register, terms of address, and speech acts in learner journals, interviews, recorded conversations, etc. (Churchill & DuFon, 2006). In general, empirical evidence shows that SA sojourners' pragmatic competence is fostered, particularly with respect to their production skills, as they can benefit from social interaction with the local community more naturally than in a formal instruction setting at home. On the whole, SA students' usage of formulaic expressions is enhanced, but it has been found that they tend to overuse them, sometimes in inappropriate situations. Therefore, it has been concluded that their pragmatic acquisition hardly ever reaches a native-like level, and sometimes it even deviates from the target norm. Some studies revealed that the participants were not fully aware of the target language pragmatic standards and could not produce accurate output either because it was not considered necessary or because it confronted the learners' personality or identity (Barron, 2003; DuFon, 2006; Siegal, 1995b). Likewise, sociolinguistic gains occasionally characterized by over-generalization and misuse have also been reported (Freed, 1998).

The interest in documenting significant individual variation in language related outcomes nowadays tends to take a qualitative approach going beyond simple correlations between student activity and measures of linguistic development. Current research has to consider factors like the role of communications technologies and social media in globalised societies, and needs to regard second language acquisition abroad as a dialogic phenomenon that takes place in intercultural contexts and has important subjective dimensions (Kinginger, 2013). However, the social turn of SA research and the wealth of corpus-based research allowing for a better understanding of verbal interactions through conversation analysis contrast with the scarcity of longitudinal studies and the limitation of the populations studied, mainly English-speaking. Another area worth exploring is the correlation between different aspects of SA programmes and the success of language tourism experience.

1.3. A Conceptualisation of Language Tourism

Language travel can be examined from different perspectives. While researchers have long been interested in the area of second language acquisition, the identification of SA sojourners as language tourists who make use of tourist services and engage not only in language learning tasks, but also in tourist activities, has not been extensively researched so far from an academic perspective despite the commercial significance of this niche within the global tourism industry; hence the need to conceptualise it. The research presented in this article is part of a comprehensive study which aims at defining this form of tourism, determining its variables and designing a conceptual model which, in turn, can be used as an underlying framework for subsequent investigations in various related areas.

Language tourism may be defined as "a tourist activity undertaken by those travellers (or educational tourists) taking a trip which includes at least an overnight stay in a destination outside their usual place of residence for less than a year and for whom language learning is a primary or secondary part of their trip" (Iglesias, 2014, p. 10). The main variables and a working model of the language tourism market system have already been identified (Iglesias, 2016).

The market system in which language travel experiences are generated cannot be understood without the complementary angles of the supply and the demand. While previous research has analysed consumer-related factors (Iglesias, 2015a, 2015b, 2015c, 2015d), the spotlight will now turn to the supply, and more specifically, to a key constituent: the language tourism product.

2. Method

In this article the language tourism supply will be examined following the model of educational tourism market system devised by Ritchie (2003), which has been adapted to the particular characteristics of this phenomenon. From a supply or product perspective, the model includes the nature of the primary educational tourism product (formed by the combination of primary and secondary suppliers), the possible managing and marketing structures involved, and the resource base for this type of tourism activity.

Following Ritchie (2003), the fragmentation of the educational tourism sector due to the wide range of organisations involved in the provision, marketing and management of the educational tourism experience may be an obstacle for the stakeholders' operational development. This can limit the potential benefits for the target destinations, the tourism industry and the tourists. Therefore, it is particularly relevant to understand the complexities of this tourism activity through a systems-based approach.

As the language travel industry is quite immature and reliable data about how it works is scarce, an exploratory approach was adopted in this investigation. A literature review was carried out with the general objective of generating a starting point so that more extensive research on this phenomenon can be conducted in the future. The purpose was three-fold: to examine the current state of knowledge in the area of language tourism supply, to pinpoint relevant research in that area, and to detect gaps in knowledge. Key data was identified and processed by means of categorisation.

In order to gain a better understanding of what the language travel supply consists of from different perspectives a general overview will be provided in the next section, and then we will zoom in on the product composition from a learning angle to identify the educational input and the language learning complements. Each one of these two broad categories will be broken down into subcategories to create a taxonomy of aspects that need to be taken into account when analysing the language learning component.

3. Results and Discussion

Three key elements must be highlighted in the configuration of the language tourism supply: the product composition, the marketing and management structures, and the destinations' environmental and social resource base.

The language tourism product comprises a language learning component and a travel component. The former may involve some sort of educational input supplemented by complements, whereas the latter may include transport, accommodation, catering and leisure arrangements.

The marketing and management structures are responsible for planning, promoting, selling and providing the language tourism product. They can range from language education providers, to public administration institutions, to trade bodies or travel planners.

Last but not least, to analyse the environmental and social resource base at the target destinations the local culture and host community need to be examined, as well as their geographical context and their current situation concerning the political, economic, social, technological, environmental and legal factors that define them. Table 1 offers an overview of all these aspects.

Table 1. *Language tourism supply: the language tourism product.*

1. Product composition	1.1. Language learning component	1.1.1. Educational input
		1.1.2. Language learning complements
	1.2. Travel component	1.2.1. Transport
		1.2.2. Accommodation
		1.2.3. Catering
		1.2.4. Leisure
2. Marketing & management structures	2.1. Language education providers	
	2.2. Public administration institutions	
	2.3. Trade bodies	
	2.4. Travel planners	
3. Destination's environmental & social resource base	3.1. Local culture	
	3.2. Host community	
	3.3. Geographical context	
	3.4. Current situation (political, economic, social, technological, environmental & legal factors)	

Observing the language tourism product in more depth, it is obvious that full language learning experiences abroad lie on the services supplied by both the tourism industry and language education agents. Table 2 sums up the elements related to tourism stakeholders.

Table 2. *Language tourism product composition: the travel components.*

1. Accommodation	1.1. Types of lodging according to local regulations		
	1.2. Operation	1.2.1.Ownership	1.2.1.1. Privately owned
			1.2.1.2. Not privately owned
		1.2.2. Brand	1.2.2.1. Chain
			1.2.2.2. Independent
	1.1. Cost	1.3.1. Low cost	
		1.3.2. Standard rate	
		1.3.3. Luxury	
	1.2. Provision of services	1.4.1. Categories according to rating system	
		1.4.2. Autonomy	1.4.2.1. Self-catering
			1.4.2.2. Serviced
		1.4.3. Specialization	1.4.3.1. Mass
			1.4.3.2. Targeted
	1.5. Demographic microsegmentation	1.5.1. Age	
		1.5.2. Gender	
		1.5.3. Travel party	
	1.6. Capacity	1.6.1. Small	
		1.6.2. Medium-sized	
		1.6.3. Large	
	1.7. Location	1.7.1.Geographical	1.7.1.1. Urban
			1.7.1.2. Natural area
		1.7.2. Proximity	1.7.2.1. To educational/work setting
			1.7.2.2. To destination's resources
	1.8. Interaction	1.8.1. Facilitated	1.8.1.1. Locals
			1.8.1.2. Peers
			1.8.1.3. Host family
		1.8.2. Not facilitated	
2. Transport	2.1. Operation	2.1.1. Ownership	2.1.1.1. Privately operated
			2.1.1.2. Not privately operated

		2.1.2. Arrangement	2.1.2.1. Scheduled
			2.1.2.2. Chartered
			2.1.2.3. On demand
	2.2. Cost	2.2.1. Low cost	
		2.2.2. Standard rate	
		2.2.3. Luxury	
	2.3. Provision of services	2.3.1. Integration	2.3.1.1. Included
			2.3.1.2. Not included
		2.3.2. Categories according to rating system	
	2.4. Capacity	2.4.1. Individuals	
		2.4.2. Groups	
	2.5. Local regulations	2.5.1. Regulated transport system	
		2.5.2. Liberalised system	
	2.6. Scope	2.6.1. To travel to the destination	
		2.6.2. In the destination	
	2.7. Means	2.7.1. Air	
		2.7.2. Water	2.7.2.1. Sea
			2.7.2.2. River
		2.7.3. Land	2.7.3.1. Road
			2.7.3.2. Rail
	2.8. Route	2.8.1. Direct	
		2.8.2. With stopovers	
	2.9. Connectivity	2.9.1. Point-to-point transit	
		2.9.2. Spoke-hub distribution network	
3. Catering	3.1. Board	3.1.1. All meals provided	
		3.1.2. Meals partially provided	3.1.2.1. Half board
			3.1.2.2. Bed and breakfast
		3.1.3. Meals excluded	
	3.2. Consumption variables	3.2.1. Time	
		3.2.2. Gastronomic preferences	
		3.2.3. Cost	
		3.2.4. Setting	
		3.2.5. Demographic microsegmentation	
		3.2.6. Variety of offer	
		3.2.7. Health requirements	
		3.2.8. Socialization needs	
	3.3. Establishments	Same taxonomy as accommodation	
4. Leisure	4.1. Activities	4.1.1. Not related to language learning	
		4.1.2. Language learning complements	
	4.2. Consumption variables	4.2.1. Time	
		4.2.2. Recreation preferences	
		4.2.3. Cost	
		4.2.4. Setting	
		4.2.5. Demographic microsegmentation	
		4.2.6. Variety of offer	
		4.2.7. Physical features	
	4.3. Establishments	Same taxonomy as accommodation	

Let us focus hereinafter on the language learning component and the elements that integrate it, shown in Table 3. The categorisation of all its constituents will be presented in two separate subsections. The first will be concerned with the educational input, while the language learning complements will be dealt with in the second one.

Table 3. *Language tourism product composition: the language learning components.*

1. Educational input	1.1. Informal education		
	1.2. Formal education	1.2.1. Programme design	1.2.1.1. Standard
			1.2.1.2. Tailor-made
		1.2.2. Educational setting	1.2.2.1. First level
			1.2.2.2. Second level
			1.2.2.3. Third level
			1.2.2.4. Language school
			1.2.2.5. Teacher's home
		1.2.3. Student-teacher ratio	
		1.2.4. Demographics	1.2.4.1. Age
			1.2.4.2. Gender
			1.2.4.3. Education
			1.2.4.4. Occupation
			1.2.4.5. Origins
			1.2.4.6. Travel party
		1.2.5. Course timing	1.2.5.1. Length of course
			1.2.5.2. Period of tuition
			1.2.5.3. Duration of sessions
			1.2.5.4. Frequency of sessions
		1.2.6. Learning focus	1.2.6.1. Learning objectives
			1.2.6.2. Language teaching approaches
		1.2.7. Classroom activities	1.2.7.1. Nature of tasks
			1.2.7.2. Degree of complexity
			1.2.7.3. Goals
			1.2.7.4. Processes
			1.2.7.5. Roles of students
		1.2.8. Resources	1.2.8.1. Materials
			1.2.8.2. Media
			1.2.8.3. Degree of digitalization
		1.2.9. Assessment	1.2.9.1. Focus
			1.2.9.2. Methods
			1.2.9.3. Periods
			1.2.9.4. Agents
		1.2.10. Accreditation	1.2.10.1. Exam preparation
			1.2.10.2. Certificate of achievement
			1.2.10.3. Certificate of attendance
			1.2.10.4. None
2. Language learning complements	2.1. Complements not included		
	2.2. Language learning supplemented by complementary activities		
	2.3. Activity-led learning		

3.1. Educational Input

Language learning is a fundamental concern for language tourists. Therefore, the educational input they receive during their trip is a determining aspect in their language tourism experience, as it may not only contribute to their linguistic acquisition, but also to the fulfilment of their expectations with respect to other related aspects, such as self-realisation. The implications on their perceived overall satisfaction have been discussed in Iglesias, 2015b.

Although the vast majority of language travellers have access to language learning input through formal education providers, not all language tourists may be interested in hiring the services of language teaching institutions or teachers. They may acquire the target foreign language autonomously, through immersion or sustained contact with members of the local community, by interacting systematically and receiving feedback from them in conversation exchanges, by using the wide range of online language learning resources, etc.

For most language travellers, though, the main sources for their educational input are supplied in formal education contexts, usually in SA programmes (for a detailed account of consumer behaviour see Iglesias, 2015d). Such programmes have a standard design, as they have been conceived, arranged and commercialised for a market segment (e.g. juniors, exam-takers, business people, etc.). However, nowadays more and more language travel providers need to face to the demands of both agents and students, and this sometimes includes a point of difference or adapting to specific needs in tailor-made programmes. They may have to cater for special customer targets, such as closed groups.

The demand for specialised programmes catering for particular interests is growing. Themed programmes may focus on Harry Potter or be based on a school project dealing with the castles of Northumberland, just to mention two examples of summer programmes in the UK (Norris, 2016).

At present language courses are on offer not only in language schools, but also in different educational settings, ranging from primary and secondary schools to universities. A recent trend is home tuition (Smith, 2015). The flexibility of home tuition language programmes, in which the student lives and learns in the teacher’s home, is becoming increasingly attractive among clients with specific objectives or who want to make the maximum progress in the shortest possible time. Every course is designed for each individual student’s needs, so stays can be shorter and adapted to their requirements. Home tuition is completely student-centred, since the dates of the course, its content, the style of delivery and the extra activities are tailor-made. The students benefit from complete immersion in the culture of the host country and the chance to increase their self-confidence by practising the target language at all times. For example, home tuition can focus on exam preparation, business communication, job interview skills or professional competences. They are also ideal for couples or for students who are planning study a degree in the host country, as an introduction to experience the local culture and academic systems.

Obviously a student-teacher ratio of one-to-one does not often yield the same results as those deriving from a more crowded class. A number of UK language schools currently offer mini-group classes (between two and four students) with enhanced interaction and learning dynamics. However, larger groups also allow for fruitful outcomes. In other words, class size alone does not guarantee successful language acquisition.

In this regard, demographic aspects such as age, gender, education, occupation, origins and travel party, may prove significant (for an extensive description see Iglesias 2015a). At present, customers are becoming used to taking part in summer programmes at an earlier age and to travelling to farther destinations. For example, more and more European students are interested in North America instead of the traditional destinations, such as the UK or Malta. Generally speaking, the nationalities of sojourners taking part in summer language programmes depend on the provider's location (Norris, 2016).

Traditionally strong outbound destinations like Russia and Spain are currently suffering from the effects of the financial crisis. This involves a drop in the volume of students coming from these countries, particularly in relation to summer programmes, which are not regarded as priority expenditure in fragile family budgets.

As for course timing, the length of the course and the period of tuition play a major role, as well as the duration and the frequency of the sessions. The period of the year when SA programmes are more demanded may be somehow related to the participants' nationalities. Summer stays are particularly influenced by the different times when different countries have school holidays.

In the northern hemisphere school-age students have very long holidays in the summer and wish to take advantage of them to take part in short-term SA stays, including language plus activities. The summer period is expanding and changing. In the past the most popular months were July and August, whereas nowadays June and July seem to be more successful, probably because the school period tends to start earlier in some countries. As for the southern hemisphere, in Australia and New Zealand summer programmes taking place in December and January have also experienced an increase. The target in these destinations includes a more Asian demographic (Norris, 2016).

Summer language programmes have always been a strong market or even the main business for language study operators, and this trend will probably continue. Nevertheless, students take shorter summer programmes, from two to four weeks, while they tend to stay abroad for longer periods the rest of the year, particularly if they enrol in language courses for academic purposes.

Contrary to what happens in year-round programmes, nationality mix is a concern in summer programmes, as opportunities for practising the target language wish to be maximised. Summer programme providers therefore need to face to the requirements from students of different cultural backgrounds, for example making an effort to develop a wider range of home stay accommodation alternatives. Operators are occasionally requested by parents to ensure that their child is the only one of their nationality in the school (Norris, 2016).

Whereas in the past those people who travelled abroad to learn English were interested in general English or exam preparation courses for an average period of six months, nowadays language study travellers have more specific aims, tend to be more results-driven and enrol in shorter courses, so language programmes have a more practical orientation (Smith, 2011).

The learning focus is another key feature with respect to the educational input (a thorough explanation is provided in Iglesias, 2015b). Following the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), foreign language students may have different learning objectives: the development of the learner's general competences, the improvement of communicative language competences, the enhanced performance in language activities, the preparation to function in a specific domain, and the development of strategies or tasks in order to learn and use foreign languages as well as discover or experience foreign cultures.

As for language teaching approaches, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001), three possible views exist: the structural, the functional and the interactional. These perspectives underlie different language teaching methods, from current communicative methods (e.g. content-based, task-based, etc.) to principled eclecticism, where the method is fit to the learner.

With respect to classroom activities, tasks can be very varied in nature and they may be placed on a continuum from very simple to very complex, with different goals. The tasks that the students must undertake as language users differ from those aimed at focusing on the language learning process itself, and, in turn, development tasks may be distinguished from those specifically designed for testing purposes. The CEFR makes a distinction between 'real-life' tasks (based on the learners' needs) and pedagogic classroom tasks. Classroom tasks may involve a number of processes or language activities to different extents, since learners can engage in reception, production, interaction, and/or mediation. They can be rather passive or take an active part, and play several roles both in the tasks themselves and in task planning and management (Iglesias, 2015b).

In relation to resources, Iglesias (2015b) offers a detailed picture of materials, media and degree of digitalization. Pedagogic innovation is a relevant issue, particularly in the junior market, where contextualised dynamic, entertaining and varied learning activities that constitute a break from traditional school teaching are required. In this sense, the incorporation of new technologies is more and more valued, so many overseas language schools are now fitted with interactive whiteboards and Wi-Fi (Smith, 2011).

As far as assessment is concerned, following the CEFR the focus may be on the achievement of specific objectives versus proficiency, or on performance versus knowledge, and several methods can be used (see Iglesias 2015b for a comprehensive classification of methods). Regarding the period, assessment can be carried continuously throughout the course, and it may be an ongoing formative process of collecting learning evidence and providing the learners with feedback. Conversely, it can be carried out in fixed assessment points, at the beginning or at the end of the learning period, and it may sum up attainment at the end of the period with a grade. Concerning the agents in charge of evaluations, assessment may be objective or carried out subjectively by assessors, namely the own student (self assessment) or others, such as teachers or classmates (peer-assessment).

To finish with, accreditation may be a major concern for learners taking a language course abroad. Some may be especially interested in exam preparation, while others may only require a certificate of achievement or attendance, or they may simply not expect any sort of accreditation, for example in the case of home tuition.

Millions of international students around the world take language exams overseas each year in search of accreditation to access future higher education, employment or residential status, particularly in English speaking contexts with restrictive immigration policies requiring recognised evidence of English language skills for visa applications. This is the reason why the English exam testing sector is a growing segment of the study travel industry. English test preparation providers included in SA programmes cover a wide range of exams, from Toefl and Toeic to Ielts, but also the ones by Trinity College London or the Cambridge English suite, as well as very specialised tests for industrial or business purposes (Knott, 2015).

3.2. Language Learning Complements

As we have seen, the educational input is an essential component of the language tourism product, and depending on its nature it may be complemented by supplementary activities. Activities may also be integrated in an activity-led learning process and used as a vehicle for language acquisition. As a matter of fact, language learning complements are rarely excluded, particularly in formal education settings.

SA programmes that combine language learning and activities, especially in the summer, have always been a healthy niche in the global language learning industry, mainly for junior learners. Customers increasingly deviate from the traditional format, based on formal language tuition in the morning and excursions in the afternoon. This sector is changing, since students increasingly require different activities, destinations or approaches.

Activities can be a strong attraction and a fundamental ingredient in a programme's success. They are usually designed to introduce as many students to each other as possible, to get to know the local inhabitants and culture, or as a means for experiential learning.

Some of the traditional activities that are offered in combination with language learning consist of practicing sports, going on excursions or visiting tourist attractions. Alongside perennial favourites, such as football, golf, tennis and horse-riding, new options include yoga, cycling, ski and snowboarding, go-karting, wall-climbing, theatre, art, dance, volunteer work in the local community or seminars. A wider range of activities are being introduced, some of which reflect present worldwide trends. For instance, Silicon Valley tours are arranged in San Francisco for junior students (Norris, 2016).

Diversification is gaining ground, and the social and cultural activities that may be undertaken in SA programmes have also grown. These may include Chinese martial arts, dumpling cooking, tea ceremonies, calligraphy and traditional paper folding in China (Norris, 2016).

There is also growing interest in including more academic content in summer programmes. Parents nowadays also look for programmes that are project-based or that offer a taster course encompassing lectures from university professors or visits to colleges so that young students can have an overview of the academic options they may have after leaving secondary school. Thus, teenagers can get English instruction in the morning and a more academic programme in the afternoon, for example, which may help them with their future career choice. The global economic downturn and the fact that parents wish to capitalise on their investment in SA stays may be the reasons underlying this current trend towards a career-focused summer programme.

Travelling summer schools and multi-centre language settings providing courses where students stay in different locations throughout their SA sojourn are also a growing trend and an innovative concept. Learners study the target language through immersion while touring several locations within the host country. This enables them to get to know a country as well as the local culture and the host community in its own environment. At the same time, the students receive formal language instruction from teachers who accompany them throughout the whole tour. They can get up to 200 hours language practice in just a fortnight and enjoy authentic experiences (Healy, 2015a).

The summer school's location may influence the design of the programme, based on the local features, not only in cultural terms, but also with respect to the natural resources available. SA sojourners have become more daring and as a complement to formal language instruction they engage in adventure activities or extreme sports, such as skydiving, bungy jumping or mountain biking, for example in New Zealand (Norris, 2016).

Let us finish this section illustrating some activities on offer at different destinations. In Australia, SA sojourners can choose from English plus sports activities, e.g. surfing, tennis, golf, scuba-diving, skateboarding, kayaking, snorkelling and beach volleyball, but also yoga and music. Apparently, the Europeans love surfing, whilst the Japanese love yoga. South Americans and Europeans love football and all sports, and Koreans and Taiwanese are keen on experiencing a different culture and lifestyle (Deacon, 2015a).

For a more integrated experience, in Australian ‘English through’ programmes, students may have an English class where the teacher introduces the topics and themes for the week, for instance ‘street art’, and then compliments the lesson with a trip to explore the artistic uniqueness of a particular local neighbourhood. At the end of the course, students are required to put together their own tour and act as a guide for other students. In this travelling classroom, where less structured activities are integrated into the language course, students take an active part in their language learning and feel less inhibited.

As a complement to English courses, an impressive array of activities is on offer in South Africa, such as safaris, whale-watching, sky-diving, surfing, shark cage diving, paragliding and quad biking, as well as volunteer programmes.

In Cape Town English can be acquired through experimental learning and courses with activities. Students leave the classroom three times a week and go on language excursions with a teacher and a qualified South African tour guide to meet a host, who is an artist, musician, storyteller or expert in a particular field (Healy, 2015b).

Spanish and cooking or flamenco, as well as gastronomic packages, such as Spanish or French plus wine tasting, a visit to a local vineyard, or a seminar with wine producers, are becoming very popular in Spain and France. In France, the students can also choose a French and cuisine course, or they can combine general French lessons in the mornings and additional specialised French lessons for fashion in the afternoons in order to gain insight into the history and business of fashion, as well as haute couture design and dressmaking. Alternatively, French plus cultural courses aim at students who are willing to improve their French language skills and discover the local culture by means of different activities, visits and trips (Deacon, 2015b).

4. Conclusions

The factors and considerations which have been reported in the previous section allow for a thorough account of the language learning component within the language tourism product. This groundwork can be a springboard for future investigations on SA programme planning, implementation and evaluation.

The limitations of this framework may lie in the fact that, of course, other classifications may be possible and that some subcategories may overlap, as they are interrelated and limits are blurred, for example when it comes to assessment and accreditation. On the other hand, categorisation may be endless, vague or obvious (for instance in terms of student-teacher ratio), which can derive in excessive fragmentation or overgeneralisation, so practicality has been a major concern.

Product composition can be fundamental for the success of language tourism experiences from the point of view of both the supply and the demand. The scope of this article has mainly focused on language acquisition since this is a major objective for language travellers, even though the transformational possibilities for them may go beyond purely linguistic outcomes. Nevertheless, the travel component also plays an import role, and further research may put it in relation with consumer related aspects and find out how it affects different subsectors of the tourism industry.

Forthcoming lines of research can also lead to continue identifying other key variables and processes within the market system, analyzing its strengths and weaknesses, and detecting threats for development and opportunities for improvement. In addition, other studies may aim at obtaining indicators in terms of both inbound and outbound tourism, carrying out market segmentations for marketing purposes, exploring the impacts language travel experiences generate on the users and the host destinations. The range of research options is wide and should contribute to gaining in depth academic knowledge, which should be transferred and have practical implications for the development of the industry, the local communities and the benefit of language tourists.

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ESP NEEDS ANALYSIS OF PUBLIC ORDER POLICE OFFICERS

Ömer Gökhan Ulum

Adana Science and Technology University

gokhanulum@adanabtu.edu.tr

Biodata

Ömer Gökhan ULUM is currently a lecturer of English at Adana Science and Technology University, Turkey. He is doing his doctorate in ELT field at Çanakkale 18 Mart University, Turkey. His research interests cover English as a foreign language, culture and language, education programs, language skills, discourse analysis, pragmatics, epistemology, and teacher empowerment.

ESP NEEDS ANALYSIS OF PUBLIC ORDER POLICE OFFICERS

Ömer Gökhan Ulum

gokhanulum@adanabtu.edu.tr

Abstract

With this study, 105 public order police officers in the national police forces were surveyed in order to assess their needs when using English on the job. In other words, this study aimed at examining the needs, functions and problems of 105 police officers serving at the department of public order. The findings from the questionnaire with open ended questions displayed that, (1) speaking and listening are the most important skills, (2) four language skills are moderately difficult, (3) there are motivational factors important to learn English, and (4) the functional use of English is important for the public order police officers. Recommendations and pedagogical implications were suggested.

Keywords: ESP, needs analysis, ESP for police officers

1. Introduction

Having a long history, ESP (English for Specific Purposes) took start around 1960s when general English courses were not enough to compensate for the specific needs of learners. The emergence of ESP was as a result of such factors as the requirements of the new world order, changes in linguistics, and learner centred education. ESP has two climaxes in the history. One at the end of the 2nd World War in 1945 having given way to a period of huge and remarkable development in scientific, technical and economical movements on a universal extent for several reasons; particularly the rising power of the United States after the World War made English the international language. The other is the oil crisis at the beginning of 1970s causing western finance and knowledge to get into the oil-rich lands. After the mentioned events, all of a sudden, English language appeared to have an impact on business and commercial fields (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Though, ESP education started in 1950s and 1960s, its fame began in 1970s as a consequence of being dominated by EAP (English for Academic Purposes) education (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). ESP can be interpreted as the education of English language with the aim of employing it at a specific domain (Celce-Murcia, 2001; Richards and Schmidt, 2010; Hossain, 2013; Otilia, 2015). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) described ESP as a way of language education in which each arrangement on the content and method is settled on the students' reasoning for learning. They also implied that as English occurred as the approved universal language of technology and commerce, it generated contemporary learners who were particularly conscious about the reason why they were learning a language. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1992), learners know particularly the reason why they are learning a language and it is the consciousness of a need that ESP figures out. Therefore, learners' needs analysis is defined as the highlight point in the formation of an ESP course since learners are at the centre of this process. Needs analysis is a progressive term which is conducted before, while and after a language program. Scholars have diverse views on the description of needs analysis; however several of them perceive needs analysis as an approach mirroring the requirements, desires and needs of learners in their subject area (Fadel and Elyas, 2015). Clearly, ESP is a facet of applied linguistics which concentrates on relating education process to learners' needs (Masoumpanah and Tahririan, 2013). Needs analysis often points out the activities contained in gathering data which will function as the foundation of developing a curriculum that will correspond to the needs of a specific group of learners (Munby, 1978; Richterich and Chancerel, 1987; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; West, 1994; Brown, 1995; Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998; Iwai, Kondo, Limm, Ray, Shimizu and Brown, 1999; Saragih, 2014). In ESP, needs analysis is thought to be the cornerstone (Dorda, 2005; Gass, 2012; Otilia, 2015). Indeed, the term needs analysis has been very different so far. Initially, in 1960s and early in 1970s, needs analysis covered evaluating the communicative needs of the learners; however, the tasks of needs analysis are currently much more intricate in which they focus on piling data about learners, describing the target situation, as well as the setting of ESP (Otilia, 2015). Besides, the portrayal of needs analysis in any ESP program is priceless. It is seen as a necessity in any course design (Munby, 1978; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Richterich and Chancerel, 1987; Robinson, 1991; West, 1994; Brown, 1995; López, 1997; Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998; Khan and Awan, 2011). As suggested by West (1994), needs analysis explains what the learners will be asked to do with English in the target situation and how they may best grasp the target language throughout the education (West, 1994). Additionally, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) state that the effect of attitudes of language learning can be higher in settings where there is more interaction between learners and the native speakers. With all these in mind, this study aimed at examining the needs, functions and language difficulties of 105 public order police officers serving in Antalya, Turkey.

1.1. Research questions

This study focuses on English language needs analysis of public order police officers. In other words, the study aims to seek answers to the following research questions to define the language needs of public order police officers:

1) What English language skills do public order police officers perceive as the most important for their workplace?

2) How difficult are the English language skills for public order police officers?

3) What motivates public order police officers to use English?

2) What functions of English language are necessary for public order police officers?

2. Method

2.1. Significance of the study

In ESP field, there are just a few studies on the English language needs of police officers. Therefore, this study is very significant. Besides, the study reports the results of a questionnaire with open ended questions directed to public order police officers working in Antalya, Turkey. ESP teachers instructing police officers and research conductors studying on this specific research area should employ the results of this study to make inferences that will upgrade the status of their work. Furthermore, this study is expected to encourage further studies on ESP.

2.2. Sampling

The respondents in this study were selected from the public order department of national police forces in Antalya, Turkey. In other words, the sample consisted of 105 male public order police officers from Antalya- one of the most attractive tourist destinations in Turkey. Upon selecting the police officers, the convenience sampling method was used as the target population was too large, and therefore not accessible. 83 of the respondents declared that they believe in the importance of having English competence, while 19 of them declared not believing in it, and there were 3 respondents with no answer. Besides, 36 of the respondents were at the age of 31-35, 29 of them were at the age of 25-30, 25 of them were at the age of 36-40, and 15 of them were at the age of 41-45. Moreover, 93 of the participants declared to have a graduate degree, 8 of them to have a post-graduate degree, and 4 of them to have a high school degree. Regarding the work experience, 44 of the participants had the work experience of 6-10 years, 33 of them had the work experience of 11-15 years, 15 of them had the work experience of 16-20 years, 9 of them had the work experience of 1-5 years, and 4 of them had the work experience of 21-25 years. Additionally, 51 of the police officers suggested they need English at their current workplace (32 needed it sometimes, 11 needed it rarely, 4 needed it always and 4 needed it often) while another 51 participants mentioned that they do not need it, and there were 3 respondents with no answer. Lastly, Table 1 displays the perceptions of the respondents on their level of English:

Table 1. *Perspectives on English Proficiency Level*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Listening Skill	105	2.42	1.108
Reading Skill	105	2.42	.998
Vocabulary Knowledge	105	2.41	1.116
Speaking Skill	105	2.33	1.015
Writing Skill	105	2.31	.983
Grammar	105	2.14	1.095
Valid N (listwise)	105		

By looking at Table 1, it can easily be understood that the proficiency level of the respondents is low. That's to say, the police officers do not have enough competency of English language.

2.3. Data Collection Tools

In this study, perceptions towards English language needs of public order police officers were measured by means of a questionnaire adapted from the study of Aldohon (2014) and Güleç (2013). This study was conducted having resource to the descriptive research design with a view to identifying the perspectives of public order police officers pertaining to their English language needs in their workplace. Oppenheim (1992) indicates that research design makes the problem researchable by shaping the study in a way that will find exact responses to basic problems. He adds that a questionnaire is not only a number of questions or a survey to be completed; it is especially an instrument for the collection of specific type of data. The questionnaire was directly administered to the target group by a police officer working in the national police forces in Antalya, Turkey and supporting the study data gathering process. Based upon a descriptive research design, this study involved the data analysis of descriptive statistics. In this sense, SPSS 20.0, a Statistical Program for Social Sciences was capitalized on to report police officers' viewpoints in numerical data. In order to analyze the data obtained from the questionnaire, mean was used as a statistical technique in order to find out the rate of agreement related to the items about the English language needs of the public order police officers at their workplace. The following degrees of scoring were used in order to compare the means of the perspectives specified: (1) Very low: 1.00 – 1.49, (2) Low: 1.50 – 2.49, (3) Moderate (average): 2.50 – 3.49, (4) High: 3.50 – 4.49, and (5) Very high: 4.50 – 5.00. Furthermore, the assumption of normality was tested via examining Kolmogorov-Smirnova suggesting that normality was a reasonable assumption while Cronbach's Alpha was used suggesting that the questionnaire was reliable (% 83). Finally, the open ended questions were analysed according to frequencies of mentioned views.

3. Data Analysis and Results

3.1. Results pertaining to the perspectives on the importance of English

In the questionnaire, there are 4 items related to results pertaining to the perspectives on the importance of English, particularly in terms of four language skills. Table 2 clarifies the results pertaining to the perspectives of the police officers on the importance of English.

Table 2. *Results pertaining to the perspectives on the importance of English*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Speaking Skill	105	3.67	1.130
Listening Skill	105	3.59	1.132
Reading Skill	105	3.43	1.176
Writing Skill	105	3.34	1.223
Valid N (listwise)	105		

It is clearly seen from Table 2 that the importance of speaking skill is high with a mean ($\bar{x}$) score of 3.67. Besides, the importance of listening skill is high as well by looking at the mean ($\bar{x}$) score of 3.59. On the other hand, reading skill with a mean ($\bar{x}$) score of 3.43 and writing skill with a mean ($\bar{x}$) score of 3.34 are of moderate importance.

3.2. Results pertaining to the difficulty of language skills

In the questionnaire, there are 4 items related to results pertaining to the perspectives on the difficulty of language skills. Table 3 clarifies the results pertaining to the perspectives of the police officers on the difficulty of language skills.

Table 3. *Results pertaining to the perspectives on the difficulty of English language skills*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Listening Skill	105	3.19	1.177
Writing Skill	105	3.09	1.205
Reading Skill	105	3.05	1.167
Speaking Skill	105	3.00	1.051
Valid N (listwise)	105		

When looking at Table 3, it is easily understood that the difficulty of four English language skills is of average difficulty. In other words, it can be concluded that four language skills are moderately difficult.

3.3. Results pertaining to the problems and difficulties in listening skill

In the questionnaire, there are 4 items related to results pertaining to the perspectives on the problems and difficulties in listening skill. Table 4 clarifies the results pertaining to the perspectives of the police officers on the problems and difficulties in listening skill.

Table 4. *Results pertaining to the perspectives on the problems and difficulties in listening skill*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
The fast speech of foreign tourists	105	3.96	1.018
Unknown vocabulary	105	3.90	.925
Unfamiliar foreign accents	105	3.65	.907

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Lack of listening opportunities	105	3.57	1.072
Valid N (listwise)	105		

One can understand from Table 4 that *the fast speech of foreign tourists* with a mean ($\overline{x}$) score of 3.96, *unknown vocabulary* with a mean ($\overline{x}$) score of 3.90, *unfamiliar foreign accents* with a mean ($\overline{x}$) score of 3.65, and *lack of listening opportunities* with a mean ($\overline{x}$) score of 3.57 are of high difficulty.

3.4. Results pertaining to the problems and difficulties in speaking skill

In the questionnaire, there are 4 items related to results pertaining to the perspectives on the problems and difficulties in speaking skill. Table 5 clarifies the results pertaining to the perspectives of the police officers on the problems and difficulties in speaking skill.

Table 5. *Results pertaining to the perspectives on the problems and difficulties in speaking skill*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Insufficient knowledge of grammar and structure	105	3.64	1.037
Using inappropriate words and expressions in conversation	105	3.25	.980
Lack of confidence in speaking	105	3.13	.990
Inability to pronounce words and expressions properly	105	2.94	1.150
Valid N (listwise)	105		

Table 5 illustrates that *insufficient knowledge of grammar and structure* with a mean ($\overline{x}$) score of 3.64 is of high difficulty while *using inappropriate words and expressions in conversation* with a mean ($\overline{x}$) score of 3.25, *lack of confidence in speaking* with a mean ($\overline{x}$) score of 3.13, and *inability to pronounce words and expressions properly* with a mean ($\overline{x}$) score of 2.94 are of average difficulty.

3.5. Results pertaining to the problems and difficulties in Reading skill

In the questionnaire, there are 5 items related to results pertaining to the perspectives on the problems and difficulties in reading skill. Table 5 clarifies the results pertaining to the perspectives of the police officers on the problems and difficulties in reading skill.

Table 6 *Results pertaining to the perspectives on the problems and difficulties in reading skill*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Unable to understand the vocabulary	105	3.66	1.106
Unable to understand lexical items in the tourists documents	105	3.63	1.144
Having inadequate vocabulary in reading	105	3.52	1.056
Reading unfamiliar passages	105	3.41	1.299
Reading too long passages	105	3.38	1.296
Valid N (listwise)	105		

Table 6 illustrates that *unable to understand the vocabulary* with a mean ($\overline{x}$) score of 3.66, *unable to understand lexical items in the tourists documents* with a mean ($\overline{x}$) score of 3.63, and *having inadequate vocabulary in reading* with a mean ($\overline{x}$) score of 3.52 are of high difficulty while *reading unfamiliar passages* with a mean ($\overline{x}$) score of 3.41, *reading too long passages* with a mean ($\overline{x}$) score of 3.38 are of average difficulty.

3.6. Results pertaining to the problems and difficulties in writing skill

In the questionnaire, there are 4 items related to results pertaining to the perspectives on the problems and difficulties in writing skill. Table 7 clarifies the results pertaining to the perspectives of the police officers on the problems and difficulties in writing skill.

Table 7. *Results pertaining to the perspectives on the problems and difficulties in writing skill*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Lack of grammar knowledge	105	3.73	1.137
Insufficient skills of writing	105	3.70	.960
Having inadequate vocabulary	105	3.66	1.025
Lack of opportunity to write	105	3.64	1.082
Valid N (listwise)	105		

According to Table 7, it is clearly understood that the items related to the problems and difficulties in writing skill are of high difficulty. In other words, it can be concluded that four problems or difficulties in writing skill are highly faced by the respondents.

3.7. Results pertaining to the motivational factors to use English

In the questionnaire, there are 11 items related to results pertaining to the perspectives on the motivational factors to use English. Table 8 clarifies the results pertaining to the perspectives of the police officers on the motivational factors to use English.

Table 8. *Results pertaining to the perspectives on the motivational factors to use English*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
To be appointed abroad for occupational development.	105	3.83	1.066
To get enough score in national and international examinations.	105	3.82	1.382
To communicate with foreigners who can’t speak Turkish.	105	3.70	1.125
To meet with people from diverse countries and cultures.	105	3.62	1.186
To take part in missions of international peace forces that require English.	105	3.60	1.145
To make translations about my occupation.	105	3.42	1.329
To search in websites about my job and general issues.	105	3.38	1.235
For post-graduate studies.	105	3.32	1.464
To follow English publications about my job.	105	3.08	1.380
To take part in meetings and conferences about my job as well as to make presentations in such places.	105	2.96	1.499
To write English reports and articles about my job.	105	2.90	1.541
Valid N (listwise)	105		

By looking at Table 8, it is clearly seen that *to be appointed abroad for occupational development* with a mean ($\bar{x}$) score of 3.83, *to get enough score in national and international examinations* with a mean ($\bar{x}$) score of 3.82, *to communicate with foreigners who can’t speak Turkish* with a mean ($\bar{x}$) score of 3.70, *to meet with people from diverse countries and cultures* with a mean ($\bar{x}$) score of 3.62, and *to take part in missions of international peace forces that require English* with a mean ($\bar{x}$) score of 3.60 are necessary. On the other hand, *to make translations about my occupation* with a mean ($\bar{x}$) score of 3.42, *to search in websites about my job and general issues* with a mean ($\bar{x}$) score of 3.38, *for post-graduate studies* with a mean ($\overline{x}$) score of 3.32, *to follow English publications about my job* with a mean ($\overline{x}$) score of 3.08, *to take part in meetings and conferences about my job as well as to make presentations in such places* with a mean ($\overline{x}$) score of 2.96, and *to write English reports and articles about my job* with a mean ($\overline{x}$) score of 2.90 are averagely necessary.

3.8. Results pertaining to the functional use of English

In the questionnaire, there are 13 items related to results pertaining to the perspectives on the functional use of English. Table 9 clarifies the results pertaining to the perspectives of the police officers on the functional use of English.

Table 9. *Results pertaining to the perspectives on the functional use of English*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Responding to questions or solving problems.	105	3.87	1.034
Explaining a foreigner what to do on the phone or face to face when he or she asks for help.	105	3.87	1.025
Asking questions or giving answers about the profile of an individual.	105	3.87	1.182
Questioning or taking the statements of a criminal or a sufferer.	105	3.86	1.092
Dialogues on asking or answering about addresses.	105	3.84	1.044
Doing the required jobs when someone is suffering.	105	3.82	1.155
Asking questions to a foreigner with a passport and answering his or her question as well.	105	3.80	1.077
Offering help when foreigners get lost or cannot find their destination.	105	3.74	1.019
Offering help in case of loss or something stolen and being got laid.	105	3.70	1.167
Dialogues about security issues and getting in touch in case of an emergency.	105	3.68	1.195
To get in touch with consulate whenever foreigners need.	105	3.61	1.235
Offering help in terms of passport procedures.	105	3.51	1.177
Dialogues on historical and touristic places.	105	3.31	1.162
Valid N (listwise)	105		

With regard to the functional use of English, it is easily understood that *dialogues on historical and touristic places* with a mean ($\overline{x}$) score of 3.31 is of average importance while the rest of the items are all important.

3.9. Results pertaining to the Open-ended Questions

Remarks, codes and frequencies from answers of the respondents to the open-ended questions were given in Table 10.

Table 10. *Views of Public Order Police Officers Related to their Language Needs*

Codes	Frequency	Remarks of Police Officers
The most used language skill by the respondents.	18	*Speaking*
	7	*Listening*
	5	*Reading*
Where and how English is used.	10	*Usually since Antalya is a touristic city.*
	4	*When asking and answering about an address.*
	3	*When searching in the internet.*
	2	*When taking foreigners' statements.*
	2	*When watching movies.*
	2	When travelling abroad.
With whom English is used.	21	I use English with tourists.

By looking at the answers to open ended questions, it is easily understood from Table 10 that 18 respondents mostly use speaking skill, 7 respondents mostly use listening skill and 5 respondents mostly use reading skill. Regarding where and how English is used, majority of the respondents with a frequency of 10 usually use English since Antalya is a touristic city, while 4 participants use English when asking and answering about an address, 3 participants use English when searching in the internet, 2 participants use English when taking foreigners' statements, 2 participants use English when watching movies, and 2 participants use English when travelling abroad. In terms of with whom they speak English, 21 participants declared that they use English with tourists.

4. Discussion

This study referred to the Turkish public order police officers' English language needs for the first time. The analysis of the results has provided important answers to the research questions of the study. Initially, the police officers were found to be most aware of the importance of speaking and listening skills. English language is important for effective communication between Tourist Police officers and foreign tourists (K-Romya, 2006). In her study, to determine the perceived current levels of English communication skills of Tourist Police information, K-Romya (2006) used in-location observations, focus groups and individual interviews through a sample of administrators, Tourist Police officers and foreign tourists. The ability of police officers to communicate in English is important. Recent studies (Tansrisawat, 1991; Promrat, 1998; Meemark, 2002; K-Romya, 2006) on the ability of police officers in communicating through English have shown that there is a requirement for English courses to support them with the essential communication skills. Besides, the studies show that police officers and candidate police officers see speaking and listening as the most necessary skills they need to acquire (Mackay and Mountford, 1978; Munby, 1978; Abo Mosallem, 1984; Akyle and Yalcin, 1991; Alhuqbani, 2008; Khamkaew, 2009; Qaddomi, 2013). In this study, the police officers perceive some motivational factors necessary. For instance, they want to learn and use English to be appointed abroad for occupational development, to get enough score in national and international exams, and to communicate with foreigners who cannot speak Turkish. Based on earlier ESP studies (Alhuqbani, 2009;

Al-Tamimi and Shuib, 2009), motivations are important sources for police officers towards learning English. Furthermore, the participants in this study see functional use of English important. In her study, Tipmontree, S. (2007) stated that there were several daily work tasks for which police officers used English language. They listened to general information and telephone calls, complaints and reports, while speaking English to make general conversations with tourists and to help them as well. In terms of difficulties, while four language skills were moderately difficult for the public order police officers in this study, Qaddomi (2013) put forward that candidate police officers had difficult times in pursuing natural English dialogues at their natural speech speed, and in speaking with tourists with different dialects. Moreover, Alhuqbani's (2008) found out that Saudi police officers had difficulty in communicating through English in the same cases Qaddomi (2013) stated, as well.

5. Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

With this study, it was aimed to highlight the English language needs of the public order police officers who are working at a touristic place. The picture drawn by the findings illustrates that:

- Speaking and listening skills are of high significance for the public order police officers when looking at the mean ($\bar{x}$) scores of 3.67 and 3.59;
- In terms of difficulties, four language skills are moderately difficult for the public order police officers. However, regarding the specific difficulties in language skills, the following conclusions were reached out: (1) when listening, the fast speech of foreign tourists, unknown vocabulary, unfamiliar foreign accents, and lack of listening opportunities are of high difficulty, (2) insufficient knowledge of grammar and structure make speaking process highly difficult, (3) with reference to reading skill, having inadequate vocabulary knowledge or not understanding the words and lexical items in the tourist documents are of high difficulty, and lastly (4) in terms of writing skill, lack of grammar knowledge, insufficient skills of writing, having inadequate vocabulary, and lack of opportunity to write are of high difficulty again.
- The respondents see such motivational factors necessary: (1) to be appointed abroad for occupational development, (2) to get enough score in national and international exams, (3) to communicate with foreigners who cannot speak Turkish, (4) to meet with people from diverse countries and cultures, (5) to take part in missions at international peace forces that require English; and
- The participants see functional use of English important, such as asking questions or giving answers about the profile of an individual, explaining a foreigner what to do on the phone or face to face when he or she asks for help, and responding to questions or solving problems.

After this very specific needs analysis study, the following implications were structured;

- Special emphasis should be put into speaking and listening instructions of police officers who may work at touristic places.
- The motivational factors to increase the desire of learning English should be promoted more.
- ESP should be introduced to all police officers who work or will work in touristic places.
- The ESP course content of the police officers should be based on their perceived English needs.

Finally, the results obtained from this descriptive study may prove to be of much help for ESP instructors, ESP curriculum and program designers and developers, ESP research conductors, educational administrators and educational policy makers.

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A COMPARISON OF THE OPINIONS OF THE UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS' FROM GEOGRAPHY DEPARTMENT AND GEOGRAPHY EDUCATION DEPARTMENT AS REGARDS THEIR FIELD COMPETENCE

Nurcan Demiralp

Gazi University

nurcan@gazi.edu.tr,

ndemiralp@gmail.com

Nurcan DEMİRALP graduated from Gazi University Faculty of Education Geography Teaching Department, got master degree at the same university, completed (PHD) doctorate education at Gazi University Institute of Educational Sciences Geography Teaching Department in 2006. She got TUBITAK scholarship to conduct research in geography education at 2008. She worked as a research scholar at Texas State University-San Marcos, in 2008-2010. She is still working as an associate professor at Gazi University Gazi Faculty of Education, in Ankara, Turkey. She is also member of Turkish Geographical Society. She has several articles published in national and international academic journals. She has coordinated or participated several national and international projects. Her primary research interests focus on the geography education. Her related research interests include geography skills, curriculum development, assessment, and professional development for educator preparation.

A COMPARISON OF THE OPINIONS OF THE UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS' FROM GEOGRAPHY DEPARTMENT AND GEOGRAPHY EDUCATION DEPARTMENT AS REGARDS THEIR FIELD COMPETENCE

Nurcan DEMİRALP

nurcan@gazi.edu.tr

ndemiralp@gmail.com

Abstract

Turkish Ministry of National Education established special field competencies for secondary education teachers in 2011. Special field competences are field-specific knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary for effective and productive conduct of teaching profession. The aim of the present article is to compare the opinions of Geography Education Department, and Geography Department students regarding the field knowledge, one of the special field competences of geography teaching. The study was based on survey method aimed to reveal an existing situation. However, face-to-face interviews were conducted with 20 students from the Faculty of Education in order to find the origin of results. The study was performed in the spring semester of 2014-2015 academic year with a total of 160 students from 3rd, 4th, and 5th grades of Geography Education Department and 3rd and 4th grades of Geography Department. Significant differences between the opinions of students were compared by Chi-Square analysis by their educational programs. The expressions of Faculty of Education students suggested that they were competent in 7 out of 13 fields, creating a significant difference. There was no significant difference in the opinions of Geography Department students regarding the geography field competences.

Keywords: special field competences, geography field competences, geography education

1. Introduction

Social events that emerged especially in the last quarter of the twentieth century lead to major global changes and developments throughout the world. Especially the penetration of globalization and information technology into each field of life and that the communication and interaction increased as it has never been experienced throughout the world induced a period of new searches and works in education (Karabağ & Şahin, 2007; İncekara,2007; Öztürk & Eroğlu, 2013). The aforementioned change was reflected to Turkey in the form of commencement of a new period upon rapid use of new technologies and a paradigm change in educational system. In the world, the qualities and characteristics of teachers and students started to be redefined as from the Bologna process. In that process, the teachers and students are expected to be more questioning, creative, and productive. New learning approaches and learning and teaching process that allow application in lectures started to be effectively used and developed in order to realize the said expectations.

The novelties introduced to the geography education included preparation of new geography teaching program (2005), introduction of the criteria as regards the quality and characteristics of the geography teachers that might apply the foregoing program, and determining the special field competences of the geography teachers (2010). Şahin

(2010:130) emphasized the developments in the geography education as follows: "Parallel to the developments, expectations in geography education has taken on new dimension compared to the previous years. Now, geography education is beyond merely conveying certain theoretical knowledge."

Activities towards change in education were launched in four stages in the period spanning from 2002 to 2011. First Stage: preparation of new and comprehensive teaching programs and implementing the same as from 2005. Second stage: Ministry of National Education (MEB) (2006) General Directorate of Teacher Training and Education determined the Teaching Profession General Competences (TEDP). Third Stage: above directorate prepared Teaching Profession General and Special Field Competences in 2008. This stage, which mostly determined the special field competences for the teachers of courses in the primary education, was followed by the fourth stage. Fourth Stage: the above general directorate enforced the special field competences meant for the teachers of secondary education courses in 2011.

While determining the Teacher Competences - Teaching Profession General and Special Field Competences – the MEB (2008) General Directorate of Teacher Training and Education also provided definitions for the related basic terms. Accordingly, **competence** is having the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary for fulfilling the tasks specific to the occupational field. Special Field Competences are the field-specific knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary for effective and productive conduct of teaching profession. Performance Indicator is the set of observable-measurable behaviors that may prove whether the competences have been realized.

The implications of major novelties in the education as accelerated by the early 2000s on geography education are as follows: Geography Course teaching Program (CDÖP) was implemented in 2005, new textbooks were prepared, and special field competences of the geography teachers were determined.

The desired special field competences of the geography teachers have been addressed to and discussed by the geographers before the Ministry of National Education put them on the agenda. The qualities and competences of the geography teachers 2002 were multi-dimensionally assessed during the Geography Assembly held by the Turkish Geography Institution (TCK, 2003). Karabağ (2003: 387) opened the topic to discussion during the Geography Assembly as follows "Quality teacher is the essential condition of a quality education. Such questions as 'What are the responsibilities of geography teachers as regards quality and qualified education,' 'Which education should they receive and which qualities/skills should they acquire in order to acquire those responsibilities' should be taken as a beginning for the quality of today's Turkey and geography teaching and assessed in order to realize a quality education" (Karabağ, 2003:387).

A literature review suggested that there were two very important studies, which provided assessments and recommendations as regards the competence and qualities of geography teachers (Karabağ, 2007; Karakuyu, 2008). Karabağ (2007:271) assessed the occupational responsibilities of geography teachers and addressed to the qualities of geography teachers under four topics: (i) teaching profession and responsibilities, (ii) responsibilities for realizing the objectives of geography education, (iii) responsibilities towards improving occupational skills, and (iv) responsibility of self-assessment. Karakuyu (2008:341) provided a multi-aspect assessment of the knowledge, skills, value, and competences that a geography teacher and especially a geography teacher candidate would need as regards inception and occupational development.

The work and assessment of geographers as regards the qualities of a geography teacher reached to a discrete result in 2011. The "Special Field Competences of Geography Teachers" as introduced by MEB in 2010 was enforced by 2011. The Special Field Competences of Geography Teachers (MEB, 2011) are composed of three domains of competence: (i) field knowledge, (ii) geography education knowledge, and (iv) having geographical values and attitudes. These there domains of competence have 23 fields of competences and a total of 122 performance indicators with respect to the said competences.

The present research would address to geography field knowledge competence, one of the special field competences of the geography teachers. There are 14 competences and a total of 80 performance indicators with respect to the said competence. Nevertheless, the first 13 competences and the 76 associated performance indicators were included in the study. This selection was justified by the consideration that the contents of the said competences and performance indicators expressed the field competences of geography teachers the best. The fourteenth competence included in the field knowledge (ability to use the geographical values of one's location) and four related performance indicators were excluded from the study.

MEB (2011) Head Council of Education and Morality explained the purpose and the intended fields of application of the special field competences as determined for a total of eight fields as follows: "the aforementioned competences gave been deemed to be appropriate for use in pre-service and in-service training, selection of teachers, assessment of work accomplishments, and for self-knowledge and career development provided that they are applied and developed upon updates in line with feedback." When standards for geography teaching was set in the USA, in 1994, it was aimed that those standards would guide the geography teachers about what to teach in each class, in others provide them assistance in in-service training (GESP 1994:237). Petersen, Natoli, & Boehm (1994:208) assessed the current status of geography teaching in the USA and the required measures. One of the recommendations suggested in above study was to improve the performance and competences of the geography teachers.

Studies in the relevant literature as regards special field competences of geography teachers were reviewed. Those studies focused on the assessment of the status of geography teachers as regards competences, attitudes of geography teacher candidates towards teaching profession, problems of and solution recommendations for geography education based on academic staff in charge of educating teachers and lecturing in geography and geography education (Karademir, 2013; Öztürk & Eroğlu, 2013; Sezer, Pınar, &e Yıldırım, 2010; Alım & Bekdemir, 2006; Gökçe, 2006).

A review of studies until today remarkably provided that activity towards determining the field standards for geography was conducted for social sciences teaching. A study by Gençtürk & Akbaş (2013), which aimed to assess the geography field standards of social sciences teachers based on Delphi technique, investigated what should have been the geography field competences of teacher candidates graduated from social sciences teaching department. This was a model study for using the appropriate techniques with an aim to develop and set educational standards of each field for a more effective education and teaching in Turkey.

Literature review suggested that there was insufficient number of studies on geography teacher competences and field competences of geography teacher candidates. Karademir's (2013) study on field knowledge competence of geography teacher candidates can be considered one of the important studies in that respect. However, the said study employed the "Special Field Competences of Geography Teacher Candidates" scale as developed by the researcher was used as the data collection tool of the study. Certain fields of competences and performance indicators as regards geography teacher competences as enforced by MEB in 2011 were included in the study by Öztürk ve Eroğlu (2013) who investigated the degree said competences were applied and implemented by the teachers.

A review of the above research revealed that the competences for field knowledge included in MEB (2010) Geography Special Field Competences were not investigated and compared based on the opinions of the students attending to geography departments and geography teaching departments. Therefore, there is no data, nor research as regards what the teacher candidates thought about the competences expected from them as geography teachers and as regards which fields they considered themselves competent or not. This situation indicated that studies should have been conducted to determine the contents of higher education teaching programs in order to apply the high school teaching program and realize the objectives of national education.

1.1. Purpose and Importance of the Study

The aim of this study was to compare the opinions of the 3rd, 4th, and 5th grade students of Geography Teaching Department of Gazi Faculty of Education, Gazi University and the 3rd and 4th grade students of Geography Department of Faculty of Languages, History, and Geography, Ankara University as regards their field competence in geography by the type of program they attended. It was aimed to see whether the opinions of the Faculty of Education students and Geography Department students differed by the type of program they attended. The present study investigated the sub-problems below in line with that general purpose:

1. Sub-problem: Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to use geographical methodology between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

2. Sub-problem: Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to make location analysis between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

3. Sub-problem: Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to conduct activities regarding climate between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

4. Sub-problem: Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to understand geographical formations between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

5. Sub-problem: Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to analyze water assets between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

6. Sub-problem: Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to assess soil assets between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

7. Sub-problem: Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to understand the elements of biogeography between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

8. Sub-problem: Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to understand demographic characteristics between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

9. Sub-problem: Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to analyze settlement characteristics between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

10. Sub-problem: Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to assess economic system and processes between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

11. Sub-problem: Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to assess the tourism phenomenon between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

12. Sub-problem: Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to make spatial analysis for the purposes of culture between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

13. Sub-problem: Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to assess natural disasters and environmental problems between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

The research subject was picked on the grounds that there was limited number of studies as regards whether the faculty of education students and non-faculty of education students considered themselves competent as regards field competences, what were their strengths and weaknesses, and the origins of the foregoing. The study also sought answers to "What is the level the faculty of education students and non-faculty of education students considered themselves competent by the type of program they attended to?" and "Is there a significant difference between the degree they considered themselves competent by the items that constitute the field competences."

Another reason for the selection of the research subject was that even though the literature had studies on the field competences of teachers and students in different disciplines and levels, there was limited number of studies in the field of geography.

1.2. Limitations

The present research is limited to the 3rd, 4th, and 5th grade students of Geography Teaching Department of Gazi Faculty of Education, Gazi University and the 3rd and 4th grade students of Geography Department of Faculty of Languages, History, and Geography, Ankara University during the 2014-2015 academic year. The study was limited to a total of 160 students from both universities, who expressed their views on geography special field competences. The data collection tool of the study is limited to the survey developed by the researcher (See, Appendix 1).

2. Method

2.1. Research Model

The research aimed to compare the students from geography department and geography teaching department (faculty of education students and non-faculty of education students) as regards geography teacher field knowledge competence. The study was based on survey method aimed to reveal an existing situation. According to Karasar (2007), survey model is a research approach, aiming to describe a past or present situation as is.

2.2. Study Group

The present study was conducted with a total of 160 students, attending to 3rd, 4th, and 5th grades of Geography Teaching Department of Gazi Faculty of Education, Gazi University and the 3rd and 4th grades of Geography Department of Faculty of Languages, History, and Geography, Ankara University during the spring semester of 2014-2015 academic year.

The study participants and their demographic characteristics are provided in Table 1.

Table-1 *Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Students' Demographic Characteristics*

	Variable	*f*	%
Sex	Male	97	60.6
	Female	63	39.4
University	Gazi	92	57.5
	Ankara	68	42.5
Total		160	100.0

Table 1 provides the distribution of the demographic characteristics of the students from Gazi University and Ankara University. The number (and percentages) of the male and female students enrolled in the study was 97 (60.6%) and 63 (39.4%) respectively. 92 students (57.5%) attended to Gazi University, while 68 (42.5%) to Ankara University. A total of 160 students (100.0%) provided opinions as regards geography teaching special field competences.

2.3. Data Collection Process

The present study employed the survey based on the Geography Teacher Special Field Competences as developed by the Ministry of National Education in February 2010. The survey was applied to the participants of the research in April-May 2015 to collect the opinions of students attending to geography department and geography teaching department as regards geography field competences. The survey application lasted 35 to 40 minutes for each classroom.

Despite the fact that the research was quantitative, there found a significant difference as a result of the study in favor of the faculty of education students in seven out of 13 fields of competence. The researcher conducted face-to-face interviews to twenty randomly picked 5th grade students attending to Gazi Faculty of Education in order to find the origin of the said difference and get deeper results.

2.4. Data Collection Tool

The present research employed the survey as developed by the researcher for the purpose of data collection. The survey was prepared based on the Geography Teacher Special Field Competences as developed by the General Directorate of Teacher Training and Education of the Ministry of National Education in February 2010. The Geography teacher special field competences as set by the MEB (2010) are composed of three fields of competence. The survey as developed by the researcher focused on "A. Field Knowledge Competences." The field knowledge competence as provided by MEB (2010) is composed of 14 fields of competence and 80 associated performance indicators. Nevertheless, for the purposes of the present study, the survey included 13 fields of competence and 76 associated performance indicators. This selection was justified by the consideration that the contents of the said competences and performance indicators expressed the field competences of geography teachers the best. The field of competence, namely "A.14 Ability to use the geographical values of one's location" and four related performance indicators as provided in the MEB (2010) were excluded from the study. This was based on the concern fact that the students enrolled in the study might not completely and correctly understand the “geographical value” notion provided in the field of competence A.14, and confuse the same with “value” notion, in the scope of the special field education.

Basic steps in survey development process were followed in the course of survey development (Shaughnessy & Zechmesiter, 1997; Baş, 2003). Accordingly, the aim of the study was determined. First a relevant literature review was made and the related studies were examined in order to determine the purpose. The assistance of the field and measurement specialist academicians were sought to review the items and the general construct of the survey was prepared based on the geography teaching special field competences defined in the MEB General Directorate of Teacher Training and Education, Secondary Education Project (2010) (See, Appendix 1).

A survey based on 5-point Likert scale composed of 76 items was used in the present study. The survey was prepared to obtain the opinions of the students towards their geography field competences in Likert type scale and the answers included five options (I’m very competent, Competent, Moderately Competent, Less Competent, Not Competent At All (See, Appendix, 1).

2.5. Analysis of Data

Table 1 provided the frequency and percentage distributions of the demographic characteristics of the participants. The opinions of students as regards the competences were compared by Chi-square analysis by the type of program they attended for the sub-problems as determined based on the research problem. Percentages based on their groups were used in the comparison for the groups, since the numbers of the students attending to each university were not equal.

3. Findings and Interpretations

3.1. Findings as regards the First Sub-Problem

Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to use geographical methodology between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

Upon a review of the difference in the level the students considered themselves competent as regards the ability to use the geographical methodology by the type of program they attended to (faculty of education students and non-faculty of education students) as provided in Table 1, there was a significant difference of $X^2_{(3)}$ =7,62, p=.048<.05 as regards the item, “A1.4. I can associate the dual structure of geography with nature and human sciences” between the students by the type of program they attended to. The said significant difference was due to the fact that the frequency of considering oneself competent in the ability to associate the dual structure of geography with nature and human sciences was higher in the Gazi University students compared to Ankara University students. There was a significant difference of $X^2_{(4)}$ =13.93, p=.008<.05 in the item, “A1.10. I can visualize the accordingly classified data in the form of tables, graphs, and maps” between the students by the type of program they attended to. The said significant difference was due to the fact that the frequency of considering oneself competent in the ability to visualize the classified data in the form of tables, graphs, and maps was higher in the Gazi University students compared to Ankara University students.

There was no other significant result as regards the items of this domain as provided in Table 1, since the expressions of competence were close to each other for the other items.

Table 1 *Chi-square results as regards the difference between the students' level of competence regarding the ability to use geographical methodology by the type of program they attended to*

Ability to Use Geographical Methodology	Gazi (N=92)	Ankara (N=68)	Chi-square (sd)	P
A1.1. I can explain the historical change and development of geographical science.	35.8% (Competent)	38.3% (Competent)	6,60(5)	.252
A1.2. I can reflect national and international developments in the field of geography to my practice.	34.8% (Competent)	38.2% (Competent)	4.92(4)	.296
A1.3. I can use the basic notions and themes of geographical science.	69.5% (Competent)	66.2% (Competent)	3.30(3)	.348
A1.4. I can associate the dual structure of geography with nature and human sciences.	87.0% (Competent)	76.5% (Competent)	7.62(3)	.0.48*
A1.5. I can make connections between geography and such sciences as meteorology, geology, biology, demographics, economics, sociology, history, physics, politics, chemistry, and hydrology.	72.8% (Competent)	80.9% (Competent)	2.64(4)	.621
A1.6. I can explain the scientists contributed in geographical science and their contributions.	45.7% (Competent)	35.3% (Competent)	6.24(5)	.284
A1.7. I can solve the problems I may encounter by making use of basic geographical notions and themes.	57.6% (Competent)	48.5% (Competent)	9.39(5)	.095
A1.8. I can use the basic data sources of geographical researches.	56.5% (Competent)	55.9% (Competent)	5.60(5)	.347
A1.9. I can classify the data obtained from geographical researches.	69.6% (Competent)	57.3% (Competent)	7.21(5)	.206
A1.10. I can visualize the accordingly classified data in the form of tables, graphs, and maps.	89.2% (Competent)	67.7% (Competent)	13.93(4)	.008*
A1.11. I can interpret the results obtained from geographical questioning stages.	78.2% (Competent)	67.6% (Competent)	2.92(3)	.404
A1.12. I can make use of geographical information systems when explaining geographical topics.	53.2% (Competent)	63.2% (Competent)	4.94(5)	.423

*p<.05

The "dual structure of geography" phrase as provided in the field competence A1.4 meant the basic approach of the geographical science to interpret and describe the nature – human relationship. The objectives, A.9.1, A.9.2, and B. 9.1 as defined in the Geography Course (Grade 9-12) Teaching Program (2005) and Geography Course (Grade 9-12) Teaching Program (2011) are meant to enable students acquiring the said objective. The General Purposes of the Geography Course Teaching Program and the Program Vision (CDÖP, 2005) explained the scope of nature – human relationship and how it would be taught. http://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/www/ogretim-programlari/icerik/72.

There was a significant difference in the fields of competences A.1.4 and A.1.10, in the scope of the "ability to use geographical methodology," between the Gazi University Faculty of Education students and Ankara University Geography department. A review of the curriculum of Gazi University provided that the number of courses directly addressing the interaction between human and nature was higher and that such courses were also taught in an applied form.

Face-to-face interviews were conducted with a total of twenty 5th grade students of Gazi University Faculty of Education in order to find the origin of the above difference. Participants declared that they had more applied activities in the courses, and that especially they were engaged with and improved themselves during the applied activities in the scope of the seminar and project courses (those course are intended for dissertation).

A review of the Gazi Faculty of Education and Faculty of Languages, History, and Geography, would provide that the student opinions also verified the said situation. http://gefcografya.gazi.edu.tr/posts/view/title/cografya-4-yillik-lisans-dersleri-110064?siteUri=gefcografya (Gazi University, Gazi Faculty of Education, geography Teaching Department Curriculum)

http://geography.humanity.ankara.edu.tr/wp-content/uploads/sites/277/2016/02/2015-2016_bahar_program-1.pd (Faculty of Languages, History, and Geography, Geography Department Curriculum)

3.2. Findings as regards the Second Sub-Problem

Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to make location analysis between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

Table 2 *Chi-square Results as regards the Difference Between the Students' Level of Competence regarding the Ability to Make Location Analysis by the Type of Program they Attended to*

Ability to Make Location Analysis	**Gazi (N=92)**	**Ankara (N=68)**	**Chi-square (sd)**	**P**
A2.1. I can use basic concepts of the coordinate system in defining space.	76.1% (Competent)	60.3% (Competent)	6,43(4)	.169
A2.2. I can make calculations using the coordinate system elements.	70.6% (Competent)	48.5% (Competent)	10.06(4)	.039*
A2.3. I can make deductions as regards countries and regions based on their location characteristics.	82.6% (Competent)	72.1% (Competent)	4.14(4)	.388

A2.4. I can use mapping skills in location analyses.	78.3% (Competent)	61.7% (Competent)	9.10(4)	.049*
A2.5. I can differ location, region, area, and space based on location characteristics.	75.0% (Competent)	64.7% (Competent)	6.59(5)	.253
A2.6. I can make deductions as regards the relationship between countries and regions based on their location characteristics.	73.9% (Competent)	67.7% (Competent)	4.64(4)	.326
A2.7. I can classify countries and regions by scrutinizing the locational relationship of different locations and regions.	73.9% (Competent)	66.2% (Competent)	1.25(3)	.741
A2.8. I can make deductions as regards the location characteristics of Turkey.	83.7% (Competent)	88.2% (Competent)	2.62(3)	.454
A2.9. I can interpret the locational values of Turkey with a view to regional and global relations.	85.8% (Competent)	92.6% (Competent)	1.88(3)	.599

*p<.05

As for the second sub-problem, the Gazi University students considered themselves more competent compared to the Ankara University students, creating a significant difference as regards the items, "A2.2. I can make calculations using the coordinate system elements" and "A2.4. I can use mapping skills in location analyses" in the scope of the geographical field competence of ability to make location analysis. There was no other significant result as regards the items of this domain, since the expressions of competence were close to each other for the other items.

Certain courses included in the undergraduate program of Gazi University might be associated with the fact that Gazi university students considered themselves competent in A.2.2 and A.2.4 competence performance indicators to an extent that created a significant difference. The 3-credit compulsory COĞ113A Mapping Science, 2-credit compulsory COĞ106A Mapping Science and Applications - I, 2-credit elective COĞ333M Elective - II (Geographical Skills – I), and COĞ533M Elective –VI (Geographical Skills – II) as provided in Gazi University Geography Teaching Department might be associated with the fact that the students considered themselves competent. http://gefcografya.gazi.edu.tr/posts/view/title/lisans-dersleri-52326?siteUri=gefcografya. It is because the contents of the above courses meet the performance indicators as regards the competence level of the "ability to make location analysis." It should also be emphasized that the 4–credit compulsory COG130 Cartography and 2-credit compulsory COG440 Locational Analysis courses as provided in the curriculum of the Geography department of the Faculty of Languages, History, and Geography, Ankara University also covered the performance indicator contents of the competence level of the "ability to make location analysis." http://www.dtcf.ankara.edu.tr/files/2014/09/COG2015-2016-GUZ1.pdf.

The competence of Faculty of Education students was significantly different in competences for the items A.2.2 and A.2.4 compared to the other students. The face-to-face interviews to the Faculty of Education students revealed that they took many compulsory courses on mapping skills and their applications and that they found themselves competent especially due to such courses on Geographical Information Systems and their applications.

A review of the curriculums of both universities suggested that the number of compulsory courses taken by the Gazi University students was higher in the scope of the present field of competence.

3.3. Findings as regards the Third Sub-Problem

Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to conduct activities regarding climate between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

As for the third sub-problem, the Gazi University students considered themselves more competent compared to the Ankara University students, creating a significant difference as regards the items, "A3.1. I can explain the characteristics of climate applying the basic notions" and "A3.2. I can associate the properties of climatic elements and their distribution to other natural processes" in the scope of the geographical field competence of ability to conduct activities regarding climate. There was no other significant result as regards the items of this domain, since the expressions of competence were close to each other for the other items.

A review of the programs of both universities provided that there were courses and activities sufficient to help students with gaining the competence regarding the ability to conduct activities on climate.

Table 3. *Chi-square results as regards the difference between the students' level of competence regarding the ability to conduct activities regarding climate by the type of program they attended to*

Ability to Conduct Activities regarding Climate	**Gazi (N=92)**	**Ankara (N=68)**	**Chi-square (sd)**	**P**
A3.1. I can explain the characteristics of climate applying the basic notions.	80.4% (Competent)	57.4% (Competent)	14.57(4)	.006*
A3.2. I can associate the properties of climatic elements and their distribution to other natural processes.	76.1% (Competent)	55.9% (Competent)	7.65(3)	.047*
A3.3. I can make deductions are regards climatic regions by interpreting climatic data.	71.7% (Competent)	60.3% (Competent)	5.61(4)	.230
A3.4. I can make deductions as regards likely changes by associating the other processes in interaction with climate.	56.5% (Competent)	47.1% (Competent)	5.99(4)	.200
A3.5. I can question the extreme climatic situations.	65.2% (Competent)	69.3% (Competent)	3.72(5)	.590
A3.6 I can question the local – global effects of climatic change.	69.5% (Competent)	72.1% (Competent)	5.98(4)	.201

*p<.05

The competence of Faculty of Education students was significantly different in competences for the items A.3.1 and A.3.2 belonging to the field of competence of the "ability to conduct activities regarding climate" compared to the Ankara University Geography Department students. During the face-to-face interviews to the Faculty of Education students conducted to find the origin of the difference, the students told that higher thinking skills, such as analysis-synthesis, were required for the said field of competence, that their academic success was higher than that of Ankara University students, and that they considered themselves more competent in courses that required higher thinking skills.

It is a fact that Gazi University students needed higher academic success scores in order they can register to the Faculty Education as evidenced by the entrance examinations introduced by ÖSYM. As a reflection of their academic success in entrance examination, the students declared that they considered themselves competent in the said field of competence.

3.4. Findings as regards the Fourth Sub-Problem

Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to understand geographical formations between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

As for the fourth sub-problem, there was no significant difference between the competence consideration of the faculty of education students and non-faculty of education students as regards the geographical field competence of ability to understand geographical formations. In other words the level of competence had similar distributions.

Table 4. *Chi-square results as regards the difference between the students' level of competence regarding the ability to understand geographical formations by the type of program they attended to*

Ability to Understand Geographical Formations	**Gazi (N=92)**	**Ankara (N=68)**	**Chi-square (sd)**	**P**
A4.1. I can classify the geographical formations by the formation processes.	46.7% (Competent)	42.6% (Competent)	3.28(4)	.513
A4.2. I can explain the geographical formations by applying to related theories and notions.	51.1% (Competent)	41.2% (Competent)	3.25(4)	.517
A4.3. I can associate the formation process of geographical formations with rock characteristics.	46.8% (Competent)	32.4% (Competent)	4.19(4)	.381
A4.4. I can assess geographical formations in terms of change and continuity.	52.2% (Competent)	42.6% (Competent)	4.94(4)	.293

*p<.05

3.5. Findings as regards the Fifth Sub-Problem

Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to analyze water assets between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

Table 5. *Chi-square Results as regards the Difference Between the Students' Level of Competence regarding the Ability to Analyze Water Assets by the Type of Program they Attended to*

Ability to Analyze Water Assets	Gazi (N=92)	Ankara (N=68)	Chi-square (sd)	P
A5.1. I can differentiate water resources by their formation, location, and characteristics.	67.4% (Competent)	47.1% (Competent)	11.26(5)	.046*
A5.2. I can explain the interaction between the water resources and natural and human processes.	79.3% (Competent)	72.1% (Competent)	4.52(4)	.341
A5.3. I can make predictions as regards likely changes in water resources.	70.7% (Competent)	42.7% (Competent)	14.37(4)	.006*
A5.4. I can develop sustainable water management strategies.	54.4% (Competent)	36.7% (Competent)	6.22(5)	.285

*p<,05

As for the fifth sub-problem, the Gazi University students considered themselves more competent compared to the Ankara University students, as provided in Table 5, thus creating a significant difference as regards the items, "A5.1. I can differentiate water resources by their formation, location, and characteristics" and "A5.3. I can make predictions as regards likely changes in water resources" in the scope of the geographical field competence of ability to analyze water assets. There was no other significant result as regards the items of this domain, since the expressions of competence were close to each other for the other items.

Certain courses included in the undergraduate program might be associated with the fact that Gazi university students considered themselves competent in A.5.1 and A.5.3 competence performance indicators to an extent that created a significant difference. 2-credit compulsory COĞ114A Hydrography, and Elective-IV (Basin Management) courses may be associated with the competence consideration of the students. http://gefcografya.gazi.edu.tr/posts/view/title/lisans-dersleri 52326?siteUri=gefcografya.

The competence consideration of Faculty of Education students was significantly different in competences for the items A.5.1 and A.5.3 compared to the geography department students. The interviews to the Faculty of Education students as conducted to find the origin of the said difference revealed that the students considered themselves competent thanks to the applied activities related to the course.

3.6. Findings as regards the Fifth Sub-Problem

Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to assess soil assets between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

Table 6. *Chi-square results as regards the difference between the students' level of competence regarding the ability to assess soil assets by the type of program they attended to*

Ability to Assess Soil Assets	Gazi (N=92)	Ankara (N=68)	Chi-square (sd)	P
A6.1. I can associate the factors effective in soil formation with soil characteristics.	72.8% (Competent)	47.1% (Competent)	12.74(4)	.013*
A6.2. I can classify soils by the formation types.	76.1% (Competent)	55.9% (Competent)	14.89(4)	.005*
A6.3. I can question the factors effective in distribution of different soil types throughout the world.	72.8% (Competent)	63.3% (Competent)	2.57(4)	.633
A6.4. I can criticize the applications intended for proper use of land .	72.8% (Competent)	44.1% (Competent)	16.13(4)	.003*
A6.5. I can develop solutions to prevent wrong use of land.	70.6% (Competent)	45.6% (Competent)	14.24(4)	.007*

*p<.05

Table 6 provided that there were no significant difference by variable of the type of program the students attended to as regards the item A6.3 about the geography teaching field competence of the ability to assess the soil assets. As for the other items, the faculty of education students considered themselves competent compared to the geography department students, creating a significant difference.

The Faculty of Education students considered themselves in four out of five A.G fields of competence to an extent creating a significant difference. This might have been associated with the 2-credit compulsory COĞ204 Soil Geography, 2-credit compulsory COĞ404A Soil Geography of Turkey, and 2-credit compulsory COĞ329G Elective – III (Forest Ecology) courses provided in the undergraduate program. http://gefcografya.gazi.edu.tr/posts/view/title/lisans-dersleri-52326?siteUri=gefcografya.

There were significant differences as regards the items, "A.6.1, A.6.2, A.6.4, and A.6.5" on the "ability to assess the soil assets" competence field between the competence consideration of Faculty of Education students and geography department students. Interviews were held with Gazi University students to find the origin of the said difference. Participant said that they took compulsory and elective courses regarding those items, and had the opportunity of reinforcing and detailed learning experience about soil assets during the other physical geography courses.

A review of Gazi Faculty of Education and Faculty of Languages, History, and geography would suggest that the students' opinions verified said situation.

3.7. Findings as regards the Seventh Sub-Problem

Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to understand the elements of biogeography between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

Table 7. *Chi-square results as regards the difference between the students' level of competence regarding the ability to understand the elements of biogeography by the type of program they attended to.*

Ability to Understand the Elements of Biogeography	Gazi (N=92)	Ankara (N=68)	Chi-square (sd)	P
A7.1. I can explain the species and groups of plants taking into consideration the conditions of growth.	56.6% (Competent)	54.4% (Competent)	4.68(5)	.456
A7.2. I can associate the distribution of natural animal groups with life conditions.	53.3% (Competent)	54.4% (Competent)	2.98(5)	.703
A7.3. I can classify plants and animals by various criteria.	48.9% (Competent)	45.5% (Competent)	5.58(5)	.349
A7.4. I can explain the distribution of natural processes applying the biogeographic elements.	43.4% (Competent)	38.2% (Competent)	3.15(5)	.677
A7.5. I can develop strategies to protect endangered species.	47.8% (Competent)	32.4% (Competent)	4.07(5)	.540

*p<.05

Table 7 provided that there was no significant difference between the competence consideration of the faculty of education students and geography department students. In other words no significant result could have been obtained due to similar considerations of competence level.

3.8. Findings as regards the Eighth Sub-Problem

Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to understand demographic characteristics between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

Table 8 provided that there was no significant difference between the competence consideration of the faculty of education students and geography department students. In other words no significant result could have been obtained due to similar considerations of competence level.

3.9. Findings as regards the Ninth Sub-Problem

Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to analyze settlement characteristics between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

Table 9 provided that the faculty off education students considered themselves more competent compared geography department students as regards the item A9.1. There was no other significant result as regards the items of this domain, since the expressions of competence were close to each other for the other items.

Table 8. *Chi-square results as regards the difference between the students' level of competence regarding the ability to understand demographic characteristics by the type of program they attended to.*

Ability to Understand Demographic Characteristics	**Gazi (N=92)**	**Ankara (N=68)**	**Chi-square (sd)**	**P**
A8.1. I can make deductions by applying related demographic terms.	84.7% (Competent)	86.8% (Competent)	1.97(4)	.742
A8.2. I can interpret demographic data.	88.1% (Competent)	88.2% (Competent)	.975(4)	.914
A8.3. I can associate the causes and effects of demographic distribution and movements.	88.1% (Competent)	89.8% (Competent)	4.42(4)	.353
A8.4. I can make forecasts by associating demographic policies with demographic projections.	82.6% (Competent)	82.4% (Competent)	8.00(5)	.156
A8.5. I can understand different demographic problems by countries.	86.9% (Competent)	86.7% (Competent)	2.73(4)	.604

*p<.05

Table 9. *Chi-square results as regards the difference between the students' level of competence regarding the ability to analyze settlement characteristics by the type of program they attended to*

Ability to Analyze Settlement Characteristics	**Gazi (N=92)**	**Ankara (N=68)**	**Chi-square (sd)**	**P**
A9.1. I can associate the factors effective in the emergence of settlements with the development process of settlements.	84.8% (Competent)	73.5% (Competent)	11.42(5)	.044*
A9.2. I can classify the settlements by texture, form, and functional properties.	80.5% (Competent)	67.7% (Competent)	5.46(5)	.362
A9.3. I can state what the local, regional, and global effects of settlement may be.	82.6% (Competent)	70.6% (Competent)	10.39(5)	.065
A9.4. I can may predictions as regards the future of settlements considering the factors effective on the settlements.	77.2% (Competent)	64.7% (Competent)	8.83(5)	.116
A9.5. I can interpret time-bound changes in settlements.	81.6% (Competent)	69.2% (Competent)	7.55(5)	.183

*p<.05

Courses provided in the undergraduate program may be associated with the fact that the faculty of education students considered themselves competent as regards the item A.9.1, to an extent creating a significant difference. The 2-credit compulsory COĞ212A Settlement Geography course might be associated with the fact that they considered themselves competent. http://gefcografya.gazi.edu.tr/posts/view/title/lisans-dersleri-52326?siteUri=gefcografya.

There was a significant difference as regards A.9.1 item, between the competence considerations of faculty of education students and the geography department students. The students of faculty of education were interviewed in order to find the origin of the said difference. The participants said that they took compulsory and elective courses as regards the items above, that they considered themselves competent also in the other performance indicators for settlement, and yet they could not have understood why there was a significant decrease only in item A9.1.

3.10. Findings as regards the Tenth Sub-Problem

Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to assess economic system and processes between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

Table 10. *Chi-square results as regards the difference between the students' level of competence regarding the ability to assess economic system and processes by the type of program they attended to.*

Ability to Assess Economic System and Processes	Gazi (N=92)	Ankara (N=68)	Chi-square (sd)	P
A10.1. I can provide the geographical texture of production, consumption, and distribution processes, the basis of economics.	71.7% (Competent)	54.4% (Competent)	8.10(4)	.088
A10.2. I can analyze economic sectors, making deductions about the factors determining their development.	73.7% (Competent)	57.3% (Competent)	11.39(5)	.044*
A10.3. I can criticize the development levels of the countries based on their economic activities.	78.3% (Competent)	76.5% (Competent)	3.33(5)	.650
A10.4. I can provide the distribution and outcomes of economic activities.	79.3% (Competent)	75.0% (Competent)	4.54(5)	.475
A10.5. I can question economic resources in terms of sustainability.	75.0% (Competent)	61.8% (Competent)	8.30(5)	.141
A10.6. I can question the historical development and change in economic activities.	71.7% (Competent)	58.9% (Competent)	12.84(5)	.025*

*p<.05

Table 10 provided that the faculty off education students considered themselves more competent compared geography department students as regards the items A10.2 and A10.6, to an extent creating a significant difference. There was no other significant result as regards the items of this domain, since the expressions of competence were close to each other for the other items.

The 2-credit compulsory COĞ111A Introduction to Economic Geography, 2-credit compulsory COĞ110A Economic Geography, and the 2-credit compulsory COĞ405A Economic Geography of Turkey courses provided in the undergraduate program may be associated with the fact that the faculty of education students considered themselves competent as regards the items A10.2 and A10.6 to an extent creating a significant difference. http://gefcografya.gazi.edu.tr/posts/view/title/lisans-dersleri-52326?siteUri=gefcografya.

There was a significant difference as regards the items A10.2 and A10.6, between the competence considerations of faculty of education students and the geography department students. Face-to-face interviews were conducted with the students of faculty of education in order to find the origin of the said difference. The participants said that they took compulsory and elective courses as regards the items above, that also considered themselves competent in the other performance indicators for settlement, and yet they could not have understood why there was a significant decrease only in items A10.2 and A10.6.

3.11. Findings as regards the Eleventh Sub-Problem

Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to assess the tourism phenomenon between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

Table 11. *Chi-square Results as regards the Difference Between the Students' Level of Competence regarding the Ability to Assess the Tourism Phenomenon by the Type of Program they Attended to.*

Ability to Assess the Tourism Phenomenon	**Gazi (N=92)**	**Ankara (N=68)**	**Chi-square (sd)**	**P**
A11.1. I can determine the natural and human assets with a view to tourism potential, associating them with tourism activities.	79.4% (Competent)	73.6% (Competent)	6.93(5)	.226
A11.2. I can analyze the effect and outcomes of tourism on societies and countries.	78.2% (Competent)	78.0% (Competent)	4.49(5)	.482
A11.3. I can develop scenarios towards sustainable tourism.	70.7% (Competent)	63.3% (Competent)	6.61(4)	.158

*p<.05

Table 11 provided that there was no significant difference between the competence consideration of the faculty of education students and the non-faculty of education students. In other words no significant result could have been obtained due to similar considerations of competence level.

3.12. Findings as regards the Twelfth Sub-Problem

Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to make spatial analysis for the purposes of culture between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

Table 12. *Chi-square Results as regards the Difference Between the Students' Level of Competence regarding the Ability to Make Spatial Analysis for the purposes of Culture by the Type of Program they Attended to*

Ability to Make Spatial Analysis for the purposes of Culture	Gazi (N=92)	Ankara (N=68)	Chi-square (sd)	P
A12.1. I can explain the geographical factors that had been effective in emergence of cultures.	79.4% (Competent)	72.5% (Competent)	6.52(4)	.164
A12.2. I can relate cultural elements to spatial arrangements .	79.4% (Competent)	80.9% (Competent)	1.29(4)	.864
A12.3. I can make predictions about the future situation of the cultures throughout the world.	70.6% (Competent)	66.2% (Competent)	2.10(4)	.717

*p<.05

Table 12 provided that there was no significant difference between the competence consideration of the faculty of education students and the geography department students. In other words no significant result could have been obtained due to similar considerations of competence level.

3.13. Findings as regards the Thirteenth Sub-Problem

Is there a difference in the competence level regarding the ability to assess natural disasters and environmental problems between the geography department and geography teaching department students by the type of program they attended to?

Table 13. chi-square results as regards the difference between the students' level of competence regarding the ability to assess natural disasters and environmental problems by the type of program they attended to.

Ability to Assess Natural Disasters and Environmental Problems	Gazi (N=92)	Ankara (N=68)	Chi-square (sd)	P
A13.1. I can interpret the characteristics of natural and human elements that constitute the environment.	81.5% (Competent)	73.5% (Competent)	3.15(4)	.534
A13.2. I can relate the natural cycles that make the environment dynamic and the ecosystem.	66.3% (Competent)	61.8% (Competent)	4.20(5)	.521
A13.3. I can make forecasts as regards likely changes in and outcomes of environmental elements.	68.5% (Competent)	66.2% (Competent)	5.74(4)	.332
A13.4. I can interpret the factors that deteriorate natural environment.	57.2% (Competent)	75.0% (Competent)	3.80(4)	.434
A13.5. I can analyze the distribution of environmental problems and natural disasters.	70.7% (Competent)	73.5% (Competent)	1.51(4)	.912
A13.6. I can explain the effects of environmental problems and natural disasters by various criteria.	78.3% (Competent)	75.0% (Competent)	2.07(4)	.722
A13.7. I can compare practices of various countries	70.7% (Competent)	69.1% (Competent)	2.75(5)	.739

towards environmental problems.				
A13.8. I can develop scenarios for natural disaster risk management and likely outcomes.	55.5% (Competent)	51.5% (Competent)	1.88(5)	.865

*p<.05

Table 13 provided that there was no significant difference between the competence consideration of the faculty of education students and the geography department students. In other words no significant result could have been obtained due to similar considerations of competence level.

The participants said during the face-to-face interviews with the students of the Faculty of Education that they took compulsory and elective courses as regards the said field of competence, and conducted activities in other courses as well on natural disasters and environmental problems, and thus they were not able to understand why the findings indicated the aforementioned results. A review of the curriculum applied in the faculty of education provided that the student opinions also verified that situation.

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

The research compared the opinions of students attending to geography teaching and geography departments as regards geography field competences by the type of program the students attended to. The research used the first 13 field knowledge competence and 76 associated performance indicators of the Geography Teacher Special Field Competences as set by MEB (2010) end enforced in 2011.

As a result of the research, the students of faculty of education considered themselves competent in 7 out of 13 fields of competence to an extent creating a significant difference. There were no significant differences in the opinions of geography department students towards geography field competences..

While the students of faculty of education considered themselves competent in 7 out of 13 fields of competence (A.1, A.2, A.3, A.5, A.6, A.9, and A.10) to an extents creating a significant difference, no significant results could have been obtained for the six fields of competence (A.4, A.7, A.8, A.11, A.12, and A.13) by the type of program they attended to due to similar considerations of competence. There are 47 performance indicators associated with the 7 fields of competence, which the students of the faculty of education considered themselves competent. The students considered themselves competent to an extent creating a significant decrease in 15 performance indicators out of 47 compared to the geography department students.

There are six fields of competence, in which there is no significant difference as regards the consideration of competence between the students attending to both programs: (A.4, A.7, A.8, A.11, A.12, and A.13). These fields of competence were associated with the ability to understand geographical formations, the ability to understand the elements of biogeography, the ability to understand demographic characteristics, the ability to assess tourism phenomenon, the ability to make spatial analyses towards culture, and the ability to assess natural disasters and environmental problems.

The seven fields of competences, which the students of the faculty of education considered themselves competent (A.1, A.2, A.3, A.5, A.6, A.9, and A.10), were associated with the ability to use geographic methodology, the ability to make location analysis, the ability to conduct activities regarding climate, the ability to analyze water assets, the ability to assess soil assess, and the ability to assess economic system and processes. The students of faculty of education considered themselves competent mostly in the field competence of A.6 Ability to assess soil assets. They considered themselves competent in four out of five items included in this field of competence to an extent to create a significant difference.

The students of the faculty of education considered themselves competent in 7 out of 13 fields of competence (A.1, A.2, A.3, A.5, A.6, A.9, and A.10) compared to geography department students, creating a significant difference. Face-to-face interviews were conducted with twenty randomly picked 5th grade students of Gazi Faculty of Education, Gazi University in order to find the origin of the difference. The participants said in relation to those items that applied activities were rather prioritized in the faculty of education courses, that they found themselves more competent thanks to the said courses, and that the higher entrance examination scores required to have registered in the program increased the level of their competence consideration.

Consequently, the fact that compared to the non-faculty of education students, the students of the faculty of education considered themselves competent to an extent creating a significant difference might be associated with the number of courses they took, contents of the courses, and differences in applied activities. Furthermore the higher entrance examination scores of the students of the faculty of education could be considered another factor that lead to the difference.

Below recommendations can be made as a result of the study:

1. Contents of the secondary education curriculum should be taken into consideration in preparation of the undergraduate programs implemented in geography teaching and geography departments.
2. It will be beneficial if the undergraduate programs are structured so as to cover and support the approach adopted in the Geography Course Teaching Program (CDÖP) as implemented by MEB.
3. The courses and their contents in the undergraduate programs should be revised so as to prioritize applied activities in teaching.
4. Collaboration between the universities providing undergraduate education and the Ministry of National Education should be increased.
5. The awareness of undergraduate students should be raised with regard to geography teacher special field competences regardless of their departments.
6. The geography teacher special field competences are the criteria applied by the Ministry of National Education in teacher selection, assessment of teachers' work success, and teachers' self-knowledge and career development. In order for the undergraduate students can become high quality, successful teachers in the future it is important that they are raised well-informed about the teacher competences before graduation.

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Appendix

For the purposes of the present study **Competence** is defined as "having the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary for performing tasks specific to a field of occupation." Geography Teacher Candidate; Please indicate the degree you feel yourself competent as regards the below competences by selecting one of the competence levels next to each item.	**Very Competent**	**Competent**	**Moderately Competent**	**Less Competent**	**Not Competent At All**
A1. Ability to Use Geographical Methodology					
A1.1. I can explain the historical change and development of geographical science.					
A1.2. I can reflect national and international developments in the field of geography to my practice.					
A1.3. I can use the basic notions and themes of geographical science.					
A1.4. I can associate the dual structure of geography with nature and human sciences.					
A1.5. I can make connections between geography and such sciences as meteorology, geology, biology, demographics, economics, sociology, history, physics, politics, chemistry, and hydrology.					
A1.6. I can explain the scientists contributed in geographical science and their contributions.					
A1.7. I can solve the problems I may encounter by making use of basic geographical notions and themes.					
A1.8. I can use the basic data sources of geographical researches.					
A1.9. I can classify the data obtained from geographical researches.					
A1.10. I can visualize the accordingly classified data in the form of tables, graphs, and maps.					
A1.11. I can interpret the results obtained from geographical questioning stages.					
A1.12. I can make use of geographical information systems when explaining geographical topics.					
A2. Ability to Make Location Analysis					
A2.1. I can use basic concepts of the coordinate system in defining space.					
A2.2. I can make calculations using the coordinate system elements.					
A2.3. I can make deductions as regards countries and regions based on their location characteristics.					
A2.4. I can use mapping skills in location analyses.					
A2.5. I can differ location, region, area, and space based on location characteristics.					
A2.6. I can make deductions as regards the relationship between countries and regions based on their location characteristics.					
A2.7. I can classify countries and regions by scrutinizing the locational relationship of different locations and regions.					
A2.8. I can make deductions as regards the location characteristics of Turkey.					
A2.9. I can interpret the locational values of Turkey with a view to regional and global relations.					

	For the purposes of the present study **Competence** is defined as "having the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary for performing tasks specific to a field of occupation." Geography Teacher Candidate; Please indicate the degree you feel yourself competent as regards the below competences by selecting one of the competence levels next to each item.	**Very Competent**	**Competent**	**Moderately Competent**	**Less Competent**	**Not Competent At All**
	A3. Ability to Conduct Activities regarding Climate					
	A3.1. I can explain the characteristics of climate applying the basic notions.					
	A3.2. I can associate the properties of climatic elements and their distribution to other natural processes.					
	A3.3. I can make deductions are regards climatic regions by interpreting climatic data.					
	A3.4. I can make deductions as regards likely changes by associating the other processes in interaction with climate.					
	A3.5. I can question the extreme climatic situations.					
	A3.6 I can question the local – global effects of climatic change.					
	A4. Ability to Understand Geographical Formations					
	A4.1. I can classify the geographical formations by the formation processes.					
	A4.2. I can explain the geographical formations by applying to related theories and notions.					
	A4.3. I can associate the formation process of geographical formations with rock characteristics.					
	A4.4. I can assess geographical formations in terms of change and continuity.					
	A5. Ability to Analyze Water Assets					
	A5.1. I can differentiate water resources by their formation, location, and characteristics.					
	A5.2. I can explain the interaction between the water resources and natural and human processes.					
	A5.3. I can make predictions as regards likely changes in water resources.					
	A5.4. I can develop sustainable water management strategies.					
	A6. Ability to Assess Soil Assets					
	A6.1. I can associate the factors effective in soil formation with soil characteristics.					
	A6.2. I can classify soils by the formation types.					
	A6.3. I can question the factors effective in distribution of different soil types throughout the world.					
	A6.4. I can criticize the applications intended for proper use of land.					
	A6.5. I can develop solutions to prevent wrong use of land.					
	A7. Ability to Understand the Elements of Biogeography					
	A7.1. I can explain the species and groups of plants taking into consideration the conditions of growth.					
	A7.2. I can associate the distribution of natural animal groups with life conditions.					
	A7.3. I can classify plants and animals by various criteria.					
	A7.4. I can explain the distribution of natural processes applying the biogeographic elements.					
	A7.5. I can develop strategies to protect endangered species.					

For the purposes of the present study **Competence** is defined as "having the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary for performing tasks specific to a field of occupation." Geography Teacher Candidate; Please indicate the degree you feel yourself competent as regards the below competences by selecting one of the competence levels next to each item.		**Very Competent**	**Competent**	**Moderately Competent**	**Less Competent**	**Not Competent At All**
	A8. Ability to Understand Demographic Characteristics					
	A8.1. I can make deductions by applying related demographic terms.					
	A8.2. I can interpret demographic data.					
	A8.3. I can associate the causes and effects of demographic distribution and movements.					
	A8.4. I can make forecasts by associating demographic policies with demographic projections.					
	A9. Ability to Analyze Settlement Characteristics					
	A9.1. I can associate the factors effective in the emergence of settlements with the development process of settlements.					
	A9.2. I can classify the settlements by texture, form, and functional properties.					
	A9.3. I can state what the local, regional, and global effects of settlement may be.					
	A9.4. I can may predictions as regards the future of settlements considering the factors effective on the settlements.					
	A9.5. I can interpret time-bound changes in settlements.					
	A10. Ability to Assess Economic System and Processes					
	A10.1. I can provide the geographical texture of production, consumption, and distribution processes, the basis of economics.					
	A10.2. I can analyze economic sectors, making deductions about the factors determining their development.					
	A10.3. I can criticize the development levels of the countries based on their economic activities.					
	A10.4. I can provide the distribution and outcomes of economic activities.					
	A10.5. I can question economic resources in terms of sustainability.					
	A10.6. I can question the historical development and change in economic activities.					
	A11. Ability to Assess the Tourism Phenomenon					
	A11.1. I can determine the natural and human assets with a view to tourism potential, associating them with tourism activities.					
	A11.2. I can analyze the effect and outcomes of tourism on societies and countries.					
	A11.3. I can develop scenarios towards sustainable tourism.					
	A12. Ability to Make Spatial Analysis for the purposes of Culture					
	A12.1. I can explain the geographical factors that had been effective in emergence of cultures.					
	A12.2. I can relate cultural elements to spatial arrangements.					
	A12.3. I can make predictions about the future situation of the cultures throughout the world.					

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">For the purposes of the present study Competence is defined as "<u>having the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary for performing tasks specific to a field of occupation</u>."

<u>Geography Teacher Candidate;</u>
Please indicate the degree you feel yourself competent as regards the below competences by selecting one of the competence levels next to each item.</td><td>Very Competent</td><td>Competent</td><td>Moderately Competent</td><td>Less Competent</td><td>Not Competent At All</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td colspan="6">A13. Ability to Assess Natural Disasters and Environmental Problems</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>A13.1. I can interpret the characteristics of natural and human elements that constitute the environment.</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>A13.2. I can relate the natural cycles that make the environment dynamic and the ecosystem.</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
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<tr><td></td><td>A13.4. I can interpret the factors that deteriorate natural environment.</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>A13.5. I can analyze the distribution of environmental problems and natural disasters.</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>A13.6. I can explain the effects of environmental problems and natural disasters by various criteria.</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>A13.7. I can compare practices of various countries towards environmental problems.</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>A13.8. I can develop scenarios for natural disaster risk management and likely outcomes.</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
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AN INVESTIGATION INTO PRONUNCIATION PROBLEMS OF HAUSA-SPEAKING LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

Mohammad Hossein Keshavarz

ELT Department, Faculty of Education,

Girne American University, North Cyprus

Email: mohammadkeshavarz@gau.edu.tr

Mahmud Khamis Abubakar

RMK College of Advanced and Remedial Studies

T/Wada, Kano State, Nigeria

Email: mahmudkhamis68@gmail.com

Mohammad Hossein KESHAVARZ is professor of Applied Linguistics at Girne American University in North Cyprus. He has published in several international journals including Language in Society, International Journal of Applied Linguistics, and International Journal of Bilingualism. His research interests include language acquisition, sociolinguistics, pragmatics, and pronunciation.

Mahmud Khamis ABUBAKAR holds a Master's degree in ELT and is currently an ESL instructor at MK College of Advanced and Remedial Studies in T/Wada, Kano State of Nigeria. His research interests include pronunciation and ELT methodology.

PRONUNCIATION PROBLEMS OF HAUSA SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH

Mohammad Hossein Keshavarz
mohammadkeshavarz@gau.edu.tr

Mahmud Khamis Abubakar
keshavarz22@gmail.com

Abstract

There is no dearth of publication on pronunciation problems of different L1-bacground learners in EFL contexts; however, research in ESL situations (where English is spoken outside the classroom) in general, and in the Nigerian context, in particular, is scarce. Accordingly, to fill this research gap the present study set out to investigate the pronunciation problems of Hausa speakers of English in Nigeria. To achieve the goals of the research, 60 native speakers of Hausa studying at three universities in Northern Cyprus participated in the study. The participants' pronunciation problems of English were elicited by mean of a pronunciation test that consisted of a word list, a short paragraph, and 15 individual sentences. Moreover, 15 pictures were shown to the participants to name while being audio-recorded. All the test items contained English consonants and vowels with potential pronunciation difficulties for Hausa speakers of English. The collected data were then transcribed and analyzed, and percentages and frequencies of pronunciation errors were computed. The results revealed that native speakers of Hausa face problems in pronouncing certain English vowels (i.e., /ʌ/, /ɔ:/ and /ɜ:/) and consonants (/f/, /v/, /θ/ and /ð/). Theoretically, the findings lend support to the notion of negative transfer as all of the errors were the result of mother tongue interference. The findings are interpreted to have pedagogical implications for ESL teachers and syllabus designers in general and in Hausa-speaking communities, in particular.

Keywords: Pronunciation problems, segmental phonemes, negative transfer, Hausa speakers of English.

1. Introduction

Pronunciation plays an important role in communication since serious mispronunciation can hamper intelligibility. As Morley (1991) asserts, "intelligible pronunciation is an essential component of communicative competence" (p. 488). Therefore, EFL/ESL teachers should not ignore the pronunciation problems of their students. Similarly, second-language learners should attempt to improve their pronunciation of the target language. They can do without advanced vocabulary, i.e., they can use simple words instead of difficult ones to express themselves (Tomasz, 2011). They can also avoid using complex grammatical structures when they do not feel comfortable with them and use simple ones, instead (Schacter, 1977). However, there is no such a thing as simple pronunciation. Therefore, a second language learner's mispronunciation can be considered problematic because, even if s/he uses correct grammar and advanced vocabulary, listeners may face difficulties understanding him/her (Tomasz, 2011).

One of the most controversial issues in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) is the role played by mother tongue (MT) in learning different components of the target language. Although the original version of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) has been rejected for assigning all errors to MT interference there is sufficient evidence in favor of some degree of negative transfer. In fact, a large body of research has demonstrated that the structure of the learners' L1 has an impact on L2 acquisition. As Odlin (2005) states, "study after study has shown real effects of the negative language [negative transfer]" (p. 478). There is also general consensus that the influence of the learners' MT is most noticeable and long-lasting in the area of pronunciation, as compared to grammar and vocabulary. There is abundance of research findings that support this view (Ingram & Park, 1998; Lin, 2001; Nosratinia & Zaker, 2014; Ohata, 2004; Ringborn, 1987; Sedighi, 2010; Thompson, 1991; Tsojon & Aji, 2014; Zhanmig, 2014).

2. Review of Related Empirical Studies

Many research studies have been conducted on the pronunciation problems of EFL learners with diverse language backgrounds, all pointing to the influence of the mother tongue. Some of these studies are reviewed below.

Varol (2012) investigated the influence of Turkish sound system on English learners' pronunciation. The findings of his study revealed that Turkish adult speakers of English face difficulties in pronouncing /θ/, /ð/, /ɹ/ /t̬/ and /æ/ as these sounds are absent in their native language. Bada (2001) also conducted a study on native language influence on the production of English sounds by Japanese learners. Bada's findings confirm that Japanese learners of English experience difficulty in pronouncing some English sounds including /l/, /r/, /θ/, */ð/, and* /v/ due to MT interference. Another study was conducted by Kwary and Prananingrum (2006) who investigated the influence of L1 on the production of L2 sounds among Indonesian university students. The findings showed that participants faced difficulties in pronouncing a number of English vowels and consonants due to negative transfer. Along the same line, the results of Pal's (2013) study showed that Hindi speakers of English experience major difficulties in pronouncing /s/, /ʃ/, /z/, /ʒ/ and /ʤ/ as well as consonant clusters. Hakim (2012) also found that among a few sounds he investigated, the pronunciation of English /d/ and */ð/* was most difficult for Java EFL learners. Similarly, Chan (2009) investigated the pronunciation problems of advanced Cantonese ESL learners in Hong Kong. The results showed that despite the fact that the participants were English majors and had studied English for at least thirteen years they still had problems with pronouncing English sounds that did not exist in their native language. Another study on the influence of the MT was conducted by Baloch (2013). The findings of this study showed that Arabic learners of English replace /b/ with /p/ as a result of mother tongue interference. Since Arabic lacks the consonant /p/, speakers of this language replace it with the closest sound in their native language sound system, in terms of place and manner of articulation, namely /b/.

Some studies have also been conducted in the Nigerian context focusing on English pronunciation problems of speakers of different Nigerian languages, e.g., Igbo (Linda, 2011), Yoruba (Akinjobi, 2009), Igala (Opanachi, 2013), Jukun (Tsojon & Aji, 2014), and Nguru (Isa, 2011). However, research on pronunciation problems of Hausa speakers are scarce, with the exception of Abubakar (2008), and Mohammed (2011). Therefore, to fill this research gap the present study set out to investigate the problems of Hausa speakers in pronouncing a number of problematic English sounds.

Before elaborating further on the research project, it seems necessary to provide some information about the status of Hausa in Africa, in general, and in Nigeria, in particular.

3. The Hausa Language

Hausa is one of the major languages of Africa**.** In fact, the largest ethnic group in Africa today are Hausa speakers. They are living in the states of Northern Nigeria and neighboring Niger. However, Hausa is also spoken widely in Northern Cameroon, and there are Large Hausa-speaking communities almost everywhere in West African cities. In fact, Hausa has more native speakers than any other language in Sub-Saharan Africa. The estimated number of Hausa native speakers is 22 million. In addition, over 17 million people speak Hausa as a second language. Most Hausa-speaking people are Muslim, and Hausa serves as a lingua franca among Muslims in non-Hausa speaking regions (Schuh, 2004).

It needs to be added that Hausa native speakers in Nigeria use English alongside their native language. English is taught in native Hausa areas in Nigeria as a subject in primary schools. Moreover, it is used as a medium of instruction in upper primary and secondary schools as well as in higher education. Mass media programs in this region use both Hausa and English extensively (Mohammed, 2011). Therefore, as Bernard (1991, cited in Mohammed, 2011) argues "the influence of one language over the other is extremely important in a situation of prolonged and systematic language contact" (p. 37). (For a comprehensive account of phonological features of Hausa see Schuh, 2004, 2008).

Based on the foregoing discussion, this study sought to answer the following research questions.

1. To what extent do Hausa-speaking learners of English have problems with the pronunciation of the English consonants /f/, /v/, /θ/, and /ð/?
2. To what extent do Hausa-speaking learners of English have problems with the pronunciation of the English vowels /ʌ/, /ɔ:/ and /ɜ:/?

4. Method

4.1 Participants

Sixty male Hausa-speaking students were randomly selected as the sample from three universities in Northern Cyprus. According to the information obtained through a demographic questionnaire, the participants were all raised in Hausa-speaking communities in Nigeria where there is not much interaction with native or non-native speakers of English in society or work place. The participants had not travelled to any English-speaking country, except for two students who had spent a short period of time (two to three weeks) in the United States. Their age ranged from 19 to 31 years old. It must be emphasized that only volunteers who were not majoring in English were chosen as participants in order to collect more authentic data considering the fact that English majors normally have less pronunciation problems owing to their linguistic and phonetic training.

4.2 Instrumentation

A demographic questionnaire and a pronunciation test were used as the instruments for collecting data. The objective of the background questionnaire was to obtain demographic information about the participants including age, gender, ethnicity, place of residence, and more importantly native language background and the amount of exposure to English. The participants were also asked if they had travelled to and/or lived in an English-speaking country.

The purpose of the pronunciation test was to elicit pronunciation errors of Hausa-speaking learners of English. The test consisted of a word list, a set of sentences, a short paragraph, and 15 pictures, all containing problematic phonemes for Hausa speakers of English. The content and form of the pronunciation test and questionnaire items were revised a few times to increase their validity and reliability. For example, complicated words and confusing pictures were replaced by simple and familiar words, and clear pictures, respectively.

4.3 Data collection and analysis procedures

The participants were asked to read aloud English words and sentences and describe the pictures containing problematic English sounds while being audio recorded. Each recording lasted around 5-7 minutes for each participant. The recorded data were then transcribed and analyzed after listening to each participant's pronunciation a few times. A sample of the pronunciation transcriptions was also presented to and confirmed by a Hausa-speaking professor in an English Department in Nigeria. Next, participants' mispronunciations were categorized and frequencies and percentages of both errors and correct pronunciations were computed.

4.4 Ethical Considerations

The participants were informed about the aim of the study and were assured that their identity would remain confidential. They were also informed that the data collected from them would only be used for research purposes. Furthermore, they were given the option of dropping out any time they wished.

5. Results and Discussion

The results of data analyses for problematic English consonants and vowels will be presented separately below.

5.1. Problems of Hausa speakers in the pronunciation of the English consonants /f/, /v/, /θ/ and /ð/.

The first problematic English consonant investigated was /f/. As Table 1 shows, most of the participants (86.7%) mispronounced /f/ as /p/, as in words such as 'African', which was pronounced as /æprikən/, *farm* as /pə:m/, *father* as /pə:zə/, *fan* /pæn/, *fond* /pond/, *funny* /poni/, *from* /prom/, *briefly* /bripli/. This is due to the fact that the phonetic features of Hausa /f/ differs drastically from English /f/. In English, /f/ is always labio-dental (i.e., it is produced by a contact between the lower lip and the upper front teeth), whereas in Hausa, /f/ is realized and pronounced as the voiceless bilabial stop /p/ (Schuh, 2008).

With regard to the second consonant , only 18.3% of the participants pronounced the English voiced labio-dental /v/ correctly; the rest of them (81.7%) mispronounced it as /b/, as in moving /mubin/, *visitors* /biziters/, *evening* /ibenin/, *coverage* as /koberedʒ/, *lovely* as /lobli/ or /lobeli/, *TV* /ti: bi:/, and *very* as /beri/. The main reason for this mispronunciation is MT interference as /v/ does not exist in Hausa. Therefore, Hausa speakers replace it with /b/, which is the closest sound to /v/ in terms of place of articulation and voicing. This finding supports the results of Mohammed's (2011) study. It is also in line with Schuh's (2008) description of Hausa consonants. Based on these results, it can be concluded that when Hausa speakers have difficulties with the English labio-dental fricatives /f/ and /v/, they rely on the existing bilabial plosives (stops) /p/ and /b/ in their native language, respectively. It is interesting to note that in the process of mother tongue transfer, the speakers maintain consistency in terms of voicing. That is, they substitute the voiceless fricative /f/ with the voiceless bilabial plosive /p/. Similarly, they replace /v/ with /b/ since they are identical in terms of voicing.

The next problematic consonant was the voiceless dental fricative /θ/. As Table 1 illustrates, in the majority of cases (66.7%), the participants mispronounced the English consonant /θ/ as /t/ in words such as *think* /tink/, *thin* /tin/, and *thirty* /te:rti/. Normally, Hausa speakers replace /θ/ with /s/, but since younger generation of Hausa speakers, according to Aliyu (2011), tend to drift to Southern Nigerian English pronunciation (in which /θ/ is realized as /t/), this substitution has become more popular among Hausa speakers in other regions, as well. Consequently, the participants in this study, who belong to the young generation, replaced /θ/ with /s/ less frequently (28.3%). This seems to be related to the prestige of Southern Nigerian English - an interesting phenomenon which is of sociolinguistics significance and demands further investigation.

Another substitution for /θ/ was /z/, as in *'Thursday'* /zurzdei/, and *'toothpaste'* /tuzpest/. However, this pronunciation error is not significant due to its low frequency of occurrence (only 3.3%). It is worth noting that only 1.7% of the participants pronounced /θ/ correctly.

The replacement of /t/ for /θ/ has also been observed in the pronunciation of other EFL learners with different native language background. Sedighi (2010), for instance, found that her Persian-speaking participants substituted /t/ for /θ/ since this sound does not exist in Persian. Varol's (2012) participants also replaced /θ/ with /t/. He attributed this substitution to the influence of Turkish sound system on English pronunciation since /θ/ does not exist in Turkish. Likewise, Bada (2001) conducted a study on the transfer of Japanese sound system on the pronunciation of English phonemes. His participants also substituted /θ/ with /t/. Similarly, participants in Linda's (2011) study, who were Igbo speakers in Nigeria, replaced /θ/ with /t/. In the same vein, Opanachi (2013) found that Igala-speaking learners of English in Nigeria pronounced /θ/ as /t/, as in *thick* /ti:k/, *method* /metɔd/. All of these findings point to the influence of learners' mother tongue in the production of the target language sounds.

The last English consonant investigated in the present study was the voiced dental fricative /ð/. As Table 1 displays, the most frequent substitution for this sound was /z/ (60%). Key words for this pronunciation include *father*, which was mispronounced as /pazə/, *further* as /pə:zə/, *there* and their as /zeər/. This is due to the fact that this consonant does not exist in Hausa, as a result Hausa speakers replace it with /z/, which serves as the closest sound to /ð/ in terms of manner of articulation and voicing. Less frequently, /ð/ was mispronounced as /d/ (33.3%), as in '*the'* /de/, *therefore* /derpor/, *that* as /dæt/, *this* as /dɪs/. The replacement of /ð/ with /d/ may be due to drifting towards Southern Nigerians English pronunciation by some participants. As mentioned before, Aliyu (2011) asserts that young Hausa speakers drift to Southern Nigerian English pronunciation, whose features include /t/ and /d/ for /θ/ and /ð/, respectively.

The above finding supports Mohammed's (2011) study which indicated that Hausa speakers of English pronounce /ð/ as /z/. Similarly, Jowitt (1991) and Kperogi (2013), in their descriptive studies, listed /ð/ as one of the problematic English consonants for Hausa-speaking learners of English.

The same result has been found in studies dealing with pronunciation problems of other L1 speakers of English. For example, Hakim (2012) reported that Javanese speakers of English have difficulties in pronouncing /ð/, i.e., being under the influence of the mother tongue, they replace /ð/ with a sound similar to /d/. Nosratinia & Zaker (2014) also found that their Persian-speaking learners of English had difficulties with the pronunciation of /ð/ and replaced it either with /d/ or /z/. Along the same line, Linda (2011) observed that Igbo speakers of English replaced /ð/ with /d/. Similarly, Bada (2001) found that Japanese learners of English pronounced /d/ instead of /ð/ due to MT interference.

Table 1 below illustrates the frequency of Hausa speakers' mispronunciation of English problematic consonants.

Table 1. *Frequency of Hausa speakers' mispronunciation of English problematic consonants*

Problematic Consonant	Participants' Mispronunciation	Frequency and Percentage of Mispronunciation	
		No.	%
/f/	/p/	52	86.7
/v/	/b/	49	81.7
/θ/	/t/	40	66.7
	/s/	17	28.3
	/z/	2	3.3
/ð/	/z/	36	60
	/d/	20	33.3

Figure 1 displays the percentage of errors made by the participants in the pronunciation of English consonants. As illustrated, errors in the pronunciation of all four English consonants (i.e., /θ/, /ð/, /f/, and /v/) have a high percentage of occurrence. As mentioned before, the reason for such mispronunciation is mother tongue interference since these English consonants do not exist in Hausa.

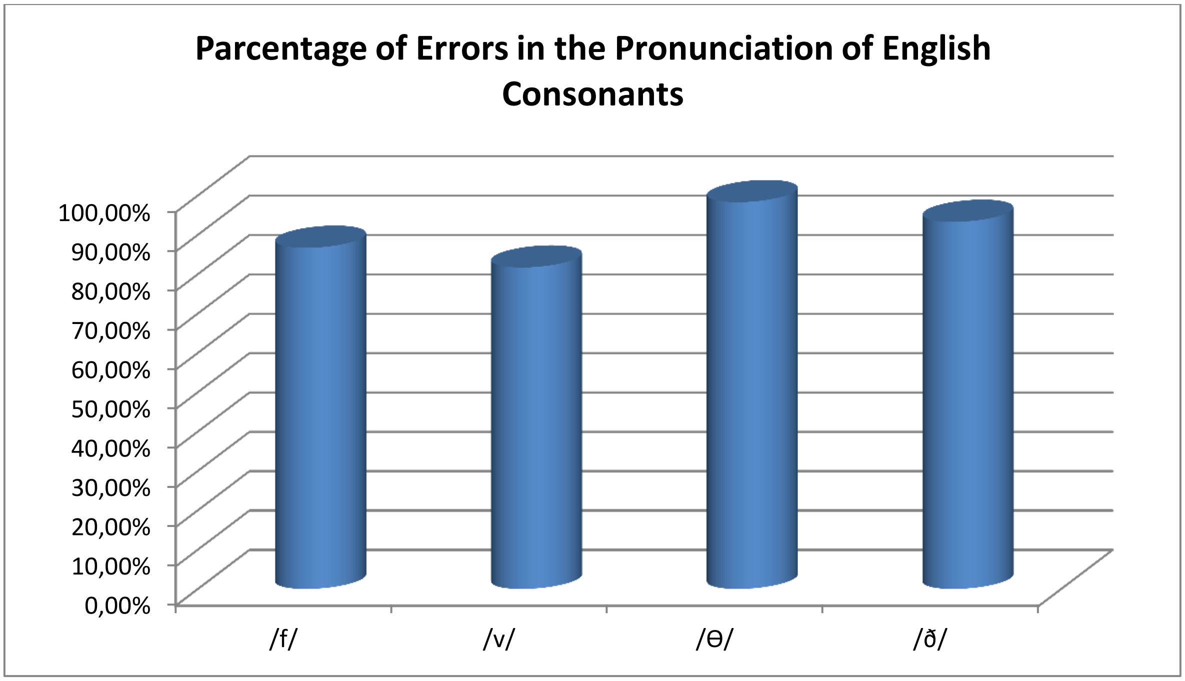

Figure 1. *Percentage of errors in the pronunciation of problematic English consonants*

5.2. Problems of Hausa speakers in the pronunciation of the English vowels /ʌ/, /ɔ:/, and /ɜ:/.

As Table 2 shows, the phonetic representation of participants' mispronunciation of the English vowel /ʌ/ is /o/, with 85% frequency, as in *young* /jong/, *brush* /broʃ/, *cup* /kop/, and *lovely* /lobeli/. This seems to be due to the fact that the vowel /ʌ/ does not exist in Hausa hence they replace it with the existing Hausa vowel phoneme /o/. This result is consistent with Mohammed's (2011) finding that Hausa speakers of English replace /ʌ/ with /o/. Jowitt (1991) also mentioned that the English vowel /ʌ/ is problematic for Hausa speakers of English.

The second problematic vowel was /ɔ:/. As illustrated in Table 2, the majority of participants substituted the English vowel /ɔ:/ with /o/ (91.7%) in words such as *water* which was mispronounced as /wotə/, *saw* as /so/, and *ball* as /bol/. The reason for this mispronunciation seems to be the fact that this vowel is nonexistent in Hausa. Therefore, Hausa speakers have the tendency to replace it with /o/, which is shorter and less open than the English vowel /ɔ:/. This finding is in line with Mohammed's (2011) study that shows Hausa speakers of English pronounce /ɔ:/ as /o/. Jowitt (1991) also listed this vowel as one of the problematic sounds for Hausa speakers of English.

The third problematic vowel was /ɜ:/. As Table 2 shows, this vowel was pronounced as /e/ in words such as *girl*, with 40% frequency, and as /o/ in words such as *slurry* and *slurpee,* with 38.3% frequency. A small number of the participants (8.3%) also pronounced /ɜ:/ as /a/ in words such as *girl* and *further;* however, this pronunciation error is insignificant due to its low frequency. The reason for these mispronunciations seems to be negative transfer as Hausa lacks the English vowel /ɜ:/. Linda (2013) also found that Igbo speakers of English in Nigeria replace /ɜ:/ with /e/, as in *girl* /gel/. The same result was obtained by Mohammed (2011) with regard to Hausa speakers of English.

Table 2 . *Frequency of mispronunciation of problematic English vowels by Hausa speakers*

Problematic Vowels	Participants' Mispronunciation	Frequency and Percentage of Mispronunciation	
		No.	%
/ʌ/	/o/	51	85
/ɔ:/	/o/	55	91.7
/ɜ:/	/o/	23	38.3
	/a/	5	8.3
	/e/	24	40

Figure 2 below illustrates the percentage of errors made by the participants in the pronunciation of English vowels. As can be observed, the vowel /ɔ:/ has the highest percentage of occurrence (91.7%), followed by /ɜ:/ with 86.6 percentage. The percentage of /ʌ/ was slightly lower than the other two vowels.

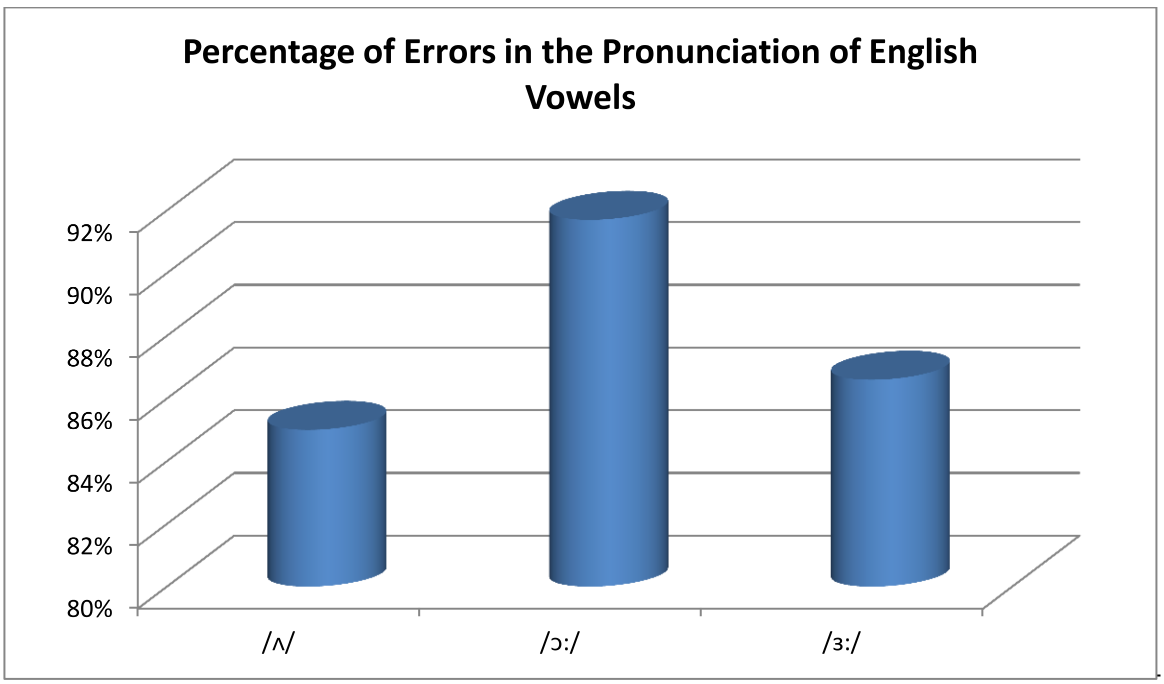

Figure 2. *Percentage of errors in the pronunciation of English vowels*

6. Conclusion and Implications

The results of the present study lend support to previous literature in favor of negative transfer and Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis in the area of pronunciation. As stated above, all of the errors made by Hausa-speaking learners of English were due to the fact that the consonants and vowels under investigation do not exist in Hausa. Empirical studies conducted in other EFL contexts, with different L1 background students of English, have reached the same or similar conclusion. See, for example, Ingram & Park, 1998; Lin, 2001; Nosratinia & Zaker, 2014; Ohata, 2004; Ringborn, 1987; Sedighi, 2010; Thompson, 1991; Tsojon & Aji, 2014; and Zhanmig, 2014. Consequently, the critics of contrastive analysis hypothesis cannot help but acknowledge the validity of this theory with reference to the role of MT interference in L2 pronunciation.

Pedagogically speaking, since only few of the participants pronounced the English phonemes investigated in this study correctly, it can be concluded that these English sounds are problematic for Hausa speakers of English. Therefore, English teachers should receive adequate training in effective teaching of these sounds so that they can help their students improve their pronunciation in English. Students should also be encouraged to participate in extracurricular activities in order to improve their English pronunciation through interacting with native or competent non-native speakers of English. However, it needs to be emphasized that the goal of pronunciation teaching should be intelligibility, and not native-like pronunciation as EFL learners do not need native-like pronunciation in order to be comfortably understood.

7. Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

Since the participants of this study were all adult university students some pronunciation errors might have been fossilized in them. Therefore, selecting samples from lower levels of education may lend to different results due to the age factor.

In this study, gender was not considered as a variable due to lack of availability of sufficient number of female volunteers. Thus, future researchers may consider the role of gender in pronunciation problems of Hausa speakers of English.

In order to collect authentic and reliable data, only students who were not English majors were selected as participants for this study. Future studies may consider comparing the performance of English majors with students from other disciplines.

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TEACHING THE CEFR ORIENTED PRACTICES EFFECTIVELY IN THE M.A. PROGRAM OF AN ELT DEPARTMENT IN TURKEY

İsmail Hakkı MİRİCİ
Hacettepe University
hakkimirici@gmail.com

Nurdan KAVAKLI
Hacettepe University
nurdankavakli@gmail.com

Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı MİRİCİ is a full time academic at Hacettepe University ELT Department in Ankara, Turkey. He was also the elected President of the World Council for Curriculum and Instruction (WCCI), and the Founder of the WCCI Turkish Chapter. He has been lecturing at Turkish universities for about 28 years. He has about 20 books and 50 articles published. He has participated in the steering committees of several national and international education projects. His main fields of studies are English Language Teaching, and Curriculum and Instruction.

Nurdan KAVAKLI graduated from Dokuz Eylül University in 2010 from the Department of English Language Teaching. She is currently working as a research assistant and a Ph.D. candidate at the department of English Language Teaching in Hacettepe University. Her interests are language endangerment, language revitalization and CEFR-oriented language testing.

TEACHING THE CEFR ORIENTED PRACTICES EFFECTIVELY IN THE M.A. PROGRAM OF AN ELT DEPARTMENT IN TURKEY[1]

İsmail Hakkı Mirici

hakkimirici@gmail.com

Nurdan Kavaklı

nurdankavakli@gmail.com

Abstract

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (hereafter CEFR) and the related documents are the current realities of ELT professionals, mainly in Europe, as part of the practices in their field of study. Although it is labeled as "common" and "European", the CEFR is an internationally recognized framework worldwide. In this sense, this study aims to uncover whether the CEFR and the other related European documents such as the European Language Portfolio (hereafter ELP), as a course in M.A. classes, have reflected certain degree of effectiveness in relation to students' expectations. Herein, students' self-reflection forms and achievement test-retest scores were analyzed. Accordingly, the mixed method laced with both qualitative and quantitative data was implemented. The learners' test-retest scores as achievement criteria constituted the quantitative part of the study. On the other hand, the qualitative part was composed of the learners' self-reflection forms for the course and discussion-based self-assessment reports. The results of the study revealed the fact that the CEFR as an M.A course was internalized better on condition that the lecture was followed by self-study, self-reflection, discussion-based self-assessment as a part of review process and test-retest practices respectively, when applied whole and complete.

Keywords: CEFR, European documents, M.A. classes, ELT department, course design, self-reflection.

1. Introduction

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching and Assessment embraces the practices of composing language syllabi, creating guidelines for curricula, setting testing and assessment criteria, selecting and designing course materials, etc. on a common ground across Europe (CoE, 2001). Elaborating the descriptives for language learners, teachers and testers in a taxonomic nature, the Framework attributes language education to a life-long basis by all means from administrative to implementative bodies. With the intention of fostering cooperation amidst professionals who are working in the field of modern languages across Europe, the Framework provides mutual understanding and recognition of language education practices in different educational systems in Europe.

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Herein, the CEFR, as an internationally recognized framework, forms the basis of current practices for English Language Teaching (hereafter ELT) academic community, as well.

Accordingly, in this study it is intended to conceptualize the CEFR as a guideline for good practice in language education pampers its adoption into the curriculum. In addition, some other related common European tools for language education are taken into consideration as part of the CEFR oriented language education. Henceforth, as a part of M.A. programs in the ELT departments in Turkey, the CEFR as a course is probed within the scope of learners' expectations, learning outcomes and course achievement via self-study, self-reflection, and discussion-based self-assessment practices. In this sense, the effectiveness of the CEFR and the allied language education tools are aimed to be uncovered as the components of a post-graduate course. The content of the CEFR, the European Language Portfolio (hereafter ELP), the current curriculum of the ELT departments in Turkey altogether comprise the course content taken as a model- here the CEFR in M.A., the current international policy in ELT departments and some sample teaching strategies that are effective for the aforementioned course achievement are scrutinized.

1.1. Review of Literature

Concerning the objectives alleged by the Council of Europe (hereafter CoE) for the development of a pan-European community, the need for an international body which promotes intercultural understanding and linguistic diversity has mushroomed (Girard & Trim, 1998). Herein, with the aim of providing unity within educational and cultural matters throughout Europe, the CEFR was officially published in 2001 by the CoE. The CEFR is the general framework which highlights the common basis for language learning and teaching practices promoting learner autonomy, self-assessment and cultural diversity (North, 2000; Little, 2011). It also promotes transparency and coherence in the learning and teaching of modern languages within the scope of an action-oriented approach. Besides, the CEFR holds plurilingual and pluricultural competence as the summit of language learning outcomes; therefore, the Framework has been adopted by not only member states but also beyond Europe for foreign language instruction (Khalifa & French, 2008).

To elaborate, the CEFR offers six proficiency levels, namely A1, A2, B1, B2, C1 and C2. A levels are for the basic users whereas B levels are for the independent users. One more to add, C levels are for the proficient users of a foreign or second language. It also has plus levels of A2+, B1+ and B2+ (CoE, 2001). Providing a transparent and coherent basis for foreign language teaching and learning practices, the Framework facilitates educational mobility. Concordantly, the illustrative scales of 'can-do' descriptors are the indicatives of language competences to recognize learners' language qualifications. Within the Framework, the contexts, themes and tasks in use are also explained in detail within the scope of scaled descriptions.

In the light of these, the comparability amidst different countries is enhanced, albeit respect for various educational systems on a national-ground basis is enabled through these reference levels. For the implementation of the CEFR, some measurements are considered, though. These are named as general principles and specific measures. General principles are to be implemented by the authorities at national, local and regional levels to effectively adopt the objectives defined by the CEFR. Concerning the specific measures, authorities from aforementioned levels are expected to encourage the appropriate use of the Framework in cooperation with all stakeholders who are enrolled in language education.

Furthermore, the European Language Portfolio was developed as a corner stone for the coordination of language learning activities (CoE, 2011). Herein, Mirici (2015a: 2) states that the ELP enables learners "to monitor their own learning process on a life-long basis as well as to develop respect for cultural identities and diversity". Furthermore, Çelik (2013: 1873) notes that "the ELP serves as an ongoing record of language learning, encouraging learners to document their progress and providing space for self-assessment, as well as instructor feedback". In the light of these, it can be stipulated that the ELP is the paramount resource for the accomplishment of the objectives defined by the CEFR. As one of the educational principles of the CEFR, autonomous learning can especially be promoted via such an effective and practical tool due to the fact that self-directed learning is a key factor in developing an understanding of the autonomous learning (Holec, 1981).

Notably, the ELP promotes the basic tenets of reflection, motivation and self-reflection. To attain these, the ELP makes use of its three components, namely the language passport, language biography and dossier. To elaborate, the language passport embraces learners' knowledge of languages and experiences upon language learning processes. On the other hand, by means of language biography, learners are enabled to portray and ponder on their skills and knowledge. Finally, learners have the opportunity of recording and/or collecting their achievements via the dossier. Herein, it is to be noted that the self-assessment scales exploited by means of common reference levels are the pavements for the ELP. Therefore, the CEFR and ELP are thoroughly in interconnection.

1.2. Theoretical Background

Becoming a member state to the CoE in 1949, Turkish Republic aligned her educational principles and practices with those of its European counterparts, taking foreign language – primarily English- education as the core element (MoNE, 2005). Following the adoption of the CEFR in the early 2000s by the Turkish Ministry of National Education (hereafter MoNE), plurilingualism and pluriculturalism have been emphasized as the ultimate outcomes of foreign language learning (Mirici, 2008; 2015b). Correlatively, endorsement of links between European countries and dissemination of the CEFR standards beyond Europe are enabled. To add more, the Turkish adaptation of the ELP was designed following the 20th Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education held in Krakow, Poland between the dates of 15- 17 October 2000. Mirici (2008: 27) states that this conference was organized to "implement or create conditions favorable for the implementation and wise use of the ELP". In this sense, the very first attempts to create the Turkish version of the ELP models were piloted within the boundaries of some private schools in Istanbul. However, as the main objective was to make it applicable by all language users, the final version for Turkish ELP models were developed for 10-14 and 15- 18 years of age groups and made available without any cost for all children at state schools via the Ministry website at http://adp.meb.gov.tr.

Concerning the practices of Turkey on language learning, the adoption of the Framework into the curriculum through exploitation is to be explained within the scope of its practicality by language learners and/or users in the classroom environment. Herein, language learning strategies that they apply during the language learning process is to be enlightened. Herein, language learning strategy, as a term, is defined as "… any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information." (Wenden & Rubin, 1987: 19). Herein, Richards and Platt (1992) state that language learning strategies are composed of premeditated behaviors and/or thoughts which help learners to better understand and learn new information. According to Stern (1992), when learners consciously engage in activities, they direct themselves to certain goals to achieve by means of aforementioned strategies. Accordingly, it is a crystal clear fact that language learners apply these strategies while processing new information or performing tasks. This is, in essence, to find the easiest and shortest way to process new input and face task-difficulty in language learning environment.

Notably, researches in the field of language learning strategies date back to the 1960s. In this context, it is to be noted that with the arrival of cognitive psychology, the researchers have directed their ways to language learning strategies (Williams & Burden, 1997). Within the scope of language learning strategies, the vital point is to "identify what good language learners report they do to learn a second or foreign language, or, in some cases, are observed doing while learning a second or foreign language." (Wenden & Rubin, 1987: 19). Accordingly, Aaron Carton penned 'The Method of Inference in Foreign Language Study' in 1966, which was accepted as the first attempt of publication in the field.

Following Carton, in 1971, Rubin focused on strategies exploited by successful learners so that less successful learners could also apply those kinds of strategies during language learning process. During this period, Rubin (1975) pointed out that strategies were made up of two processes, namely those contributing directly and those contributing indirectly to the process of language learning. Underpinned by the concept of language learning, the taxonomy of strategies was created by many scholars (Wenden & Rubin 1987; O'Malley et al., 1985; Oxford, 1990; Stern, 1992; Ellis, 1994, etc.). However, the most notable ones are mentioned briefly below assuming that the categorizations do not go through a radical change in what follows.

As a pioneer in the field of language learning strategies, Rubin (1987) classified strategies applied by learners, either directly or indirectly, into three as learning strategies, communication strategies and social strategies. Oxford's (1990) classification of language learning strategies was composed of two main classes as direct and indirect, which later paved the way toward six subdivisions in total, each having three. To name, direct strategies were composed of memory, cognitive and compensation strategies. On the other hand, indirect strategies were composed of metacognitive, affective and social strategies. Moreover, O'Malley et al. (1985) divided language learning strategies into three main subcategories as metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies. One more to add, Stern's (1992) classification of language learning strategies had five main concern as management and planning, cognitive, communicative-experiential, interpersonal and affective strategies.

In the light of these, this study also encompasses the learners' strategy use while studying for the second achievement test. Accordingly, they wrote their own discussion-based self-assessment reports and self-reflection forms. During this period, they made use of learning, communication and social strategies defined by the classification of Rubin (1987). In this context, within the scope of learning strategies, learners exploited cognitive and metacognitive strategies. To elaborate, they applied clarification, deductive reasoning and inductive inferencing as a part of cognitive learning strategies laced with communication and social strategies to practice and discuss their knowledge while they were writing their discussion-based self-assessment reports. To add more, while writing their self-reflection forms, learners applied self-management and prioritizing skills to accomplish the goals previously set by course objectives as a part of metacognitive learning strategies. Additionally, they reported their self-direct language learning experiences within these forms, as well.

2. Methodology

Within the scope of this study, a non-experimental research utilizing mixed method was employed. Accordingly, the quantitative data was gathered by means of learners' achievement test-retest scores of the related course. On the other hand, the qualitative part was composed of learners' self-reflection forms for the related course and discussion-based self-assessment reports on it. In the light of these, aims of the study, instruments for data collection and data analysis procedure were discussed below in detail as a path toward findings and discussion part.

2.1. Research Objectives

This study was conducted with the aim to uncover whether the CEFR as a course in M.A. classes reflected certain degree of effectiveness in relation to students' expectations and learning outcomes. In this context, answers to the following research questions were sought:

1. What are the learners' achievement test scores at the very beginning just after the course?
2. According to learners' discussion-based self-assessment reports, which key points are composed?
3. According to learners' self-reflection forms, how is the CEFR course defined and evaluated?
4. Is there a statistically significant difference between the learners' achievement scores after the test-retest implementation following these steps?

2.2. Participants and Setting

The participants of the current study included M.A. students recruited from the ELT department of a state university in Turkey. The participants all attended to the CEFR course during the 2015-2016 Fall Semester. To elaborate, the participants were composed of female students at the ratio of 83.3% (η=10), and male students at the ratio of 16.7% (η=2).

2.3. Measuring Instruments

With the aim to scrutinize the learners' achievement from the CEFR as a M.A. course, an achievement test was conducted twice: first, just after the course; and second, after the discussion-based self-assessment reports and the evaluation of the self-reflection forms. The aforementioned test was composed of three subparts. Accordingly, the first part was constituted by 30 multiple choice test items. The second part was constituted by 15 True-False test items. As a last step, the third part was constituted by 10 constructed response test items demanding for short-answers to the completion task. Herein, it was to be noted that any kind of problematic data entry was prevented by means of two raters, who were in action as controllers for the answer-check during the coding process.

As the same test was applied twice, test-retest implementation was considered to calculate internal consistency. In that, if a test was applied twice after certain period of time, correlation values between these two tests were to be taken as the reliability value. In this sense, the correlations between the test scores were adopted as the internal consistency value. As a need for the interpretation of non-parametric correlations, Spearman's rho was conducted with the estimation of .794 (p = .002).

To add more, learners' discussion-based self-assessment reports during the learning process and self-reflection forms at the end of the course were gathered to elicit the significant points in course achievement. Herein, discussion-based self-assessment reports as the facilitator of learning were marked just after the course achievement was assessed by means of a pre-test. Until the period at which learners were delivered the post-test, they were guided toward self-study and in-group discussions in tow. Additionally, it was to be noted that the perceptions of learners on the CEFR as a M.A. course were probed by means of self-reflection forms.

2.4. Data Collection and Analysis

The quantitative data gathered was analyzed by using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Version 20. To measure participants' course achievement, the tests applied were taken into consideration as pre- and post-tests. As the sample group was restricted and normality was not enabled, non-parametric tests were conducted. Amidst them, Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was applied to tackle the question whether there was a significant difference between the learners' test-retest scores after two implementations. All the numerical results were presented in tables.

On the other hand, the qualitative part was analyzed by means of thematic analysis to put forward perceptions of learners' on the CEFR course in a holistic way. Accordingly, two types of data entry were considered. The first part was composed of learners' discussion-based self-assessment reports, through which they could evaluate their own learning process. Besides, the second part was composed of learners' self-reflection forms, which were constituted by their perceptions of the CEFR as a course in M.A. program. The data gathered through these channels were coded by two raters independently to provide interrater reliability within. The coding was done regarding the consistency and relevancy between learners' reports named by the raters. During this process, the codes were appointed according to the concepts directed by the data. It was followed by the detection of similarities and differences between learners' statements within a thematic framework in order to stabilize relationships. As a last step, the system for thematic arrangement was precipitated in order to syllogize and explain the gatherings.

3. Findings and Discussion

As mentioned above, it is aimed within the scope of this study to uncover whether the CEFR, as a course in M.A. classes, has reflected certain degree of effectiveness in relation to students' expectations. In the light of these, the below mentioned research questions were answered, each in detail with the results highlighted by the data analysis procedure.

3.1. What are the learners' achievement test scores at the very beginning just after the course?

In order to find out the results of learners' achievement test scores at the very beginning just after the course following the instruction phase, descriptive statistics were applied. Accordingly, it was stipulated that learners' scores were ranked among 37 as the minimum score and 52 as the maximum score out of 55. Item by item analysis yielded the results that learners failed less within the multiple choice items (M= 24.16/30). However, they failed more within short-answer test item responses (M= 7.83/10) and true-false test item responses (M= 11.83/15) respectively. Additionally, the mean score was estimated as 45 (SD= 4.03), indicating the success rate of 81.96% as given in the table below:

Table 1. *Descriptives for pre-test scores*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre-test	12	37.00	52.00	45.08	4.03

3.2. According to learners' discussion-based self-assessment reports, which key points are composed?

Following the implementation of the achievement test just after the instruction phase, learners were directed toward writing their own discussion-based self-assessment reports on the topics covered up to that time. Herein, learners were requested to make use of chapters highlighted during the course. Taking the questions answered by the achievement test into account, the learners were expected to write their own reports after a short topic-discussion part. A week later, learners' discussion-based self-assessment reports were gathered. The thematic analysis conducted yielded that the topics covered, discussed and therefore reported were constituted by 7 basic components. After the thematic arrangement, these components were labeled by the raters as (i) background of the Framework; (ii) basic tenets of the Framework laced with methodological features; (iii) sub-components of the Framework; (iv) the fundamentals of language use defined by the Framework; (v) user competences targeted within the Framework; (vi) teaching and learning activities ranked; (vii) tasks in use by the Framework.

To elaborate each exclusively, background of the Framework embraced how the Framework was developed and molded by the CoE. Herein, the need for a common basis to promote pluriculturalism, international communication and European mobility was extensively touched upon. In the sequel, within the second component, methodological features were encompassed. Accordingly, the CEFR was noted as being action-oriented by taking learners as social agents during language teaching and learning process. To add more, the Framework with its principal dimensions of language activities, domains and competences was clarified. Within the third component, the levels namely A1 and A2 as basic users, B1 and B2 as independent users and C1 and C2 as independent users were defined one by one. These common reference levels were sculpted by the scales of proficiency which were depicted as user-oriented, assessor-oriented and constructor-oriented, as well. Each scale of proficiency and the cut-off points for each reference level were elaborated by the learners within this part.

For the fourth component, the fundamentals of language use were defined. Herein, domains, situations, conditions and constraints, learners'/interlocutors' mental context, communication themes, communicative tasks and purposes were touched upon. Domains were labeled as personal, public and occupational. Situations were explained within the limits of domain, namely persons, events, objects and places. Conditions and constraints were named either physical or social, such as the intelligibility of a hand-writing as physical, albeit social relations among learners as social conditions and constraints. Learners'/interlocutors' mental context was made up of the elements of state, intention, motivation and perception. Themes of communication and communicative tasks and/or purposes as the last fundamental were clarified within the scope of ludic and aesthetic use of language, or that of receptive and productive.

For the fifth component, user/learner competences which were targeted within the Framework were elaborated as general, communicative language and pragmatic competences. For the sixth component, teaching and learning activities ranked in the Framework were enlightened. Herein, particular and local needs, age and language proficiency levels, teachers' and learners' roles, and strategies adopted by learners were noted within the context of organization of the teaching and learning activities. As for the last component of tasks in use, various types of tasks were elaborated concerning the matter of cognitive and affective factors. Concordantly, some conditions and constraints were also stated such as time, goal, predictability, physical conditions and participants.

3.3. According to learners' self-reflection forms, how is the CEFR course defined and evaluated?

Learners' self-reflection forms were recruited to note how learners did define and evaluate the course. Herein, they were expected to write their forms individually within the limitation of 150-200 words. These self-reflection forms were the indicators of learners' own learning experiences defined by their own words. In this sense, these were also kinds of feedback for themselves, the course and lecturer in tow. Some extracts from the learners' self-reflection forms in an abridged version were given below:

> *"Presentation of articles at the end of the semester was nice because I had the opportunity to see the different arguments and applications of the CEFR to the skills and I learned the important names for the CEFR and the ELP such as Alderson, Little and North." (S.A.)*

> *"We, as learners, have had a chance to involve in the course with our presentations, which has made us learn better. Apart from these benefits about the course content, our instructor has also created communication environment about our lives and world-view, which has been one of the parts of the lesson that has made me feel very happy and get motivated." (Y.L.)*

> *"I did take great pleasure during all of the presentations and discussions during the course. While conveying the lesson, professor's making discussions with M.A. students and his giving additional knowledge (or elaborating the highlighted/crucial issues) was helpful for me to understand the framework and the ELP better." (E.K.)*

As given above, learners did take delight in presentations through which they had chance to involve in individual classroom applications. These kinds of implementations enabled them to contextualize the topics and differentiate the views around the world. These general cultural studies within the scope of CEFR also led learners to have good grasp of cultural knowledge of the adoption of CEFR into the Turkish EFL context. Moreover, learners were content with the practices of discussion-based self-assessment and self-reflection. They claimed that applying written exams as an only remedy to define learner achievement was not that much didactic for themselves as stated below:

> *"I found pre and post self-assessment very beneficial because they made me revise the whole framework each time." (C.Z.)*

> *"Although the framework may be difficult for me to comprehend every single piece of information, theories, and viewpoints, I really like that we have a chance to learn them cooperatively. Also, the way we reflect on our learning through reflections instead of a merely written exam is really a good idea in that our lecturer wants us to learn effectively."(G.S.)*

Moreover, learners scrutinized the importance of lecturer's attitudes as an effective factor for achievement. Herein, they stated that positive attitudes of the course lecturer mushroomed as an agent for drawing learners' attention to the course content. As a professional in the field, the lecturer was respected both for his attitudes towards learners and pedagogical-content knowledge. It was also observed that the variation of techniques applied by the lecturer enabled them to better understand the topics covered during the course as below-mentioned:

> *"One more to add is coming for our lecturer's attitude towards us as well as his way of lecturing. He had such positive attitudes towards us that it was impossible to lose attention during the lectures." (L.K.)*

> *"I owe a huge thank to the lecturer of the course for his contributions to the course and his attitudes towards us as all these helped us a lot. It was just like having a guide who was also a model for us during the lessons." (I.T.)*

> *"The way our lecturer shared his knowledge and experiences with us was memorable." (E.K.)*

Holistically, it was observed that learners were pleased with the way lecturer chose. The topics were relevant and the coherence between the topics enabled learners to better internalize the course content. Moreover, learners were given opportunities to make presentations during the course. In this sense, they were involved in the course as active participants. As learning more about the CEFR, learners were also provided discussion-based activities in a communicative environment. Herein, the attitudes of the lecturer played an effective role as all of the self-reflections forms ended up with the kind behaviors and good-humored nature of the lecturer as a leading element of success.

3.4. Is there a statistically significant difference between the learners' achievement scores after the test-retest implementation following these steps?

The achievement test which was applied just after the instruction was applied again following learners' collaborative group works and individual self-study to create discussion-based self-assessment reports and self-reflection forms respectively. In this context, the estimated mean score for the second test was 49.83 out of 55 (SD= 3.21), indicating the success rate of 90.6%. Herein, the minimum score was calculated as 43 whereas that of maximum was calculated as 54. Correlatively, in order to find out whether there was a statistically significant difference between the learners' achievement scores after the test-retest implementation following these steps, as the data required the use of a non-parametric test in use, the Wilcoxon Signed-Ranks Test was conducted. Accordingly, the results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the scores of these two tests as the second test results were higher than those of first; Z= -3.086, $p < .05$ as given in the table below:

Table 2. *Wilcoxon signed-ranks test statistics*[a]

	Test1- Test 2	Median
Z	-3.086[b]	46.00
Assymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	**.002**	50.50

[a]Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

[b] Based on negative ranks

As seen above, the test-retest implementation indicated differentiated results for the second test. Accordingly, the results of the second test were higher than those of the first. Herein, it was stipulated that the applications conducted after the first test such as discussion-based self-assessment reports and self-reflection forms would surely help learners to have higher scores from the second test. It was to be noted that learners' strategy use during these activities also triggered success for the test-retest implementation. As learners were provided not only expository but also discovery learning environment, the success rate was blossomed as being much higher for the second implementation.

4. Conclusion

Within the scope of this study, it is aimed to reveal whether the CEFR oriented language teaching practices, as a course in M.A. classes, has reflected certain degree of effectiveness in relation to students' expectations. As mentioned above, learners' achievement scores from test-retest implementation are laced with their own discussion-based self-assessment reports and self-reflections forms. Herein, learners are provided different types of learning environments in which they can make use of various learning strategies. Accordingly, below mentioned issues have proliferated.

It is to be noted beforehand that the CEFR is adopted by not only European countries but also others as it is an internationally recognized framework. In essence, it is the current reality of the ELT academic community. In this sense, the internalization of the Framework and the related European documents, especially by the professionals who are working in the field of English language teaching and the student-teachers who are studying at the department of English language teaching, occurs as a must more than a need. As the CEFR and the ELP are de facto the common basis for language teaching today, the CEFR oriented English language teaching practices as a course in M.A. programs in ELT departments has a significant role beneath.

In the light of these, in an expository learning environment, learners have been provided with lecture before first test implementation. To feed the learners' lacks, discovery learning environment has been created and laced with learners' discussions, presentations and reflections just before the second test implementation. In the end, it is concluded that the success rate is estimated as higher than the previous implementation. Herein, learners have applied learning strategies during these processes. To elaborate, learners have made use of clarification, inductive inferencing and deductive reasoning during discussions. While making presentations, they are monitoring themselves and others, as well. Besides, they have participated in conversations and practiced their knowledge together, indicating that communication and social strategies have been applied in tow. While completing their self-reflection forms, learners have applied metacognitive learning strategies by means of prioritizing and planning through self-management.

As a result, it is concluded that pure reception is not sufficient for the internalization of the CEFR as course content in M.A. programs in ELT departments. On the contrary, this study have revealed the fact that the CEFR oriented language teaching practices are internalized better on condition that the lecture is followed by self-study, self-reflection, discussion-based self-assessment as a part of review process and test-retest practices respectively, when applied whole and complete.

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A MULTI-PERSPECTIVE EVALUATION OF TEACHING SKILLS OF ELT STUDENT TEACHERS

Seçil Horasan Doğan

Gazi University

secilhorasan@gazi.edu.tr

Paşa Tevfik Cephe

Gazi University

pcephe@gazi.edu.tr

Seçil Horasan Doğan is an English language instructor. She has currently been pursuing her PhD in ELT. She has had presentations at conferences and papers published. She is interested in teacher education, drama, and multi-culturalism.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Paşa Tevfik Cephe is a faculty member in the ELT Department at Gazi University. His research interests include teacher education and TESOL methodology. He has presented papers at conferences and has published nationally and internationally.

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Seçil Horasan Doğan,

secilhorasan@gazi.edu.tr

Paşa Tevfik Cephe

pcephe@gazi.edu.tr

Abstract

Reflective practices in teacher education programs can play a critical role in enhancing the teaching quality. However, since student teachers' self-evaluations are not adequate on their own, they need to receive as much feedback as possible from other sources. In this study, a multi-perspective evaluation was provided to contribute to the teaching skills of student teachers. To this end, 15 ELT student teachers took part in an extra-curricular project to teach 1 lesson in a language classroom. Each lesson was recorded and evaluated first by themselves, then by the language learners in this classroom, and finally by 3 trainers based on the recordings using Teacher Evaluation Form. In addition, discussion sessions with each student teacher were held to share the multi-perspective evaluation and detect its contributions. The results of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis revealed that student teachers' self-evaluations were significantly different, yet they were lower than others unlike what was hypothesized. In addition, this reflective process contributed to their reflective skills, teaching skills, and self-awareness for their professional development.

Keywords: teaching skills, reflection, self-evaluation, video-based evaluation, a multi-perspective observation.

1. Introduction

In language learning, learners' achievement is highly dependent on teaching quality. Such practices as active engagement, learner-centered teaching, and constructivist learning all enable well-trained teachers to yield positive influence on language learning. However, the problem rises at the point where student teachers are challenged to apply these practices in the classroom, namely, to transfer the theoretical concepts into pedagogical implementations, which necessitates student teachers to be involved in more practices and to receive more feedback on their teaching practices. To solve the problem, educating reflective practitioners, as Schön (1987) proposed, has become the goal of teacher education programs to improve teaching quality and to set goals for professional development. In line with this requirement, constructivist frameworks have been incorporated in these programs by substantial number of teacher educators (Richardson, 1997; Walsh, 2003).

Educating reflective practitioners can be ensured through self-evaluation which can be made possible through reflections (Liou, 2001; Walsh, 2003; Ross & Bruce, 2007). Since reflection helps teachers recognize their limitations and discover perspectives and new choices, teachers' self-evaluation based on their teaching practices is highly important. Such reflections are believed to fill in the mentioned gap between theory and practice (Cephe, 2009). Since other means of reflection can be biased due to self-report effect, video-based self-evaluation works better for a sound reflection for being objective, effective, and efficient by enabling student teachers to analyze their own performances (Lee & Wu, 2006). That is, video-based evaluations prove to be more reliable than self-report evaluations. However, limited attention has been given to the use of videotaping as a reflective tool in teaching practice (Song & Catapano, 2008). In fact, the use of videos in teaching practice at teacher education programs is highly recommended for 3 main reasons: enabling visualization, facilitating reflection, and improving performances (Colasante, 2011). In addition, videotaping allows to observe the details missed in live observation in class; enables other observers to evaluate the same lesson; can be saved and watched as desired regardless of time and place; and provides an invaluable tool for reflection in professional development (Lee & Wu, 2006).

Self-evaluation alone, however, does not provide sufficient development to enhance teaching quality. As Colasante (2011) summarized, 3 components of critical reflection include peer discussion, teacher guidance and feedback, and linking theory to practice. In other words, as much feedback as possible should be provided to student teachers by their peers, course teachers, supervisors, or other sources about their teaching practice since such experience gives them the opportunity to apply theoretical knowledge to real practice (Lee & Wu, 2006). Even the evaluations of learners will contribute to the preparation of student teachers. Despite the value of the contributions and feedback from different sources, due to time constraints or lack of reflective practices, desired feedback from different perspectives cannot always be provided. Thus, there appeared a need to collect and compare evaluations from multiple perspectives about the teaching skills of student teachers so as to better contribute to their professional development. Since student teachers may be inclined to reflect subjectively on their own performances and evaluate themselves high in self-evaluation forms, such a comparison of 3 perspectives can enable them make more realistic and in-depth reflections about their teaching practices. In other words, because a multi-perspective evaluation is more reliable in providing evaluations from different aspects, it can contribute to student teachers who need to be trained to make objective reflections about themselves to improve their teaching skills. Thus, this study dwells on a multi-perspective evaluation for the purposes of providing multifaceted feedback, improving their teaching skills and awareness about them, and improving reflective skills.

The research was not within the teacher education program in order to eliminate any stress of being assessed by those with gate-keeper roles. Rather, the teaching performances of student teachers were observed in an intermediate level language classroom at tertiary level. Conceptualizing on reflective practices defined by Schön (1987) and constructivist views of Vygotsky (1978), this study aims to provide insights to teaching practices and professional development of student teachers through a comparison of 3 sources of evaluations: student teachers themselves, learners, and trainers. The study questions the following:

- Are there any significant differences among the evaluations of these 3 raters?
- How do a) student teachers evaluate their own teaching practice; b) language learners evaluate each student teacher; c) teacher trainers evaluate each student teacher?
- How does this multi-perspective evaluation contribute to the teaching skills of student teachers?

It is expected that there will be a difference in favor of student teachers who tend to evaluate themselves higher than other raters. The evaluations of learners and trainers are expected to be parallel, as of the outsider eyes. Finally, multiple evaluations will contribute to the professional development of student teachers in terms of gaining awareness about teaching skills and reflective skills.

It can be stated as a limitation that case studies are limited to a group of participants making it difficult for generalization, and to a restricted time span of observation. In addition, item 1b in the instrument is assumed as the knowledge of learners and learning in this context.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Student teachers' self-evaluation

Teacher self-evaluation refers to 'a process in which teachers make judgments about the adequacy and effectiveness of their own knowledge, performance, beliefs, and effects for the purpose of self-improvement' (Airasian & Gullickson, 2005, 2). Self-evaluation has an essential role in teachers' professional development because it provides a major means for teachers to become aware of their own practices through reflections on experiences. As Schön (1987) denoted, learning from reflection distinguishes expert teachers from others. Reflection in this sense is the core of constructivist views for teachers in the process of constructing knowledge and beliefs based on cumulative experiences. He identified reflection-in-action related to the decision-making mechanisms during teaching, and reflection-on-action for any sort of evaluation after teaching. This study dwells more on reflection-on-action for student teachers' self-evaluation aster watching their own teaching.

Reflective teaching entails teacher self-observation and self-evaluation in a cyclical way; that is to say, teachers manage to see what they cannot see. Reflection paves the way to fill in the gap between the actual teaching and the desired one. Accordingly, teachers who monitor their own teaching and evaluate themselves can easily make teaching decisions in designing their lessons. As a result, teacher reflectivity acts as a developmental process. Various means employed to this end trigger reflection and lead to self-discovery. Although reporting about the self can lead to bias, MacBeath (2003) advocated that teachers' self-evaluation is the most valuable and reliable source of information of what happens in the classroom. Critical reflection fosters awareness and understanding (Liou, 2001). Teacher self-evaluation does not only promote awareness; it also diverts teachers' attention on the ways to improve their practices for better. It fosters professional development and collaboration among colleagues. Their evaluations can then be compared to external evaluations. In terms of professional growth, Ross and Bruce (2007) underlined the role of teacher self-assessment as a constructivist tool in affecting excellence in teaching, enabling teachers to determine goals for development, enhancing communication with peers, and promoting external exchange of practices.

There are studies that touched upon teacher self-evaluation for varying motives. One is Walsh (2003) who highlighted reflective processes to increase the interactional awareness of second language teachers so as to redirect their interest to interactive decision making. Using guided self-discovery on conversation analysis, he interpreted the findings with teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Similarly, Ross and Bruce (2007) argued that teachers' self-evaluations contribute to their self-efficacy beliefs. They also incorporated it with peer-coaching, observations, and feedback on teaching. Bullard (1998) emphasized teacher self-evaluation through the means of teaching portfolios, action research, journals, and the like. Lee and Wu (2006) advocated utilizing videos for student teachers' self-evaluation in web-based computer-mediated communication based on the results that revealed effective improvement of teaching experience. Examining the role of reflective feedback, Eröz-Tuğa (2012) videotaped student teachers in their teaching practicum. She designed reflective feedback sessions on videotaped lessons and collected self-evaluation reports of student teachers on their teaching experiences. The results indicated positive effects of reflective feedback on teaching performances. She also claimed that the process lowered their anxiety, boosted self-confidence, and contributed to awareness. Liou (2001) investigated the reflective practice of student teachers on their own observation reports without using videos, and found no significant development in six weeks, which may have something to do with the developmental feature of video-based reflections.

2.2. Learners' Evaluation of Teaching

For all intents and purposes, the most important stakeholder in educational settings is the learners. Ur (1996) viewed learners as best sources for that purpose in that they can provide a holistic evaluation based on many lessons. As Kurtoğlu Eken (1999, 240) stated 'we have a lot to learn from our learners.' Thus, it can be inferred that the most worthwhile feedback on the effectiveness of teaching can be obtained from learners who are teachers' obvious critics. Historically dating back to Remmers in the 1920s (Wachtel, 1998), literature literally abounds in studies on language learners' evaluation of instruction. However, most are on the overall assessment of a course, particularly at universities serving to the purposes of course feedback, tenure decisions, and promotion (Zabaleta, 2007). Nevertheless, language learners' evaluations of teachers based on specific observation are not many. Particularly those on student teachers, to our best knowledge, are none as they have fewer chances of teaching in real classrooms, with those who have being at younger groups who may not be eligible to evaluate teachers.

It has to be acknowledged that language learners' feedback on teachers and the effectiveness of instruction has many benefits (Wachtel, 1998; Ballantyne, Borthwick, & Packer, 2000). For one, their feedback can enhance the quality of instruction as they play a diagnostic role. Ratings of language learners are the most commonly applied measure of teaching effectiveness. Teachers can receive immediate feedback from learners to gauge the effectiveness of different techniques they apply. Also learners are more powerful in today's schools for decision-making. They feel valued when their opinions are consulted. Furthermore, a combination of learners', teachers' feedback, and observers' feedback can yield more reliable consequences for decision-making. Cooperation with learners in this way helps establish a better relationship and a classroom culture. Such collaboration is also useful for the observers to compare their feedback with those of others. Marsh (1987) reported that learner ratings are multidimensional, useful for all stakeholders, and reliable for not being contaminated by bias. Overall, needs should be seen from the eyes of learners by schools to reach a higher quality (Ballantyne, et al., 2000).

2.3. Observers' Evaluation of Teaching

Observation, particularly collaborative observation, is very important in professional development. An observer could be any stakeholder. Marsh and Roche (1997) offered that language learners, former language learners, teachers themselves, colleagues, trained observers, or administrators can evaluate teaching effectiveness. Mentors, supervisors, peers, experienced or expert teachers can also be the observers. These people take on the observer role to evaluate one's teaching performance rather than to make judgments. They interpret actions within their contexts rather than simply watching and reporting. To this end, the best means to contribute to professional development can be videotaped reflective teaching practices (Lee & Wu, 2006; Song & Catapano, 2008; Colasante, 2011; Eröz-Tuğa, 2012). As Schön (1987, 303) underlined, 'a dialogue of reciprocal reflection-in-action between coach and student' is the key to train reflective practitioners. In this study, the observers are trainers.

2.4. A Multi-Perspective Evaluation of Teaching

Literature does not abound in multi-perspective evaluations of teaching practices. One of the studies that dwelled on learners' feedback in addition to other-party feedback was by Richards (1998), a pioneer in three-way observation studies, who combined teachers', peers', and learners' feedback. In three way observations, in addition to professional development practices in which teachers became pairs and observed their lessons for peer-evaluation, learners' feedback was also gathered. On the other hand, assuming teachers and learners as two must-parties in class by nature, Shortland (2004) described peers as the third-party observation.

In one such study, Kurtoğlu Eken (1999) aimed to find out the role of learners' feedback in improving teaching and learning quality. In each lesson to be observed, one learner took on the learner observer role to take notes and share them later on. She found that learners' feedback and suggestions are quite supportive in exploratory practice by giving some directions to teachers. Learner observers, though they provide simpler feedback, can even systematically contribute to teachers. Although with different groups, Ozogul, Oline, and Sullivan (2008) designed 3 groups of student teachers who were involved in teacher-evaluation, self-evaluation, and peer-evaluation groups to investigate the improvements in planning lessons. They expectedly found that those in the teacher-evaluation group showed the most development. Yet, the importance of other sources cannot be underestimated.

In brief, a study on differences among student teachers' self-evaluation, the evaluation of learners they teach, and that of observers, say peers, expert teachers, teacher educators, or trainers, can provide insights for professional development. In this way, student teachers can gain awareness on their teaching skills, notice their strengths and weaknesses, modify their practices accordingly, and shape their beliefs through reflective experiences.

3. Methods

3.1. Research design

In this study, a case study methodology was adapted to explore the evaluations of 3 groups of participants on each of their teaching performances. A particular instance of a more general situation, a case study provides a rich description of a case, its analysis, perceptions of the participants, relevant events, and a clear understanding of ideas (Cohen, Manion, & Marrison, 2007). This study is an exploratory case study based on observational data. The teaching performance of each student teacher was observed and evaluated by themselves, language learners, and trainers, one being the researcher. Cohen et al. (2007) stated that a description of events is blended with their analysis in case studies in which the researcher is also involved to seek the perceptions of individuals or groups on events. A mixed methodology, which enables to obtain rounded and reliable data (Cohen et al., 2007), was used to gather quantitative data from rubric evaluation and qualitative data from reflection questions and final discussions.

3.2. Participants

There were 3 participant groups who were selected through convenience sampling due to their availability and accessibility at the time (Cohen, et al., 2007). The first was 15 student teachers who were all female seniors at English Language Teaching (ELT) at a public university. The second group was 15 intermediate level language learners at tertiary level aged mostly 18. They were studying in the same classroom at the time. Due to absenteeism of some learners during evaluations, the number of learners evaluating each teacher varied from 7 to 15. The third group was 3 ELT instructors with varying amount of experience from 7 years to 11 years at the preparatory language program at a university. They all had ELT background, were pursuing postgraduate degrees in ELT or Curriculum, and joined teacher training courses.

3.3. Instruments

An evaluation form called the Teaching Evaluation Form was adapted from Danielson's Framework for Teaching (2007), the most commonly used and adapted framework (Kimball & Milanowski, 2009). Danielson based this framework of teaching practice on constructivist approaches and designed it to identify the performance levels that teachers are expected to show, and illustrated them with classroom-based examples. The framework sets a standardized evaluation of teaching practice (Kimball & Milanowski, 2009). Thus, it has been highly acknowledged by teacher training programs. Because of ready-made behaviorally referenced scales of the framework that cover the complexity of teaching, the teacher evaluation systems, particularly in the United States, commonly used the framework or its variations depending on their purposes (Milanowski, 2011). One of the studies that adapted the framework for reflective professional development purposes was conducted by Song and Catapano (2008) who designed a twenty-four-item survey of 4-point scale selecting from the elements of the first three components to evaluate videotaped lessons of 8 in-service teachers. Three external reviewers rated the same lessons and found 0.972 of reliability in Cronbach's Alpha computation. They concluded that ratings were almost identical.

Danielson's Framework for Teaching (2007) is composed of 4 domains and 22 components. Domain 1 is Planning and Preparation including 6 components in which knowledge of content, pedagogy, learners, materials, and objectives are mainly addressed. Domain 2 is the Classroom Environment including 5 components in which classroom procedures such as smooth transitions, encouragement, physical space and safety, and respect are addressed. Domain 3 is Instruction including 5 components in which clear communication, discussion, active engagement of learners, monitoring, flexibility, critical thinking, and decision-making are addressed. Domain 4 is Professionalism including 6 components in which responsibilities of teachers for professional development such as their cooperation with colleagues are addressed. All domains include five or six components and each component has several elements. The components are described by detailed indicators, possible examples, and critical attributes.

Of all domains, Domain 2 and 3 are directly relevant to classroom observation and Domain 1 can be traced through lesson planning and the evidence in classroom. However, since Domain 4 pertains to professional development that takes place outside the classroom in longer terms and in relation to other stakeholders, it was left out in the adaptation. As a result, Danielson's first 3 domains including sixteen components with described performance levels as Unsatisfactory, Basic, Proficient, and Distinguished graded as 1 to 4 respectively were adapted as are for the purposes of this study. Having 4 scales as in Danielson's is more preferred in rubrics so as to avoid the central tendency effect (Popham, 2005).

In addition to these rubric questions, 3 open-ended questions were added for the participants to reflect and provide more feedback about the teaching (Appendix). These questions were composed of reflective questions used in similar studies (see Kurtoğlu Eken, 1999; Song & Catapano, 2008). Thus, the instrument was composed of an observation scale as originally presented by Danielson's first 3 domains and a feedback tool with open-ended reflection questions. Therefore, it was eluded that the instrument did not guide or structure the responses of any raters in a particular way.

All participants evaluated the same lesson using the same tool. Although the framework is extremely commonly adapted, expert opinion was consulted for the last version and raters' evaluations were piloted on different samples of recordings first. As Song and Catapano (2008) suggested, practical reliability ensured by training the raters is more valuable than computing reliability. Thus, the rubric and form were sent to the participants in advance and they were also trained on how to use it referring to the indicators, examples, and critical attributes that Danielson described. For reliability, the Cronbach's Alpha was computed as 88.1% for student teachers, 91.9% among learners, and 91.3% among trainers. As Cohen, et al. (2007) stated, there may be bias in self-reporting, which can be eliminated through triangulation or other means because it is critical to avoid a threat to external validation. In addition to the rubric forms, a final reflective discussion session was held with each student teacher to discuss the comparative evaluations to track their contributions and were audio-recorded.

3.4. Procedure and Data Analysis

In the planning phase, the teaching dates were determined with the student teachers who were invited to teach one lesson as guest teachers. Therefore, the second question in Domain 1 about knowing learners might have been low. Thus, it was assumed as the knowledge of learners and learning in general and the ways teachers sought ways to get to know about the learners. All student teachers taught in the same class. The lesson objectives and materials were shared with them in advance, and then they sent their lesson plans to the trainers. Before the lesson, language learners were informed about the guest teachers. In the training phase of the raters, the language learners were trained in their native language to ensure their understanding and they were also assisted through more examples and translations during evaluations.

In the data collection phase, each lesson was video-recorded. After the lessons, the videos were first shared with the student teachers to evaluate their own performance on the rubric. Secondly, each learner was given the rubric to evaluate the guest teacher while watching the lesson in the classroom. It is important that such experimental studies are conducted on out of the curriculum and testing procedures of the classroom so as not to bear grading anxiety and bias so that any sort of reciprocity effect (Clayson, Frost, & Sheffet, 2006), a situation in which learners give high evaluations to teachers who gave them high grades and vice versa, can be eliminated. Finally, 3 trainers watched the videos and evaluated the student teachers on blind rating. A few disparities were negotiated and disagreements were resolved. All raters were encouraged to write as much comments as they could in the last part of the instrument. Gathering the scores, the researcher trainer discussed the comparative evaluations with the student teachers to encourage them to reflect more on their teaching and to interpret the evaluations about themselves so as to see how beneficial this process was for their professional development and what they gained at the end.

In the data analysis phase, all participants were coded such as ST1…ST15 for student teachers, LL1…LL15 for language learners, and TT1…TT3 for teacher trainers. After coding, the quantitative data were entered to SPSS. First, student teachers' self-evaluations were directly keyed to the database. Secondly, learners' evaluation scores for each student teacher were grouped. The extreme ends in learners' data – the highest and the lowest scores – were discarded to compute the trimmed mean. In robust statistics, trimmed mean removes outliers for more objective and robust analysis so that more consistent and accurate distributions can be found (Larson-Hall, 2010). The trimmed mean scores of learners were also keyed to the database. Finally, for the consistency of trainers, their scores were entered to SPSS for computing the rater agreement on Kendall's W test for reliability concerns. This test explores the agreement among at least 3 non-continuous variables (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). In this study, 3 independent trainers rated the same performances based on the same instrument they were trained about. In Kendall's W test for the consistency of 3 trainers' ratings, KW= 0.832 was found. As 0 means no agreement while 1 means complete agreement according to $0 \leq W \leq 1$, the result was accepted to provide sufficient agreement. It shows that groups have a similar way of thinking in evaluating performances, deriving most importantly from the training before the study. The importance of training the participants in using the instrument plays a critical role to increase reliability in this sense because raters' understanding the tool is much more critical than the numbers computing reliability (Song & Catapano, 2008). Consequently, the mean scores of the 3 were computed to be used as group scores.

The data from all 3 groups were analyzed on Shapiro-Wilk Normality Test for normality since it is a powerful goodness-of-fit test in small sized-samples (Larson-Hall, 2010). In Shapiro- Wilk test, null hypothesis is not rejected when p is greater than .05 (Larson-Hall, 2010). The analysis in Table 1 shows that a normal distribution was found.

Table 1. *Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality*

Tests of Normality				
	Raters	Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
Mean scores	Trainers	.928	15	.258
	Student teachers	.917	15	.174
	Learners	.969	15	.842

Following these phases, Levene's Test was administered for homogeneity and one-way ANOVA was used to determine any differences and the multiple comparison test was applied for further analysis. Finally, the constant comparison method was used for qualitative data analysis. That is, the data were continuously re-examined to compare them within groups and the theoretical assumptions (Cohen et al., 2007). It was revealed in general that language learners' and trainers' evaluations match to 80%. The audio-recordings of final discussions were transcribed and analyzed with the same method.

4. Results

The first research question investigated the differences in a multi-perspective analysis to contribute better to the teaching skills of student teachers. Following the reliability analysis, further analysis was conducted through one-way ANOVA for testing whether any statistical differences exist among three groups (Larson-Hall, 2010). It showed that .05 was accepted as significant, and there was a difference among participants as in Table 2. In addition, Levene test, in which significance level of more than .05 indicates equal variances, was conducted for homogeneity of variance (Larson-Hall, 2010). Table 3 shows variable homogeneity was found.

Table 2. *Results from the one-way ANOVA test*

ANOVA					
Mean scores	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	268.876	2	134.438	3.18	.05
Within Groups	1776.791	42	42.305		
Total	2045.667	44			

Table 3: Results from the Levene Test of Homogeneity

Test of Homogeneity of Variances			
Mean scores Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.360	2	42	.700

Having more power in finding differences especially among three means, Least Significant Difference (LSD) Test was applied (Table 4) as the most powerful test in post-hoc multiple comparison tests (Larson-Hall, 2010). The results showed a significant difference in favor of student teachers. The trainers' and learners' scores were close to one another and higher than those of student teachers while the student teachers' scores for themselves were relatively lower in contrast to what was hypothesized.

Table 4. *Results from the LSD Test for multiple comparisons*

Multiple Comparisons							
Dependent Variable: mean scores							
	(I) Rater	(J) Rater	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
LSD	trainers	student teachers	5.73333*	2.37500	.020	.9404	10.5263
		learners	1.37190	2.37500	.567	-3.4210	6.1648
	student teachers	trainers	-5.73333*	2.37500	.020	-10.5263	-.9404
		learners	-4.36143	2.37500	.073	-9.1544	.4315
	learners	trainers	-1.37190	2.37500	.567	-6.1648	3.4210
		student teachers	4.36143	2.37500	.073	-.4315	9.1544

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The second research question investigated the perceptions of three rater groups in evaluating the same teaching practice of each student teacher. First of all, student teachers' self-evaluations all showed that they all enjoyed the lesson and the experience, though they also highlighted some of their weaknesses to be improved. They all stated that such real classroom experiences should be more frequent as they can well contribute to their teaching skills prior to the profession. In addition, they all reported the usefulness and effectiveness of receiving feedback from different perspectives. One point about the qualitative and quantitative data they provided was that their perceptions in reflection and scores in the forms were mostly parallel in %73 of them. One of the student teachers (ST14), for instance, scored herself and was scored by others as a medium-achiever. She commented '*The students were eager to join the lesson. However, I should improve my teaching skills'*; one learner (LL3) commented *'It was an enjoyable lesson, but she was shouting while speaking';* and one trainer (TT2) commented *'She had several language mistakes, but a high energy to activate all learners.'* This showed three parallel perspectives on ST14. However, they were not always parallel to those of the trainers and learners. For example, one teacher (ST4) was criticized by the trainers and learners, but she stated *'It was an enjoyable and effective lesson and a great practice before starting the profession'*. Another (ST13) who was highly appreciated underscored herself stating that *'I am a bit weak to handle unexpected situations.'*

Learners, on the other hand, were quite frank in their evaluations. When they liked the lesson, the activities, and the teacher, they commented positively as 'LL4: *She was the best teacher of all.* LL8: *She spoke fluently.* LL9: *We thought she was experienced.* LL2: *She was confident and enjoyable.* LL16: *She will be an active and beloved teacher.'* for one teacher (ST10) or negatively for another (ST1) as 'LL5: *Her looks were harsh.* LL7: *She was talking as if she would beat us at any moment.* LL6: *She made us nervous.* LL1: *She was energetic but cold.'* The evaluations of learners were not so shallow as to state that it was a good lesson. In contrast, they used the items in the rubric while referring to the teaching skills so that they constituted another critical rater. To illustrate, for ST3, LL8 said, *"She was too excited as understood from her body language and she could not use her voice effectively"* while LL16 said, *"Her movements and teaching were like memorized, not natural."*

As for the trainers, the comments were expectedly more comprehensive and to the point. For ST9, for example, TT3 commented *'She had a good rapport with learners, but she gives the feeling that she may be challenged under unexpected situations.'* For ST13, TT1 stated *'Her use of authentic materials was not only pursuant but also effective for permanent vocabulary learning. However, she did not ask learners any questions for comprehension check. Rather, she directly required some production. It created the feeling that she focused too much on what she had to do mechanically, and underestimated how much students learned.'* Their evaluations and learners' were in line. Just like learners, TT1 and TT3 commented for ST3 as *"Her excitement was obvious, yet she was aware and trying to handle it. Her smooth transition made the lesson connected. However, somehow she covered the lesson literally, which seemed so unnatural."*

When ratings from three different perspectives were examined for each teacher, the most interesting result was that ST10 whose self-evaluation was the lowest of all was evaluated as the most successful by trainers and the second most successful by learners. Similarly, ST9 with the second lowest self-evaluation was rated relatively high by trainers and learners. In contrast, ST6 who scored herself in the second highest rank was evaluated low both by the trainers and learners and ST4 in the fourth rank among self-evaluations was the lowest by trainers and the second lowest by learners. These four cases were the most strikingly different ones. However, the consistency between the trainers and learners was still apparent.

The third question investigated the possible contributions of the multi-perspective evaluation on student teachers. To this end, the final discussions with each student teacher about the comparative evaluations of multiple perspectives were productive in that they had the opportunity to compare their perceptions to those of other sources that can be more objective. Their reactions and responses showed that they were more excited to hear the evaluations of language learners. This was the first time they had feedback from their learners. They stated that they discovered their weaknesses better and they sought ways to cope with them. For instance, ST1 stated *"I knew that my eye shots are extra hard as my professors at my teacher training program always tell me; however, I did not know that it affected the learners that much. I try hard to diminish it, but what else can I do? Could you please advise me something about this?"* She was upset to hear the evaluations of learners, yet was more willing than ever to change her looks. She was noted that she was one of those who raised awareness the most, particularly in Domain 2 and 3. She was highly appreciated in planning and adaptations, yet she became aware of the importance of creating a friendly atmosphere and having a good rapport with learners thanks to the evaluations of learners in particular. She was suggested mirror practice for a while.

On the other hand, ST10, one of the extreme cases, had considered herself weak in this particular teaching practice; thus, she was shocked and happy to learn the high evaluations of the learners and trainers. She said *"I underscored myself because I could not manage my time well and I thought they could not learn the subject. However, I see that they felt comfortable with me, learned the target words, and had thought that I was experienced. It means I could have created this atmosphere, but I was not aware. I guess I was afraid or not confident enough. Now, I wish I can teach more in this class."* Her gain was more on self-awareness. She realized the importance of self-assessment, monitoring, responsiveness, and flexibility in class.

Another extreme case, ST4, became aware of her weaknesses not immediately after watching the video, but after the discussions. She stated *"I used L1 in class to explain better. While watching the video, I thought it was OK; but now while negotiating with you on the video, your evaluations, and learners' evaluations…I do not know. I think I need more practices. I realized the flaws in my plan, instructions and body language on the video; however, I can only now understand that it caused a distance between me and the learners. They told me "a cold teacher", but I am always friendly in my normal life."* She noticed that her activity selection was one thing that affected her lesson and the implementation of these activities was another. Even if she had selected coherent activities based on lesson objectives, they might not have been influential unless she established a comfortable environment and communication with learners and modified her instruction in a more interactive and responsive way. Thus, she was concluded to come to realizations in all domains of the evaluation.

The other student teachers also indicated that this teaching experience was fruitful to receive evaluations from different perspectives, to discover their strengths and weaknesses, and to negotiate ways to improve their teaching. Most of them were good at Domain 1 as seen in lesson planning, but not in Domain 2 (a friendly atmosphere, encouragement, classroom management, physical organization, and smooth transitions) and Domain 3 (clear explanations, thought-provoking questions, active participation, monitoring, and responsiveness in unexpected situations. Thus, they discovered they needed to improve teaching skills on classroom environment and instruction. They became aware of what they did in class and how their practices were perceived by learners. In addition, they appreciated the way it was conducted outside their coursework so that both student teachers and learners eluded the anxiety of being assessed.

5. Discussion

Drawing from the results, one important finding was that the hypothesis regarding the first research question did not come true. Due to the self-report effect, student teachers were expected to score themselves higher. However, interestingly enough the quantitative analysis showed that whilst the trainers and learners scored student teachers higher, they scored themselves quite low. This is not congruent with Ross and Bruce (2007) who stated that it was not very likely for teachers that underrated themselves to change because of the depressing impact of negative self-evaluation. However, it can be explained in that the external threat of self-report had been eliminated by asking the teachers to watch themselves on recordings and make the evaluations accordingly. Therefore, having seen themselves objectively, student teachers provided honest reflections. This strengthens the power of video-based reflections and evaluations in improving teaching skills of student teachers (see Colasante, 2011).

Regarding the next hypothesis, the results about how each rater group evaluated the same student teacher showed that as outsider evaluators, the trainers and learners provided parallel evaluations to the student teachers. As expected, outsider eyes were compatible while student teachers' reflections were harsher due to objective evaluation, yet were much lower than expected. Therefore, it can be argued that through video-based evaluations self-report bias can be avoided so that self-assessment could become objective and effective thanks to video-based reflections, which is compatible with what Lee and Wu (2006) argued.

In addition to the consistency among rater groups, contributions of each can be discussed. To being with student teachers themselves, except for the four extreme cases, the result that 73% of student teachers scored themselves in the form in parallel to the way they evaluated themselves in the reflective questions can be valued high considering that they took limited part in practicum or any other real teaching contexts although they were used to microteaching. This is an indication of high reliability. Secondly, trainers' comments were more guiding, enlightening, and informative; thus they contributed a lot to student teachers in raising awareness for various aspects of teaching practices. Finally, learners revealed meaningful evaluations that would help student teachers figure out their powers and flaws supposedly thanks to the training they received about using the instrument. In addition, some of their evaluations were outspoken allegedly because they took their evaluation task seriously when they were informed that this project served to the professional development of the student teachers. Learners' contribution to the process was also proven to be extremely supportive by Kurtoğlu Eken (1999).

In respect to the third question, one of the most important findings arose in the analysis of the final discussions that basically revealed the contributions of this process to student teachers. Student teachers had the chance to receive a comparative evaluation from multi-perspectives. They were also themselves constituted one of the perspectives through their own reflections. Therefore, they had the opportunity to learn the ways to make more objective reflections. In addition, they became better aware of their strengths and weaknesses so that they can take a step to develop themselves. They discovered their own mistakes in the videos. However, most importantly they received feedback from various perspectives so that even if they had missed a point in the video or did not understand the value of a point, they could have realized it at the end. As Schön (1987) described in reflection-on-action, student teachers can be involved in a conscious, non-spontaneous evaluation of the whole picture once the lesson is over to make more long-term decisions on different aspects of their teaching practices.

Furthermore, they particularly looked forward to hearing the evaluations of learners since it was the first time they were evaluated by learners for many reasons. First, they are always evaluated by their teacher educators or peers in microteaching; thus, their comments do not make as much effect as learners'. Second, they have limited experiences in practicum to allocate time for learner evaluations. Third, they usually teach to young learners in practicum who are not mature enough for objective evaluations. As a result, student teachers all stated that learners' comments were more influential on them to take actions to modify their teaching. This is a significant outcome to lead to some research on to learner evaluation.

Finally, the last hypothesis verified that this processes contributed to student teachers who were pleased to seek ways to compensate their weaknesses and fortify their strengths. They were more willing to take part in real teaching contexts to improve their teaching skills through experience because they believed that learning by doing or experiencing is extremely valuable. Some of them could not show or develop certain teaching skills, yet they certainly indicated and also stated that they had at least gained awareness not only on teaching skills but also on reflective skills. The results showed that the least development and contributions were observed in Domain 1 about planning and preparation probably due to numerous practices of lesson planning and microteaching in their teacher education. However, the most development and awareness were observed in Domain 2 (classroom environment) and Domain 3 (instruction) most probably due to the opportunities of practicing in real classroom contexts and reflecting not only on their own performances after watching videos but also on the multi-perspective evaluations compared in the final discussions. This shows the significance of more teaching practices (Seferoğlu, 2006) and reflective feedback (Eröz-Tuğa, 2012).

Therefore, this study suggests a developmental process for student teachers by allowing them to take part in more practice by teaching outside their teacher education program, enabling them reflect on their video-recorded teaching practices, engaging them in multiple evaluations, and encouraging them to reflect on the whole process for self-discovery. Reflecting upon teaching and observing duality in actual teaching settings contribute a lot to student teachers for further professional development.

6. Conclusion

A comparison of multi-perspective evaluations was examined in this study. The results showed that despite the self-report effect, student teachers reported themselves lower than the trainers and learners did. It is argued that this is a consequence of video-based reflections that makes scoring more objective and effective. This finding is compatible with what Lee and Wu (2006), Song and Catapano (2008), and Colasante (2011) argued.

Regarding the reflective aspect of the study, it can be concluded that when the opportunity is provided to student teachers to be involved in self-evaluation, it is seen that they tend to discover certain things about themselves. This shows the importance of reflection for professional development once again as already asserted in literature (Eröz-Tuğa, 2012; Cephe, 2009; Schön, 1987) and a need for more and more teaching practice (Seferoğlu, 2006). Therefore, to enhance the reflective practices of student teachers, they should be encouraged to be involved in video-based practices, to keep reflective journals, and to take part in discussions with colleagues, peers, mentors, and even the learners they teach. Since it was found that student teachers discovered certain things not when they watched the videos alone, but when they did so with a trainer with whom they also negotiated the evaluations, it can be concluded that teachers need both emotional and intellectual support; thus, affective dimension should be addressed (Le Cornu & Ewing, 2008). In order to address their affective modes, more collaborative observations are needed. Thus, to improve teaching skills, collaborative observations and reflections are more beneficial. This is congruent with what Atay (2008) discussed with collaborative dialogue for professional development.

In respect to the multiple-perspective evaluations, it can be concluded that student teachers' self-evaluations were important for self-awareness and reflection; learners' evaluations were quite motivating and supportive; trainers' evaluations were extremely beneficial and eye-opening. One conclusion that can be drawn out of the findings from the final discussions on the comparative evaluations of three perspectives is that triangulation of evaluations makes feedback to student teachers more versatile, wealthy, supportive, and useful. A comparative evaluation demonstrates if there is a difference between the evaluations of themselves and those of others so that they can improve their reflective skills for objectivity and self-betterment. This is similar to what Schön (1987) discussed with reflection-on-action through which holistic, conscious, non-spontaneous evaluations as well as healthy long-term decisions can be made.

Self-evaluation and supervisory evaluations are rather prevalent in literature, but the learner dimension in the evaluations, which is not very common for pre-service teachers, was confirmed to be quite useful and necessary because student teachers, having almost no experience of teaching in real classroom contexts, became curious to hear learners' evaluations and motivated to make modifications on their teaching even if the feedback was positive or negative. What they remembered more and influenced them more at the end of the process was what learners commented about them. Therefore, as long as the learners are eligible and mature enough and are trained to evaluate student teachers, their evaluations are seen to be quite significant for the professional development of student teachers. This is in line with Kurtoğlu Eken (1999) who found that learners could contribute to teachers and it was really supportive.

Finally, the rating tool can be employed with the student teachers in different fields of teaching as well. As a limitation, however, it can be stated that the teaching performances of student teachers were evaluated based on their one simple lesson by three perspectives. Therefore, it would be harsh to make radical judgments about their teaching. A further study can be conducted on several subsequent observations. Furthermore, as the fourth perspective, peer-evaluation can be incorporated to future studies just like the one of the components in three-way observations suggested by Richards (1998) and Shortland (2004).

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Appendix: Teacher Evaluation Form Adapted from Danielson's Framework for Teaching

Teacher Evaluation Form

Is this:
Teacher's self-evaluation: □
Student evaluation of teacher: □
Observer's (i.e. peer, trainer) evaluation: □

Your name (evaluator):
Name of the teacher observed:
Aim of the lesson:

Instruction: Please watch the videotaped lesson and evaluate the teaching according to the scale:
1=Unsatisfactory, 2=Basic, 3=Proficient, 4=Distinguished.

Domain 1: Planning and Preparation	1	2	3	4
1a: The teacher demonstrates knowledge of content and pedagogy				
1b: The teacher demonstrates knowledge of students				
1c: The teacher sets goals and being prepared				
1d: The teacher demonstrates knowledge of resources (materials and technology)				
1e: The teacher designs coherent instruction by selecting varied, appropriate activities				
1f: The teacher designs student assessments according to their performance				
Total for Domain 1:				
Domain 2: The Classroom Environment				
2a: The teacher creates an environment of respect and rapport through interaction and body language				
2b: The teacher establishes a culture for learning with pride and encouragement				
2c: The teacher manages classroom procedures from grouping to smooth transitions				
2d: The teacher manages student behavior with a respectful manner				
2e: The teacher organizing physical space to be safe and accessible				
Total for Domain 2:				
Domain 3: Instruction				
3a: The teacher communicates with students through clear instructions and explanations				
3b: The teacher uses thought-provoking questioning and discussion techniques				
3c: The teacher engages students in learning actively				
3d: The teacher uses assessment in instruction through monitoring and giving feedback				
3e: The teacher demonstrates flexibility, responsiveness, and adjustment to unexpected situations				
Total for Domain 3:				
Total				
Reflection				
1. How did you feel about the lesson/teaching? 2. What were the strong and weak aspects of the lesson/teacher? 3. Do you have any suggestions for this lesson?				