Gülşen, E., & Mede, E. (2017). Efficacy of multi-level extensive reading in young learners' reading motivation. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching (IOJET), 4*(4), 290-315. http://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/190/173

Received: 27.03.2017
Received in revised form: 04.05.2017
Accepted: 03.06.2017

EFFICACY OF MULTI-LEVEL EXTENSIVE READING IN YOUNG LEARNERS' READING MOTIVATION

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Abstract

Reading has always been open to research and development of new theories in the field of English language education. Many language teachers find it hard to tailor the level of any reading text to a common level that can appeal to every single L2 learner and each language level in the classroom. The hard-copy reading materials or the course books at hand are mostly unbreakable or unable to provide the teachers with the ease of editing the content to tailor it for each individual student. The present study, therefore, aims to investigate the effect of extensive reading lessons through the use of tablets and designed on the grounds of differentiated instruction (DI) on students' motivation and comprehension skills. The participants were 24 fifth grade Turkish EFL learners studying in a private k-12 school in Turkey. Data were collected from two questionnaires, Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997) and Favourite Book Types (www.raz-plus.com) as well as semi-structured interviews. The findings revealed that there was a positive relationship between a students' motivation for reading and multi-level extensive reading lessons. Besides, there was an improvement in the comprehension skills of the participants as well.

Keywords: differentiated instruction, extensive reading, reading motivation, using tablets.

1. Introduction

When the main aim of the lesson is reading, it is mostly hard to see the flow of motivation running smoothly among the learners in a language classroom. Some of the students may have lost their interest while reading the book and might be interfering with their pencils or other stuff, while some others might be shuffling through the pages of the text or the book or counting down for the break time or several others might be looking at the lines blankly even though they seem to be "performing" the activity of reading. This is a scene most language teachers are accustomed to experiencing or being part of or one of a kind that is mostly ignored as it is supposed that the best reading lessons are those where the students are reading the books very silently or that is usually left unchanged just because no smart solutions can be found or because it is a must that the silent state of the students not be intervened. It is difficult to disagree with the fact that a language teacher leaves the classroom with his mind troubled with the question whether they have all enjoyed reading the text and comprehended it or they are looking forward to reading lessons. Therefore, it may even be hard to gather feedback after such a tiring and demanding task of reading because the students themselves think that they have simply read and completed the required activity.

However, as it is apparently obvious, this is not the aim set at the very beginning of the lesson. As language teachers, we would all like to make sure that each and every student in the lesson is capable of comprehending every text that we have given them the chance to read. Because of the curricular restrictions or lack of text availability, the texts or passages that have been prepared in a single level and genre only are provided for them. However, we all know that not every student has the same level of English or the same level of disposition for language acquisition, even nuances between these levels can be felt in receptive skills. And, nevertheless, having reached a certain level of L2 does not have a sole role in activating the students' motivation. As much as the reading texts are, the activity of reading itself must be authentic. The learners must read for a purpose and they must be cognizant of and familiar with this purpose, as everybody does when they are reading a text in their L1 (Servilio, 2009). And, here the task of differentiating between intensive and extensive reading for the language teacher comes into plan. However, it is always hard to set a convenient and "common" language threshold for a classroom as much as it is difficult to find separate books or texts for individual language thresholds and so a fixed threshold that is assumed to be the best one for each student in the classroom is set at all costs. Therefore, while that reading lesson might be extensive for some or most of the students, it might still be intensive for others. Dividing the classroom in different levels, assigning different groups of students the same levels and finding a book that has been published in at least two different levels or editing it so that it has different levelled versions in the end are all arduous and time-consuming tasks for us teachers.

In this technological era, it is easier than thought or may be assumed to provide the students with such multi-levelled reading lessons where they will enjoy reading and comprehend the text in equal levels within the convenience of internet and by letting the student read on soft-copies, which can eventually save time and effort for teachers and help them design reading lessons that are structured on the basis of differentiated instruction and so truly extensive for each student. The repository website https://www.raz-kids.com has such online books which have been published in different levels and by using some of the multi-level books provided by this website, this study shows the teachers a way that they can use to turn their reading lessons truly extensive ones on the basis of differentiated instruction. Its main focus is to gauge and explore the effect of multi-level lessons on reading motivation by recommending some extensions and identifying its limitations.

1.1. The Current Course

The students in the classroom are learning English through differentiated instruction and they are selected for this classroom accordingly. The course they are taking is based on an intensive main course book and a reading book that gives them the opportunity to read 4-5 texts or stories each week. The level of the texts is always fixed and nearly 80% of the learners find them difficult. The teachers have difficulty giving feedback although they can differentiate the comprehension questions or tasks in the end.

1.2. Problem Identification

Most of the students who are taking this differentiated language course cannot get as much motivated in reading lessons as they are in other skills. They cannot use their comprehension skills effectively and lose their interest in reading activities easily. High-level students can find the lessons uninteresting if the teacher practices comprehensions skills over and over again for low-level students. As for low-level ones, they can lose track of the lesson when their strong partners do more challenging exercises.

1.3. The Purpose of the Study

The ultimate goal of this study is to measure and explore the effect of extensive reading lessons designed on the grounds of differentiated instruction on young learners in a private secondary school setting. Besides, it aims to find a solution for demotivation in current reading lessons within the same context.

The research questions are based upon the following statements:

- What happens to the student's reading motivation after they are exposed to differentiated extensive reading activities?
- What is the relationship between differentiated extensive reading lessons and students' reading motivation and engagement?
- How do the differentiated extensive reading activities change the students' reading attitude and comprehension?

2. Literature Review

As a receptive skill, reading has always been an area of research for a teacher for which a clear-cut method of teaching can never be identified just because each individual read at different speeds and in different ways (Scrivener, 2009). And, most of the in-class reading task have conventionally been "detailed reading" or "intensive reading" activities where many of the students in a particular classroom found it too difficult to concentrate on the – perhaps unfamiliar – context and had to deal with language forms that are so complicated for his or her level that s/he cannot be engaged in the lesson and eventually finds the reading task intolerable (Hornery, Seaton, Tracey, Craven, & Yeung, 2009). To oust such issues or problems, through pedagogical studies and explorations, "extensive reading approach", which suggests that students can read better in a *laissez-faire* atmosphere of surroundings, has been put forward (Brown, 2000). According to this theory, reading to take pleasure and without feeling obliged to look up all the unfamiliar words lead to high language proficiency (Green & Oxford, 1995, as cited in Brown, 2000). Therefore, extensive reading applies to reading tasks or texts where there are only a few unfamiliar words or grammar items. Correspondingly, students ultimately grasp more lexical and functional items out of the texts while they are reading them 'unconsciously' (Huang, Tsai, & Huang, 2015). However, such a case is generally possible when the learners find the relevant book interesting – or are free to choose it – and specifically when the level of the text is tailored to their respective level of L2. According to Language Threshold Hypothesis, each learner must have a sufficient amount of L2 vocabulary, grammar and discourse (Grabe & Stoller, 2002) and this knowledge draws a concrete line of the level at which learners can read a text or what level the text of the extensive reading activity should be. Many schools or courses divide the classes into particular levels and they use course books labelled according to these levels, no matter what the age of the students are. However, these classifications are 'generally' general and can only give an overall explanation regarding what the learners might know or might do. Since a language teacher is always actively in contact with all the students and, literally speaking, stands physically close to them inside a classroom, she can sense the individual – both instrumental and motivational – differences between them easily and that's a very common case for every language teacher (Pulido & Hambrick, 2008). And, as far as extensive reading – or even intensive one – is concerned, it is possible to talk about the same personal differences. However, in almost all of the reading lessons provided, they are disregarded and all the students are obliged to read the text in the same level. This may be linked to the lack of the levelled versions of the relevant text or the book or lack of time to tailor the level to each student's language threshold. And, sensory preferences, as described by Scrivener, are also

subject to complete disregard in many reading lessons. Some learners respond through auditory senses, while others learn best through visual and kinaesthetic senses. Therefore, in a language classroom where there are students with different levels of L2, different types of interest and senses, it is obligatory to make a blend with the materials at hand through a method of instruction that also differs. In this way, the students can be more engaged in the lessons as they are more motivated (Tomlinson, 2000, 2005).

In this study, therefore, effects of extensive reading through differentiated instruction by considering the aspects of motivation, sensory preferences and different language thresholds is explored and gauged. It is evident that nowadays DI (Differentiated Instruction) is one of the most effective approaches in teaching learners with different levels of knowledge, modifying teaching strategies to meet the learners' needs (Gardner, 2000, as cited in Vieira, Ferasso, & Schroeder, 2014 & Anderson, 2007). However, some teachers have lack of competence and knowledge to differentiate their teaching materials and instructions. Chien (2015) analyzed Taiwanese English teachers in elementary school in term of their DI perceptions, designs and knowledge of DI in content. The study revealed that participants had a positive attitude to DI and considered it as important but only three teachers implement DI in their lessons through jigsaw reading and supplementary materials because of lack of materials at hand. The fruitful side of this study is that: it provides suggestions related to the teachers' development, elements of differentiated content and collaborative planning (Chien, 2015). However, it doesn't provide any means related to how the teachers can implement ID in their reading lessons. The study just explores the teachers' perspective and potential towards ID in general.

In the study *Effects of Differentiated Reading on elementary students' Reading Comprehension and Attitudes Toward Reading,* (Shaunessy-Dedrick, Evans, Ferron, & Lindo, 2015), the effects of differentiated reading on fourth-graders' reading comprehension and attitude towards reading are examined. It tests the use of school wide enrichment model-reading (SEM-R) on the students' comprehension and fluency skills. SEM is a triad model composed of three phases. (Renzulli, 1977, as cited in Shaunessy-Dedrick et al., 2015). They respectively focus on exposure, DI and self-selected activities in language learning. The study applies this method in five elementary schools with different models for reading comprehension and reading fluency. The researchers classified some of the schools as SEM-R treatment group and others as control groups and applies pre-tests and post-test. At the end of the study, students' post-test reading comprehension and fluency scores on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills were significantly higher in SEM-R group compared with the control groups. However, the attitude to reading measured by the Elementary Reading Attitudes Survey showed no statistically significant differences between two groups. This might be related to the fact that the study focuses on intensive reading activities rather than extensive ones. All in all, the study suggests that SEM-R can be implemented to increase reading comprehension. And, according to the observations during the study and teacher interviews after the testing, it was concluded that the students could be more engaged into the reading lessons through differentiated instruction (Shaunessy-Dedrick et al., 2015). The study is rare in that it explores and gauges DI in reading. However, it uses intensive reading method and doesn't have any measure of students' engagement in the reading lessons.

Another study that tests the effect of differentiated instruction on reading is by Kathryn L. Servilio. The study *You get to choose! Motivating Students to Read Through Differentiated Instruction* aims to improve the motivation and engagement of students with disabilities through DI (Servilio, 2009). It provides language teachers with guidelines on how to embed student choice and DI into the curriculum and how to determine the learner styles on a particular classroom step by step through the results of an action research previously applied.

The study is significant in that any type of teacher can make use of the process outlined although the samples in it are specifically chosen. Similar to the study previously mentioned, it concludes that students' motivation and overall grades in reading can improve through DI and student choice of reading materials. However, as Servilio (2009) herself states, there is one drawback: it is time-consuming and hard to apply (pp. 9-10).

Choice of reading is indeed hard to define or determine in a learning environment because a language classroom is composed of individuals with different needs and different levels of comprehension, especially when young learners are concerned. The study *Understanding children's reading activities: Reading motivation, skill and child characteristics as predictors* examines this issue through a range of characteristics such as intrinsic and extrinsic reading motivation and concludes that these and the children's choice of reading are related (McGeown, Osborne, Warhurst, Norgate, & Duncan, 2016). The results regarding the intrinsic motivation of engagement and extrinsic motivation of social reading interaction are relatively more important for the present study of ours. According to the results, children tend to read fictional and fact books if they are to engage in the reading lessons while choose to read digital books if they are to read for social or pleasure purposes. So, according to the study, textbooks with uninteresting context that are given by the teacher just for the sake of the language lesson are possibly found boring by the children in the process of engagement and they are likely to choose to read digitally – whatever the form is – for extensive reading activities. As a conclusion of the research, children will be more involved in the reading lessons if broader range of texts to choose from is available (McGeown et al., 2016). To put it simply, young learners can enjoy reading if the text is tailored to their level and interest.

From another perspective, even the kindergarten and first-grade children can have respective competence beliefs for different areas of reading (Wigfield, Guthrie, Tonks, & Perencevich, 2004). The study *Children's Motivation for Reading: Domain Specificity and Instructional Motivation* focuses on the efficacy of DI on young learners' reading lessons in the context of motivation and it measures this concept specific to the domain of interest in extensive reading by also mentioning the differences between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. The reading models of Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI) and Strategy Instruction (SI) were applied in four different schools in a small town by the researchers (two schools for each model) (Wigfield et al., 2004). The former makes use of a content area found interesting by the students and links the hands-on activities to the reading while the latter applies the traditional method of reading in the classroom. The study concludes that intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy of the students raise thanks to CORI as the students have more autonomy over their reading activity, meaning that they can choose which book to read and which questions to pursue and that they can collaborate with each other freely. Therefore, various instructional practices tailored to the children's interest or motivation level can have a positive effect even on their reading frequency (Wigfield et al., 2004). However, the study makes use of only one domain of interest, which is science. In other schools, classes or even in the same classroom, there might be some students who do not find a specific domain interesting.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Design

An action research using a mixed, quasi-experimental design, this study gauges and explores the impact of extensive reading lessons designated on the basis of differentiated instruction on the motivation of the students. For the collection of quantitative data, Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997) is used both as a pre-test and a post-test to measure the student's motivation and as a Questionnaire on Favourite Book

Types. As for the collection of qualitative data, the researchers interview each other after each lesson as the interviewee joins in the lessons as a participant observer and, at the end of the study, the students are interviewed in groups through a semi-structured interview type. Supporting the numerical findings with the reflections of the participant observers and the student groups, this study aims to reach more reliable findings and get more valid suggestions for differentiated instruction in reading lessons, where the students mostly have difficulties getting motivated and engaged because they are usually exposed to fixed-level readings. This study further wishes to illustrate the relationship between reading lessons structured on differentiated instruction and students' reading motivation.

3.2. Setting

For the purposes of this study, a private secondary school in Istanbul was chosen for various reasons. Firstly, and perhaps most importantly, the students in this school, no matter what their grades are, are taught English through differentiated instruction, which means there are students with varying levels of English in each classroom. They are coming from the primary school of the same institution, different private schools or state schools with different cultural backgrounds and different likes. Differentiated materials are handed out for grammar, speaking and vocabulary teaching, but when it comes to reading, they all have to read the same text in the very same level. They can read multi-level books assigned by their IS (main course) teachers at home but these readings are never covered in the classroom because of lack of time. However, the students are all accustomed to use of differentiated instruction in the classroom setting. In fact, one of the researchers have been teaching at this school for nearly a year and he has been implementing DI and preparing lesson plans as well as worksheets and digital tasks for all campuses of the institution across the country.

The second reason is that the relevant campus is regarded as the main campus of the institution and undergraduate students from many different universities are coming to observe the teachers or their peers. Therefore, it is open to different studies and researches in the field of English Language Teaching and the results of this research may be implemented and considered later for curriculum design for each grade. And, according to what has been assumed from the parent-teaching phone-conversations held twice a week by every mentor teacher, the students at each level have generally difficulties reading in L2 at home too. Therefore, this study might boost the students' motivation for pleasure reading outside the classroom as well.

Another reason is that the students are capable of using iPads because they take different motivational tests at school from time to time and they make frequent use of them in the other lessons as well. Therefore, this will make it easy to apply digital reading materials in any of the classrooms in this school. And, the results of a study applied for a specific classroom or level are also likely to be fruitful for other classrooms and levels as well.

3.3. Participants

From the second to the last week of December, the researchers' observations took place in a fifth-grade classroom composed of 24 students at regular intervals. Fifth graders were chosen for this study because one of the researchers are currently teaching them and he had a lot of chance to observe the reading skills of the students before. Only one class (5C) was chosen among the all the four classes he is teaching because this class has always been assumed to be more differentiated than others as far as the exam results and the previous observations (on superficial level) of the in-class activities are concerned. Therefore, the researcher had an opinion about how the assumptions of the current study would affect these specific students' motivation in reading lessons. The students are all 10 years old and they are

very eager to learn English. The overall level differs a lot in the classroom and some of the students are better at receptive skills while others perform better at productive skills. However, they all have a clear problem of motivation when it comes to reading in English. While they are reading a text in a fixed level, the low-level students cannot keep up with the high-level ones whereas the latter group loses interest when the teacher has to slow the pace of the lesson down for the former.

Considering the fact that the reading activities proposed by the relevant study was performed on iPads by each student, another reason why fifth graders were chosen is that the students in this level use their iPads more than any other level in their lessons regardless of what subject they are learning since they are given far more digital assignments before every weekend and so they are more apt at using the online sources. Plus, looking at the previous statistics provided by www.raz-plus.com, the researcher concluded that the students at 5C had completed more assignments than any other class and they were more eager to read digitally.

The students weekly have 15 hours of English lessons with 7 of them being IS (Integrated Skills) lessons, 4 being MS (Mixed Skills), where the main focus is on perceptive skills and speaking and writing activities are provided as post-reading skills, and 4 being CS (Communicative Skills). The researchers conducted this research in the IS lessons. And, the students are seated in a way that there will be one high-level and one low-level student at each desk.

3.4. Data Collection Tools

The quantitative data of the study aiming to find the students' motivation in the reading lessons were found through an adapted version of Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997) (see Appendix A). The questionnaire was performed in the form of a pre-test and a post-test. Based on a 4-point Likert-Scale, it includes 11 items regarding the students' views about themselves as readers and the activity of the reading itself. The researchers wanted to gauge the learner's reading motivation before they applied multi-level reading through the pre-test and their motivation level after they applied it through the post-test. The related questions were selected from the original version of the questionnaire both because their answers follow an ascending pattern in terms of positive value where the most positive answer corresponds to the highest point (4) and because they best fit the researcher's teaching environment as far as DI and in-class reading are concerned. At the end of the research, the results of the pre-test and post-test were compared and contrasted statistically – through a descriptive and an inferential analysis – and they were generalized for the whole population of the young learners who are having difficulty in intensive reading lessons where they have to read a book in a fixed level.

The quantitative data to find the book type favoured most by the students were also gathered through the questions chosen from the same Motivation for Reading Questionnaire. The students took Questionnaire on Favourite Book Types (see Appendix B) at the beginning of the study, just after the pre-test. It includes 7 items and it is based on a 4-point Likert Scale, too. According to the results of the questionnaire, the researchers neatly chose six different multi-level books from www.raz-plus.com between the levels H-M. The questions in these questionnaire, which follow an ascending pattern in terms of positive value too, were selected from the original questionnaire because, among the other questions, they are most intended to learn what types of books and context or theme a student takes pleasure reading from. And, the types and themes suggested by these questions best fit those at www.raz-plus.com

The first qualitative data of the study were collected through the interviews performed by one of the researchers who taught the reading lessons with the other researcher who

participated in those lessons as a participant observer. The semi-structured interviews were carried out just after the lessons. The researcher who participated in the lessons observed them by bearing the interview questions (see Appendix C) in mind and the other researcher took notes regarding his or her answers during the interviews and wrote brief reflections on them on the same day. These questions help the researchers to keep track of the students' progress and motivation level during the lessons. To illustrate, the question "What can you say about the students' attitudes, questions and responses while reading?" is related to student engagement and helps the researcher think about how the students are participating in the pair work activities, while reading activities and post reading activities. And, by answering the questions "Can you say that this was an extensive reading lesson? Why?", the researcher can make an overall reflection on the reading lesson by evaluating whether the students had difficulties reading the books. The qualitative research method was preferred for observations because the researchers believed that this would support the quantitative results on a more reliable basis thanks to the participation of the teachers and would save much more time than if questionnaires and check lists were applied for each student after every lesson in such a study (Creswell, 2012). The questions in the interview were prepared in relation to the questions in the quantitative tools and in open-ended style because the researchers wanted to give the impression of conversation to the interviews.

The researchers collected the second qualitative data on the basis of reflections of the interview with the student groups of six. The semi-structured interviews were carried out at the end of the study to support the results of the post-test Motivation for Reading Questionnaire because the same questions were directed to each student group but some other questions and issues were also raised in accordance with the flow of the interview. The questions (see Appendix D) were directed to the student groups in their L1, which is Turkish, because their English level is not high enough yet and answers were gathered through conversations that didn't take more than fifteen minutes. These questions generally focus on the students' attitudes and views on reading and how they have changed since the multi-level reading lessons started. For instance, the question "How well do you think your reading has improved?" explores their awareness of the new reading lessons and whether it has any effect on their overall reading skills. By answering such questions as "Can you please compare and contrast them with our previous lessons?" they also make a quick analysis process, which can give the researchers more abstract knowledge to support the concrete data drawn by the post-test.

The researcher noted down the answers in Turkish as well and translated them into English while writing a reflection on the students' opinions. As the questions in the other interview were, the questions in this interview were prepared in an open-ended style, with regard to the questions in the quantitative tools.

The digital resources for the reading lessons were gathered from www.raz-plus.com, which is more commonly known as Raz-Kids, because the students are already familiar with the website or the application on their iPads. From time to time, they log in their accounts and choose books of their interest to read or those assigned by the teachers the students and the participant researcher read the books in digital version on their iPads and the teacher tracked their progress in the website. The researchers also made partial use of the lesson plans provided by the website for each book. Pre-reading and post-reading productive activities were decided by the researchers mutually before each lesson.

Finally, even though the sample may sound very specific in the first place because of the fixed grade and age of the students, this study can be applied to any teaching environment where individual differences concerning learning difficulties in reading lessons are being

observed. So, this can increase the generalizability (external validity) of this research study. From another perspective, as the teachers as researchers make use of digital resources in the reading lessons, it can also lead to new teaching perspectives regarding the use of technology in the classrooms where required equipment is available. Also, if multi-level hard copies of any reading book(s) can be provided for each student, the study can be applicable too. However, thanks to the elimination of time-consuming and unavailability problems, use of digital sources in the research is of importance because the teacher and the students can access to the multi-level books – they are generally hard to find in an L2 learning environment – which appeal to different reading tastes in the convenience of technology. And, all these add to the practicality of the relevant study because teachers didn't have to spend days looking for readings at multi-levels and to its reliability because the website from which the books were read by the students, (www.raz-plus.com), is an official and authoritative source used by millions of users around the world.

3.5. Procedure

Before the study started, the researchers chose 29 multi-level books levelled between H-M on Raz-kids regardless of their topic and context. The levels H, I, J, K, L and M had officially been assigned to the students' Raz-kids accounts as suitable levels for the fifth graders by the school administration at the beginning of the term.

In the first week of December, the students were given Motivation for Reading Questionnaire as a pre-test and Questionnaire on Favourite Book Types and the results of the former were kept for the later post-test while those of the latter were used by the researchers to choose the book types most favoured by the students on www.raz-plus.com. And, because 6 lessons would be held in total, 6 books were chosen out of 29. The researcher translated the questions one by one while the students were answering them as there are some patterns and forms in the questions the students haven't learned yet. The students didn't write their names on both questionnaires as the results of items on Motivation for Reading Questionnaire were evaluated cumulatively out of 44 and the mean of each item on Questionnaire on Favourite Book Types was described individually, regardless of the gender, learner level or age.

After the questionnaires, the multi-level reading lessons were started in the second week of December and two lessons were held each week. The lessons continued till the end of the month and 6 sessions were held in total. After each lesson, the participant observer, who joined in a student pair as a third member for exercises, was interviewed and short reflections were documented by being created out of interview notes. At the end of the study, all the reflections were compared and an overall evaluation was made by taking into the sequence of the multi-level reading lessons into account. The lessons were held as an extensive reading lesson, so pre-reading, while reading (if necessary) and post reading sessions were organized. Pre-reading and post-reading sessions were targeted towards peer interaction and productive skills.

After 4 weeks, post-test Motivation for Reading Questionnaire was applied and its results were compared and contrasted with those of the pre-test in order to see the impact of multi-level reading lessons. Upon gathering the quantitative results, the researchers interviewed the student groups together. One of the researchers – the one who can speak L1 of the students – interviewed the student groups by asking the questions in Appendix D and talking to them in a conversation atmosphere as this would help the students feel more relaxed and give sincerer, reliable answers. After he translated his notes into English, the researchers made an overall reflection on the students' opinions and answers.

4. Results

4.1. Quantitative Results

The aim of this study was to find out whether reading lessons prepared on the basis of differentiated instruction had any effect on young learners' motivation for reading. Firstly, the researchers conducted "Questionnaire on Favourite Book Types" in order to pinpoint the digital books that could raise each student's engagement in the reading lessons equally.

a. "*Questionnaire on Favourite Book Types*": Each item on the questionnaire is related with one of the book genres on raz-kids.com. Item 1 and item 4 are associated with fiction or non-fiction adventure books or fantastic books while item 3 and item 5 are associated with long stories or tales where the readers can get themselves familiarized with different characters. The others can all be associated with informative books where the students can learn new things about their surroundings, history and the world. As it can be understood from Table 1, item 4 and item 1 received the highest scores out of the questionnaire and they were respectively followed by item 5, item 3, item 7, item 6 and item 2. This result showed that the students are more into fantastic books or tales without a complicated plotline, or those where they have to sort some simple mysteries out. Therefore, books appealing to this kind of interest were given primary importance but some informative books were also covered in two of the lessons as well. In this regard, the books *Rapunzel* and *Blackbeard the Pirate* were chosen for the first two lessons and then the students read *What lives in that hole?* and *the Yellowstone*, in both of which they learned about some mysterious of the world. And, in the last two lessons, they read one more book about a mystery titled *Tornadoes*, and one informative book titled *Flying Machines*, which also focuses on some unknown facts.

To analyse Table 1 in detail, each item was summarized individually since their total result wouldn't have had any effect on the result of the questionnaire. Their respective scores were calculated in a detailed way to determine the book types accurately. Each item has got a 1-4-point scale and the maximum point they can receive is 96 as there are 24 students in the classroom. Each point they received was multiplied by the number of the students who circled the relevant point (1, 2, 3 or 4) to get the sub-score. And the mean for each item was calculated by dividing the sub-score result by the total number of the students, which is 24. Next, total score was found by adding each sub-score and the total mean was measured by dividing the total score 24, the total number of the students. The mean for each item and the total mean in the charts show a number between 1 and 4, which is the scale of the questionnaire.

Finally, the percentages were calculated. The total score of each item was multiplied by one hundred and the result was divided by 96 as this is the maximum score each item could get.

To gauge the change in the students' motivation in reading, the researchers carried out a pre-test and a post-test form by abridging the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire. As the overall English level of the students is to standard the result of the pre-test is 46% in percentage. However, after the reading lessons, the total result of the post-test, in which the same questions were asked, was calculated to be somewhere near 90 %.

Table 1. *Questionnaire on Favourite Book Types" Overall Results*

Item 1	*Points*	*N*	*Subscores*	*M*
	1	-	-	-
	2	6	12	0,5
	3	6	18	0,75
	4	12	48	2
			Total Score	*Total M*
			78	3,25
	Percentage		81,25 %	

Item 2	*Points*	*N*	*Subscores*	*M*
	1	10	10	0,42
	2	8	16	0,66
	3	2	6	0,25
	4	4	16	0,66
			Total Score	*Total M*
			48	2
	Percentage		50 %	

Item 3	*Points*	*N*	*Subscores*	*M*
	1	3	3	0,12
	2	6	12	0,5
	3	6	18	0,75
	4	9	36	1,5
			Total Score	*Total M*
			69	2,87
	Percentage		71,87%	

Item 4	*Points*	*N*	*Subscores*	*M*
	1	-	-	-
	2	4	8	0,33
	3	4	12	0,50
	4	16	64	2,66
			Total Score	*Total M*
			84	3,5
	Percentage		87,50 %	

Item 5	*Points*	*N*	*Subscores*	*M*
	1	1	1	0,04
	2	7	14	0,58
	3	9	27	1,12
	4	7	28	1,16
			Total Score	*Total M*
			70	2,91
	Percentage		73 %	

Item 6	*Points*	*N*	*Subscores*	*M*
	1	3	3	0,12
	2	11	22	0,92
	3	8	24	1
	4	2	8	0,33
			Total Score	*Total M*
			57	2,37
	Percentage		59,37%	

Item 7	*Points*	*N*	*Subscores*	*M*
	1	-	-	-
	2	9	18	0,75
	3	12	36	1,5
	4	3	12	0,50
			Total Score	*Total M*
			66	2,75
	Percentage		68,75%	

b. *"The Motivation for Reading Questionnaire"*: The tables for the pre-test and post-test was not organized with an individual analysis of each item as Table 1 was. The reason behind this is that the overall total score of both tests were needed to contrast the students' motivation levels. Initially, the points of each item were individually calculated by adding the answer of each student together. As in the first questionnaire, the items in these tests were scaled from 1 to 4. Therefore, the maximum point that each item can get was again 96 as there are 24 students in the classroom. The scores of the items as calculated in this way ranged from 25 to 70 in the pre-test and 72 to 92 in the post-test.

After each item's score was typed into the table, they were all added and the total score was found. The total score of the pre-test was 489 while that of the post-test was 913. The

maximum score a test could get was 1.056, which was calculated by multiplying the maximum score (96) each item could get by the total number of the items, which is 11.

Next, the mean of each item was measured by dividing their scores by the total number of the students. They each range from 1 to 4 as they do in the first questionnaire because the original scale was arranged between these points. As for the total mean, it was calculated by adding the individual means together. The maximum mean would have been 44 since there are 11 items and each could have received 4 points maximally. As it can be seen from Table 3, the post-test mean is far closer to 44.

Finally, the percentages of each item were calculated by multiplying their scores by 100 and dividing the result by 96, which is the highest score each item might have received. The percentages in the pre-test range from 26% to 73% while they range from 75% to 96% in the post-test. The overall percentages of the tests were calculated by multiplying the total score by 100 and dividing the result by 1.056, the maximum score each test could have received.

In the pre-test and post-test, the number of the students were not given, as opposed to the table of the first questionnaire because the items in these tables are of significance when they are evaluated or gauged together.

Table 2. *The Motivation for Reading Questionnaire" Overall Results for Pre-Test*

"The Motivation for Reading"	Scores	M	Percentage
Item1	70	2,92	73%
Item 2	25	1,04	26%
Item 3	45	1,87	47%
Item 4	46	1,92	48%
Item 5	46	1,92	48%
Item 6	33	1,37	35%
Item 7	59	2,46	62%
Item 8	54	2,25	56%
Item 9	44	1,83	46%
Item 10	31	1,30	33%
Item 11	36	1,50	37%
Totals	489	20,00	46%

Table 3. *The Motivation for Reading Questionnaire" Overall Results for Post-Test*

"The Motivation for Reading"	Scores	M	Percentage
Item1	92	3,83	96%
Item 2	77	3,20	80%
Item 3	80	3,33	83%
Item 4	81	3,37	85%
Item 5	89	3,70	93%
Item 6	72	3,00	75%
Item 7	90	3,75	94%
Item 8	86	3,58	89%
Item 9	85	3,54	88%
Item 10	78	3,25	81%
Item 11	83	3,95	86%
Totals	913	38	86%

4.2. Qualitative Results

The descriptive analysis performed by the researchers and the results achieved in the end were supported through two different types of content analysis. The numerical data above showing the change in the students' motivation level in a concrete way, quantitative findings gained a more credible and reliable aspect following the qualitative data analysis.

4.2.1. Participant-Observer Interview Results

4.2.1.2. Positive Impact on Engagement and Motivation

In accordance with the notes jotted down by participant observers and interviews carried out with them, the 6 extensive reading lessons tailored to each student's level of English on differentiated instruction basis had a positive impact in terms of engagement and motivation as shown in the excerpt taken from the notes below:

> *The lessons went smoothly and every single student was trying to answer the pre-reading and post-reading questions eagerly. They were totally immersed in their books during the while-reading sessions.*

The observers took down more positive notes about the students' engagement. One of the most significant excerpts was as follows:

> Just as they did while answering the pre-reading and post-reading questions, the students are focusing on the texts with great interest and enthusiasm.

As one of the observers noted, they were ambitious to finish reading the text and answering the questions before their peers (a state which relates to item 6, 7 and 10 on the pre-tests and post-tests). They were all racking their brains to understand every single sentence by plying between the pages of the books and those of their dictionaries. How active and diligent the students were can be seen from a couple of the photos taken by the observers (see Appendix E). This confirms the numerically positive effect of choosing a genre for each student's interest, and so that of differentiated instruction in reading lessons where the students could feel more motivated and even lost track of time as item 7 on pre-test and post-test suggests. It can also be concluded that in a language classroom setting where the students are given the chance to read for pleasure or for the sake of learning something new engagement is boosted and their comprehension skills can even improve.

During the pair works, in which the observers participated as well, the below note was provided:

> *Each student gave similar answers to the questions although their books are provided at different levels.*

Therefore, the extensive reading lessons provided can be analysed from two more aspects – the efficacy of lead-in activities or brainstorming activities before the reading lessons started and the overall comprehension skill of the students.

4.2.1.3. The Efficacy of Lead-In or Brainstorming Activities

To start with, the lead-in sessions of each of the six lessons were technically similar – the main purpose here was to activate the students' schemata and help them get familiar with the context. The students' interest in the books – even in the informative ones – was worth seeing according to what was stated by the researcher who is also the main course teacher of the very same class:

> *The students normally find it really difficult to concentrate on the text beforehand and they immediately lose their interest even before starting the reading task.*

By "normally", the researcher meant – as noted by himself – […] *the intensive reading lessons where the students have to concentrate on a reading text provided in a fixed level by the main course book.* However, in those extensive reading lessons, the students themselves made efforts to activate their schemata and reflected their thoughts efficiently while brainstorming about the context. This can only be associated with the fact that the students could see in advance that the theme and the genre were in harmony with their interest, thanks to "Questionnaire on Favourite Book Types." We can understand this from the below excerpt:

> *It has nothing to do with the differentiated levels of the book because the students hadn't started reading the book and so hadn't had a chance to evaluate the level yet in the lead-in sessions.*

From another aspect, as both of the observers stressed, the interaction in the lead-session was always "whole-class" even though it was intended to be "pair-work" or "group-work". The reason why the teachers avoided such interaction patterns was – as underlined by the researchers while they were observing the lessons:

> *The students were not so accustomed to working together with their peers or as groups in the reading lessons and they were afraid to speak with their partners for any reason.*

The researcher who regularly taught English to this classroom correspondingly explained that he also had a lot of difficulty getting them in pairs and they had always had the impression that the teacher would be angry with them if they set out to talk with their peers. Overall, the observers' notes and reflections were in parallel with the numerical findings.

4.2.1.4. The Overall Comprehension Skill of the Students

Secondly, just as they were while reading the books, the students were totally concentrated upon the comprehension questions provided by Raz-kids at the end of each book. And, when the teachers – actually the observers – checked the students' answers on the Raz-kids teacher platform, they learned that nearly all of the students answered all of the questions correctly or turned back to their wrong answers once or twice more to rectify them. According to the observers' notes,

> *They even worked together with us and their peers – as the instruction for the while-reading activity dictated – while answering the comprehension questions even though they were reading the very same book at different levels.*

Another important thing noted by both of the observers while the students were answering the comprehension questions was as follows:

> *The students kept the silence throughout the session just as an extensive reading lesson stipulates.*

It can be deduced here that the students were "truly" reading a text tailored to their own language threshold and they were familiar with most of the words and language forms in the book they were reading. As one of the observers underlined, *they never lost interest in their tasks.*

As for more general comprehension activities where the students had to fill in a graphic organizer on the board to find the author's purpose for instance, the students were reportedly as active and answered the questions accurately too. Just as they did while answering the

detailed comprehension questions, while answering post-reading comprehension questions, in accordance with the observers' reflections:

> *The students could understand the context of nearly every book and a book tailored to their respective levels could raise their motivation to the extent that they didn't get bored of answering the difficult comprehension questions at all costs.*

The results of the pre-test and post-test Motivation for Reading Questionnaire suggest this quantitatively as item 2, 3 and 9 are affiliated with such tasks.

4.2.2. Semi-Structured Student Interview Results

After the notes of the observers and their reflections were evaluated, the researcher who is currently teaching English to the classroom made an interview with the students in Turkish. The students' answers to the semi-structured interview were all in parallel with the qualitative data results and the observers' reflections and thoughts. The students' answers can be analysed under three different facets, which are the easiness and convenience of the text they were reading, their attitudes towards reading as an in-class and outside activity and their comprehension skill. All these points relate to one thing: differentiated instruction tailored in accordance with extensive reading activities leads to higher reading motivation in students. To provide more detailed reflection and an abstract basis for the concrete results of the questionnaire, the researchers analysed these three aspects in a more structured way by providing some examples.

4.2.2.1. Easy and Convenient Content

To talk about the easy and convenient content the students said:

> *We read the books without any difficulty and there were fewer unfamiliar words than there are in the text provided by our main course book.*

And, they added:

> *This led to more accurate guesses regarding these unknown lexical items and we felt this was the first time we could understand a short book written in English so well.*

In between the structured questions directed to the students, the researchers asked such questions as *"Did you like the books?"* and *"What is the best book you read in these six lessons?"* They all couldn't differentiate between the books because, as they said:

> *They all helped us get a better view of reading tasks and learn new words.*

As for the levels, some of the students who had been reading at lower levels even said *We could have understood a higher level too*, which means they accepted that it would be more challenging. Most surprisingly, before the researcher asked the question, "*Would you like to read such books in hard-copy versions?*", one of the students asked:

> *Teacher, can't we find hard-copy versions? I want to read such books wherever I go. I want to read books that I can understand wholly.*

Here, it can be deduced from the two excerpts above that the differentiated instruction had an effect on the students, which helped them perceive the pleasure of reading unconsciously. They all wanted to have similar lessons in the future. The reason behind this is also that the books and the activities had all been prepared on the basis of extensive reading. Therefore, it was more like pleasure for them to read those books than a burden; they read because they wanted, not because they had to. This fact proves the positive effect of "Questionnaire on

Favourite Book Types" on the motivation of the students because the language threshold of every single student was considered while assigning the books in different levels.

4.2.2.2. Students' Reading Attitudes

As a consequence of these lessons, it can also be stated that the students have all acquired positive attitude towards reading. According to the teacher, the students used to start dealing with other things when they were asked to engage in an intensive reading activity as they found the tasks challenging let alone the texts themselves. During these extensive reading lessons, the students made the following allegation themselves:

> *We answered the pre-reading questions and did the brainstorming activities eagerly*.

One of the above level students stated:

> *These questions helped me understand the context better and therefore I had little difficulty in understanding the new lexical items and language forms*.

During the interview, after the teacher asked *Did you start reading books at home or do you feel like reading more books?* most of the student answered these questions positively but with one condition:

> *Teacher, we will read them as long as you assigned the reading assignments on Raz-kids*.

This conditioning showed that the students liked the teaching method differentiated in accordance with their English level and interest, so it is of great importance as it proves the results of the post-test. Some of the students added:

> *We had even started reading books in the levels specified for them by the teacher at home.*

Some students also said:

> *To read for pleasure or for learning something is more enjoyable than to read because I have to. In this way, I can acquire more words and have the opportunity to come across them more in the texts.*

Another point stressed by the students was that they had fear towards reading in the past and didn't know how to deal with unknown vocabulary. But now, as they put forward, *we have gained self-confidence thanks to the familiarity and the convenience of the books*. These all showcase that the students' motivation has indeed improved just as the results of the post-test show and that a reading lesson planned by considering the benefits of extensive reading can boost their eagerness for reading both inside and outside the classroom and help them acquire the view that reading is a life-time activity not simply a part of the lesson.

4.2.2.3. Reading Comprehension Skills

As far as their comprehension skills are concerned, the teacher didn't give any feedback during or after the lessons in order to avoid biased results. He just kept track of their activities online while they were answering the questions or observed their reactions or responses. During the interview, he didn't give any feedback either. The students said:

> *We felt we were giving the correct answers while answering the [comprehension] questions and when we felt we were making a mistake we could rectify it by referring back to the text,*

This helped them understand the books more. And, at the end of the "comprehension questions" part of every book, the students were to answer an open-ended question. They said:

> *Such questions helped them understand how to make sentences more as they were given the chance to see the original sentences in the text while they were referring back to the text.*

These all explain that the students can get more engaged in the reading activities and can get more pleasure from creative reading activities. However, when the teacher asked them how they felt during pair works and whether they felt comfortable or not while discussing on the given pictures or trying to brainstorm about the content of the books, they admitted:

> *It was something we were not used to in spite of the fact that this helped us understand the context better and we believed would improve their speaking skill too.*

As for the post reading comprehension questions answered as a whole class on the board, the students explained:

> *We could draw conclusions and pinpoint the main idea better, which we normally can't do or feel uninterested in doing in our reading lessons.*

Overall, the students all agreed that the multi-level reading lessons can help improve their English reading skills and they felt the difference. Some of them even said at the end of the interview:

> *Six lessons were not enough and that these lessons must cover the whole semester.*

And, in this way, they added, *we believe we will have far better reading skills.* Most of them even made a list of lexical items they found new in the books and said they study them every evening at home.

So, to make a conclusion, all of the three elements pertaining to extensive teaching has had a considerable effect on the students' motivation. These elements are lead-in-activity-based teaching, content-based teaching and theme-based teaching. However, as it can be clearly seen, the teachers' intervention during the lessons was in minimum levels. This had not been dictated or decided beforehand or was not performed intentionally, but it was simply a direct result of the lessons structured on the basis of extensive reading tailored to each student's interest and English level. The students learned some interesting facts or took pleasure from reading some tales or stories simply by doing, or discovering the facts themselves.

5. Discussion

The current study has some similar and different aspects when compared and contrasted with the previous ones within its remit. However, so far, no study dealing with differentiated instruction and its implementation into extensive reading lessons has included digital books that include different levels for each of the students in a classroom. And, the insufficient number of studies implementing differentiated instruction into reading lessons makes this action research worthwhile. Some perspectives and issues put forward by the previous researches have reached similar outcomes to those of the current study while others have not.

First, the results from the "Questionnaire on Favourite Book Types" allowed the researchers to choose and implement the book types indicated by the students as more interesting to engage in into their differentiated instruction. These findings can be supported by McGeown et al.'s study (2016), which testifies that young learners can enjoy reading if the

text is tailored to their level and interest. Additionally, similar to Wigfield et al. (2004), students also had an opportunity to choose the book of their interest and collaborate with each other during the reading activities. Correspondingly, the lessons based on fantastic books or tales without a complicated plotline, or those with mysteries content boosted the students' interest in the reading texts and their motivation toward the activities. Consequently, the results taken from both the questionnaires and the interviews indicated students' positive change in proportion to differentiated instruction.

The quantitative data analysis of the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire showed statistically significant differences in students' reading motivation when the results of pre-test and post-test are compared and contrasted. More technically speaking, the students in question had higher motivation level of reading in total after the multi-level reading sessions were conducted (about 90%) while the pre-test administered by the same questionnaire indicated the equivalent result as 46%. In this context, it can be stated that in a language classroom consisting of students with different levels of L2 as well as different interests and views it is important to teach through the differentiated methods of instruction so that students become more engaged in the lessons as they are more motivated. Servilio's (2009) and Shaunessy-Dedrick et al.'s (2015) findings concerning the effect of differentiated instruction on students' level of reading motivation seems to be relevant here. The researchers maintained that students' motivation and overall grades in reading can be enhanced through DI and by letting the students choose their own reading materials. Therefore, a great deal of evidence supporting previous studies was found in the present research. As for the qualitative results taken from the observational notes, the Brown's (2000) "extensive reading approach" theory can be confirmed. First, as the theory suggests, students took great pleasure during the reading and while completing the related tasks, and secondly, almost all the texts' words seemed to be familiar for the students, which led the students to give correct answers in almost all of the comprehension questions.

From another point of view, Grabe and Stoller (2002) suggested that a teacher must have adequate knowledge to draw a concrete line of the learner's reading level so that an appropriate level of the reading text can be matched for each individual. Such an extensive multilevel reading activity was provided in the present study as the teachers arranged the list of the books that had several different levels before starting the research. Besides, each book with a particular level was selected according to the individual's reading abilities and they were all assigned for them just before the lesson.

Similar to the study conducted by Shaunessy-Dedrick et al. (2015), results of the present action research, which were taken from the analysis of the observational field notes and semi-structured interviews, indicated an increase in students' comprehension skills and motivation while they were reading different texts. However, unlike the previous studies which used intensive reading method, this study helped measure students' engagement in reading more accurately and more reliably thanks to the extensive reading approach, which gives the students the opportunity to read authentic materials without any intervention due to loss of interest and concentration (Brown, 2000). As opposed to extensive reading activities, a lesson structured upon the basis of intensive reading skills forces a student to deal with such convoluted forms and lexical items that they couldn't concentrate on more general reading activities like paragraph ordering or open ended questions (Hornery et al., 2009). And, as the students exposed to the current study reflected in the end, extensive reading helped them deal with exercises that they can find in many other texts both inside and outside the classroom. Likewise, the results of the study *Effects of Differentiated Reading on elementary students' Reading Comprehension and Attitudes Toward Reading*, although it gauges and explores the

effect of DI on reading skills, are not parallel with the results of the current study mainly because it is based upon the theory of intensive reading without any test of engagement.

Another finding of the study that coincides with those of other studies within the same remit is that when students have found sufficient amount of familiar L2 lexical items, language forms and discourse they find the reading lessons let alone the books themselves more engaging and enjoyable to read as they do this receptive process unconsciously (Huang et al., 2015). And, as stated in the results section, this can also be linked to Language Threshold Hypothesis (Grabe & Stoller, 2002) since each student is able to read at their respective paces and in their respective levels.

Additionally, through the findings of this study, language teachers can get a better idea about how to integrate differentiated instruction into their reading lessons, where, reportedly, the teachers have little practical knowledge although they have a great desire to apply the theory in their lessons (Chien, 2015). By using the tools and the methods dictated in this study, a teacher could get the same results by making some minor changes in accordance with their young learners' needs. Therefore, different from the results of the study applied by Chien (2015), the current study recommends a practical perspective for differentiated instruction by using the terms of extensive reading.

The intrinsic motivation of engagement and extrinsic motivation of social reading interaction as described in the study *Understanding children's reading activities: Reading motivation, skill and child characteristics as predictors* (McGeown et al., 2016) can be associated with the findings of the current study as well because both the quantitative and qualitative results indicate the high levels of engagement and social reading. According to the indicated study, the children can comprehend extensive reading lessons if they are given a wide range of book choice, just as the findings of the current study have shown. Similarly, Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction model applied in the action research *Children's Motivation for Reading: Domain Specificity and Instructional Motivation* (Wigfield et al., 2004) produced better results in terms of intrinsic motivation as the students had more power over their reading lessons.

Briefly, different from the previous researches in the area, this study has found out through descriptive and content analyses that teachers can apply differentiated instruction in their reading lessons within the convenience of digital sources that have never been used in the action researches before. Besides, the wide range of book choice provided by the website Raz-kids can make it easier for the teachers to differentiate their methods by focusing on every single student's need and interest flawlessly. And, as its findings provide data that treat of the issues and theories of engagement, how to embed extensive reading activities into the lessons, reading comprehension and differentiated instruction collaboratively, this study can be considered as multi-faceted and sui-generis, as opposed to the previous studies.

6. Conclusion

In this action research study, the aim was to confirm the positive relationship between differentiated instruction and motivation for reading both qualitatively and quantitatively. Despite the fact that the researchers have found valuable results related to the relation between the multi-level reading and the motivation of the students and that they have conveniently reached the aim they specified at the beginning of the study by allowing the use of technological means and enhancing the classroom setting as well as adapting the teaching materials for extensive reading, it would be scientifically appropriate to mention some possible problems or limitations of the present study for prospective studies in the field.

To begin with, the interaction patterns in the lessons couldn't be performed completely as intended in the beginning. The students were not fully accustomed to task-based learning, pair-work and group-work interaction patterns that help them work with their stronger peers. Therefore, the teachers had great difficulty adapting the patterns to one that the students are mostly familiar with: whole class discussion. Nearly all the pre-reading and post-reading questions in the first two lessons were answered through whole class discussion. Since the teachers tried to get answers from all the students, this took some time and the students had to sacrifice their break time for the research. However, this was not an obligation. They willingly chose not to take a break, but this affected their performance in the next lesson even to a negligible extent. Thus, the researchers suggest that the students – if they are not familiar with different interaction patterns in the classroom – must take a pilot lesson before the study or must be taught about these interaction patterns through the use different skills. In our country, may be in most of the others, as one of the researchers have observed so far, the students find it awkward when asked to discuss with their peers about one point as they are not allowed to speak or share views with their peers in more dogmatic lessons like, mathematics, algebra or science. Yes, it is true that the students learned how to interact in a group or with a peer during a lesson after the first two sessions but this might have taken a lot more time if the students in the classroom were a lot more active or less diligent, which is mostly the case in this geographical area. Or, alternatively, another action research can be carried out in interaction patterns before carrying out multi-level reading lessons although it is out of the scope of the current research.

Secondly, the questions in the questionnaires were adapted from the same questionnaire and most of the questions in the original form were omitted. Such an abridged version of the questionnaire could not be piloted because of lack of time on the parts of the researchers. However, no problems regarding the questions were encountered during the research. Therefore, the adapted questionnaires can be used for studies aiming to find similar results.

Another limitation of the research is the use of technological devices in the classroom. This can be considered as a helping factor in the way to achieve the intended aim more than a limitation because the use of tablets may have boosted the motivation of the students and their eagerness as well when their ages are concerned. This effect can be neutralized by applying the same study to a group of older students or using hard copy materials in the lessons. And also, a full-fledged lesson planned can be organized in this way because the books on Raz-kids provide the teachers only with certain types of while-reading or pre-reading texts as they cannot change or edit the texts. So, the students can neither do a pre-reading task where they can scan the text quickly for certain data as the pages differ so much in each level nor stop at a specific paragraph to answer a while-reading question. Even if they could do these activities freely on Raz-kids books, the performance check of the students might not be reliable because higher-level books can take more time to read, as they are comparatively loaded.

One more suggestion by the researchers is that whether the frequency of the multi-level reading lessons has any effect on the students' motivation can be gauged and explored through control or semi-control groups in a different, more comprehensive study as some of the students wished that they could have more multi-level extensive reading lessons like this during the interview.

All in all, the prospective studies within the remit of the current study can consider the above points and limitations. However, the researchers are of the view that extensive reading lessons designed on the basis of differentiated instruction definitely produce positive results, as young learners mostly want to read for pleasure.

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Appendix A

The Motivation for Reading Questionnaire

Directions: We are interested in your reading. The sentences given below describe your feelings about reading. Read each sentence and decide whether it describes a person who is like you or different from you. To answer questionnaire, please, circle ONE number on each line. Thank you for your help.

Answer the questionnaire using the scale below:

Very different from you	**A little different from you**	**A little like you**	**A lot like you**
Circle 1	Circle 2	Circle 3	Circle 4

1. I know that I will do well in reading next year.	1	2	3	4
2. If the teacher discusses something interesting, I might read more about it.	1	2	3	4
3. I like it when the questions in books make me think.	1	2	3	4
4. I am a good reader.	1	2	3	4
5. I read to learn new information about topics that interest me.	1	2	3	4
6. Finishing every reading assignment is very important to me.	1	2	3	4
7. If I am reading about an interesting topic, I sometimes lose track of time.	1	2	3	4
8. I am willing to work hard to read better than my friends.	1	2	3	4
9. It is very important to me to be a good reader.	1	2	3	4
10. In comparison to other activities I do, it is very important to me to be a good reader.	1	2	3	4
11. I like to read about new things.	1	2	3	4

Adapted from Wigfield & Guthrie (1997)

Appendix B

Questionnaire on Favourite Book Types

Directions: Please indicate the preference of reading different types of books presented in the following sentences. We would like you to answer this questionnaire by giving marks from 1 to 4. Thank you for your help.

Very different from you	**A little different from you**	**A little like you**	**A lot like you**
Circle 1	Circle 2	Circle 3	Circle 4

1. I read stories about fantasy and make-believe.	1	2	3	4
2. Complicated stories are no fun to read.	1	2	3	4
3. I feel like I make friends with people in good books.	1	2	3	4
4. I like mysteries.	1	2	3	4
5. I enjoy a long, involved story or fiction book.	1	2	3	4
6. I enjoy reading books about people in different countries.	1	2	3	4
7. I don't like it when there are too many people in the story.	1	2	3	4

Adapted from Wigfield & Guthrie (1997)

Appendix C

Interview questions for the non-participant observers

Direction: Please observe the lesson(s) by taking the below questions into account. After the lesson, the researcher(s) will have an interview with you, generally on the basis of your answers to them.

1. How engaged were the students during the pre-reading (brainstorming, guessing the context) activity? How much attention did they give to the question(s)?
2. How was their attention while sharing their views with the whole class after the pair-work discussion?
3. What can you say about the student's attitudes, questions and responses while they were reading the text?
4. What do you think about the convenience of the context in regard to the Ss' interest?
5. How eagerly did the Ss answer the post-reading questions or do the related activities?
6. What can you say about the Ss' overall attitude towards this reading lesson?
7. Can we say that this was an extensive reading lesson? Why?
8. Can you please compare this reading lesson with the previous reading lesson in terms of Ss' motivation? Do you think that they look forward to the next reading lesson?

Note: The researchers themselves have prepared the questions by referring to the questions in Appendix A and Appendix B.

Appendix D

Interview questions for the student groups

1. What do you think the most enjoyable side of the reading lessons? Why?
2. Can you please compare and contrast them with our previous reading lessons?
3. How well do you think your reading has improved?
4. What can you say about your attitudes towards reading before these lessons and now?
5. Do you think that you are a good reader now? Why?
6. What would you like to do in the next reading lessons? Are you looking forward to them?

Note: The researchers themselves have prepared the questions by referring to the questions in Appendix A and Appendix B.

Kırkağaç, Ş., & Öz, H. (2017). The role of big five personality traits in predicting prospective EFL teachers' academic achievement. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching (IOJET), 4*(4), 317-328.
http://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/243/174

Received: 19.07.2017
Received in revised form: 14.08.2017
Accepted: 28.08.2017

THE ROLE OF BIG FIVE PERSONALITY TRAITS IN PREDICTING PROSPECTIVE EFL TEACHERS' ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT*

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*This article is part of the first author's master thesis, completed with the supervision of the second author.

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Abstract

This study sought to find out the possible relationships between personality traits and academic achievement of prospective English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers. A total of 200 university students from a major state university voluntarily participated in the study. Data were collected through the International Personality Item Tool (IPIP) and the self-reported grade-point average (GPA). The tool was designed to determine the dominant personality trait(s) of the participants within the scope of Big Five Personality Traits; that is, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, openness and neuroticism. In line with the literature the results revealed that there were statistically significant relationships between the participants' personality traits and academic achievement. Specifically, conscientiousness, openness and agreeableness were the personality traits that positively and significantly correlated with academic achievement. Furthermore, in order to find out the predictive effects of the personality traits on academic achievement, the multiple regression analyses were conducted. According to the results of the analyses, personality traits were able to predict 17% of the academic achievement, with openness being the strongest determinant. Conscientiousness followed openness while three other traits failed to predict academic achievement of the participants.

Keywords: EFL, teacher education, personality traits, academic achievement, prospective English teachers

1. Introduction

The growing interest of researchers in the individual differences during the 20th century has led to the rise of many theories covering individual differences. Some of these theories have dealt with issues such as anxiety, gender, age or attribution. However, when individual differences are regarded, personality is often one of the first constructs associated with these differences. Essentially, it covers all the features and deeds that make people as they are. It was also defined as "individuals' characteristic patterns of thought, emotion and behavior together with the psychological mechanisms – hidden or not – behind those patterns" (Funder, 2001, p. 2). As it is one of the most critical individual differences, it has been studied extensively and thoroughly (Busato, Prins, Elshout, & Hamaker, 2000; Komarraju & Karau, 2005). As a result, numerous models, theories and approaches have been created in an attempt to find out how personality traits work in different settings. The main rationale for the rise of personality models and theories lays on the fact that many researchers (e.g., Barratt, 1995; Blickle, 1996; Farsides & Woodfield, 2003) claimed that personality had an effect on the way learners accumulate and process information. More specifically, Chamorro-Premuzic and Furnham (2003a, 2003b, 2004, 2005) alleged that personality traits could

determine academic outcomes together with the intelligence factor. Existence of a great number of studies on the impact of personality traits on learning encouraged contemporary researchers to dig into other links between personality traits and learning. However, only a couple of studies tried to enlighten these links from prospective EFL teachers' point of view. The present study, therefore, aimed at finding out the possible relationships between personality traits and academic achievement of the prospective EFL teachers.

2. Literature Review

2.1. The Big Five Personality Traits Model

As personality is found out to make a difference in academic achievement (Chamorro-Premuzic, & Furnham, 2006; Conrad & Patry, 2012; Noftle & Robins, 2007), certain models, theories and approaches have been developed to uncover the possible effects of personality on learning. The Big Five Personality Traits Model stood out for many reasons. To begin with, these five traits, i.e. openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism, overlap perfectly with the studies that include more or less traits than those in the Big Five Personality Traits Model. Verhoeven and Vermeer (2002) stated that these five traits are "dynamic but nevertheless relatively stable dispositions and indicators of personal needs" (p. 373). Additionally, the model uses terms that can be used universally. In other words, it creates a common jargon for the researchers working on personality.

With the help of The Big Five Personality Traits, earlier studies found out promising results between personality traits and academic achievement. For example, Chamorro-Premuzic and Furnham (2003) discovered that conscientiousness was a strong and determinant predictor of learners' performance in exams. Similarly, Bipp, Steinmayr, and Spinath (2008) discovered an inverse relationship between conscientiousness and work avoidance orientation. Furthermore, in his study about the relationships between personality traits and SAT scores of the learners, Conard (2006) found out that learners who were high in conscientiousness tended to have higher SAT scores. More recently, Feyter, Caers, Vigna and Berings (2012) observed a strong link between conscientiousness and academic motivation and also academic performance.

As openness refers to being intellectually inquisitive and having a strong desire to have variety (Komarraju & Karau, 2005), a great number of studies (Busato, Prins, Elshout, & Hamaker, 1999; Busato et al., 2000; Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham, 2003a; Zhang, 2002; 2003) associated it with higher achievement. In line with the earlier studies, Bidjerano and Dai (2007) found out that learners having high levels of openness made better use of time management and effort regulation, which led academic success. Farsides and Woodfield (2003) stated that openness was one of the traits that predicted final grades. However, several scholars (Busato et al., 2000; Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham, 2003; Gray & Watson, 2002; Furnham & Monsen, 2009) warned that the results regarding openness varied in different settings.

Extraversion is another personality trait that needs a closer look. Essentially, it is "characterized by sociability, spontaneity and adventurousness" (Clark & Schroth, 2010, p.20). Therefore, it was claimed that it might have both facilitative (e.g. Poropat, 2009) and inhibitive effects (e.g., De Raad & Dchouwenburg, 1996; Feyter, Caers, Vigna, & Berings, 2012) on academic achievement and performance.

Similar to extraversion, the links between agreeableness and academic achievement are not always consistent and statistically significant. Although there are a number of studies that found out positive relationships between academic achievement of the learners (Duckworth

& Seligman, 2005; Farsides & Woodfield, 2003; Furnham, Zhang, & Chamoro, 2006; Lounsbury, Sundstrum, Gibson, & Loveland, 2003b; Zhang, 2002; 2003), Hakimi, Hejazi, and Lavasani (2011) found out that agreeableness did not have a predictive role in academic achievement.

The last one of the big five personality traits, neuroticism is defined as "individual differences in one's disposition towards constructing, perceiving and feeling realities in threatening, disturbing or problematic ways" (Hakimi et al., 2011, p. 837). Due to its nature, neuroticism was negatively associated with academic achievement (Duff, Boyle, Dunleavy, & Ferguson, 2004; Laidra, Pullmann, & Allik, 2007; Lounsbury et al., 2003a; Mathews & Zeidner, 2004). In line with the earlier studies, Furnham and Monsen (2009) hypothesized that neuroticism and academic performance were negatively correlated due to the fact that the stress level that neurotic learners experienced was much higher than the facilitating level.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Design

This study was conducted with a quantitative research design and survey methodology. No manipulation of the environment or the participants was required. As in many quantitative research designs, participants of the study were expected to provide data with the help of the instrument in their natural education settings where no intervention was planned or utilized.

3.2. Setting and Participants

Data for this study were collected from students (*N*=200; female: 159; 79.5%; male: 41; 20.5%) enrolled in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teacher education program at a major state university. Convenience sampling technique, a well-known non-probability sampling technique in language studies, was used in selecting the participants for the study.

3.3. Measures

In addition to a self-report measure of participants' current GPA, Goldberg's International Personality Item Pool (2001) was used. The 50-item tool consists of two sections called Personality Traits and Global Personality Traits. It has a Likert-Scale design with responses from 1, referring to "very inaccurate of me", to 5, meaning "very accurate of me". Depending on the answers of the participants, the measure was intended to reveal the dominant personality trait(s) according to the Big Five Personality Traits Model. The reliability analysis based on the current data was also computed and provided below.

Table 1. *Reliability values of Goldberg's international personality item pool*

	Cronbach Alpha	***N of Items***
Conscientiousness	.69	10
Openness	.79	10
Extraversion	.74	10
Agreeableness	.63	10
Neuroticism	.83	10
Total	.78	50

The internal consistency of the five subscales ranged from α=.83 to α=.63 (conscientiousness .69, openness .79, extraversion .74, agreeableness .63, neuroticism .83)

3.4. Data Collection and Analysis

The present study was conducted with prospective English language teachers at a major state university in Ankara. Before data collection, all necessary permissions were taken from the Ethics Commission of the university. In addition, all participants were given a consent form, through which they were informed that it was a voluntary survey and that they were free to stop participating at any time they wanted. In order to see the probable relationships between personality traits and academic achievement, some statistical analyses were conducted with the help of IBM SPSS Statistics 20. Given that the data were normally distributed and necessary assumptions were met, the Pearson-Product Moment Correlation test was conducted to find out whether there were any relationships between Big Five personality traits and academic achievement. In addition, multiple regression analysis was carried out to explore the predictive power of the personality traits. Among several other methods of multiple regression, enter method was used for the current study.

4. Results

The present study investigated the relationships between personality traits and academic achievement. Additionally, the study sought the role of personality traits in predicting the academic achievement of pre-service EFL teachers.

As the data met the major requirements of certain assumptions such as normality, linearity, multicollinearity and homogeneity of variance, parametric tests specifically correlation and regression tests could be run.

The Pearson-product moment correlation test was run in order to reveal the relationship between academic achievement and Big Five personality traits. The intercorrelation of the Big Five personality traits and GPA of the participants were presented below.

Table 2. *The intercorrelation of the big five personality traits and GPA*

		1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*
1 GPA	*Pearson Correlation*	1					
2 Conscientiousness	*Pearson Correlation*	.315**	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000					
3 Openness	*Pearson Correlation*	.331**	.323**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000				
4 Agreeableness	*Pearson Correlation*	.214**	.326**	.437**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.000			
5 Extraversion	*Pearson Correlation*	.132	.170*	.390**	.375**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.065	.019	.000	.000		
6 Neuroticism	*Pearson Correlation*	.044	-.145*	-.119	-.009	-.338**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.539	.047	.104	.897	.000	

As seen in the table, several positive correlations existed between GPA and Big Five personality traits; that is, openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism; coefficients ranging from .214 to .331 (p<.01).

The results of Pearson-product moment correlation test indicated that conscientiousness as one of the Big Five personality traits was positively and significantly correlated with academic achievement of the participants, r=.315, p < .01. In addition, there was a significant and positive correlation between openness and academic achievement of the participants according to the result of the correlation analysis, r=.33, p<.01. Finally, there was a statistically significant and positive correlation between academic achievement of the

participants and their agreeableness, r=.215, p<.01. However, no statistically significant relationships were found between academic achievement and extraversion, r=.132, p=.65. Contrary to common belief in literature, no negative correlations existed between neuroticism and academic achievement, r=.044, p=.53.

The second part of the study included multiple regression analysis. The main aim of this analysis was to observe the predictive effects of the personality traits on academic achievement of the participants. Thus, Big Five personality traits were entered to see the effects of Big Five personality traits on GPA. Table 3 below shows the results of the multiple regression analysis.

Table 3. *Multiple regression analysis results*

Model		***Unstandardized Coefficients***		***Standardized Coefficients***	***t***	***Sig.***
		B	***Std. Error***	***Beta***		
1	***(Constant)***	1.987	.248		8.010	.000
	Conscientiousness	.128	.042	.230	3.046**	.003
	Openness	.162	.046	.285	3.509**	.001
	Agreeableness	-.005	.053	-.007	-.089	.929
	Extraversion	.002	.041	.005	.060	.952
	Neuroticism	.049	.032	.113	1.514	.132

Multiple R = .42 R^2 = .17 Adjusted R^2 = .15

**p < .01

As it can be seen from the table above, after all variables were entered into the equation, Multiple R appeared to be .42 (p< .01). When the Beta values were examined, it was found out that Conscientiousness and Openness were able to predict GPA grades of the participants positively and significantly (β =.23 and β=.28 respectively, p<.01). In addition, the predictive power of Openness was stronger than that of Conscientiousness. The results demonstrated that other three personality traits failed to predict academic achievement of the participants (p>.05). Thus, the multiple regression analysis results indicated that personality traits, specifically Conscientiousness and Openness were able to explain 17% of the variance in participants' GPA.

5. Discussion

The present study aimed at finding out the potential links between personality traits and academic achievement. The results of the current study indicated that personality and academic achievement were closely and significantly correlated. Specifically, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness were the personality traits which correlated significantly with academic achievement of the participants. In addition, personality traits all together were able to predict 17% of the variance in GPA grades. Openness and Agreeableness were the two personality traits which led to statistically significant changes in GPA of the participants.

The results of the study were in line with the literature. The previous studies also alleged that personality traits were always influential factors in foreign language teaching (Dörnyei, 2005). It affected not only behaviors of the individuals but also attitudes and emotions towards certain issues (Hogan, Hogan, & Roberts, 1996). Therefore, lots of researchers conducted studies on the concept of personality and related it to language learning (e.g., Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham, 2004; Rinderman & Neubauer, 2001; O'Connor &

Paunonen, 2007). Chamorro-Premuzic and Furnham (2003a), for instance, claimed that personality and academic performance were positively and significantly associated. Similarly, it was also asserted that personality could predict academic achievement significantly (Farsides & Woodfield, 2003). Hakimi et al. (2011) also found out that personality traits were able to predict 48% of academic achievement, which showed the power of personality traits on academic achievement.

As the results revealed, Openness had statistically significant relationships with academic achievement of the participants. It also had the biggest predictive power among other personality traits. The results of the both correlation and regression analyses were in line with the earlier research. To illustrate, Farsides and Woodfield (2003) stated that Openness had a predictive power on the final grades of the participants. Similarly, another study by Komarraju and Karau (2005) indicated that open learners tended to attend classes more regularly and these learners were more achievement-oriented compared to non-open learners. The results of Öz's study (2015) supported the previous studies by claiming that there was a link between Openness and powerful goal orientations, which fostered learning. Many other scholars (e.g., Ackerman & Heggenstad, 1997; Busato et al., 2000; Lounburry et al., 2003) also suggested that use of such techniques helped open learners to succeed more.

Conscientiousness has always been regarded as one of the strongest predictors of academic achievement (Cheng & Ickles, 2009; Diseth, 2003; Feyter et al., 2012). In line with the studies, Conscientiousness followed openness in terms of the correlation value and predictive power. A strong correlation existed between conscientiousness and academic achievement. It was also able to statistically predict academic achievement. Aligned with the results of the current study, Chamorro-Premuzic and Furnham (2003a) claimed that Conscientiousness was able to predict exam performance of the participants. Similarly, in his study on the effects of personality traits on SAT scores, Conard (2006) found out that Conscientiousness was associated with academic performance and academic motivation. Another study by Hakimi et al. (2011) discovered that Conscientiousness was able to predict the variance in academic achievement. When the results of the earlier studies and the nature of Conscientiousness as a personality trait were taken into account, it was quite rational to expect such results.

The results of the present study also showed a positive relationship between Agreeableness and academic achievement. The correlation between academic achievement and Agreeableness was statistically significant. However, as the table presented, the link was not as striking as it was in Conscientiousness and Openness. Parallel to the current results, earlier studies found out positive links between Agreeableness and academic achievement. Farsides and Woodfield (2003), for instance, asserted that Agreeableness and school grades were positively associated. Similarly, the results of Zhang's study (2002) stated that agreeable learners focused on higher grades compared to non-agreeable peers. Yet, as opposed to the results of the correlation analysis, multiple regression analysis indicated that Agreeableness failed to make statistically significant difference in the variance of GPA of the participants. Although the correlation between agreeableness and academic achievement was significant, agreeableness was not a statistically significant predictor of GPA. In line with this result, certain studies (e.g., Hakimi et al., 2011) claimed that despite the existence of the positive correlation, Agreeableness could not predict GPA or academic achievement of the participants. When both results are taken into account, it can be inferred that Agreeableness is a personality trait that needs closer examination.

The results of the correlation analysis indicated that there were neither positive nor negative relationships between Extraversion and GPA of the participants. Similarly, multiple

regression analysis did not find out any predictive effects of Extraversion on GPA. As Duff et al. (2004) stated, nature of the Extraversion led inconclusive results. That is, extraversion included some features such as being socially active, having desires to contact with other people, and these features were expected to help learning, especially peer learning. From this point of view, Extraversion was thought to foster learning. Certain studies (e.g., Chamorro & Furnham, 2003a; Hakimi et al., 2011) came up with results indicating positive relationships between academic achievement and Extraversion. However, there were more studies (e.g., Furnham & Monsen, 2009; Furnham, Zhang, & Chamorro, 2006; Hakimi, 2011; Matthews, 1997; O'Connor & Paunomen, 2007; Oswald et al., 2004; Rolfhus & Ackerman, 1996) claiming that Extraversion was negatively associated with academic achievement. Therefore, Extraversion is one of the traits that needs to be approached with care.

Neuroticism has always been associated with negative emotions (Busato et al., 2000), inclination for stress (McCrea & John, 1992) and insecurity (Clark & Schroth, 2010). Thus, many studies (e.g., Hakimi et al., 2011; Komarraju & Karau, 2005; Laidra et al., 2007; Matthews & Zeidner, 2004) demonstrated negative correlations between academic achievement and Neuroticism due to the fact that stress and negative emotions that such individuals experienced hindered learning (Duff et al., 2004).

Different from these results, correlation analysis results of the current study indicated no statistically significant relationships between academic achievement and Neuroticism. Likewise, Neuroticism did not have a negative predictive power on GPA grades of the participants in multiple regression analyses. Although these results were not in line with the studies cited earlier, many studies came up with interesting results with regard to academic achievement and Neuroticism. Komarraju, Karau and Schmeck (2009), for instance, stated that the links between Neuroticism and academic achievement were more multifaceted than labeling Neuroticism as a purely negative trait. In that study, Komarraju et al. (2009) discovered certain positive correlations between Neuroticism and achievement. In line with their study, Bratko et al. (2006) argued that neurotic individuals might also achieve because they possessed certain level of anxiety which might, in fact, facilitate learning at various settings.

Like the results of the current study, various studies (Nguyen et al., 2005; Rosander, Backstrom, & Stenberg, 2011) found out no relationships between academic achievement and Neuroticism. Even though Neuroticism has always been labelled as a trait hindering learning, such results, in a way, may help individuals to come up with the prohibitive effects of Neuroticism.

6. Conclusion

The current study aimed at finding out the possible relationships between Big Five personality traits and academic achievement. In the light of previous studies, several statistically significant relationships among these concepts were expected. Considering the small number of studies conducted with pre-service teachers of English, it was believed that there was a gap in literature. In an attempt to contribute to the literature, data were collected from 200 pre-service teachers of English. IPIP-Five-Factor Markers by Goldberg (2001) was used as the data collection tool. In addition, demographic information such as age, grade and GPA was obtained prior to the questionnaires. After the data collection was over, the data were analyzed with the help of the data analysis software, SPSS 20.0. Correlation and multiple regression analyses were used. The results of the study revealed several significant relationships among personality and academic achievement. To start with, statistically significant relationships between academic achievement and conscientiousness, openness and agreeableness were discovered. However, multiple regression analysis showed that only

conscientiousness and openness were able to predict academic achievement significantly. Finally, overall findings indicated that personality traits predicted 17% of the academic achievement.

The current study aimed at finding out promising relationships in a unique environment with unique participants and as a result, contributing the existing literature. In such an attempt, the study revealed several interesting but promising results for not only educators but also learners. Hopefully, further studies on personality and academic motivation might raise better awareness in learners and create better learning environments.

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Received: 27.05.2017
Received in revised form: 25.07.2017
Accepted: 15.08.2017

STUDENTS' OPINIONS ABOUT SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY IN TURKEY AND THE UNITED STATES: A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to determine the thoughts of Turkish and American middle school students on science and technology. One intact school was assigned randomly for this study from both countries. The sampling of the study contains 479 students (363 Turkish students, 116 American students) from two countries aged between 11 and 13. The data for the study were obtained by using ROSE Survey. The results of the study revealed similarities and dissimilarities on science and technology between the students of the two countries. The findings of the study are thought to improve the education of universal science and technology and to contribute to the researchers doing research on comparative education and cultural diversity and to the literature of international science education.

Keywords: curriculum and instruction, science education, middle school

1. Introduction

In recent years, there has been an international movement towards educational reform, particularly in science and technology education, focused on the expected needs of a sustainable environment, economy, and society (UNESCO, 2015). It is known that science and technology education will aid in developing scientific literacy among today's youth and thereby help to enable tomorrow's population to have a better understanding of the world around them and to make environmentally sensitive decisions. Within this context, we expect all countries to attach similar importance to science and technology education.

In recent years, international studies related to science and technology education have received tremendous publicity (Potvin & Hasni, 2014). Comparative research can support the efforts to develop global competency; assessing the extent to which students have such competency, carefully documenting the various approaches to global education used comparatively, and analyzing the contributions of those diverse curricula and pedagogies (Reimers, 2013). In this context, we must start rethinking our curriculum development

process under changing national and international conditions. The challenge becomes how to teach learners to make sense of the vast amount of information they encounter every day, identify credible sources, assess the reliability and validity of what they read, question the authenticity and accuracy of information, connect this new knowledge with prior learning and discern its significance in relation to information they already understand (Facer, 2011). Thus, most of the curriculum reform reports refer to learner centered or humanistic curriculum. One of these reports published by the UNESCO entitled "Rethinking Education towards a global common good?" In a chapter of the report entitled "Rethinking of curriculum development" answers the following question "What would a humanistic curriculum look like from the perspective of policy formulation and content?" Regarding learning content and methods, a humanistic curriculum is certainly one that raises more questions than it provides answers. It promotes respect for diversity and rejection of all forms of (cultural) hegemony, stereotypes and biases. It is a curriculum based on intercultural education that allows for the plurality of society while ensuring balance between pluralism and universal values. In terms of policy, we must recall that curriculum frameworks are tools to bridge broad educational goals and the processes to reach them. For curriculum frameworks to be legitimate, the process of policy dialogue to define educational goals must be participatory and inclusive (pp. 41-42).As emphasized in Reimers' article (2013), in this world, people will have to negotiate how to adopt ethical and legal frameworks amidst cultural pluralism, they will have to figure out their common humanity and their differences with others who come from different cultural and civilizational origins, they will have to decide how to trust and collaborate across such differences, often bridging space and time through science and technology. To the extent that such cross- national comparisons serve to stimulate programmatic innovation in the participating countries –inspiring the design and implementation of programs which comparative evidence suggest might be promising avenues to better support the opportunities for students to gain such skills –the inclusion of global education provides a unique point of entry to program innovation explicitly focused on the development of 21st century skills. Global competency, itself a 21st century skill, should be understood through the multidimensional lens which defines the human capabilities for life and for work. Innovation in the participating countries –inspiring the design and implementation of programs which comparative evidence suggests might be promising avenues to better support the opportunities for students to gain such skills— the inclusion of global education provides a unique point of entry to program innovation explicitly focused on the development of 21st century skills (p. 1).

More research interest was placed on nations comparable to the United States (Peak, 1996; Wang, 1998). At the national level, especially for Turkey, Turkey and the United States seem to be a better choice for comparison. Although Turkey and the United States seem different countries in terms of culture, geography, economy, history, it is particularly useful to compare data from Turkey and the United States for several reasons. First, the strong historical links between Turkey and the United States mean that the Turkish educational and training systems continue to show parallel developments even now.

During this first phase of educational reform in Turkey, John Dewey's, who an eminent American educator, advice and recommendations have been influential on how to improve the Turkish educational system. Dewey visited the newly established Republic of Turkey in the summer of 1924. He studied Turkish education system and submitted a report on ways to improve it. After Dewey's studies, some American educators and foundations such as Kate Wofford in 1952, Ford Foundations in 1970s, Dale Baker in 1997, have continued to contribute Turkish education system in different areas especially in science and technology education.

In the United States, the National Science Education Standards (National Research Council, 1996), one of the most important reforms in science education, declared that science is for everyone and its purpose is to prepare students to be scientifically literate citizens. These science education standards greatly influenced the Turkish educational system and recent science and technology curriculum (MEB, 2005) in Turkey. American science curriculum based on standards was taken as a model.

In addition to the changes occurring within Turkey (both curriculum and instruction) many Turkish master and doctoral students have been sent to study in modern countries within the National Educational Development Project (NEDP), which has been supported by the World Bank since 1993. Since 1997, 689 students have been sent to the United States. Currently 25 of 247 Turkish students in the United States are studying in the field of science education in graduate colleges in various universities, which are ranked as top schools in their country (General Directorate for Higher Education (Universities in Turkey), http://yogm.meb.gov.tr/Resmiburslular.htm). It can be concluded that Turkish and American education systems have a strong link from past to today.

In this study, "The Relevance of Science Education" (ROSE) survey was selected for comparing students' opinions about science and technology because of appropriateness for international comparisons. ROSE and international comparative project meant to shield light on effective factors of importance to the learning of science and technology. About 40 countries such as England, Norway, Ireland, Japan, Sweden, Israel, South Africa, Russia, Uganda, Ghana, and Estonia have taken part in ROSE. Sjoberg and Schreiner (2005) stated that

> "We have tried to make an instrument that can be used in widely different cultures. The aim is to stimulate research cooperation and networking across cultural barriers and to promote and informed discussion on how to make science education more relevant and meaningful for learners in ways that respect gender differences and cultural diversity." (p. 2).

As mentioned above, during 1923, the date of foundation, Turkey has been influenced by the American educational system, especially in the dimension of education of science and technology, and restructured its educational system by taking American educational system as a model. Sjoberg and Schreiner (2005), as creators of ROSE, emphasized the main aim of the application of this international project as; to eliminate barriers by revealing cultural and gender similarities and dissimilarities and to create a common language. In this context, in the point where Turkish educational system has reached today by modeling American educational system, the aim of this study is to reveal the thoughts of students on science and technology and to determine the similarities and dissimilarities.

2. Method

2.1. The instrument

The instrument used in this study, ROSE (the Relevance of Science Education) is an international survey aimed at examining the influence of different factors in science and technology learning, and more than 40 nations are participating worldwide (Schreiner & Sjøberg, 2004). The ROSE study comprised different aims: on the one hand, to gain empirical insights to stimulate a critical discussion of existing science instruction on a national and international level; and on the other, to illustrate potential approaches that could increase the relevancy, attractiveness and quality of science teaching (Elster, 2007).

As cited in Elster (2007), The ROSE questionnaire is based on experience gained from the international SAS-study Science and Scientists (Sjøberg, 2000), Eurobarometer 55.2 (EU, 2001) and the National Science Board (NSF, 2004). It was validated and optimised in

national and international preliminary studies, taking different cultural contexts into consideration. Also, an international advisory group has been established to serve as main partners in the development of the ROSE instruments. Face validity was established with the review of the instrument by an international panel and subsequent field testing in three countries. ROSE involves a wide range of countries from all continents. Key international research institutions and individuals work jointly on the development of theoretical perspectives, research instruments, data collection and analysis (Schreiner & Sjøberg, 2004). The ROSE questionnaire consists of 250 closed items with four step rating scales as well as an open question. The questionnaire is divided into seven sections:

- What I would like to learn about
- My future job
- Attitudes to environmental problems
- Attitudes to science lessons
- Opinions on science and technology
- Out-of-school- experience
- 'What I would do as a scientific researcher' (open question)

In many international studies, these subtests have been treated as independent subheadings and have been worked on (e.g., Elster, 2007; Jenkins, 2006; Jenkins & Nelson, 2005; Krapp & Prenzel, 2011). In the present article, attention is focused on students' views about their experience of science at schools in in Turkey and the United States. Thus, "My opinions about science and technology" (question G) subtest was used to probe different aspects of how the students perceive the role and function of science and technology in society. Under the heading, the following instructions are given:

To what extent do you agree with the following statements? (Give your answer with a tick on each line. If you do not understand, leave the line blank.)

This is followed by 16 statements, each with a 4-point Likert scale from Disagree (coded 1) to Agree (coded 4). Missing responses were coded 9 (Schreiner, 2006).

In this study, for the American students, the ROSE questionnaire in English was used. For Turkish student, it was translated into Turkish by English, Turkish and Science educators. In the Turkish edition, after the original version had been translated from English to Turkish by one of the researchers and science educators checked all items on the questionnaire for content validity in accordance with Turkish science curricula. Secondly, the Turkish version was controlled by a Turkish specialist. Thirdly, an English specialist checked the translation version. Fourthly, Turkish specialist checked the translated text for Turkish grammar. Fifthly, Turkish version written after the grammar check was again translated into English. Finally, original ROSE questionnaire was compared with translated English version by the English specialist. Researchers concluded the translation was completed accurately. It was piloted in two Turkish school classes and the elements validated for comprehensibility in school interviews. Then, researchers applied final version of the survey in Turkish to Turkish students. The students were allotted one school class to answer the questionnaire.

2.2. Subjects

In this study context, purposive sampling was selected which is one of the three non-probability samplings commonly used in quantitative research. As the name implies, purposeful sampling involves the researcher's selecting subjects based on their perception of

the characteristics of those subjects. Returning to our study, one intact school was selected from each country with similar features including social-economic status, learning environment, teachers' background, curriculum, and teaching methods- in the United States, curriculum was developed by the school district and schools based on federal and state standard, so the selected school in the United States for the sample has the most appropriate curriculum for the Turkish school science curriculum. The number of participants from each country is different because of school / class size. School size in both countries is determined by the education laws and special conditions of the countries.

For Turkish sample, application permission was taken from Ministry of Education, Department of Research, Planning and Coordination (Formal Document Number: B.08.0.APK.0.03.05.01-01/1026). For American sample, application permission was taken from Texas tech. University Protection of Human Subjects Committee.

Following the permission, questionnaires were applied on Turkish and American sample. In actual, the ROSE project target population is the cohort of all 11-13-year-old pupils in the both countries, or the grade level where most 11-13 year old pupils are likely to go in Turkey, these pupils attend primary school (grades 6-8) in Ankara. In the United States, these pupils attend elementary and middle school or junior high school in Lubbock, TX. In total, 479 students participated in this study. Of the 479 students who completed questionnaires in both countries, 116 were American students and 363 Turkish students. 53 were girls and 63 were boys in American sample, 202 were girls and 161 were boys in Turkish sample. One intact school was assigned randomly for this study from each country. Thus, the number of the students is different.

In many countries, middle school is the last opportunity for students to relate to science and technology in any organized framework. It is also the period when students decide whether to take science and technology as a major subject at high school level or to stop learning these subjects. Therefore, it is necessary to promote the development of positive attitudes towards science and technology at this critical time (Scherz & Oren, 2006).

3. Results

The Turkish and American students' responses and the median values to the 16 statements about science and technology are given in Table 1. The "agreement index" in Table 2 represents the difference in the percentage of agree / low agree and disagree / low disagree Turkish and American students' repossesses to each item. Table 3 summarizes the responses to the sixteen statements by culture. In Table 3, chi-square values were computed only over agree and disagree ratios, KS values were computed over all values.

Table 1. *Distributions of Turkish and American students' responses to "my opinion about science and technology" (American students' responses in brackets)*

Statement No.	Disagree %	Low disagree %	Low Agree %	Agree %	Nil Response*	Median (Turkey)	Median (USA)
1	7.2 (2.6)	8.0 (10.3)	13.8 (26.6)	71.1(57.8)	0.9	Agree	Agree
2	5.2(2.6)	12.7(8.6)	27.0(29.3)	55.1(58.6)	0.9	Agree	Agree
3	8.3(3.4)	19.6(11.2)	17.9(36.2)	54.3(48.3)	-	Agree	L.Agree
4	11.6(6.0)	16.8(20.7)	21.2(26.7)	50.4(46.6)	-	Agree	L.Agree

5	8.3(12.1)	20.9(11.2)	22.9(33.6)	47.942.2)	0.9	L.Agree	L.Agree
6	7.4(12.1)	27.5(27.6)	21.8(35.3)	43.3(23.3)	1.7	L.Agree	L.Agree
7	11.6(23.3)	20.4(30.2)	27.8(31.0)	40.2(12.0)	2.6	L.Agree	L.Disagree
8	9.9(38.8)	26.4(31.9)	26.4(18.1)	37.2(11.2)	-	L.Agree	L.Disagree
9	18.5(46.6)	28.9(22.4)	25.3(22.4)	27.3(8.6)	-	L.Agree	L.Disagree
10	22.9(28.4)	30.0(33.6)	23.1(19.8)	24.0(16.4)	1.7	L.Disagree	L.Disagree
11	11.0(19.0)	22.0(18.1)	21.8(32.8)	45.2(28.4)	1.7	L.Agree	L.Agree
12	17.9(23.3)	20.9(25.9)	28.4(24.1)	32.8(22.4)	4.3	L.Agree	L.Disagree
13	10.5(39.7)	20.1(29.3)	27.5(17.2)	41.9(13.8)	-	L.Agree	L.Disagree
14	20.9(60.3)	30.9(25.9)	25.3(5.2)	22.9(6.0)	2.6	L.Disagree	Disagree
15	12.9(22.4)	28.4(38.8)	24.5(25.0)	34.2(12.1)	1.7	L.Disagree	L.Disagree
16	14.9(7.8)	20.7(10.3)	25.3(36.2)	39.1(45.7)	-	L.Disagree	L.Agree

Only for the United States (USA) sample

Table 2. *Degree of agreement with statements about science and technology*

Statement	Agreement Index* (TR)	Agreement Index* (USA)
1. Science and technology are important for society.	+69.7	+70.8
2. Science and technology will find cures to diseases such as HIV/AIDS cancer, etc.	+64.2	+76.7
3. Thanks to science and technology, there will be greater opportunities for future generations.	+44.3	+70.4
4. Science and technology make our lives healthier, easier and more comfortable.	+43.2	+46.6
5. New technologies will make work more interesting.	+41.6	+52.5
6. The benefits of science are greater than the harmful effects it could have.	+30.2	+18.9
7. Science and technology will help to eradicate poverty and famine in the world.	+36.0	-9.6
8. Science and technology can solve nearly all problems.	+27.3	-41.4
9. Science and technology are helping the poor.	+5.2	-38.0
10. Science and technology are the cause of the environmental problems.	-5.8	-25.8
11. A country needs science and technology to become developed.	+34.0	+24.1
12. Science and technology benefit mainly the developed countries.	+22.4	-2.7

13. Scientists follow the scientific method that always leads them to correct answers.	+38.8	-11
14. We should always trust what scientists have to say.	-3.6	-75.0
15. Scientists are neutral and objective.	+17.4	-24.1
16. Scientific theories develop and change all the time.	+28.8	+63.8

*Agreement Index= (agree+ low agree)-(disagree+ low disagree)

Many of the cultural differences in Table 3 are statistically significant. In general, American students express less confidence and lower levels of optimism than Turkish students in their responses to the 16 statements, although the differences are not great.

Table 3. *Survey country differences in response to "my opinions about science and technology"*

	Turkey		USA			
Statement No.	Agree %	Disagree %	Agree %	Disagree %	Chi-Square*	KS
1	84.8	15.2	85.3	14.7	NS	0.089
2	82.1	17.9	87.9	12.1	NS	NS
3	**72.2**	**27.8**	**85.2**	**14.8**	**0.007**	NS
4	71.6	28.4	73.3	26.7	NS	NS
5	70.8	29.2	76.5	23.5	NS	NS
6	65.0	35.0	59.6	40.4	NS	0.002
7	**68.0**	**32.0**	**45.1**	**54.9**	**0.000**	0.000
8	**63.6**	**36.4**	**28.7**	**71.3**	**0.000**	0.000
9	**52.6**	**47.4**	**31.0**	**69.0**	**0.000**	0.000
10	**47.1**	**52.9**	**36.8**	**63.2**	**0.069**	NS
11	66.9	33.1	62.3	37.7	NS	0.015
12	**61.2**	**38.8**	**48.6**	**51.4**	**0.026**	0.047
13	**69.4**	**30.6**	**31.0**	**69.0**	**0.000**	0.000
14	**48.2**	**51.8**	**11.5**	**88.8**	**0.000**	0.000
15	**58.7**	**41.3**	**37.7**	**62.3**	**0.000**	0.000
16	**64.5**	**35.5**	**81.9**	**18.1**	**0.001**	0.000

*Chi-square has been used to compare agree/disagree using 2x2 tables.

The data in tables 1-3 present a number of positive messages about the students' views about science and technology. For example, both Turkish and American students, there is a

large degree of agreement that science and technology are important for society (Statement 1), there is optimism about the contribution that they can make to curing diseases as HIV/AIDS and cancer (Statement 2). Science and technology are also seen as creating greater opportunities for future generations (Statement 3), as making everyday life healthier, easier and more comfortable (statement 4), and new technologies will make work more interesting (statement 5). In addition, for American students, there is large degree of agreement that scientific theories develop and change all the time (Statement 16). For this statement, there is a lower level of agreement among Turkish students. For example; both for Turkish and American samples; while there is a significant agreement for the items 1-5, American sampling additionally presents a high agreement for the item 16. Turkish sample presents a low agreement for the item number 16. With the agreement on the items 10 and 14 in the Turkish sample; the disagreement in American sample exists for the items 7- 15. American (36.8%) and Turkish (47.1%) students agree on the idea that science and technology define the reason of the environmental problems. The agreement percentage for the most of scientists to tell the truth all the time was 48.2% for Turkish students and 11.5% for American students.

Besides, for the American sample, the items; science and technology will help eradicate poverty and famine in the world (agree: 45.1%, disagree: 54.9%), science and technology can solve nearly all problems (agree: 28. 7%; disagree: 71.3%) , science and technology are helping the poor (agree: 31%; disagree: 69%) , science and technology benefit mainly the developed countries (agree: 48.6%; disagree: 51.4%), scientist follow the scientific method that always leads them to correct answers (agree: 31,0%; disagree: 69%) scientist are neutral and objective (agree: 37.7%; disagree: 62.3%) have higher disagreement rates. For the Turkish sample, the social benefits of science and technology, given in the Table 4, Turkish students are optimistic (items 2, 4 and 6) on the issue that science and technology contribute to the treatment of illnesses like HIV/AIDS or cancer; make everyday life healthier, easier and more comfortable; science has more benefits than its possible harms. In the United States sample of this component, it is seen that students display a high degree of confidence for science, scientists and scientific method. The results of factor analyses of the responses by culture are given in Table 4 and they reveal some differences in the clusters.

As seen Table 4, whereas 16 statements on ROSE survey were grouped in the three factors for Turkish sample, these statements were grouped six factors in American samples. The data in Table 4 suggest that while Turkish students who are more optimistic about the social benefits of about science and technology (statements 7- 9) they display lower degree confidence in science, scientists and scientific methods than American students (statements 13-15). Turkish students believe that science will help developing countries and advantaging the richer countries more than American students do (statement 11- 12).

Table 4. *Principal component analyses of "my opinions about science and technology for Turkish and (USA*)"*

Statements		Component 1	Component 2	Component 3	Component 4*	Component 5*	Component 6*
1.	Science and technology are important for society.	**0.536**(-0.226)	0.266 (**0.635**)	-0.290(0.169)	0.145	-0.041	0.332
2.	Science and technology will find cures to diseases such as HIV/AIDS cancer, etc.	**0.652** (0.123)	0.109 (**0.819**)	0.129 (0.074)	-0.018	-0.130	-0.056
3.	Thanks to science and technology, there will be greater opportunities for future generations.	**0.598** (0.210)	0.266(**0.772**)	-0.290 (0.157)	0.049	0,204	0.014
4.	Science and technology make our lives healthier, easier and more comfortable.	**0.74**(-0.011)	-0.065 (.419)	0.159 (**0.587**)	0.223	-0.080	-0.040
5.	New technologies will make work more interesting.	**0.550** (0.131)	0.286 (0.154)	-0.087 (**0.734**)	-0.054	-0.053	-0.069
6.	The benefits of science are greater than the harmful effects it could have.	**0.670**(-0.137)	-0.055(0.154)	0.210 (**0.768**)	0.044	-0,155	0,163
7.	Science and technology will help to eradicate poverty and famine in the world.	0.229 (0.349)	**0.609** (0.217)	-0.138 (**0.494**)	0.229	0,362	0,227
8.	Science and technology can solve nearly all problems.	**0.501** (0.344)	0.288(0.104)	0.207 (**0.477**)	0.056	0.042	-0,352
9.	Science and technology are helping the poor.	0.044 (**0.474**)	**0.691** (0.153)	0.147 (0.013)	0.323	0.078	0.013
10.	Science and technology are the cause of the environmental problems	0.068(-0.549)	0.021 (**0.019**)	0.731 (-0.164)	-0.011	**0,832**	-0.059
11.	A country needs science and technology to become developed.	0.576 (0.242)	0.244 (0.261)	-0.080 (**0.085**)	**0.671**	-0,291	0,102
12.	Science and technology benefit mainly the developed countries.	0.102 (**0.066**)	0.106 (-0.062)	0.692 (0.031)	**0.843**	0,127	-0.037
13.	Scientists follow the scientific method that always leads them to correct answers.	0.375 (**0.671**)	**0.481** (0.187)	-0.171 (0.031)	0.131	-0,323	-0,138
14.	We should always trust what scientists have to say.	-0.086 **(0.805**)	**0.570** (-0.030)	0.434 (0.058)	0.114	-0.077	0.095
15.	Scientists are neutral and objective	0.243 (**0.608**)	**0.550** (-0.050)	0.198 (0.058)	-0.107	0,257	0,310
16.	Scientific theories develop and change all the time.	0.461 (**0.187**)	0.255 (0.091)	0.160 (0.014)	0.029	-0.038	**0,856**

*Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization, significant factors in bold

4. Discussion

There are significant social and economic differences between developed and developing countries namely the United States and Turkey. Many of the underlying causes of these differences are rooted in the long history of development of such nations and include social,

cultural and economic variables, historical and political elements, international relations, geographical factors. These, however, do not tell the whole story. The differences in the scientific and technological infrastructure and in the popularization of science and technology in the two groups of countries are the most important causes of differential social and economic levels. An essential prerequisite to a country's scientific and technological progress is early recognition of the necessity of a good educational system.

The responses presented in Tables 1 and 2 may also be compared with data from other studies such as Eurobarometer by administrated European Union and Science and Engineering Indicators by administrated National Science Foundation. The Eurobarometer conducted with in the 32 countries, 25 member states of the European Union and the candidate countries including Turkey and the members of the European Free Trade Association. The Eurobarometer data are derived from a total of 32,897 comprising age 15 and 50+, face to face interviews, based upon specific questions (European Commission, 2005). The Science and Engineering Indicators conducted on American people from elementary level to older all age level. Indicators are quantitative representations that might reasonably be thought to provide summarizing information bearing on the scope, quality and vitality of the science and engineering enterprise.

As earlier mentioned above many of the statements on ROSE survey are copies of questions used in large scale public surveys like the Eurobarometer and similar surveys in other parts of the world. Thus, a few of the statements in the ROSE study are similar to Eurobarometer and Science and Engineering Indicators. Although direct comparison of the findings from the three sources is not straightforward because of differences in sampling methodology and of the way in which the findings are presented.

Eurobarometer survey shows that most Turkish (76%) are optimistic that scientific and technological progress will help to cure illnesses such as AIDS and cancer and that science and technology will make our lives healthier, easier and more comfortable (75%). Sixty-six percent agree that, thanks to science and technology there will be more opportunities for future generations and, sixty-two percent believe that science and technology can sort out any problem and sixty-three percent also agree that the application of science and new technologies will make peoples' work more interesting. Only a small majority, 58% believe that the benefits of science are greater than any harmful effects it may have and 51% of the respondents agree that science and technology will help eliminate poverty and hunger around the world. In addition, forty-three percent agree that the benefits of science are greater than the harmful effects it may have.

This percentage can be compared with the agreement indices and median positions identified in Tables 1 and 2 in response to statements 2-8 are respectively. As seen Table 1 and 2, these results are similar to ROSE results for Turkish sample.

The National Science Foundation in the United States released Science and Engineering Indicators report in 2004 these Jenkins (2006) pointed out that generally supportive attitude towards science and technology reported in the ROSE and Eurobarometer surveys is also evident in the data collected by NSF although, in general, such support is stronger than Europe. Jenkins indicated based on these reports that more Americans (72%) than Europeans (52%) agreed in 2001 that the benefits of scientific research outweighed any harmful results. But, in this study, this result was not supported by the very similar statement. We find out in this study for this sample (See Table 1 and 2) more Turkish students (43%), if we accept to Turkish sample as a European representative, than American students (23%) agree that the benefits of science are greater than the harmful effects it could have.

As earlier paper; written by Jenkins (2006) drew upon the findings of the ROSE to report the English students' opinion about science and technology. Jenkins' study results are similar to our results. He found out a large degree of agreement for statement 1, 2, 3, 4 and 16, English students' opinion about science and technology is closer to only American students except of Turkish students for statements 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 13, 16. For three samples, students' opinion percentage of agree median is similar for statements 2, 5, 6, 10, 11, 14, 15 (See Table 1). These results show that culture affects opinion about science and technology. English and American culture declared as the western culture in educational literature and there is a strong relation in historical, economic, social, and culture. As Jenkins (2006) determined in his study that the word science has different connotations in different countries and in some cases the academic disciplines are known by a different name from the school subject and science itself now embraces many disciplines from astrophysics to molecular biology and technology is also readily associated in popular usage with computers and mobile phones but not so readily with gas coolers, electric irons or simple tools. As a result of this approach, students' opinions are affected by their experience of the school versions and their family background and environment, their outdoor school experiences about science and technology and those opinions differ to varying degree.

In this study, as it can be seen in Table 4, sixteen statements existed in the test were assembled into groups in 3 factors for Turkish sample and 6 factors for American sample. Despite the similarities between the educational systems of both countries, the reason for this difference can be explained by the differences in cultural, historical, economical and, social life affecting students' view of science and technology. America is a multicultural nation and American educational system has a structure that takes multiculturalism into consideration. The emphasis on multiculturalism in educational programs and course books is noticeable. Schools serve those students from different cultures. Each of those students reflects their own backgrounds on educational system. When compared with Turkish educational system, American educational system, despite the similarities in content arrangements of programs, has some differences between the application of programs, organization of the class and school structures. From the aspects of the number of students in classes and schools and the opportunities of that the schools have, American educational system has more advantages. Today, Turkish educational system still deals with such problems such as centralist management system, anxiety for exams, the number of the students per a class or a school, and lack of teacher. In this context, on scientific and technological issues, rather than experiencing activities from the authentic resources, the students are trained in exam success focused educational system which is classical, teacher centered and based on course books.

Many scientists and scientific studies are American originated. Because of that, American students have more positive attitudes towards science, scientific method and scientists than Turkish students. This may be a factor that strengthens the feeling of belonging among American students towards scientific method and scientists. Despite some developments in scientific studies in recent years, Turkey is still far away from developed countries. For the fact that scientific studies arise from developed countries such as the United States, Turkish students think that scientific studies mostly benefit developed countries and contribute to their development.

Furthermore, as many studies from literature have revealed, a number of factors other than schools such as television programs, museums, and science centers affect students' views, attitudes, interests and images about science and technology. Television programs that are broadcasted in the United States and Turkey, the structural differences of museums and science centers make differences in the perceptions of students within these dimensions. National science centers such as NASA in the United States has been working in cooperation

with universities, schools and students for a long time. These institutions prepare educational materials for teachers and students and organize seminars and tours. On the other hand, these types of activities are new for Turkey.

The factors defined above and others that cannot be defined such as level of income, family structure, and educational level of the parents affect student's opinions about science and technology. As a result of the factor analysis that has been carried out, these differences caused the factor loading to be different.

In spite of some limitations such as sample size in both countries, methodological issues including general limitations of any questionnaire based study and using Likert-type scale for scoring responses (e.g. Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1996; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000; Ray, 1980; Robson, 2002; Weng, 2004) and limited literature about comparative Turkish and American culture on this study scope, this study indicates that there is a relationship between culture and science and technology opinion. This result is similar with Jenkins' (2006) and Aikenhead & Otjusi's (2000) studies.

5. Implications

Implications for universal science and technology curricula

In contrast to comparative assessment studies such as the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), The Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS); in the ROSE study students' attitudes and interests are compared, and experiences from the respective countries are taken into consideration. Information gathered from the students is used to orientate subjects better to student attitudes, needs, and interests. It is assumed that the lack of importance given to the affective domain is one of the fundamental problems for science curricula. Shulman and Tamir (1973) argued that the affective outcomes of science instruction are at least as important as their cognitive counterparts. In this context, this research offers an important perspective on the pupils' in Turkey and the United States perspective of school science education and their attitudes, reactions to their experience towards science.

Curriculum designers are faced with a real challenge if students say that they do not wish to learn about key foundational content. According to Howes (2002), science education reforms basically ignore the very people they are intended to benefit. How does curriculum design thinking intersect with the learning of science content? How should curriculum designers respond when the epistemic structure of the science teaching as a discipline and students' views and attitudes are in conflict? We do not have 'the definitive solution' but adapting the curriculum by adding topics that reflect students' attitudes, beliefs, and interests could be a very effective means of solving some of the current problems of school science education.

Should students have a say in their science course content? Should students be allowed to choose school science topics themselves? Armstrong's (1973) recommendation that students should be allowed to choose learning topics in school science. In this context, we agree with him. Also, we clearly need to make the curriculum as relevant and as motivating to the students as possible. According to Armstrong, the interest shown by students in different subject matter should count in the pedagogical thinking of those planning curricula in schools. Teachers should notice carefully students' beliefs, attitudes, choices, and preferences in setting goals, content and learning methods. Science educators should look for a permanent path of interaction to discover which topics their students want to study in addition to the formal curriculum. Perhaps the most powerful message to emerge from this study is the need

to concentrate on ways to develop students' affective response so they find personal satisfaction in doing science and therefore want to continue with it. We know based on science education literature that a negative attitude toward science leads to lack of interest, and when science subjects can be selected to avoiding the course. Furthermore, a positive attitude to science leads to a positive commitment to science that influences lifelong interest and learning in science, also for the scientific literacy of future generations.

This article briefly locates the American and Turkish science and technology curricula in this context of school science and technology education. It reports analyses of students' attitudes towards school science in Turkey and the United States. These explore curriculum development and implementation, strengths, and weaknesses of the science curriculum in both countries, and missed and realized opportunities. This leads to a conclusion that describes alternative future school science and technology curricula design.

As explained SAS-study Science and Scientists (Sjøberg, 2000) Report, the profile of the attitudes, reactions, experiences and interests does, however, vary strongly between countries. This fact should call for caution when it comes to "importing" foreign curricula and scepticism against the pressure to "harmonise" science curricula to become similar across the globe. Although science per se may be universal (A debate that is not pursued in this article context.), school science curricula for students should reflect need and priorities in each country. Data obtained from such projects like this may provide a basis for deliberations about curricular priorities. Consequently, curriculum designers, policy makers and academicians should be encouraged to determine the learners' interests and to relate these interests to subject matter to provide a base for new knowledge and skills. The interest learners show in terms of key ideas should contribute to the pedagogical thinking of those who plan curricula for the learners.

Implications for research in universal school science and technology education

In light of the results of this study, we suggest that although the ROSE instrument is not focused school science and technology subjects, this instrument will provide information about some elements related to science education such as experiences, interests, attitudes, reasons of career choosing. Today, these elements are part of science and technology education research agenda. Therefore, ROSE instrument and ROSE study results are attracted attention by science education researchers. We believe that our study will be used by researchers studying and focusing on international science education. Furthermore, we recommend carrying out the ROSE instrument on a larger sample, more countries and varied designs will help to define an optimal model or framework for universal science and technology education for age 11-13 years.

This study showed us that; comparing one nation's content arrangement with another country makes no similarity among learning results. For that reason, taking only the topics, principles and visions of a successful country in the studies of program development in the field of science and technology and transferring it, is not sufficient in taking a country as a sample. Every country has its own structure. The educational models and taken samples should overlap the structure and opportunities of the country or should be reorganized by considering the realities of the country. Because of that, in international comparison studies, an evaluation should be carried out considering students' socio-economical levels, out-of-school activities, real life experiences of science and technology, and school and class activities.

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http://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/198/176

Received: 04.05.2017
Received in revised form: 10.06.2017
Accepted: 16.07.2017

AN ANALYTIC LOOK AT A LANGUAGE COURSE DESIGN MODEL

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AN ANALYTIC LOOK AT A LANGUAGE COURSE DESIGN MODEL

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Abstract

This study aims to qualitatively examine and elaborate on the characteristics of the course design model devised by Graves (2000). Drawing upon the traditional components and principals of instructional design, Graves' course design model is innovative or different in that it has been more specially developed for language course design purposes and thus is believed to be more suited to the nature of language courses with its consideration of the main elements or characteristics of language teaching and learning processes. This descriptive study centers upon the seven main examination criteria, which are in fact the main procedures as suggested by Graves (2000). These are a) defining context, b) conceptualizing content, c) organizing the course, d) formulating goals and objectives, e) assessing needs, f) developing materials and finally g) designing an assessment plan. In this essence, each criterion was first introduced and explained in detail before the researchers extend their critical outlook into the functionality and practical use of the relevant steps and strategies recommended by Graves (2000). This critical analysis and review on the Graves' course design model revealed that the model employs the traditional components of the ADDIE generic and lends itself well also to be used in the other disciplines other than foreign languages. The final part of this report will provide suggestions as regards the potential application of the model specifically in English language curriculum development and more broadly in the curriculum and course development procedures pertaining to other discipline areas.

Keywords: course design model, English language teaching, instructional

1. Introduction

Instructional design has been defined as models or plans that can be used to shape the curriculum, organize instructional materials and guide instructional processes in classroom. For Branch (2009, p. 8) "instructional design is an iterative process of planning performance objectives, selecting instructional strategies, choosing media and selecting or creating materials and lastly evaluation." According to Chapman and Cantrell (2006) "redesigning a course is a creative process that is based on improving learning, which includes assessing overall curriculum needs, analyzing learners background knowledge and instructional needs, determining course goals, determining course objectives and the sequence in which to address them, developing and implementing instructional content, teaching strategies and assessment, conducting formative and summative course evaluations."

In fact, the terms curriculum design, curriculum development, and instructional systems design are often used interchangeably with the instructional design. More specifically, it can

be used in the meaning of course design. Whether it is for a one specific course or a full program of study, there are general or traditional components of an instructional design process. These traditional components have been collected under the acronym ADDIE where A stands for analysis, D for design, the second D for development, I for implementation and lastly E is for evaluation. Thus, it would be expected that the instructional design models are based on such main components to a certain degree (Morrison, Ross, & Kemp, 2004). Though there is a considerable number of instructional design models that could be utilized more generally and frequently with no respect to the discipline area or course (e.g., Dick & Carey, 1990; Gagne, 1985, Kemp, 1977, Posner & Rudnisky, 1997; Smith & Ragan, 2005), Graves' instructional design model has been entitled as a language course design model and gained popularity in the language curriculum and course development procedures.

2. Method

This study aims to conduct a critical review and evaluation of the course design model developed by Graves (2000). In other words, the study is a qualitative critical review and synthesis study. This kind of a review includes the description and uses of the specified course design model; but, its main aim is to perform "analysis and conceptual innovation" (Grant & Booth, 2009, p. 93). Thus, the researchers first collected data and documents about the course design model and more specifically on its uses, relevant components and developmental steps and stages. Following this phase, they derived examination criteria or themes based upon the main principles and procedures of the instructional design and these examination criteria were than narrowed down into the procedures and steps suggested by Graves (2000) because her instructional design procedures revealed strong parallelism to the already established procedures of the instructional design or simply the ADDIE generic model. These seven examination criteria were a) defining context, b) conceptualizing content, c) organizing the course, d) formulating goals and objectives, e) assessing needs, f) developing materials and lastly g) designing an assessment plan. The researchers then evaluated the model in respect to its characteristics, applications and conformity with the traditional insights about the instructional design process. The following presents the analyses and discussion pertaining to the components of the Graves' model in line with the examination criteria mentioned.

3. Results and Discussion

In her book "Designing Language Courses", Graves (2000) talks about her model of course design which she calls a framework. She contends that there are agreed-on components of course design, and she as well employed most of these components mentioned in the traditional and more recent models. These well-known components include objectives, content, materials, method and evaluation. Her course design mostly includes the basic components of curriculum development, which is something expected; but, the striking characteristic of the model she devised is its non-linear, flow chart-like form and the focus on the processes experienced in the course design. Given her course design framework (Figure 1), it is seen that processes have been described as verbs catch one's attention.

Figure 1. *Graves model of course design (2000, p. 3)*

It would be meaningful to assert that in Graves' model of course design, we realize that her model is credited with two main aspects. First, there is neither hierarchy nor sequence among the processes performed in the model. That is, you can begin the course design at any point you like as soon as it feels logical to you, which in deed relates to your own beliefs and understandings and also the context of the course you will design. In this regard, Graves (2000) places these two aspects, articulating beliefs and defining context at the very bottom of her framework as they will lead and provide the basis for all other processes in the model. The second aspect is that the framework portrays a systems approach to course design. What Graves (2000) means with this refers to the interrelatedness of the components (i.e. processes) in the model. In this sense, each process will influence and be influenced by the other processes in the model as any system works in this way. Accordingly, any change in one part of the system will influence the others. Therefore, where you start in the model, you need to consider other components and accordingly act on them.

Grave's (2000) utilizes verbs to describe the processes in the course design framework, which she explains with the idea of emphasizing the course design as a thinking process through which language teachers or course designers need to make reasoned decisions (based on reasoning and thinking) about each process of the course design, which will help them transfer their knowledge on teaching and learning languages into a coherent course plan. In fact, such a terminology fits into the thinking of course design as a work in progress. Graves (2000) criticizes following a logical and rational route during course design and asserts that thinking course design from a systematic point of view and work on one component as you work with the another (i.e. due to the interrelatedness of the components) makes the design work much more feasible and manageable. The model follows no designated route and one can move to the other components of the model without completing another one (or earlier one), work on more than one component at the same time and move between the components. Hence, Graves' (2000) course design model has a really non-rational shape with the components seem like floating and not staying motionless. Thus, it could be assumed that this non-linear form fits into the belief that there is a non-linear and organic way of learning (Larsen-Freeman, 1997). That is, when following a step-by-step model, language curriculum developers or practitioners may hold the bad feeling that they do something wrong if they are unable to follow the route already designated. This designated route may be sometimes inapplicable to their own situations and contexts. That is, that is why Graves (2000) recommends course design as a work in progress which is dependent on the context and experiences. As is the case with the Graves' course design model, those involved in the design procedures can change their routes and act on different components of the model as

needed, which in turn makes your work a never-ending one. The following presents and discusses these components of the model.

The component entitled as defining context and articulating beliefs is one of the foundations for the other stages and it refers to a thorough understanding of your students, setting and resources. The understanding of the context will provide you with an understanding of your resources and challenges that will influence and guide your decisions, which, could be assumed to be the cornerstone of the course design process. The by-component of the model, articulating beliefs about language, social context and learning/teaching is very important since our beliefs always lead us in our following decisions.

Content and sequencing component in most curriculum design models matches two parts of the Graves (2000) model, conceptualizing content and organizing the course. In this regard, conceptualizing content stands for deciding the most important content for the students to learn. It is a conceptual process in which course designers or teachers think about what they want and feel their students learn considering the characteristics of the students, their needs and purpose of the course to be designed. Furthermore, the designers decide on what to include, exclude and stress in relation to the course content in this component. In addition, a kind of syllabus (in the form of a mind-map, grid or a flowchart as Graves (2000) suggested) is prepared in this step to delineate the real content of the course. Graves' (2000) recommends some categories for conceptualizing content. These categories are a) language, b) learning and c) the learner and social context, and these are based on a review of literature on language teaching and learning. She further asserts that these categories are not fixed with certain boundaries, and no language course is explicitly based on all of these focus areas (categories). Major questions Graves (2000) provided in the book for designers to ask when conceptualizing the content, and these questions when combined with the three categories a language course could be derived from and built upon make a very good and firm foundation for one to organize the course content they want to teach.

Organizing the course refers to the actual design of the course syllabus and calendar and this component build on and complements the conceptualizing content process in the course design model. With the conceptualization of content, you have an idea or a plan in your mind, but it is with the organizing the course component that you organize it in a developed sense first of all by making your decisions about the organizing principles that will pull together the content you have basically conceptualized. It will be a good idea having two complimentary components to reach one product, in this case, the course syllabus is a good idea as it gives the course designer (teacher) some time to organize his or her thoughts on content selection. Having an idea about what focus the course to be designed will have in terms of language, learning and learner and the social context, the teachers are somehow performing a brainstorming activity which in turn enhance their reasoning for content selection. Therefore, before moving directly into the actual content determination and organization, they are having some time or stimuli which will solidify the direction of their course. Generating a conceptualization, the course to be designed (e.g. conceptualization of such a course with a topic, speaking skills and learning strategies or some other combination), teachers (course designers) supported by the goals and objectives, contextual features and their own beliefs, will be at a safer and better place to organize their course. Graves (2000) provides some details and insights with the content determination and organization in her book for the course designer. Her insights are invaluable as they are based on theoretical and research-based views.

Formulating goals and objectives gives you a direction in that you know about where you want your students to come out. Graves recommends several ways and models, such as KASA (knowledge-awareness-skills-attitude) framework, Stern's (1992) framework of cognitive, proficiency, affective and transfer goals and Genesee and Upshur's (1996) framework for the formulation of goals. For formulating objectives, again she comes up with variety of choices such as Brown's (1995) performance objectives and Saphier and Gower's (1987) framework. What Graves (2000) has done with the process of formulating goals and objectives is just recommendations about the ways to organize ideas on the goals and objectives of the course. It appears that Graves (2000) believe in the power of having goals and objectives for the course; but, she is not that strict about the ways of formulating these, and thus she offers a bulk of alternatives, which makes it manageable and flexible for the course designer, and this very much fits into the basic philosophy behind her framework, flexibility.

Assessing needs is a very important component of her framework in that the course designer makes further decisions in line with the interpretations she or he has generated based on the information gathered on the present (learners' level of language, their interests and preferences etc.) and future conditions (learners' expectations, language modalities they will use, types of communicative skills they will need etc.). Graves (2000) provides a needs assessment framework (cyclical in nature) with the set of decisions and actions identified, which is teacher-friendly to read and understand. Moreover, the needs assessment framework in the cyclical form is also consistent with the overall understanding of her course design model.

Developing materials is another planning process which includes decisions on the materials, techniques and activities to be employed. Graves (2000) uses materials development not only in the sense of creating, adapting and using materials but also in the sense of creating activities (based on repertoire of core techniques) for students to perform, and she places the developing material component adjacent to the determination of unit content. At this point, having only one terminology may have some teachers or designers feel complicated since when we say materials, the first thing that pops into one's mind is the actual materials they use in teaching such as textbooks, worksheets, videos, pictures and so on. Locating the developing materials process of course design next to the determining unit content makes sense because they go hand in hand especially in language teaching because it is sometimes difficult to think about units without first considering the instructional activities and materials (Posner & Rudnisky, 1997). Though she attempted to show a connection between content organization and materials selection, she used no more elaboration or guidelines on that point. It would be more helpful and interesting if she could have more touched upon creating and starting with the materials for content selection organization purposes. Although Graves (2000) provides a good synthesis of ideas to be considered when designing activities, there is a need for such a synthesis for the design of course materials. Though she provides a section on adapting a textbook on her book which will be really helpful for those who start curriculum design based upon an available textbook, this limitation to the use of textbooks leaves those teachers that want to use a novel or non-textbook dependent approach to unit organization with a feeling of vacuum and non-satisfaction.

Given the designing an assessment plan component of the model, Graves (2000) point out three interrelated roles of assessment in the course design which are assessing needs, assessing student's learning and evaluating the course. However, the focus of this component is student assessment and course evaluation. Graves (2000) distinguishes between student assessment and course evaluation. However, in looking at this section of her book, it appears

that Graves' (2000) model is lacking on the assessment process of the course design in that she suggests no rationale or guidelines that will help the designers to connect in to other components of the model. That is, how this component relates to or need to relate to the objectives set or to the teaching-learning process has not been emphasized; the bonds between this component and the others could have been made stronger with some guidelines or criteria for the teacher to consider when designing the assessment plan of the courses they want to develop. Though she makes it clear at the very beginning of her book that this model centers on planning course cycle of the whole course development stage, field testing or implementation component could have been added to the model. She mentioned that course design is a work in progress and you may change it as you put into real practice, but, she has no specific reference to the implementation of the unit or course you design before the actual use.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, it is seen that this model could be applied very well to the English language teaching area since the model itself has already been credited as a language course design model, and Graves (2000) makes a good connection between the use of the model in line with the language teaching principles and insights and the views of the professional community. In this sense, what Graves (2000) tries to put forth it is consistent with the language-teaching literature, and her suggestions on the use of the course design model blends theory and skills of language teaching and language course design. The model she devised is also suited to teachers' practical use because it is feasible, easy to understand and manage. Moreover, Graves' (2000) model is not the one that puts frames for teachers; it is a flexible one. Though some field-dependent minded teachers or course designers may feel awkward with this type of a flexible model, it could fit into the soul of language teaching and learning which is in fact unpredictable and non-linear. Furthermore, in the education systems where the teachers are often obliged to teach and strictly follow the pre-designed curricula, that is, simply being the instruments of pre-designed curricula (Campos, 2005, p. 10) rather than being active participants in education management and policy issues, Thus, based upon such conditions and exclusion of the teachers from the active roles related to education and students' learning, some teachers may appear to be reluctant to take active roles in the curriculum or even in materials development practices or they may start to treat the pre-designed curricula as something fully directive rather than simply a guiding or helping document. Hence, after a while, teachers start to show no creativity so as to simply talk about the topic as directed by the curricula or sometimes to teach to the test only. However, the researchers of this report believe in the creative and artistic power of the teachers in designing their own courses.

In respect to the debate on teaching as art or science, Olivia and Gordon (2012) agree that teaching could be placed somewhere between the two poles. Based on this view, teachers should be creative and at the same time be educated in the issues related to the science of teaching. Therefore, it is recommended that teachers should take active roles and responsibility of designing the courses that they are going to teach and thus being creative and innovative. However, they should also learn and employ the technical components and principals of the instructional design process. In this artistic, creative and somehow technical course designing work, teachers are advised to utilize the Graves' course design model. Even though they may strongly need to follow the curriculum designated previously for them, every course could be improved and developed better to provide better outcomes for the sake of the learners. Thus, teachers could use Graves' course model partly, which means that depending on their needs in the classrooms, they may only focus on the components they need. For instance, if they feel that the language course lacks enough and necessary materials to present a specific content, they may only act on the materials development component.

Likewise, when they feel some problems related to the assessment procedures of the course they teach, they may only utilize the necessary procedures in respect to the assessment component of the model. Furthermore, they may even focus on one small part of one specific component in line with their needs. Therefore, teachers are recommended to utilize the model to supplement their courses as needed.

Though the model is basically famous as a language course design model, it could be effectively employed in other subject areas and target populations for the model possess all the basic components discussed in the curriculum development literature. As Graves (2000) has attempted to link it to the language teaching courses, one can easily connect it to other subject areas. Though the use of the model with technical courses for which the learning of technical matters is considered having a step-by-step, linear and organic nature bears some concerns, the model may be utilized in social studies and adult education especially when a flexible system of course design is needed.

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Çetinkıl, H., Katırcıoğlu, H., & Yalçın, Y. (2017). The impact of biology teaching based upon multiple intelligence theory on academic achievement: A meta-analysis study. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching (IOJET)*, *4*(4), 355-367. http://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/183/177

Received: 09.03.2017
Received in revised form: 11.08.2017
Accepted: 27.09.2017

THE IMPACT OF BIOLOGY TEACHING BASED UPON MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCE THEORY ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT: A META-ANALYSIS STUDY

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Abstract

The purpose of this research is to synthesize the results obtained from experimental studies on the academic achievement of students based on the multiple intelligence theory in biology and to reveal the effect of different characteristics in the studies by meta-analysis method. In this study, the magnitude of the impact of 14 studies on the academic achievement of students of biology education based on multiple intelligence theory was analyzed. As a result of the meta-analysis, it was determined that teaching based on multiple intelligence theory affects academic achievement in a positive direction compared to the traditional teaching method and the effect size value was 1.308. This value is quite high compared by Cohen's scale. In the meta-analysis study duration of application, sample size, publication type variables were analyzed. It is seen that the highest effect values are in the graduate thesis (d_{g-t}=1,549), 5-8 weeks ($d_{5\text{-}8\ weeks}$=2,007) and medium sample sizes (d_{medium}=1,427) $(51<n\leq75)$ according to the determined criteria.

Keywords: Multiple Intelligence Theory, Biology Teaching, Meta-Analysis, Academic Achievement

1.Introductıon

Multiple intelligence theory suggests that intelligence does not consist of a single dimension. Instead, it asserts that individuals possess various intellects on different levels. Thus, this enables educators to reveal the learning styles, interests, tendencies and skills of the individuals and prepare programs that emphasize the individual differences amongst the students and fortify these varieties (Vural, 2004).

According to Howard Gardner, human beings have nine different kinds of intelligence that reflect different ways of interacting with the world. Each person has a unique combination, or profile. Although we each have all eight intelligences, no two individuals have them in the same exact configuration. Dr. Howard Gardner, a psychologist and professor of neuroscience from Harvard University, developed the theory of Multiple Intelligences (MI) in 1983.

Gardner criticizes the traditional understanding of intelligence that advocates the belief that human intelligence can be measured objectively, and thus advances to the point that intelligence encompasses a multitude of capabilities that can not be explained by a single factor. Therefore, Gardner has called multiple intelligence theory and intelligence a broader

perspective on intelligence, and the individual talents, abilities and potentials of individuals in various ways (Saban, 2009).

Contrary to the traditional methods used nowadays, multiple intelligence theory increases the method richness by enabling the whole class to benefit from the education, by considering the multiple intelligence fields of the students (Kurt, Gümüş, & Temelli, 2013). Thus, this theory has gained quite a lot of importance in biology teaching.

With the multiple intelligence theory, the number of researches that analyze the academic achievements of the students have increased and it has also enabled the researches to reveal different conclusions on this matter. To make scientific progress, conclusions of different and independent researches that are realized on different or the same subject area have to be evaluated in a general or thorough manner.

In our country, there are researches in the literature that are realized independently on different occasions, which research the effects of the multiple intelligence theory based education on the academic achievements of the students. However, we are yet to see a study that brings together the conclusions of these researches as digital data and prove the effects of the multiple intelligence theory based biology education on the academic achievements of the students.

In the research, experimental research studies that prove the effects of the multiple intelligence theory based education on the academic achievement of the students are brought together and combined with the meta-analysis method. The primary ground of the research is to gather the findings obtained from individual researches with the meta-analysis method. Within this ground, the effects of the multiple intelligence theory on the academic achievement of the students have been revealed and the effects of the various study characteristics within the biology education with multiple intelligence theory have been designated. In this context, the primary objective of the research is to synthesize the results of the experimental studies that investigate the effects of the biology education with multiple intelligence theory on the students' academic achievements, compared to the traditional teaching practices, by using meta-analysis method. Thus, the following subject was investigated:

''Do the researches in which the multiple intelligence theory based biology education is used make any meaningful differences in the academic achievement of the students?''

- Do the researches in which the multiple intelligence theory based biology education is used make any meaningful differences in terms of the size of the influence based on the publication type?
- Do the researches in which the multiple intelligence theory based biology education is used make any meaningful differences in terms of the size of the influence based on implementation time?
- Do the researches in which the multiple intelligence theory based biology education is used make any meaningful differences in terms of the sample sizes?

2.Methods

2.1. Research Model

To discover whether the multiple intelligence theory based biology education makes any impact on the success of the students, meta-analysis method which is one of the literature surveying methods, was used in the research. Glass-meta analysis has stated that it is the statistical analysis of numerous analyses which arise from individual researches to integrate the findings (Glass, 1976). Meta analysis is the method of combining the conclusions of the

researches realized by different researches on different places and in different periods of times (Balcı, 2011). Meta analysis is the method of integrating the findings of different researches and reviewing the criticisms (Akgöz, Ercan, & Kan, 2004).

2.2. Collecting Data

The published and unpublished researches which were made between 1998 and 2016 accordance with the research problem were examined in the national databases. When these researches were investigated, 11 theses and 3 articles that are in accordance with the search criteria, were included in the research. Literature surveying process was concluded on 19 September 2016.

2.3. Inclusion Criterion

The criterions designated to determine the studies to be included in this research are as follows;

- The studies shall be experimental studies that utilize pre-test post-test control group model design,
- The studies shall also be studies that investigate the impact on the academic achievement of the students,
- The studies shall include the sample size of the experiment and control groups (n), arithmetic mean ($\bar{X}$) and standard deviation (SD) values or the data that can be used to calculate these values, which will enable the researcher to calculate the impact size,
- The studies must be realized within 1998-2016 years.

2.4. Data Coding

To compare the characteristics of the studies that are included in the research, the study characteristics must be coded. This coding system must be general that includes all researches and should also be unique to obtain the uniqueness of a study (Özdemirli, 2011).

The coding and encoder form used in this research is planned by the researcher. The created coding form consists of two parts. First part contains six questions and aims to obtain information about the characteristics of the study. In this part, information regarding the number of the study, name of the study, author or authors of the study, year of the study, sample count of the experiment and control groups were collected. The second part consists of questions that are created based on the study characteristics. In this part, study characteristics are designated as publication type, sample count and implementation period. The publication type is categorized as undergraduate thesis and doctoral thesis while the implementation period is categorized as 4 weeks or less, 5-8 weeks, 8 weeks or more. The sample size on the other hand is categorized as low ($n \leq 50$), medium ($51 < n \leq 75$) and high ($n > 75$).

To ensure the credibility of the research, it is important that the coding is realized separately by at least two researchers. The researches to be included in the meta analysis are coded by the researcher and another coder, by using a different encoding form. Encodings are calculated with the intraclass correlation analysis and the found result is 1.00. Encodings feature high credibility. The reason is that it consists of definite categories such as publication types of the categories, implementation time etc.

2.5. Data Analysis and Interpretation

The data obtained to combine the statistical data in various researches has to be converted to an impact quantity, which is a common measuring unit. Impact quantity is a standard measuring unit which is used in a research to designate the strength and direction of the relation (Öner Armağan, 2011). Today, we have statistical software such as Revman, MIX,

Metawin and Comprehensive Meta Analysis (CMA), which are developed for statistical analyses (Üstün & Eryılmaz, 2014). In this research, impact sizes and combined general impact size of each study were calculated by using Comprehensive Meta Analysis (CMA V2) program. CMA is a software that enables running many statistical analyses for realizing meta regression as well as the sub-group analysis and publication bias analysis (Üstün & Eryılmaz 2014). Thus, CMA program is opted for in this research. In this research, Hedges'd was used to calculate impact size. Besides, to calculate the average impact size in the CMA program, random effect model is chosen. In this research, .05 significance level was chosen for all statistical calculations.

Categorizations are used while interpretation impact sizes that are obtained as a result of the meta-analysis. Interpretation of the impact sizes of the researches to be included in this research was realized according to Cohen (1977). Cohen impact size values are interpreted as follows (Ergene, as cited in Cohen, 1999);

- Low if the impact size value is 0.20- 0.50,
- Average if the impact size value is 0.50- 0.80,
- And high if the impact size value is more than 0.80.

In meta analysis, before calculating the impact sizes, the statistical model to be used with the analysis (the tests which are used to measure the homogeneity of the impact sizes and population sample) is decided with Hedges and Olkin's (1985) Q statistics. There are two different models as fixed impacts and random impacts (Ayaz & Söylemez, 2015).

The most important premise of the fixed impact is the fact that there is only one real impact size for all works that are included in the meta analysis. In this sense, all differences observed on this premise arise from sampling errors (Üstün & Eryılmaz, 2014). In other words, if an impact of an initiative is the case, this doesn't interact with the study criterion and stays the same from research to research (Kınay, as cited in Akçil & Karaağaoğlu, 2012).

Random impacts model is used mostly when it is not appropriate to use fixed impact model. In random effects model, it is possible to include the both variance between the studies and the variance in the studies to the statistical analysis (Okursoy Günhan, 2009). According to this model, impact sizes may vary from research to research. It is expected that different impact sizes occur based on the features of the samples on which the studies are made (Kınay, 2012).

3.Results

3.1. Impact Size

Before obtaining the impact sizes, the model structure has to be decided as well. In other words, a heterogeneousness test shall be carried out before combining the studies. The Cohen test is implemented in the heterogeneousness test and the results are as stated in the Table 1.

Table 1. *Cohen test results for choosing between stable impact and random impact model*

Model	Impact Size and %95 Confidence Interval						Statistic and p-value		Heterogeneousness		
Model	Study numbers	Effect size	Standard error	Variance	Lower limit	Upper limit	Z-value	P-value	Q value	df(Q)	P-value
Stable Impact	14	0.840	0.067	0.004	0.709	0.971	12.597	0.000	155.782	13	0.000
Random Impact	14	1.308	0.245	0.060	0.829	1.788	5.345	0.000			

As the table shows, the Q-value and the p-value that belongs to that is 155.782 and 0.000 respectively. The hypothesis that P value is 0.000 in 0.05 significance level against the

"model is in accordance with the random impacts model" alternative hypothesis. In other words, it is discovered that the studies create different impacts thus the model of the study is designated as the random impacts model.

Table 2. *The impact values of the multiple intelligence theory obtained within the random impacts model to the academic achievement*

Study No	Study Name	Hedge's g		%95 G.A.	
		Effect Size	Standard error	Lower limit	Upper limit
1	Kurt, Gümüş & Ermurat, 2011	1.808	0.264	1.291	2.325
2	Gürbüzoğlu, 2009	0.606	0.253	0.110	1.102
3	Kurt & Temelli, 2011	1.533	0.318	0.910	2.155
4	Kurt, Gümüş & Temelli, 2013	0.015	0.115	-0.211	0.241
5	Köksal, 2005	1.766	0.330	1.120	2.412
6	Şenci Ayaz, 2006	0.447	0.282	-0.106	0.999
7	Akman, 2007	0.965	0.301	0.376	1.554
8	Etli, 2007	0.912	0.245	0.431	1.392
9	Şalap, 2007	0.797	0.308	0.193	1.402
10	Kurt, 2009	1.677	0.258	1.171	2.183
11	Korkmaz, 2010	1.592	0.315	0.975	2.209
12	Elmacı, 2010	2.532	0.483	1.585	3.478
13	Kurtcuoğlu, 2007	3.700	0.423	2.871	4.529
14	Şakir, 2013	0.566	0.262	0.052	1.079
	Total Effect Size	**1.308**	**0.245**	**0.829**	**1.788**

As we can see in the Table 2, the impact size values based on the education with multiple intelligence theory could be interpreted according to Cohen's classification; 2 of the 14 studies included in the meta analysis had low impact size (14.28%), 3 of them had average impact size (21.43%) and 9 of them had a high impact size (64.28%). Thus, the impact size obtained from the random impacts model for all studies is 1.308, which suggests that the impact size of the studies is high.

The diagram which demonstrates the distribution of the impact size values which are created based on the random impacts model, is given at Figure 1.

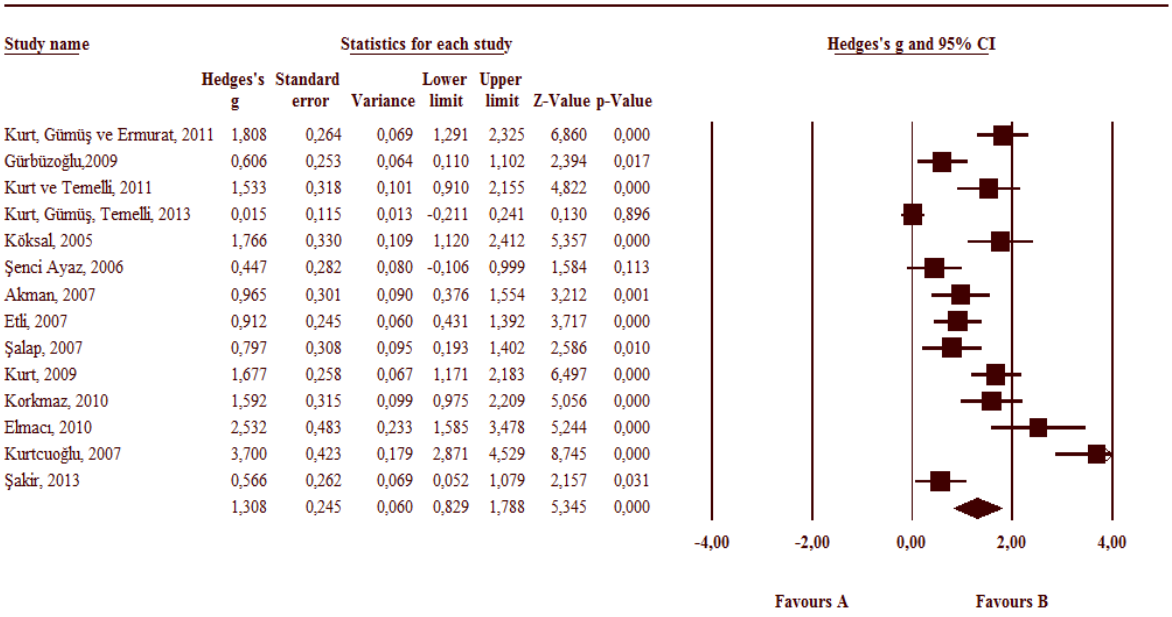

Figure 1. *Random effects of model – The graphic of forest showing the distribution of impact size values*

Looking at the Figure 1, it is possible to see that impact sizes vary between 0 and +4. We can say that impact sizes concentrate between 0-2. All studies have a positive sided impact. The general impact size of the 14 studies included in the meta analysis is designated as d=1.308 (95% confidence interval 0.829- 1.788). This impact size is quite high according to Cohen's interpretations. The students that are given education based on the multiple intelligence theory in biology field have obtained higher academic achievement compared to those who are educated with traditional teaching methods.

In the research, Rosenthal's secure N method is used, which is recommended to deal with the publication bias problem (Üstün & Eryılmaz as cited in Becker). As a result of this analysis, Rosenthal's secure N is designated as 873. This value is the study number that possesses zero impact level to reduce 1.308 general impact size. In other words, 873 studies with zero impact level are needed to reduce the 1.308 general impact size which is found as the result of the meta analysis. This result indicates that the publication bias in the meta analysis of this study is very low. Also Mullen, Bryant and Muellerle (2001) have stated that meta analysis results could be resolute only if the N/(5k+10) value exceeds 1 for the future studies (Üstün & Eryılmaz, as cited in Mullen, Muellerle, & Bryant, 2014). In this study, 873/(5.14+10) value is calculated as 10,91 which shows us that the meta analysis results are resolute.

Whether there is a publication bias or not could also be interpreted with the assistance of the Funnel Plot given at Figure 2

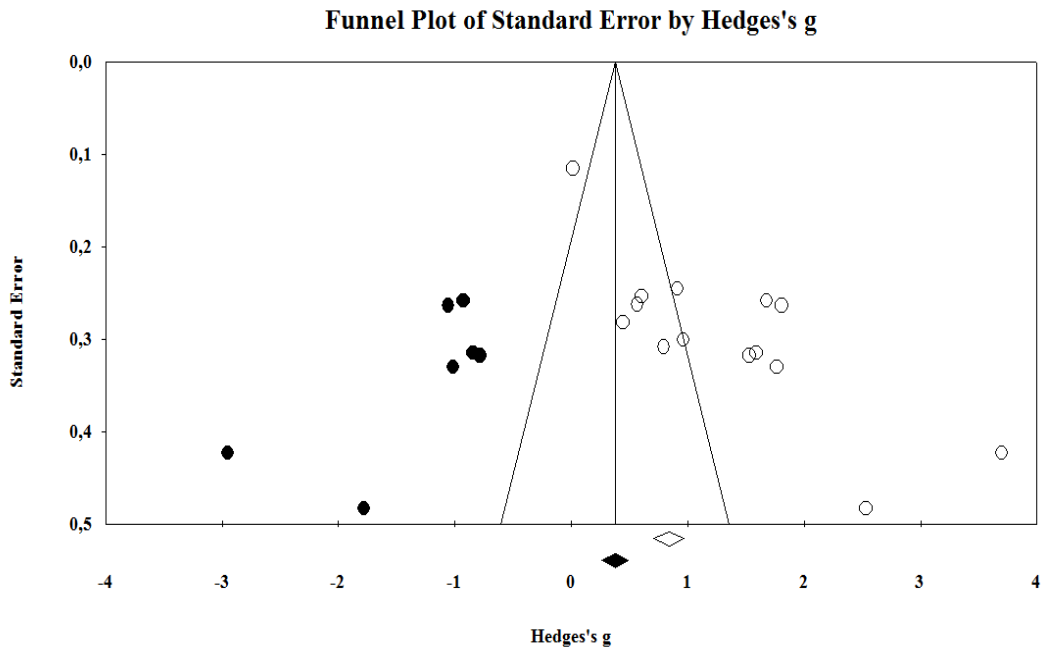

Figure 2. *Funnel Plot of the impact sizes*

If there is a publication bias in the funnel plot, the impact sizes will be distributed asymmetrically. If there is no publication bias, it will be distributed symmetrically. However, by adding seven studies to the left side of the funnel plot which is created with Duval and Tweedie's Cut and Insert method, we can see that a symmetry could be achieved. This also indicates that publication bias is low.

- Related to the Publication Types of the Studies

In terms of academic success; the findings regarding to whether the impact sizes differ based on the publication type are given in Table 3.

Table 3. *Analysis results*

Groups	Impact Size and %95 Confidence Interval					Statistic and p-value		Heterogeneousness		
	Study numbers	Effect size	Standard error	Lower limit	Upper limit	Z- value	P-value	Q-value	df	P-value
PhD thesis	2	0.586	0.182	0.230	0.943	3.220	0.001			
Article	3	1.099	0.666	-0.206	2.405	1.650	0. 099			
Post Graduate thesis	9	1.549	0.283	0.994	2.104	5.469	0.000	8.281	2	0.016
Total	14	0.880	0.149	0.587	1.172	5.892	0.000			

We determined to Average effect size for dissertation 0.586, for this article 1.099 and for high license thesis 1.549. We refused that average effect of dissertation size equal to 0.05 Effect size of dissertation is statistically significant. The p value of statistic of the argument article's effect size is equal to 0 is 0.099 and we did not refuse that by 0.05 level but we said statistical article's average effect was different 0 by 0.10 significance level. P value of the static of Post Graduate thesis's average effect size is 0.000 and that was not sense by 0.05 level. Post Graduate thesis's average effect size was statistically sense. P value that the static

of three group's effect size was same or not 0.016 and that was not sense by 0.05 level 1 mean, that was not the same of dissertation article, high license thesis's average effect size. All of the groups' effect size was positive but effect size was not same. The highest effect was in post graduate thesis ($d_{Post\ Graduate}$ =1.549) and the lowest effect was in dissertation ($d_{PhD\ thesis}$=0.586) in three groups.

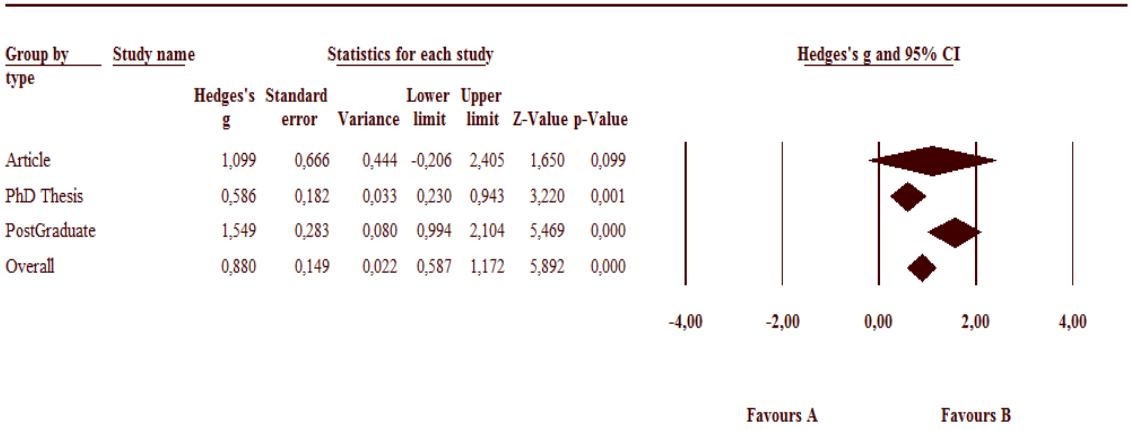

Figure 3. *Random effects model – The graphic of forest showing the distribution of the effect size values of the works according to the publication type*

Figure 3 was about effect size by broadcasting type. We determined that effect size was between that 0-2. That was not the difference that average effect size of dissertation, article and Post Graduate thesis.

-Related to the According to the duration of the application of the Studies

For academic success, Table 4 showed that effect size changed by application time or not.

Table 4. *Impact size differences according to application periods of studies under random effects model results of analysis*

Groups	Impact Size and %95 Confidence Interval					Statistic and p-value		Heterogeneousness		
	Study numbers	Effect size	Standard error	Lower limit	Upper limit	Z- value	P-value	Q-value	df	P-value
4 weeks or less	5	0.743	0.123	0.502	0.983	6.051	0.000			
5-8 weeks	5	2.007	0.332	1.355	2.658	6.038	0.000			
8 weeks or more	4	1.173	0.541	0.112	2.234	2.166	0.030	12.988	2	0.002
Total	14	0.906	0.113	0.686	1.127	8.048	0.000			

At the time of administration, the mean effect size for 4 weeks or less was 0.743, the mean effect size for 5-8 weeks was 2.007, and the mean effect size for 8 weeks or more was 1.173. The p-value of the obtained statistic for claiming that the mean effect size is equal to zero for 4 weeks or less is rejected at a significance level of 0.05, which is 0.000. In other words, the average effect size of application periods of 4 weeks or less is statistically significant. The p-value of the obtained statistic for claiming that the mean effect magnitude is equal to zero for 5-8 weeks is rejected at a level of significance of 0.05. In other words, the mean effect size of 5-8 weeks of application time is statistically significant. The p-value of the obtained statistic for claiming that the mean effect size is equal to zero for 8 weeks or more is 0.030 and the

claim is rejected at a significance level of 0.05. In other words, the mean effect size of 8-week and more application periods is statistically significant. The p-value of the statistic obtained from testing for the same effect sizes of these three groups is 0.002, which is rejected at a significance level of 0.05. That is, the mean effects of application periods of 4 weeks and less, 5-8 weeks and 8 weeks and more are not the same. The effect sizes of all working groups are positive but the effect sizes are not equal. It was determined that the greatest effect among the three groups was the duration of application ($d_{5\text{-}8\ weeks}$ = 2.007) for 5-8 weeks, and the application time ($d_{4\ weeks\ and\ less}$ = 0.743) for 4 weeks and less.

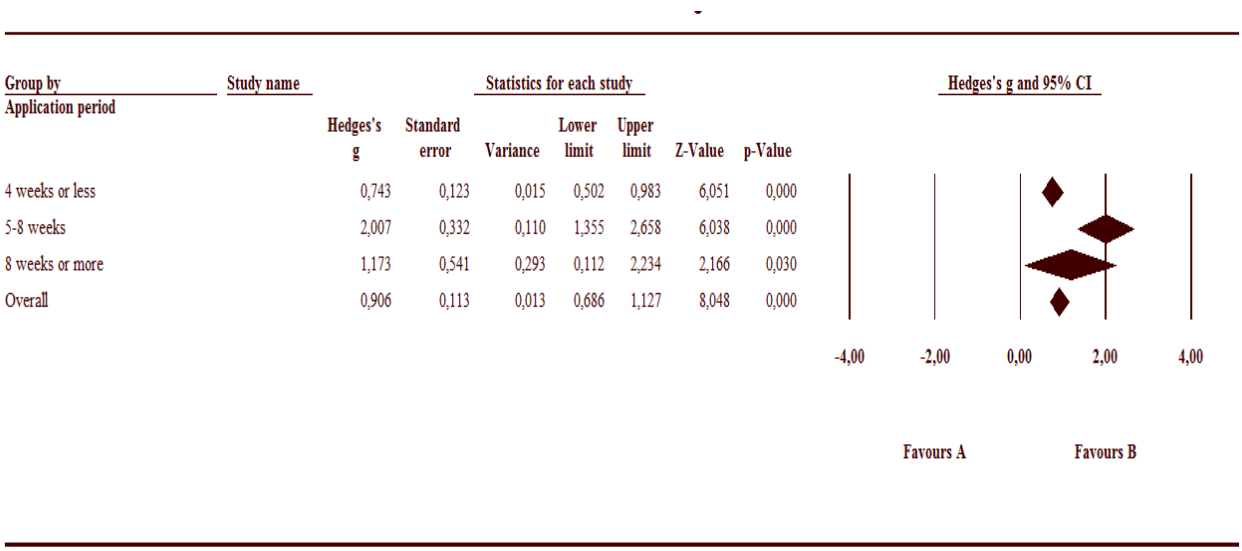

Figure 4. *Random effects model – The graphic of forest showing the distribution of impact magnitudes of the works according to application period*

In Figure 4, the effect sizes are given according to the application times of the works. The effect sizes in the three groups are generally between 0 and 2. It was found that there was no significant difference between the mean effect sizes of all application periods in the positive direction, 4 weeks and less, 5-8 weeks and 8 weeks and more application periods.

- Related to the size of Sample

In terms of academic success and whether the effect sizes differ according to the sample sizes are given in Table 5.

Table 5. *Impact size differences according to sample sizes of studies under random affine models the result of the analysis*

Groups	Impact Size and %95 Confidence Interval					Statistic and p-value		Heterogeneousness		
	Study numbers	Effect size	Standard error	Lower limit	Upper limit	Z- value	P-value	Q-value	df	P-value
Low (n≤50)	6	1.281	0.274	0.743	1.819	4.667	0.000			
Medium (51<n ≤75)	5	1.427	0.450	0.545	2.309	3.170	0.002			
High (n>75)	3	1.151	0.675	-0.172	2.474	1.706	0.088	0.133	2	0.936
Total	14	1.302	0.221	0.868	1.736	5.882	0.000			

The p-value of the obtained statistic for claiming that the mean effect size of the sample sizes at the low sample size is equal to zero is 0.000 and the claim is rejected at the significance level of 0.05. In other words, the mean effect size of sample sizes at low level is

statistically significant. The p-value of the obtained statistic for claiming that the average effect size of the sample sizes at the middle level is equal to zero is 0.002, and the claim is rejected at the significance level of 0.05. In other words, the mean effect size of sample sizes at intermediate level is statistically significant. The p-value of the obtained statistic for the assertion that the mean effect size of the sample sizes at the large level is equal to zero is 0.088 and it can be said that although the claim cannot be rejected at the significance level of 0.05, the mean effect size of the large sample sizes is statistically different from zero at the significance level of 0.10. The p-value of the statistic obtained from testing for the effect sizes of these three groups is 0.936, which is rejected at a significance level of 0.10, although the claim cannot be rejected at the level of 0.05 significance. That is, the sample sizes at the low level, the sample sizes at the middle level and the sample sizes at the large level are not the same. The effect sizes of all the study groups are in the positive direction but the effect sizes are not equal. It was determined that the largest effect among the three groups was the moderate sample size (d_{medium} = 1.427) and the smallest sample size was the large sample size (d_{high} = 1.151).

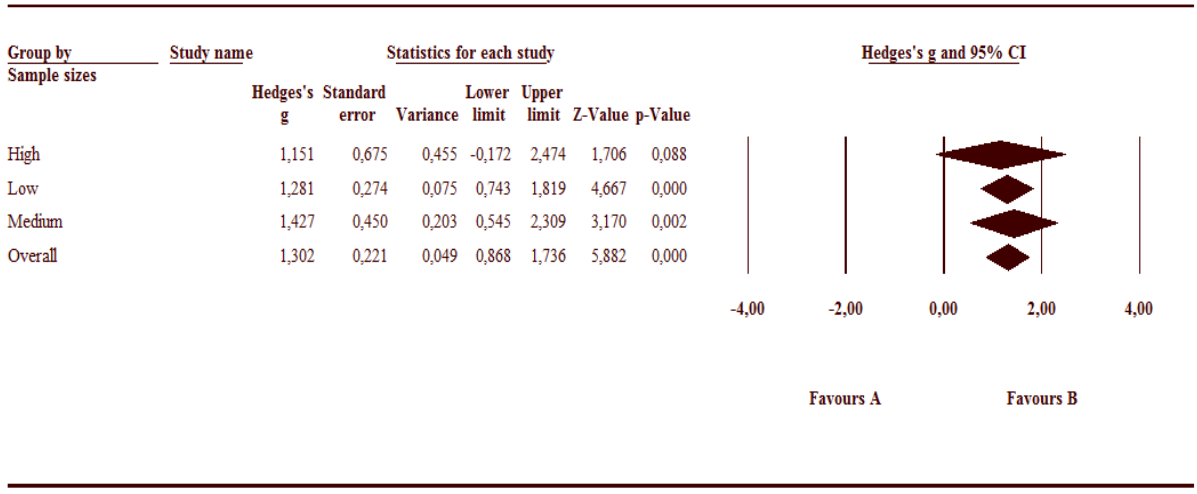

Figure 5. *Random Effects Model – The graphic of forest showing the distribution of impact size values of the runs by their sample sizes*

In Figure 5, the effect sizes are given according to the sample sizes of the studies. The effect sizes in the three groups are generally between 0 and 2. It has been found that there is no significant difference between the mean effect sizes of the sample sizes at the low, medium and large levels.

4. Discussion

Usual influence quantity of the studies that have been included to meta-analysis is calculated as d=1.308. It is a very big influence quantity considering Cohen scale. In other words, the students who have been educated according to multi-intelligence theory show more success than the students who have been educated according to traditional methods. According to the results of the studies that include the teaching of multi-intelligence theory in biology subjects, the students who have been educated according to multi-intelligence theory show more success than the students who have been educated according to traditional methods (Akman, 2007; Elmacı, 2010; Etli, 2007; Korkmaz, 2010; Köksal, 2005; Kurt, 2009; Kurtcuoğlu, 2007; Şalap, 2007; Gürbüzoğlu, 2009). Result of this meta-analysis study is very consistent comparing to the literature researches. In other words, the teaching of multi-intelligence theory in biology subjects increases the academic success of the students.

This meta-analysis includes study 3 articles, 9 post graduate theses and 2 PhD theses. Comparing the results of these three groups, the influence quantities are positive but there is no significant influence difference in between. The highest influence quantity is post graduate thesis (d_{PG}=1.549), the lowest influence quantity is doctoral thesis ($d_{PhD\ thesis}$=0.586). Using at least 5 different data in the Hedge's d used for effect size calculation gives healthy results (Rosenberg, Adams, & Gurevitch, 2000). For this reason, more experimental work is needed in this area in Turkey in order to make definite generalizations.

Meta-analysis results show that 4 week or less time period has got average, the period of 5-8 weeks and more than 8 weeks has got high influence quantity. There is not any significant difference among these groups. Considering this result, influence quantities are similar to each other. Increase in the time has got positive effects in multi-intelligence theory.

The studies that are going to be included to meta-analysis have been sorted as low ($n \leq 50$), medium ($51 < n \leq 75$) and high ($n > 75$); and analyzed. Comparing the apply group quantity, the highest influence quantity is average ($51 < n \leq 75$) in the studies that shows apply quantity (d_{medium}=1.427), the lowest influence quantity is the high($n > 75$) in the studies that shows result of (d_{high}=1.151). However, there is not any significant difference in studies regarding to apply quantity.

Below suggestions are defined according to the findings of the research for the researchers:

Research studies confirm that Multiple Intelligence Theory can be helpful in education. It has been found that biology teaching based on multiple intelligence theory has a high positive effect on the academic achievement of students according to traditional teaching methods. Biology teachers can use multiple intelligence theory for effective and more permanent learning.

- At the sample size, there was no significant difference in the magnitude of impacts on academic achievement of students in biology teaching based on multiple intelligence theory. For this reason, multiple intelligence theory can be applied in different sample sizes. However, since the sample size at the intermediate level ($51 < n \leq 75$) is more effective in this study, researchers in this area should consider this sample size when implementing it.

- According to the duration of the application of studies, there was no significant difference in the effect sizes of the multiple intelligence theory on the academic achievement of the students. For this reason, researches in this area based on multiple intelligence theory can be done during different application periods. However, since it is determined that the duration of the study is more effective between 5 and 8 weeks in this study, it can be suggested that the researches in this area should not be constructed without taking into consideration this duration of the study in the future researches.

- According to the publication type, when the effect sizes are examined, it is determined that the master thesis has a high level of influence compared to the article and doctoral thesis. However, it should be possible to increase the availability of these works converted from the thesis format to the article.

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ENDNOTES

[*]This study is derived from the thesis of post graduate that is conducted with consultancy of Assoc. Prof. Hikmet Katırcıoğlu and Assoc. Prof. Yeliz Yalçın.

Akkoyunlu, A. N., & Kilimci, A. (2017). Application of corpus to translation teaching: Practice and perceptions. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching (IOJET)*, *4*(4). 369-396. http://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/272/178

Received: 11.08.2017
Received in revised version: 14.08.2017
Accepted: 21.08.2017

APPLICATION OF CORPUS TO TRANSLATION TEACHING: PRACTICE AND PERCEPTIONS

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APPLICATION OF CORPUS TO TRANSLATION TEACHING: PRACTICE AND PERCEPTIONS*

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Abstract

Translation courses are a vital part of undergraduate English Language Teaching (ELT) programs and the importance of finding new ways to enhance student learning in this context cannot be stressed enough. It is reported that second language (L2) learners of English tend to produce incorrect or deviant collocations in their L2 written outputs, be it their academic or casual writing or translation products due to failure to recognize them as expressions to be learnt. In this regard, this study sought to implement the Data-driven Learning (DDL) approach in the ELT translation course to raise L2 learners' consciousness of verb-noun collocations and assess the effectiveness of the approach using a pre-experimental pre-test/post-test design and a survey to evaluate the effectiveness of the instruction. In the study, 16 participants (13 females and 3 males) completed a six-week program. The results obtained from the Wilcoxon signed-rank test applied to compare the mean ranks of the learners' pre-test and post-test scores indicated a significant improvement in the collocational knowledge of the targeted expressions from Pre-test to Post-test 1 ($Z = -3.519$, $p = .005$). Survey results indicated that the majority of the students found the corpus application in the translation course beneficial as a pedagogical resource with the exception of a few students, who stated that they experienced difficulties due to unfamiliar vocabulary and limited number of examples in the collocate output.

Keywords: collocation, data-driven learning, concordance, consciousness-raising, translation

1. Introduction

Huang (2001) reports that ELT learners are prone to producing incorrect or deviant expressions instead of appropriate collocations, when translating from first language (L1) into second language (L2). Many collocation errors by L2 learners are attributed to L1 influence, and hence are "interlingual (Laufer & Waldman, 2011). Similarly, according to Nesselhaulf (2005), about 50% of errors made in the context of collocation use by L2 learners exhibit L1 influence, which is related to language switches and blends. Laufer and Waldman (2011, p. 654) identify the cause as likely to be due to "confusing one of the collocation components with a semantically related word and consequently combining it with the collocate of the confused word". It is therefore possible for L1 learners to make L2 translation mistakes that are completely irrelevant with their mother tongue. All and all, although it is expected that rigorous training and new classroom methods may contribute to reducing learners' mistakes, the findings discussed by Laufer and Waldman (2011, p. 654) pertaining to the errors in collocation use of advanced L2 learners suggest that "the

acquisition of collocations lags behind many other areas of L2 acquisition, to the extent that in many cases collocation errors may appear to become fossilized".

Although studies that are based on translator training using electronic corpora are limited, researchers have drawn important conclusions, examining the effects of teaching formulaic expressions to English as a foreign language (EFL) or English as a second language (ESL) learners upon their L2 written output in the casual (Pfeiffer, 2014) and academic (Al-Hassan & Wood, 2015) sense. According to the results of these studies, associating idioms and similar collocations with their counterparts in an EFL learner's native language improves their fluency in written English, helping them to produce native-like texts (Pfeiffer, 2012). This is a quality that is most often lacking in translator candidates and its solution could apply to this domain as well.

In this respect, several studies (Chan & Liou, 2005; Koosha & Jafarpour, 2006) show that increasing learner consciousness of linguistic patterns through classroom activities based on Data-driven Learning (DDL) (Johns, 1991) adds to L2 learners' collocational competence. However, there are certain points that need to be addressed: (a) most studies lack specific details in the context of instructional design as far as classroom activities based on DDL are concerned (b) studies report that direct access to corpora as part of DDL pedagogies may be dependent on technical prowess of learners such as being able to carry out computer database queries (c) there are not many studies regarding the use of the DDL approach in a translation course, and where they do, the participants of the study are not prospective ELT teachers but translator candidates.

In order to address these problems, this study aims to enhance the prospective ELT teachers' knowledge of lexical collocations through Consciousness-raising (C-R) (Smith, 1981) activities utilizing the DDL methodology and showcase in detail the chain of decisions made in designing such a classroom practice. The study specifically focuses on verb-noun collocations since such phrases present difficulties for L2 learners, as is attested by studies using such elicitation techniques as translations and cloze tasks (Bahns & Eldaw, 1993) and corpus analysis (Laufer & Waldman, 2011; Nesselhauf, 2005).

2. Background

Although initially considered as a methodological basis rather than a domain of research, it is now widely accepted that Corpus Linguistics (CL) goes beyond this role and is regarded as a "new way of thinking about language" (Bonelli, 2000, p. 205). CL also has got its own unique approach to defining language units, in that, it has been claimed that a space between letters may not necessarily be regarded as a "delimitation of a semantic unit" (Almela & Sanchez, 2009, p. 22).

A quick review of current literature in CL reveals that collocations remain a highly popular and relevant field of study (Gries, 2013). It is reported that collocations also receive great interest in the domain of EFL and ESL teaching in the recent years as their use is claimed to enable the speaker to display higher fluency in linguistic output due to their ubiquity in language and hence promote some sort of motivation in the students (Peters, 2014). Shin and Nation (2008) claim that, in order for an EFL learner to achieve native-like fluency in the language, she has to have an equally rich repository of collocations in her mind as compared to a native speaker of the language.

Described as "a composite unit which permits the substitutability of items for at least of one of its constituent elements" (Cowie, 1981, p. 225), collocations are linguistic multi-word units that appear to follow certain formulae, hence belong under the umbrella term of formulaic expressions in corpus linguistics, and that help enhance learner vocabulary use

(Farghal & Obiedat, 1995). According to Kecskes (2007), formulaic expressions include but are not limited to fixed expressions, lexical metaphors, idioms, situation-bound utterances and last but not least, collocations. The theory of a functional formulaic continuum set forth in this work of Kecskes categorizes formulaic expressions based on the increasing gap between compositional meaning and actual situational meaning; with mere grammatical units such as "have to" or "be going to" encountered at one end of the spectrum and idioms with gestalt meanings far from what their individual words confer, such as "kick the bucket" or "spill the beans" being at the other. And perhaps it is from this perspective that the distinction between regular formulaic expressions and collocations be clearly observed, since collocations seem to find their place at the end that is closer to grammatical units in this spectrum. Wray (2005) further illustrates the distinction by stating that although all formulaic expressions are fixed either in part or as a whole, collocations show internal stability only to a lesser extent compared to others, being more "fluid" than the rest. Bahns (1993, p. 57) also defines collocations as "loosely fixed combinations" that lie somewhere between free-combinations, which consist of words that are entirely interchangeable in their context, and idioms, which do not offer anything in the way of interchangeability of word elements. This means that words in pairings of collocations are more subject to change as per speaker tendencies and preferences.

The present study specifically focuses on the verb-noun collocations. These types of collocations have been investigated in a number of studies and have been found to pose problems for L2 learners such as the use of inappropriate synonyms, incorrect L1 translations, inappropriate collocations and underuse or no use of the expected collocation (Bahns & Eldaw, 1993; Nesselhauf, 2005; Laufer & Waldman, 2011; Can, 2017). The reason why L2 learners tend to produce inappropriate collocations is attributed to the mostly transparent nature of these expressions that leads to learners' failure to recognize them worth learning. In this regard, learners need to be made aware of the fact that "there are combinations that are neither freely combinable nor largely opaque and fixed (such as idioms) but that are nevertheless arbitrary to some degree and therefore have to be learnt" (Nesselhauf, 2005, p. 252).

Thus, C-R is one of the methods proposed by researchers in order to improve learners' collocation use (Willis & Willis, 1996; Ying & Hendricks, 2004; Mahvelati & Mukundan, 2012; Nesselhauf, 2003). C-R actually refers to the principle of actively involving the learner to seek out language regularities in text or speech (Willis & Willis, 1996) and it is a method generally employed for reinforcing learner proficiency. It is defined by the same researchers as "activities which encourage [students] to think about samples of language and to draw their own conclusions about how the language works" (p. 63). The linguistic performance of students that are supported by C-R activities are usually related to grammar use, and yet, the measurement of this performance need not be limited to a singular scope. For instance, O'Brien (2015) has evaluated the grammar-use performance of 30 ELT students from UAE that have been subjected to C-R methods over error-correction and proofreading activities and achieved positive results.

Studies indicate that C-R can be promoted through pedagogical applications of corpora (Chan & Liou, 2005, Chen, 2011; Daskalovska, 2015) in the form of DDL, which Johns (1991) define as an approach to learning that perceives a language learner as "a research worker whose learning needs to be driven by access to linguistic data" (p. 2) by means of corpora and a concordance program which generates a concordance of a text or corpus, i.e. "a collection of all the contexts in which a word or phrase occurs in a particular text or *corpus* of texts" (Johns, 1994, p. 319). In DDL, in some cases, the content is derived by the course instructor and sensibly turned into exercise handouts and such, while in others the

student directly uses the concordancer as a point of reference and without much instructor interference, not unlike a dictionary (Johns, 1986). Thus, according to Lenko-Szymanska and Boulton (2015), there are two main modes for using these grand databases as educational tools in the linguistic context, referred to as direct or indirect exposure to corpora.

Direct exposure to corpora involves the removal of the teacher as a solid layer (and perhaps a strong filter) between learner and corpus content and is a method where the student directly accesses corpus and conducts searches on the concordancer via a computerized interface. This has been the actual, initially envisioned model for DDL. It is therefore regarded in the domain of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) (Cobb, 1997). Whereas direct exposure to corpora through classroom concordancing requires learners to have stronger technical skills for conducting database queries (Lenko-Szymanska, 2015), researchers have proven that indirect approaches, such as classroom activities involving paper-based concordance exercises derived from corpus are effective in increasing student success in ELT courses (Boulton, 2010).

As far as translation courses are concerned, DDL practices, such as classroom activities of concordance based on multilingual corpora have been reported to increase learner motivation in translation courses (Ulrych, 2002). However, Hu (2016) argues that in recent years, the study of translation teaching has lagged behind studies on translation theory, which, in turn, lagged behind studies on translation practice. Still, corpus tools have found their way into translation teaching, too. The initial suggested method of employing corpora in translation courses has been to use bilingual, parallel corpora (Zanettin, 1998). Similarly, categorizing the corpora available for use by translators as (a) monolingual (single and comparable) corpora, (b) parallel corpora and (c) bilingual / multilingual corpora, Kenny (2014) views corpora as valuable tools in translation studies. Bowker (2001), on the other hand, suggests a different use of corpora in translator training. Stating that "translation evaluation is highly problematic because of its subjective nature" (p. 347), she recommends the use of corpora for objective evaluation of student translation performance, as it "provid[es] reference for a teacher to verify their intuition about linguistic expression and offer[s] convincing evidence regarding the assessment of the quality of translated texts".

As laid out by Malmkjær (2004), besides acting as "translator aid", corpora may have an important role to play in translator training by being a source of learning activities and of knowledge about the language. Hu (2016) therefore states that, the use of corpus tools in translator training (beyond "student evaluation") involves rigorous work including the designing of a syllabus, relevant classroom activities, teaching and assessment methodologies, and exercises. It is also important to design the course in such a way that students are encouraged to engage in the corpus-based activities as much as possible. Hence, Hu (2016) advises that students that make use of data-driven, corpus-based approaches in a translation training need to have their classroom roles shifted from passive to active. This requires a complete overhaul of the existing pedagogies, textbooks, and syllabi for a given course. New exercises need to be made, and students should also be provided "with sufficient time for investigating specific translation topics, such as a corpus-based study of the English translations of culture-loaded words" (p. 184). In conjunction with this point of view, Hu suggests that, as far as translator training is concerned, using a monolingual corpus for gaining insight on the use of certain words or syntactic structures in the target language may be beneficial. The translator trainee may consult the corpus concordancer for the translation of a certain lexicon, and more effectively search for the meaning and usage of a particular word or phrase.

Most of the works reviewed thus far focus either on translation studies or on its sub-

branch of translator training. Although there exist numerous studies in the domain of CL that deal with the use of corpora (a) in translation studies (b) in the education of translator trainees, it can be said that "the relevance of corpus-based translation activities in second language learning settings has been explored to a lesser extent" (Zanettin, 2009, p. 209), which suggests that a gap exists in the literature as far as corpus-based data-driven approaches in translation courses targeting EFL students are concerned. This claim may be even more accurate when the L2 learners in question assume the particular role of prospective English language teachers. It is this existing research gap that the present study aims to contribute to.

3. The Study

3.1 Aim

The study involves (a) the design of DDL activities for raising learners' consciousness of verb-noun collocations (b) a pre-test post-test single group pre-experiment that seeks to test the following hypothesis:

H_1: The prospective ELT teacher students, after they have received DDL instruction through consciousness raising activities, shall display greater success at using verb-noun collocations in their L1 to L2 translations than they do at the beginning of the course.

In order to elaborate the findings and identify best practices and pitfalls for the research designed, the second stage of the study involves administering a questionnaire to the students and analyzing the data through quantitative methods. This practice seeks to answer the following research question:

RQ1: What are the strong and weak points of using the DDL approach in designing a C-R pedagogy on verb-noun collocations in a translation course?

3.2. Participants

The study group consisted of 16 third-year students (13 females and 3 males) taking up the undergraduate course of English to Turkish Translation at the ELT department at a university in Turkey during the Spring semester of the 2015-2016 Academic Year. None of the students had a previous experience of a DDL-based C-R pedagogy. The participants were not administered a test concerning the language proficiency and computer skills. They were assumed to have a similar level of proficiency in English language as they were in their third year of study and had already completed the pre-requisite course entitled "Translation: English-Turkish". The participants were also assumed to possess enough basic computer skills to follow the three-hour training session on DDL.

3.3. Corpus

For the purpose of selecting a corpus for concordance activities in the context of data-driven learning, the academic literature was referred to. Following Leech et al. (2001), who point out that the British National Corpus (BNC) is a "finite, balanced and sampled corpus" (p. 1), which contains linguistic elements with a ratio of 90% derived from written and 10% from spoken English in the form of conversations, novels and news reports, the BNC was selected in this study as the tool used for direct and indirect exposure tasks. The balanced distribution of elements, the hundred-million size, its content derived from present-day English (no earlier than 1960) and the various statistical helpers make the BNC a well-rounded, all-purpose corpus tool. Finally, the BNC currently has an active and maintained online user interface accessible by the students, teachers and researchers.

3.4. Instruments

3.4.1. Pre-test and post-test

The pre-test and post-test were based on the Turkish to English translation tests, each of which consisted of 100 different Turkish sentences, each requiring the use of one English verb-noun collocation in the English translation. The tests didn't include the sentences used for Turkish–English translation tasks during the instructional phase. The set of verb-noun collocations associated with the test items were selected from the BNC. Nesselhauf (2005, p. 256) advises that the selection of the verbs and their collocations should follow three criteria with equal weight: frequency, degree of difficulty or susceptibility to deviation, and disruption. The selection criteria adopted in the study was mainly based on the frequency. However, the criteria 'degree of difficulty or susceptibility to deviation, and disruption' was also taken into consideration in the construction of the tests. To construct the tests, first, a frequency list of verbs in the corpus was generated using the headword or lemma frequency functionality of the BNCweb. After the 10 most frequent verbs were identified, a ranked list of 10 most frequent noun collocates for each verb was compiled, depending on the Log-likelihood statistical metric (see Table 1). Finally, each test contained 100 items with each item corresponding to one verb-noun collocation in the 10x10 set and measuring the correct use in Turkish to English translation of the verb-noun collocations in question. Statistical tests showed that the pre-test and the post-test yielded a Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient of $r = 0.924$ and $r = 0.911$, respectively. The pre-test is provided in Appendix A. The tests were administered to students on paper.

Table 1. *Verb-noun collocations used in Pre-test and post-test and DDL activities*

Set	**Associated Verb (headword frequency)**	**Associated Noun Combinations for the Verb (and their headword frequencies in combination with the verb, reported by the BNC)**
1	Have (1316636)	problems (155.0601), reputation (191.0513), difficulty (541.0377), chance (628.0058), effect (919.4065), doubts (184.3252), advantage (245.1934), experience (189.0276), idea (509.9554), access (200.8409)
2	Do (537577)	harm (1090.3479), damage (475.2488), housework (200.2118), washing (84.3233), crossword (59.8033), ironing (47.4099), cooking (45.6653), deal (39.6628), favour (34.9621), calculations (17.6712)
3	Get (213376)	Chance (1046.4567), job (3017.5883), impression (863.1962), permission (270.7638), glimpse (16.9528), revenge (59.7266), allowance (44.6136), refund (43.6929), benefit (39.0464), passport (27.5591)
4	Make (210266)	decision (9351.9706), sense (9351.9706), difference (7451.0629), mistake (6970.4482), progress (6039.2723), contribution (5887.544), effort (4546.7912), attempt (4025.2815), arrangements (3651.8692), statement (3083.2802)
5	Know (178223)	things (327.5725), truth (323.0295), answer (266.4245), facts (105.8882), secret (39.2278), technique (13.3392), details (11.9355), password (9.1265), tricks (6.3705), meaning (2.6296)
6	Take (173609)	advantage (11194.7948), action (9036.0304), part (8820.4581), care (8526.9772), photographs (1391.3866), steps (6801.7822), breath (2698.8826), responsibility (2499.5376), precautions (1550.4181), risks (1478.5243)

7	Give (126193)	Impression (5574.9), chance (4276.3341), advice (4001.5705), opportunity (3553.1153), priority (3027.6287), birth (2896.4865), evidence (2521.4191), details (2357.4061), information (2346.2823), instructions (1377.1996)
8	Use (105744)	language (1976.5704), data (1375.2459), information (670.7136), program (621.6381), technology (587.8285), terminology (443.2755), tactics (377.312), weapon (340.299), symbols (313.9541), facilities (275.0893)
9	Find (95621)	way (3148.2298), solution (783.0322), evidence (414.4322), place (305.8166), keyword (213.627), accommodation (210.7156), answers (196.8028), fault (174.8683), examples (173.7614), hope (166.4034)
10	Put (67694)	pressure (2294.6116), money (1008.5519), emphasis (372.1679), bandage (82.3028), question (343.8783), end (196.0513), brakes (111.1171), blame (191.1317), name (103.1352), idea (101.6366)

3.4.2. Questionnaire

In order to diagnose the strong and weak points of the design, the evaluations of the students regarding the experience they went through while interacting with the BNC through direct concordance activities had to be collected and interpreted as data. For this purpose, a 32-item six-point scale consisting of 'strongly disagree/somewhat disagree/disagree' and 'somewhat agree/agree/strongly agree' was constructed. The questionnaire was mainly intended to evaluate the students' perceptions of and attitude to the corpus use in the L1-L2 translation course in order to determine the effectiveness of the DDL instruction on the students' verb-noun collocation use and their translation competence. In developing the questionnaire, the researchers drew on Yoon and Hirvela (2004), who developed a measurement tool for evaluating the East Asian students' attitude towards the use of a corpus concordancer within the context of an L2 academic writing course. Yoon and Hirvela's questionnaire, which is comprised of 42 Likert-type items in the 1-6 scale, is based on the use of Collins COBUILD and is of a Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient of $r = 0.96$. The 42-items of this questionnaire were modified and adapted by the researchers for the specific case of BNCweb use and verb-noun collocation use. After running a reliability analysis for this new version, items that reduced test reliability were removed and the remaining 32-items that displayed a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of $r = 0.89$ were included in the new scale, named the *Questionnaire about using the BNC in ESL Translation*. The survey presented in Appendix B, was administered to students over a computer interface using Google Forms.

3.5. Procedure

The study was conducted in the context of the Turkish-English translation course of the ELT program at the Faculty of Education at a university in Turkey during the 2015-2016 Spring semester. There are actually two "Translation" themed courses in the undergraduate curriculum of the ELT program, with the other being a 14-week long, compulsory course taken at the winter semester of the 2nd year, titled "Translation: English-Turkish". The said course aims to improve translation skills of students from L2 into L1unlike the former, which focuses on translation from L1 into L2. The reason for choosing the Turkish-English variant of the translation courses over the former one was motivated by the view that, as far as EFL education is concerned, collocations are designated as an important linguistic element to master the use of, for generating linguistic output akin to native users of the language. (Pfeiffer, 2012; Wood, 2009; Shin & Nation, 2008). The program based on a 6-week long intervention was designed to be carried out within a formal education setting at

undergraduate level, where face-to-face instruction may take place, i.e. a classroom. The target course for the program, Turkish-English Translation, is a 14-week long, compulsory one taken during the Spring semester of the 3rd year at the ELT undergraduate program. The study followed a pre-test/post-test pre-experimental design, which was comprised of two phases: (a) design phase (b) empirical phase.

The design phase was to design the instructional program by analyzing the current situation and seeking help from existing literature in the field and find ways to implement a data-driven pedagogical approach for consciousness-raising to improve collocational use of advanced L2 learners in a translation course. During this phase, paper-based and hands-on concordance activities were designed. These, as well as other teaching materials were derived from corpora due to convenience purposes.

The empirical phase, which followed a quantitative paradigm of research, consisted of a pre-test, instructional treatment, a post-test and a survey instrument, *Questionnaire about using the BNC in ESL Translation*. The phase involved carrying out a pre-experiment for the purpose of evaluating the effectiveness of the program designed in phase one. The independent variable for the pre-experiment was designated as an intervention defined as: "receiving a translation course through data-driven pedagogical methods for raising consciousness towards the use of the most frequent verb-noun collocations in the English language", whereas the dependent variable was designated as academic success in appropriately using the most frequent verb-noun collocations in Turkish-English translations.

Prior to the instructional intervention, the participants were given a three-hour training on DDL to familiarize them with corpus search and techniques in order for them to take part in the corpus-based classroom and concordancing homework activities throughout the course. Two tests were administered to the participants to determine the effect of the data-driven pedagogical approach employed to raise their consciousness towards the appropriate use of verb-noun collocations in the Turkish-English translation course.

First, a pre-test was administered to the study group in order to determine their prior knowledge with relation to the targeted verb-noun collocations. Second, a series of classroom lectures over the course of 6 weeks were delivered to the students. Alongside the regular course content, the course targeting the students in the study group focused each week on the use of collocations through consciousness raising tasks based on data-driven methods in the form of paper and computer based concordance exercises applied each week.

The instructional approach was inspired by the works of Lenko-Szymanska and Boulton (2015) and Boulton (2010) in order to effectively combine the strengths of the direct instruction, and direct and indirect exposure of students to the corpus. To this end, the following classroom and homework activities were planned out:

a) Direct Instruction: Starting from day one of the intervention, students were instructed directly on the use of collocations that were within the scope of the program. This constituted the consciousness-raising element and it was made sure students were not left without guidance and prior knowledge when undertaking the concordance tasks that followed.

b) Direct Exposure (Concordance Homework Assignments): After a brief initial classroom introduction to using the BNCweb query tool via an overhead projector, students were asked at the end of each course to carry out homework assignments which they could finish only by using the BNC on their own, outside of the classroom. Leaving the concordancing task outside of the classroom was not only a resource-efficient decision, eliminating the need for occupying the school

computer laboratories but also promoting learner autonomy and thereby encouraging discovery learning. The homework assignments at the end of each week provided students with a certain verb and required them to use the BNC to find 10 sentences that included a verb-noun collocation that contains the given verb. It was also required that each of the 10 sentences featured a different noun in combination with the given word. In the end, the students were required to translate the collections of sentences they derived from the corpus in this manner. This way, 2 verbs were given to students at the end of each week for a total of 10 verbs at the end of 5 weeks, and students translated from English into Turkish a total of 100 sentences including verb-noun collocations of 10 most popular verbs in English language.

c) Indirect Exposure (Corpus-based Classroom Activities): During each classroom lesson, students have been handed out exercise sheets which were comprised of fill-in-the-blanks style questions created from BNC-derived text. A sheet for each of the selected 10 verbs, each of which contained 10 fill-in-the-blanks questions was handed out to students each week for a total of 10 sheets and 100 questions done at the end of 5 weeks. Each question in each sheet was associated to one of the top-ten most frequently used nouns within collocations of the verb. Also, after an initial attempt at raising awareness of students towards collocations in the first week, a single 100-item exercise sheet was handed to students. This sheet also derived from the BNC featured questions similar to the previously explained 10 sheets, but was different from them in that it required students to fill in the gaps with appropriate verbs (instead of nouns) to complete a verb-noun collection correctly. A sample of these sheets is shared in Appendix C.

The indirect exposure to dedicate classroom hours to working on paper-based handouts was considered for the following pedagogical, practical and technical reasons:

a) Direct exposure to corpora requires access to a computer laboratory with internet connectivity. The setting where the study took place had a computer laboratory, albeit with an overloaded schedule. Therefore, it was thought that the classroom concordancing time would be severely limited.

b) Also, the limited amount of time allocated for classroom concordancing could be overloaded with student questions that could rise from technical problems, leaving an even narrower time frame for actual concordance activities.

c) Today, it can be safely assumed that all students have an access to a personal computer in their homes. Therefore, direct exposure tasks may be assigned to students as homework to be carried out using their personal computers, in their own time and in the comfort zone provided by using a device they own and are familiar with (unlike a laboratory computer). And concordancing as a homework assignment could leave students to discover through trial and error the use of the corpus digital interface, taking as much time as they need.

At the end of the instructional intervention, students were administered a post-test to compare statistically the average academic success at the appropriate use of verb-noun collocations in Turkish-English translation with the measurement at the beginning of the intervention, the pre-test. The last instrument utilized in the study was the DDL Instruction Evaluation Scale, which aimed to evaluate the effectiveness of the DDL instruction and to provide insights as to what could be done to improve the instruction in terms of possible weaknesses, strengths and needs.

3.6. Data Analysis

The empirical phase followed a quantitative paradigm of research and involved a pre-test/post-test single group quasi-experiment. Analysis of the quantitative data pertaining to the empirical phase of the research at hand was conducted using the SPSS (v. 21.0).

The DDL Instruction Evaluation Scale was administered to the students to assess their experience regarding the use of corpus data to search and retrieve verb-noun collocations once after the intervention was concluded. For the purpose of ease of interpretation and comparison, the items in the scale were categorized thematically and discussed by the number of the participants who rated each item rather than the percentages of the respondents in order not to present misleading information to the reader as relatively few number of students participated in the questionnaire.

4. Results

4.1. Experimental Treatment Results

The two sets of data from the pre- and post-tests tests aiming to investigate the effects of the DDL activities on learners' Turkish-English translation performance were scored and mean scores were calculated. The descriptive statistics for these tests is given in Table 2.

Table 2. *Descriptive statistics for the pre-test and the post-test for verb-noun collocations*

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Pre-test	16	17	67	50.25	13.19
Post-test	16	65	100	91.44	8.22

The preliminary analysis revealed that the range of distribution were different among the pre-test and the post-test with the minimum and maximum values for the pre-test being 17 and 67 and for the post-test 67 and 100, respectively. And there was a large difference between the mean scores, with the pre-test averaging at 50.25 (SD = 13.19) and post-test at 91.44 (SD = 8.22) as is presented in Table 2.

In order to assess whether there was a statistically significant change in test scores before and after the intervention, a paired samples t-test was considered to compute the difference between two related data. However, a non-parametric equivalent, Wilcoxon signed-rank test was decided on due to the following reasons; (a) the sample size (N=16) was relatively low (b) visual examinations of histogram charts, box-plot graphs, as well as Shapiro-Wilk tests revealed that the sets of data (both pre-test and post-test) had non-normal distributions, which violated the assumption of normality associated with the parametric Paired Samples t-test. Conclusively, a non-parametric statistical test, the Wilcoxon signed-ranked test was used to compare the pretest and posttest scores of the same sample. The results of the analysis are shared in Table 3.

Table 3. *Wilcoxon signed-rank test results comparing the scores of the pre-and post-tests.*

Tests		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	z	p
Post Pre	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00	-3.519 [a]	.0005
	Positive Ranks	16	8.50	136.00		
	Ties	0				

a: based on negative ranks

Analysis according to the Wilcoxon signed-rank test indicated a statistically significant difference in the students' performance from the pre-test to the post-test ($Z = -3.519$, $p < .0005$).

4.2. Results of the Questionnaire about Using the BNC in ESL Translation

This section presents the results obtained from the 32-item Likert-type questionnaire administered to the 16 students after the completion of the 6-week DDL instruction. The questionnaire aimed to learn the students' perceptions of and attitudes to the DDL instruction in terms of its strengths and weaknesses. The results are presented by categories and discussed by the number of the participants. Figure 1 presents the results of the category of items aimed at determining whether the students encountered any problems or difficulties when using the corpus. This category is mainly comprised of negatively disposed items, with the exception of the third item. Most of the students (n=14) point out that the search facility in the BNCweb didn't pose any difficulty for them. The top two items are the ones where student responses display an uneven distribution. While 10 students state that they didn't experience any difficulty due to the unknown words and the limited number of sentences in the concordance and the collocation outputs, 6 students report that these issues presented difficulties to them. Other two items - items 6 and 9-, which indicate that some students had some difficulty in using corpus are related to the high number of sentences in the concordance output and the text difficulty. One-fourth of the students (n=4 for each item) expressed that they had difficulties due to these issues, while the other students (n=12 for each item) pointed out that these factors didn't present any difficulties for them. Overall, the majority of the students stated that they didn't experience any difficulties in using the corpus and in analyzing the concordance and collocation outputs they generated with regard to the cut-off sentences, time limitation, the effort exerted and the text difficulty during the DDL instruction.

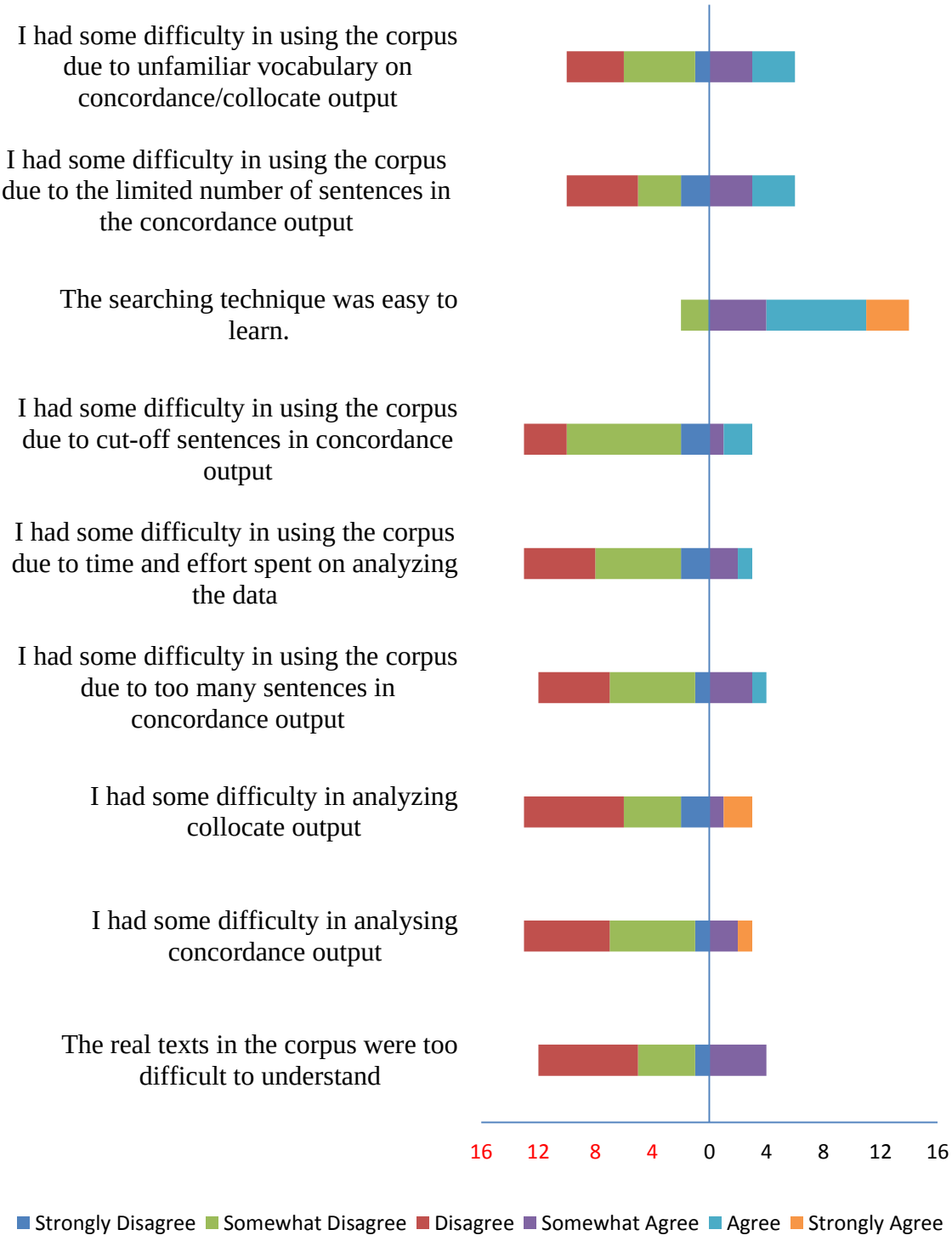

Figure 1. *Problems and difficulties that students encountered in corpus use (n=16)*

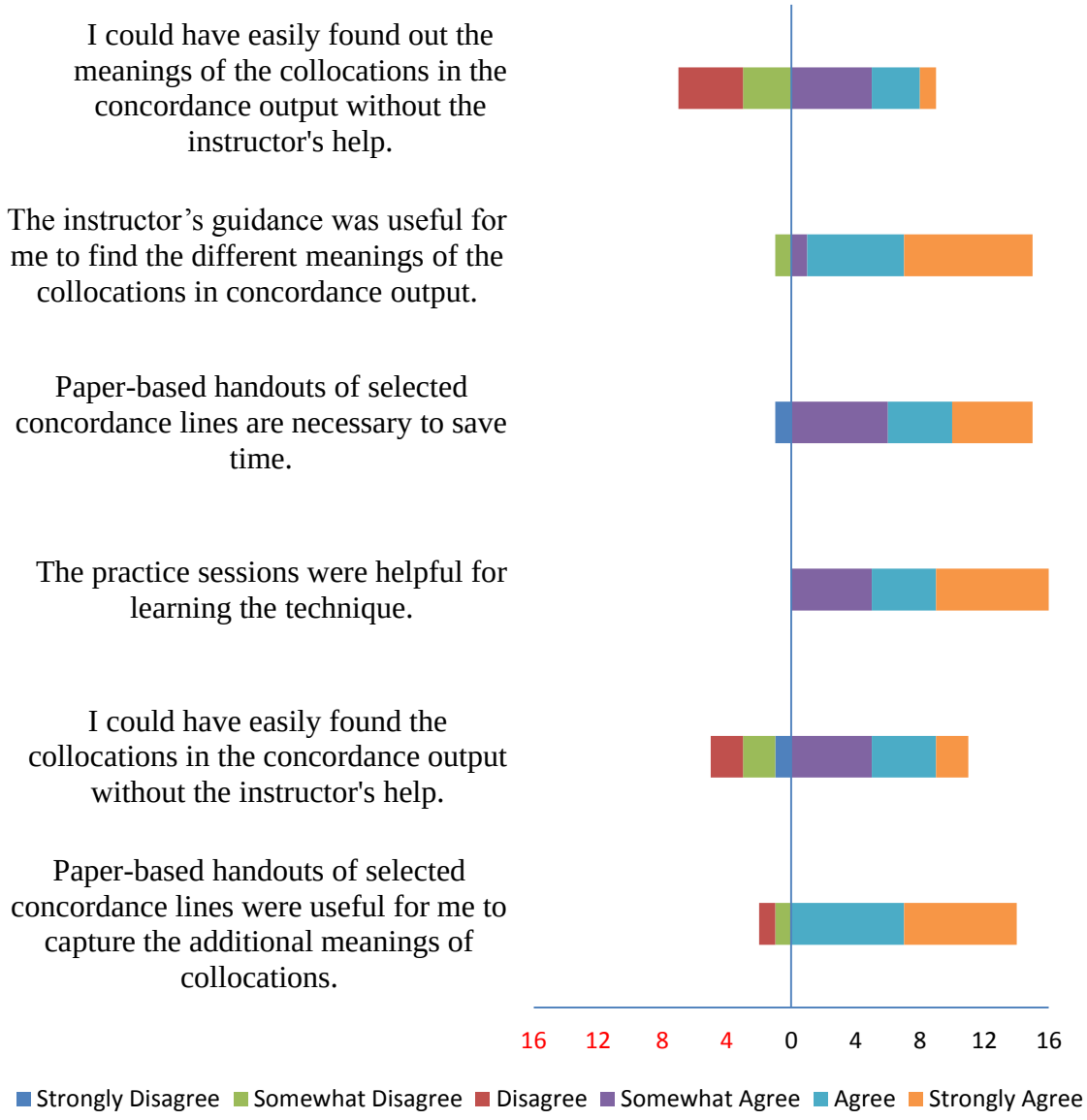

Figure 2. *Student responses regarding the instructor's assistance and paper-based approach (n=16)*

Figure 2 presents the results gathered from the items which were intended to find out to what extent the instructor's intervention to assist the students during their corpus analysis was beneficial and to what extent the students could conduct corpus analysis on their own. All the students (n=16) noted that they found the practice sessions useful intended to teach them the DDL technique (item 4). On the other hand, almost half of the students (n=7) responding to item 1 related to the necessity of the instructor's assistance for determining the meanings of collocations indicated that that they could not have found out the meanings of collocations without the instructor's help. In contrast, a relatively high number of students (n=5), considering the total number of participants (n=16) in the survey, disagreed that they could have extracted the collocations from the concordance output without the instructors' assistance. Regarding the rest of the items related to the use of paper-based concordances and the instructor's guidance, almost all the students found the paper-based concordances and the instructor's guidance helpful when identifying collocations and conducting corpus analysis.

Figure 3 represents the students' views on whether they found the application of corpus analysis into the translation course beneficial for both increasing their collocational knowledge and improving their translation skills and whether they thought that they would continue using corpus in their translation practices and other courses in the future. All the participants (n=16) rated items 2, 3, 8, 12 and 14 pertaining to the benefit of corpus use for learning collocations as agreed to strongly agreed. It is noteworthy that most of the students expressed a strong agreement on these statements. Regarding the statements (items 6 and 11) about whether the students would use by their own choice and whether their translation skills would have been better if they had known the corpus earlier, all (n=13) but three (who responded as 'somewhat disagree' to 'disagree') agreed that they would continue utilizing corpus in their language learning and they would have been better at translation than they were then. Overall, the students agreed that corpus use supported their translation skills and improved their knowledge of verb-noun collocations.

Finally, Figure 4 presents the students' overall evaluation of and attitude to the corpus use in the DDL instruction. All the students but one (who somewhat disagreed on the recommendation of the corpus to other students) generally strongly agreed that the corpus was a useful source in translation courses and that they would not only recommend using this resource in the translation course but also recommend it to other students in their department.

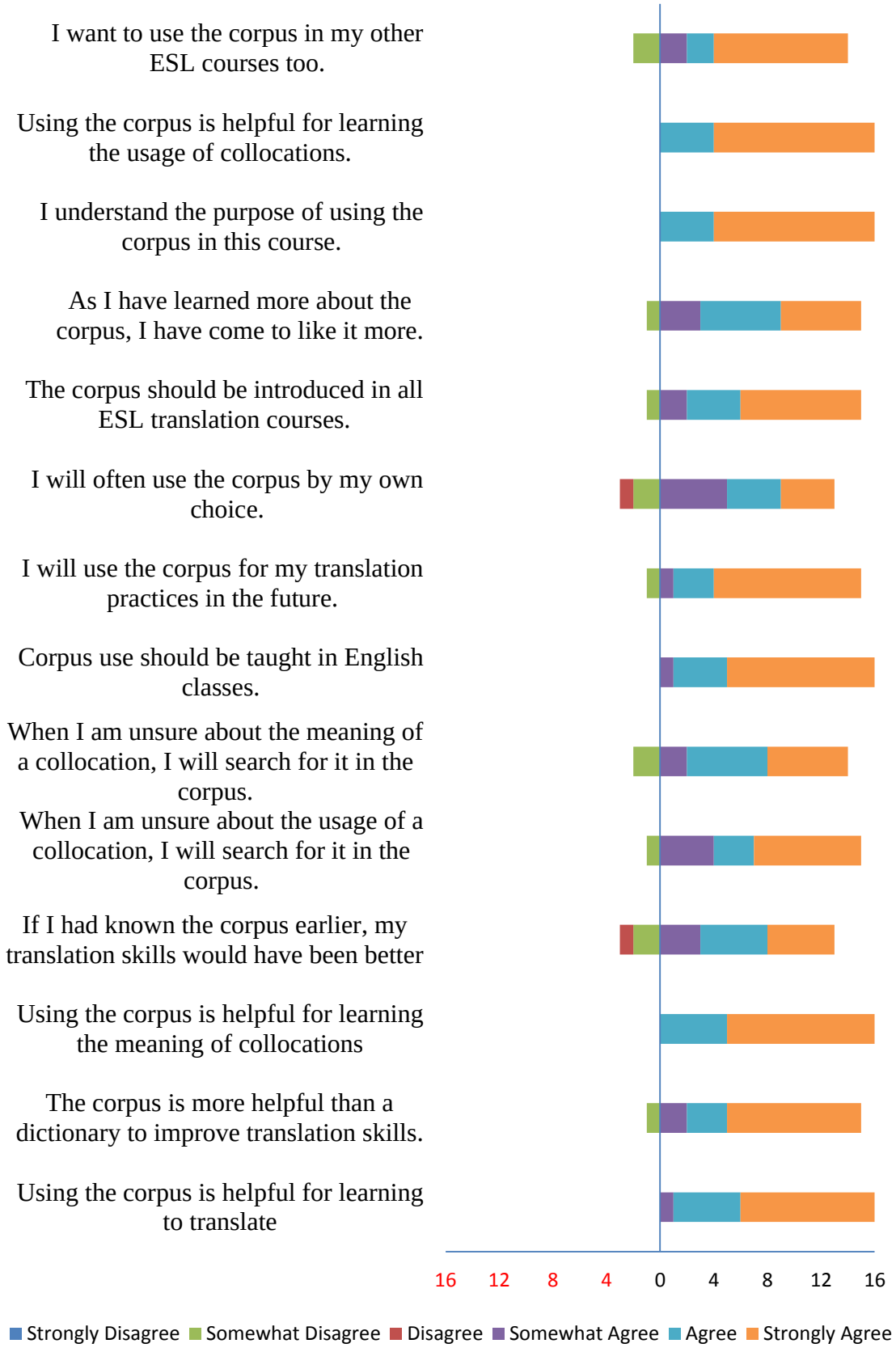

Figure 3. *Students' perceptions of and attitudes to corpus pedagogy in translation course*

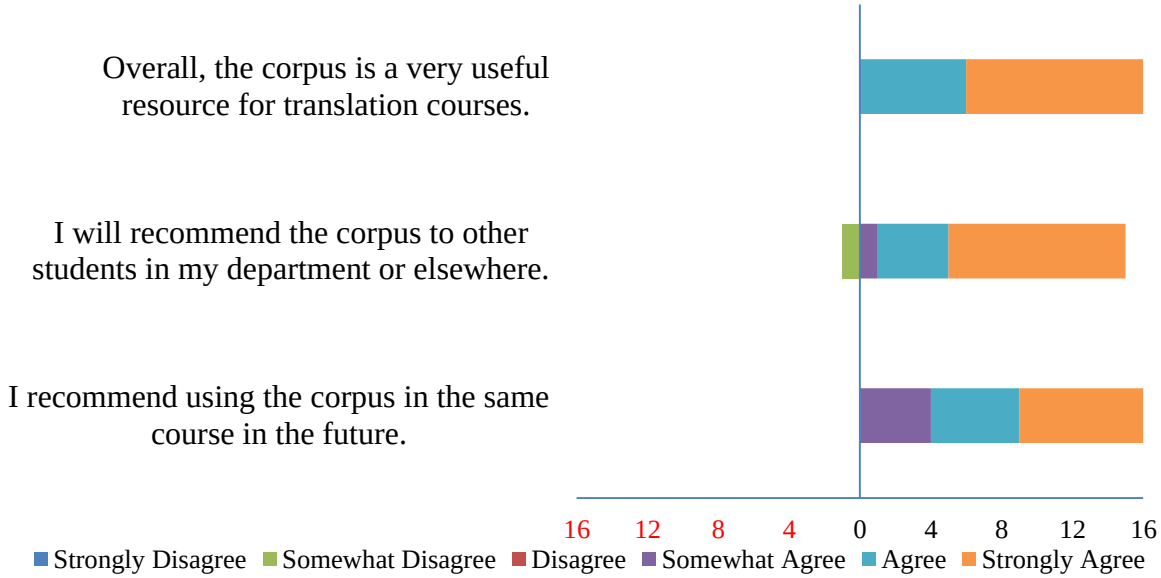

Figure 4. *Students' overall evaluation of corpus use in translation learning*

5. Discussion

The results from the comparison of scores obtained from the pre-test and the post-test on verb-noun collocation indicated that there was a statistically significant increase in the students' knowledge of verb-noun collocations, which suggests that the DDL instruction applied to the Turkish to English translation course was successful in achieving its objectives.

Hence, the research hypothesis, which state that "the prospective ELT teacher students, after they have received DDL instruction through consciousness raising activities, shall display greater success at using verb-noun collocations in their L1 to L2 translations than they do at the beginning of the course" was confirmed. This finding is in line with the findings of Chan and Liou (2005), who worked with 32 college students in Taiwan and found out that concordancing activities, albeit with a bilingual web-interface, supported with fill-in-the-blanks and translation style exercises significantly improved the correct use of verb-noun collocations. Hence, their claim that "an eclectic approach that combines concordancing and other traditional instructional methods may help learners better than the approach that relies on a single dominant teaching method" (p.248) was consolidated with the present study that employed both direct and indirect corpus use. Apart from supporting Chan and Liou's findings, a contribution of this study to the existing literature in the field can be the notion that students can successfully work with a monolingual concordancer in their translation studies as well, and that they can autonomously carry out concordancing tasks at home and in their own pace, leaving the valuable classroom time for other learning activities.

As for the research question specified at the outset of the study, the analysis of the responses to the questionnaire revealed that the students generally found corpus concordancing to be a beneficial activity, both for generic English courses and for translation in particular. The findings indicated that the students highly benefitted from the corpus-based approach implemented in the Turkish-English translation course without much difficulty. For instance, the low responses to the negatively disposed items (Figure 1) were interpreted that students did not experience much difficulty in working with the corpus data and tool. These findings are in parallel with Chambers (2007), who state that learners show positive reactions to corpus-based activities despite a number of important obstacles observed. On the other

hand, unfamiliar vocabulary and limited number of examples in the collocate output stood out as the most prominent downsides of the corpus use (Figure 1). The reason for the students' somewhat agreeing/agreeing with the relevant item asking whether they had any difficulty using the corpus due to unfamiliar vocabulary in the questionnaire could be explained by the fact that he richness of vocabulary in corpus concordance output may be intimidating to L2 students, particularly those that do not have a rich repository of words at their disposal. The limitation in the number of sentences in the concordancing output was also referred to, albeit slightly, as a problem. This is a questionable finding, as the tasks required students to search the corpus output for the most frequent verb-noun collocations, each of which was based on the most frequent headword verb and its most frequent noun collocate. Hence, a quick search for these expressions would reveal, at worst, hundreds of examples. The fact that this negatively disposed item ranked among the top three was an inexplicable phenomenon.

Another point is that some students didn't agree with some of the positively disposed items in the scale (Figure 2, particularly items 1 and 5), which are related to the instructor's help in working out the meanings of collocations in the collocate output and finding collocations in concordance output. Almost half of the students (n=7 and n=5, respectively) expressed their disagreement with these items, in a way emphasizing the facilitating role of the instructor in the DDL instruction. This can be interpreted from the perspectives that the rule-based deductive approach in designing corpus-based activities is advantageous over the inductive approach, whereby learners have to infer the rules or patterns from examples (Flowerdew, 2009). In this respect, if the students hadn't been given instruction on what procedure they should follow to determine the most frequent verb-noun collocations, they could have had a harder time both extracting the collocations and finding out their meanings from the concordance output due to "a lot of noise" in the corpus data (Flowerdew, 2009; p. 408).

The last two among the least agreed upon positively disposed items were related to whether the students would use by their own choice and whether their translation skills would have been better if they had known the corpus earlier (Figure 3, items 6 and 11). Partial agreement with these items suggests that some students didn't find corpus useful in language learning. However, this finding contradicts with the fact that almost all the students uniformly agreed that corpus use was helpful in learning the usage of collocations and improving their translation skills.

6. Conclusion

It was found that there was a statistically significant difference in the students' use of verb-noun collocations in their Turkish-English translations from before the DDL instruction enhanced with C-R activities to after the instruction.

All and all, it can be inferred that, although there were a few students who stated that they were not really interested in relying on it in the future, most of the students found the corpus pedagogy, hence the DDL approach, useful in their Turkish to English translation course. Also, it was understood that, among the perceived shortcomings of using corpus as a pedagogical resource in this specific context of translation, the most prominent ones were difficulties due to unfamiliar vocabulary and limited number of examples in the collocate output. This may serve to fill a gap in the literature, as far as research that makes use of data-driven approaches in translator training is concerned.

This result brings about practical implications suggesting that, as far as undergraduate level ELT courses are concerned, corpus-based DDL approaches may be used as supportive tools for enhancing student linguistic competence not only in grammar courses but also in translation courses. In this respect, using a data-driven pedagogical approach in L1 to L2 translation courses may be helpful to decrease L1 to L2 translation errors, which may result from improper use of lexical collocations, and to enrich the students' lexical repertoire in relation to verb-noun collocations. In addition to the indirect exposure to corpora, as was the case in this study, the direct exposure to corpus may also be achieved by assigning concordancing activities to students as homework, encouraging the learner autonomy and saving classroom time. In this regard, instructors might not need to be afraid to hand over the steering wheel to the student and let him/her handle the Web-based concordancing tasks directly, as part of homework assignments on condition that the aim and the focus is well-delineated.

It should be emphasized that the findings should be interpreted with caution for the following reasons. First, the limited number of participants (n=16) poses a threat to external validity of the experiment. Therefore, the results may not be generalized to a larger population. Second, due to time and resource constraints, the researchers were unable to come up with a control group with which to compare the results of the experimental group that received the intervention, hence a single-group pre-test/post-test pre-experimental design was considered in this study. It is understood that the "instrumentation effect" caused by the translation course itself may not have been accounted for in such a design of experiment. That is to say, the change in learners' knowledge of lexical collocations may be caused by the natural progress of the translation course or by other factors and not by the specific method of instruction itself. In this respect, this is a risk to internal validity in scientific research and is another limitation of the study at hand.

Considering that this study was based on activities limited to a relatively short span of 6 weeks and a small sample size of 16 participants and did not involve qualitative research methods, there probably exists a need to investigate the underlying reasons for negative attitudes and perceptions concerning corpus use in language learning in general in the long run and in a deeper or wider manner. Therefore, future efforts investigating the use of data-driven approaches in L2 translation learning should perhaps employ detailed interviews with students and scrutinize the way they perceive the use of corpus and its tools.

The tasks, within the scope of this study, were also rather limited in that they involved finding sentences with the collocations specified and translating them at home, discussing the translated output in the classroom, and doing the fill-in-the blank type exercises based on the verbs and their collocates derived from the corpus by the instructor. Therefore, it may be useful if future research efforts concentrate on more creative task ideas in translation courses. Also, theories based on literature may be developed concerning how corpus-based activities may be extended in order to improve overall translation quality and not simply success at the lexical collocation use.

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ENDNOTES

* This paper is partially based on a thesis prepared by the first author and supervised by the second author to be submitted to the Social Sciences Institute of Çukurova University in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the MA degree in English Language Teaching.

Appendix A

Pre-Test for Verb-Noun Collocation Use in Turkish to English Translation

Name: **Surname:**

Please translate the following Turkish sentences into English.

1. Bu değişkenin kullanıcı puanları üzerine etkisi bulunmakta.
2. O asla kimseye zarar vermezdi.
3. Andy Bristol'da bir fabrikada işe girdi.
4. Karar vermek zorunda.
5. Böyle şeyler bilmek mükemmel olmalı.
6. İnsanlardan faydalanmak/çıkar sağlamak için konumunu kullandı.
7. Önemsemediği izlenimini veriyor.
8. Hayvanlar dili farklı şekilde kullanırlar.
9. Bunu yapmanın bir yolunu bulmalısın.
10. Karar vermem için baskı yapıyorlar.
11. Sınavı geçme olasılığı/şansı var.
12. Yangın binaya zarar vermedi.
13. Umarım mesajı almışsındır.
14. Kararın bana mantıklı geliyor.
15. Gerçeği biliyoruz.
16. Bir an önce harekete geçmeliyiz.
17. Şirket bu stratejiye bir şans verdi.
18. Var olan datayı kullanacağız.
19. Bu probleme bir çözüm bulmalıyız.
20. Paramı eve yatırdım.
21. Yürümekte güçlük çekiyor.
22. Polis teröristlerle anlaşma yapmayı reddetti.
23. Sıkıldığı izlenimini aldım.
24. Duvarları boyamak bu odada farklılık yarattı.
25. Bu sorunun cevabını bilmiyorum.
26. Hiçbir aktivitede yer almaz.
27. Sana bir tavsiye vereceğim.
28. Öğrencilere bilgiyi nasıl kullanacakları öğretilmelidir.
29. Yakında ihtiyaç duydukları kanıtı bulacaklar.
30. Dramaya vurgu yapıyorlar.

31. Kocam ve ben okullar hakkında fikir sahibiyiz.
32. Ev işi yapmaya tahammül edemiyorum.
33. İnşaata başlamak için gereken izni aldık.
34. Testte hatalar yaptı.
35. Gerçekleri bilmek ilk önceliğimiz.
36. Şirket gelişmek için adımlar attı.
37. Program yeni şeyler öğrenme fırsatı sunuyor.
38. Hesaplamalar için bir program kullandık.
39. Uyuyacak bir yer bulacağım.
40. Sorusunu yönelttiğinde heyecanlandım.
41. Finans alanında tecrübem var.
42. Bana bir iyilik yapabilir misin?
43. Sam Lucy'yi bir an için gördü.
44. Bu yıl Fransızca'da ilerleme gösterdi.
45. Bir sır bilmek ister misin?
46. Odaya girmeden önce nefes aldı.
47. Güvenliğe öncelik vermeliyiz.
48. Teknolojiyi etkili olarak kullanmak istiyorlar.
49. Öncelikle anahtar kelimeyi bulmalısın.
50. İlişkisini sonlandıracak.
51. Bilgisayarımla ilgili sorunlar yaşıyorum.
52. Bu sabah çamaşırları ben yıkıyorum.
53. İntikamımı alacağım.
54. İşimize katkısı bulundu.
55. Tekniği biliyordu.
56. Birileri sorumluluğu üzerine almalı.
57. Kız çocuğu doğurdu.
58. Dil bilimi terminolojisini kullanıyorum.
59. Yeni öğrenciler kalacak yer bulamadı.
60. Şehir harcamalarını frenledi.
61. Sınavda diğerlerine kıyasla avantajlıydı.
62. Bulmaca çözmek için oturdu.
63. Hala annemden harçlık alıyorum.
64. Sosyal olmak için çaba harcıyordu.
65. Planın detaylarını bilmiyorum.

66. Bizim fotoğrafımızı çekti.
67. Öğretmen önce yönergeleri veriyor.
68. Maçı kazanmak için taktik uyguluyorlar.
69. Cevabı bulmak zor olmadı.
70. Kendini suçluyor.
71. Bilgisayara erişimim yok.
72. Hesaplamaları kolayca yapabiliyor.
73. Haklıysan, geri ödemeni alırsın.
74. Sınavı geçmek için girişimde bulundu.
75. Şifreyi biliyor musun?
76. Kendine iyi bak.
77. Mahkemeye kanıt sunacak.
78. Nasıl silah kullanılacağını öğreniyor.
79. Sende sürekli kusur buluyor.
80. Bebeğe isim koydular.
81. Yetenekleriyle ilgili şüphelerim var.
82. John ütü yapıyordu.
83. Bundan kim faydalanabilir?
84. Yurtdışına gitmek için planlamaları/düzenlemeleri yaptım.
85. Yaptığın bütün hileleri biliyorlar.
86. Her zaman önlemler almalısın.
87. Detayları sonra verecek.
88. Bazı kelimeler için semboller kullanıyorlar.
89. Bu tarz problemlerin örneklerini bulmak zor değil.
90. Böyle bir fikri aklına sokan ne?
91. İki otel de konuklarını sinirlendirmek açısından ün sahibi.
92. Yemekleri ben yaparım.
93. Sonunda pasaportu aldı ve Rusya'dan ayrıldı.
94. Pop starın açıklama yapması bekleniyor.
95. Aşkın anlamını biliyorum.
96. Gerekirse risk alacağım.
97. Sınavla ilgili bilgi vermeliyiz.
98. Misafirler otelin hizmetlerinden faydalanabilirler.
99. Çocuklarla konuştuğumda umutla doluyorum.
100. Yarama bandaj yapıştıracağım.

Appendix B

Questionnaire about using the BNC in ESL Translation

A1. Background information

Name: Surname:

Age:

Gender: Male_____ Female_____

B. Reactions to using the BNC

The following questions are regarding your opinions on using the BNC. Please use the scale below to *circle* the response that most closely resembles your perspectives.

1: strongly disagree

2: disagree

3: somewhat disagree

4: somewhat agree

5: agree

6: strongly agree

1	If I had known the corpus earlier, my translation skills would have been better	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	The real texts in the corpus were too difficult to understand.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I had some difficulty in analyzing concordance output.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I had some difficulty in analyzing collocate output.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I had some difficulty in using the corpus due to too many sentences in concordance output	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I had some difficulty in using the corpus due to time and effort spent on analyzing the data	1	2	3	4	5	6

7	Overall, the corpus is a very useful resource for my translation training.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Using the corpus is helpful for learning to translate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I had some difficulty in using the corpus due to cut-off sentences in concordance output	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	I recommend using the corpus in the same course in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Paper-based handouts of selected concordance lines were useful for me to capture the additional meanings of collocations	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	The corpus is more helpful than a dictionary for my translator training.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	When I am unsure about the usage of a collocation, I will search for it in the corpus.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Corpus use should be taught in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Using the corpus is helpful for learning the meaning of collocations	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I could have easily found the collocations in the concordance output without the instructor's help	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	The searching technique was easy to learn.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	The practice sessions were helpful for learning the technique.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	When I am unsure about the meaning of a collocation, I will search for it in the corpus.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	I will use the corpus for my translation practices in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6

21	I will recommend the corpus to other students in my department or elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	Paper-based handouts of selected concordance lines are necessary to save time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	I will often use the corpus by my own choice.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I could have easily found out the meanings of the collocations in the concordance output without the instructor's help.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	The corpus should be introduced in all ESL translation courses.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I had some difficulty in using the corpus due to the limited number of sentences in the concordance output	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	As I have learned more about the corpus, I have come to like it more.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	The instructor’s guidance was useful for me to find the different meanings of the collocations in concordance output.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	I had some difficulty in using the corpus due to unfamiliar vocabulary on concordance/collocate output.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I understand the purpose of using the corpus in this course.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	Using the corpus is helpful for learning the usage of collocations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I want to use the corpus in my other ESL courses too.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix C

Indirect Exposure Activities

A sample of corpus-derived worksheets on

"Have" + noun collocations worksheet

Complete the sentences using the words in the boxes. More than one answer can be possible; try to choose the most suitable option for each gap.

problems	reputation	difficulty	chance	effect
doubts	advantage	experience	idea	access

1. In one way or another, all these therapies seem to **have** an_____ on the electrical balances of the body.
2. Now that buses are no longer designed to enhance the streets they serve, Manchester **has** a _____ to make a fresh start with its trams.
3. I felt lost for words; **had** _____ breathing.
4. He **had** no _____ what he would do after that.
5. It **has** the _____ of being close to most of London's tourist attractions.
6. She said that it was increasingly important that people **had** easy _____to information.
7. My workforce **has** a _____ for being committed to the company.
8. The British Geological Survey **has** _____ of working in every part of Britain.
9. 'I want to make love to you more than anything in the world, but you **have** _____ about me and I want everything crystal-clear between us, so ask your questions, Gemini girl.'
10. We all **have** _____ and we all have aches and pains.

Durmaz, M., & Yiğitoğlu, N. (2017). Factors in the professional identity development of alternatively certified English languages teachers (ACELTs). *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching (IOJET)*, *4*(4), 398-416. http://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/235/179

Received: 18.07.2017
Received in revised form: 04.08.2017
Accepted: 10.09.2017

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Abstract

This study investigates the contributing factors that are influential in the professional identity development (PID) of alternatively certified English language teachers (hereafter as ACELTs). 12 English language teachers with alternative teaching certificates participated in the study. The data were collected through self-reflection journals, in-class observations and semi-structured interviews during a 15-week semester. The results obtained from the data revealed that there are two main categories of factors that affect the PID of ACELTs which are the external and the internal factors, that is, the professional identity of ACELTs is a combination of effects of the external and the internal factors. It was concluded that the external factors assume re(shaping) roles whereas the internal ones act as lenses through which the enforcements of the external factors are filtered. Moreover, the findings revealed the existence of a context-bound professional identity of ACELTs which is in search of professional development to break the routines created by the context and the enforcement of the administration.

Keywords: teacher identity, professional development, alternative teaching certificate, alternatively certified English language teachers.

1. Introduction

Since 1982, along with other teacher education departments, the English language teaching departments have been under the responsibility of Higher Education Council (HEC). The teachers of English are trained through four-year undergraduate programs at Faculties of Education (FE) in English language teaching departments (ELT), the number of which is 56 according to ÖSYS Kontenjan Kılavuzu 2014 (The Quota Booklet) announced by ÖSYM (Measuring, Selection and Placement Center). Although the number of the departments cannot be underestimated, it has been a great challenge to train a sufficient number of English language teachers in Turkey. Experiencing such a challenge and the necessity to satisfy the demand for English language teachers led the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) to find other alternative routes to English teacher certification, namely pedagojik formasyon in Turkish (pedagogical formation) or certificate of teaching (Seferoğlu, 2004). Graduates of different, however, at the same time related, departments (e.g. American Language and Literature, English Language and Literature, Linguistics and Translation Studies) started to be accepted to these programs [especially in the past years] so that they become eligible to be teachers after a very short training of two semesters which might not even include any practice teaching. As a result, to fill the gap between the supply and the demand in the field

of English language teaching, those graduates have been hired by the government and private institutions as long as they hold an alternative teaching certificate.

The fact that there are English language teachers who are not graduates of ELT departments but of different or related ones has drawn the attention of many researchers in the field and led them to conduct studies on the issue. These studies generally focused on the perspectives of prospective English language teachers coming from different backgrounds other than ELT (Seferoğlu, 2004), the problems related to the alternative teacher certification (Taneri & Ok, 2014), the attitudes of these teachers towards teaching profession (Kartal & Afacan, 2012; Tural & Kabadayı, 2014), their motivation for teaching profession (Altınkurt, Yılmaz & Erol, 2014) and the perceptions, opinions and problems of teachers holding an alternative teaching certificate (Gökçe, 2010). It can be concluded from the abovementioned studies that the literature has focused mostly on the problems of alternative teaching certificate programs (ATCPs) and the perspectives, the motivation, and the attitudes of the teachers holding an alternative teaching certificate. Moreover, the foci of the abovementioned studies were not only English language teachers but also classroom teachers along with science teachers. Therefore, it is evident that there is a lack of research in the literature focusing on alternatively certified English language teachers (ACELTs) and their professional identity development.

ELT graduates being the focus, very few, if any, of these studies have been conducted on the PID of the teachers holding an alternative (language) teaching certificate. Consequently, there seems to be a growing need for conducting studies on the PID of English language teachers coming from alternative teaching certificate programs in order to understand their professional development and needs, to address their problems and to reflect back on the ELT programs as well. Consequently, this qualitative study is concerned with exploring, describing and understanding the factors which affect the PID of ACELTs by answering the question:

What are the contributing factors that affect professional identity development of alternatively certified English language teachers (ACELTs)?

2. Literature Review

Given the fact that identity studies in the field of language teaching have mainly concentrated on the identity development of either pre-service or in-service English language teachers from ELT departments (e.g., Farrell, 2010; Flores & Day, 2006; Timoštšuk & Ugaste, 2010), this part of the paper will dwell on the literature related to the professional identity development (PID) of English language teachers who are graduates of ELT departments.

As the study is concerned with the PID of English language teachers coming from alternative teaching certificate programs, there is a need to provide the description and operationalization of the term identity for the purposes of this specific study.

2.1. The Definition of Identity

The term teacher identity has been a controversial one to define in its exact form as many researchers studying teachers' professional identity differ in the way they define, view and study this concept (Pillen, Brok, & Beijaard, 2013). Pillen et al. (2013) note that this mainly results from the fact that identity is not a stable 'product' but rather a continually changing, active and ongoing 'process'. After analyzing different definitions, Miller (2009) found out that there are some basic key words related to the concept of identity such as relational, negotiated, enacted, transforming, and transitional, which emphasizes the ongoing and dynamic nature of the term identity. Moreover, Varghese (2006) defines identity as "…the

influences on teachers, how individuals see themselves, and how they enact their profession in their settings."

The different terms, key words and concepts related to the teacher identity clearly show that the concept identity is not a single-layered, static and unilateral phenomenon. Rather, it is a multilayered, dynamic and multilateral one. The multilayered nature of the identity can be best seen in the definition of Duff and Uchida (1997) in which they claim that:

> Language teachers and students in any setting naturally represent a wide array of social and cultural roles and identities: as teachers or students, as gendered and cultured individuals, as expatriates or nationals, as native speakers (NSs) or non-native speakers, as content-area or TESL/English language specialists, as individuals with political convictions, and as members of families, organizations, and society at large. (p. 451)

Considering, different definitions and aspects of language teachers' identity, instead of sticking to one definition or explanation, this study aims to embrace different elements from different definitions and explanations in order to have wider and deeper understanding of the PID of ACELTs.

2.2. Literature on Teacher Identity Development from Global Contexts

Conducting studies on the concept of language teacher identity development and negotiation has been the focus of attention in the recent years (e.g., Borg 2011; Cohen, 2010; Ghasedi & Zareee, 2014; Phipps & Borg, 2009); consequently, there have been studies in the second language teaching field related to the language teacher identity development concentrating on the different aspects of the process.

The relevant studies portray various aspects of identity and contexts as well as research methodologies for identity studies. The aspects regarding the identity studied in the articles include factors affecting identity (e.g., Borg 2011), the relationship between identity and language (e.g., Urzua &Vasquez, 2008), the identity development with respect to experience (e.g., Ruohotie-Lyhty, 2013), the relationship between identity and workplace (e.g., Kang & Cheng, 2014), identity vs. tensions, roles and identity negotiation (e.g., Farrell, 2010) and so on. Furthermore, the contexts in which the studies were conducted are different from each other, which enables us to see how identity is shaped in different contexts and environments.

Flores and Day (2006) focused on contexts shaping the identities of new teachers in Portugal. The results highlighted the powerful relationship between personal histories and the contextual influences of the workplace.

Similarly, in the study by Kang and Cheng (2014) in China, it was found out that the teacher identity and cognition development was a result of cyclical interaction between teacher's knowledge and beliefs and her classroom practices a favorable workplace is described as a place where there is suitable workload, collegial support and availability of learning opportunities.

2.3. Literature on Teacher Identity Development from Turkish Contexts

Upon looking at the studies in global contexts, there is a need to go through the related studies in Turkey due to the fact that the present study was conducted in a Turkish university context.

Although there is a long history of alternatively certified English language teachers in Turkey, to the researcher's knowledge, very few, if any, focused on the professional identity of development ACELTs. However, a close look at the literature reveals that studies related

to teacher identity development and alternative teaching certificate programs mostly tended to focus on the perspectives and attitudes towards these programs and their graduates. The studies conducted within Turkish context concentrated mostly on alternatively certified teachers (ACTs) from different branches rather than ACELTS. For instance, Gur (2013) examined the basic and developmental characteristics of teachers' professional identity of Turkish language teachers in an elementary school. He found out that teachers change and develop their professional identities "...based on expectations and conditions that emerge in line with instructional, personal and social contexts" (p. 193).

In another study carried out by Atay and Ece (2009), it was found out learning English had a positive effect on the identity development of these pre-service teachers who claimed that learning English added another identity to them, which enriched them in terms of cultural and social aspects.

Oruç (2013) investigated how a teacher trainee constructs and evaluates her identity and found out that the teacher trainee went through a transformative process in which several aspects of her identity from self-efficacy to classroom management changed, and she developed a better understanding of who she was as a teacher

In her study, Gökçe (2010) revealed that ACTs in different fields had problems basically with material designing and development, planning, finding resources and lecturing along with carrying out group activities, dealing with the students and having a good relationship with the students.

There are also studies (e.g., Taneri & Ok, 2014) focusing on the perceptions and attitudes of teachers trained through alternative teaching training certificate programs in Turkish context. Based on the content and purpose of the studies in Turkey in terms of both teacher identity development and alternative teaching certificate programs, some common conclusions below can be reached:

a. The identity development studies in Turkey have concentrated mostly on the teacher identity development of prospective pre-service (English language) teachers along with the in-service ones (e.g., Kartal & Afacan, 2012).

b. The studies related to alternative teaching certificate programs are limited in scope as they only focus on teachers' attitude and motivation (e.g., Kartal & Afacan, 2012), ignoring the PID of those teachers who have a different background other than teaching.

c. The studies generally include participants working in the elementary or secondary schools (e.g., Gökçe, 2010; Taneri & Ok, 2014).

Taking these findings into consideration, there seems to be a pressing need to investigate the PID of ACELTs in the Turkish university (the tertiary level) context.

The foci of these studies seem to ignore the impact of INSET and other professional development opportunities such as conferences, MA and PhD. This may be because the studies are mainly concerned with English language teachers who are graduates of English Language Teaching Departments (ELT). Miller (2009) states that "…pre-service teachers have a repertoire of resources they can deploy and test as they negotiate and build their professional identities in social and institutional contexts." (p. 175), which may not be the case for ACELTs as they are educated in a different area, but become language teachers through alternative teaching certificate programs. Therefore, it is important to conduct identity development studies with ACELTs to be able to explore the factors that affect PID, to decipher and to understand the way they (re)construct their identities.

3. Methodology

3.1. The Setting of the Study

The study was carried out at the School of Foreign Languages (SFL) of a highly reputable English-medium Turkish University. SFL aims to provide the students whose level of English is below proficiency level with basic language skills so that they can pursue their undergraduate studies at the university without major difficulty. It also offers compulsory English courses for undergraduate students.

SFL does not only employ instructors who are graduates of ELT departments, but also other instructors either from related departments such as Linguistics, American Literature, English Literature and Translation Studies as long as they hold an alternative teaching certificate or graduates of other departments provided that they hold a teaching certificate or an MA degree in ELT. Although there are foreign instructors at SFL, the majority of the instructors is hired from Turkey.

3.2. Participants

The data for the study were collected from 12 English language teachers working at the School of Foreign Languages (SFL). Some teachers were offering courses for matriculated undergraduate (credit bearing courses) students; while others were teaching courses for pre-matriculated (preparatory class) students. The participants of the study were chosen on the basis of three types of nonprobability sampling which are purposive, convenience (availability) and homogeneous sampling (Check & Schutt, 2012; Dörnyei, 2007; Punch, 2005; Wellington, 2000). Their ages ranged between 24 and 44 (six participants between 24 and 30 and six participants between 24 and 30). They were all speaking Turkish as their native language. The participants were graduates of different related departments which were Linguistics (two teachers), Translation and Interpretation (two teachers), American Culture and Literature (four teachers) and English Language and Literature (four teachers). As it is a requirement to have a teaching certificate so as to be able to teach (English) in many institutions in Turkey, nine participants completed teaching certificate programs, while ten participants completed ICELT. The number of the participants who completed both a teaching certificate program and ICELT is seven. One of the participants, moreover, completed a TESOL program in testing and evaluation.

The participants differed in terms of their experience in language teaching. At the time when the study was conducted, four of the participants had one to five year/s of experience in language teaching; five of them had six to 10 years of experience, and three of them had 11 to 20 years of experience. For some participants SFL was the first workplace; on the other hand, some participants had worked in different institutions before they started their careers at SFL. Nine of the participants were teaching pre-matriculated students (preparatory classes) while three of them were teaching matriculated students (department students).

Bearing the ethical issues in mind, in order to protect the rights and privacy of the participants, each participant was randomly given a unisex name in Turkish to create anonymity and confidentiality and to make participants feel secure. Therefore, all the participants will be referred as “s/he” throughout the chapters in order to be able to maintain anonymity possible.

3.3. Data Collection

This qualitative study made use of various data collection instruments which included bio-data questionnaire, reflection journals, observations (along with field notes), semi-structured interviews and focus group interview. Using such variety of data collection instruments also

ensured having data triangulation which means "using multiple data sources to build a coherent justification for themes" (Creswell, 2014, p. 201).

The bio-data questionnaire was created to identify the potential participants aiming to find out the departments that the participants graduated from, their experiences in the language teaching field, degrees and certificates that they hold.

The second data collection instrument utilized in this study was reflection journals prepared by the researchers. Reflections were exploited as one of the data sources since they have the potential to provide us with the deep insights of participants' identities as Gee (2000) claims that "…the person's own narrativization is what constitutes his or her (never fully formed or always potentially changing) core identity" (p. 111). The focus of the reflection journals was to reveal the teaching journey of the participants along with their teaching philosophies and teaching experiences.

Gray (2009) states that "observation provides an opportunity to get beyond people's opinions and self-interpretations of their attitudes, behaviors, towards an evaluation of their actions in practice" (p. 397), which indicates the importance of having observations for a study on beliefs and practices. Therefore, there were two in-class observations (CO I and CO II) per participant. In order to keep a record of the data, the researchers also benefitted from field note sheets (FN I and FN II). The observations were also recorded by means of a voice recorder in order to hinder any data loss and rely on them if necessary.

Packer (2011) states that "interviews are a ubiquitous way of collecting data throughout social sciences" (p. 42) as interviews are very useful "to explore people's knowledge, views, understandings, interpretations, experiences and interactions [in a social setting]" (Mason, 2002, p. 63). Taking these claims into consideration, the present study used interviews to address the research question more comprehensively. There were two semi-structured interviews (SSI I and SSI II) per participant, and 24 in total. In order to be able to obtain coherent and consistent data from participants, there were questions which were the same or similar along with different ones depending on what was written in the reflections and what was observed in the classrooms

The last data collection method used in the present study was focus group interview (FGI). The rationale behind employing such instrument in the study was to create "a collective mind allowing participants to think together, inspire and challenge each other and react to emerging issues and points (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 144). The questions for the FGI were also prepared by the researcher in line with the aims of the study as well.

3.4. Data Analysis Procedures

After collecting the data from reflections, observations and interviews, they were transcribed by using the software "Express Dictate" and coded based on the stages of grounded theory and thematic content analysis as Grounded Theory by Glaser and Strauss (1967) "let the ideas (the theory) emerge from your immersion in a situation rather than going in with fixed ideas (with theory) about what is happening" (as cited in Thomas, 2013, p. 239).

In the present study, the stages of coding included "open coding, which requires cracking the data and creating general themes and categories, axial coding, which means relating the codes to each other, and selective coding, which is relating the codes to a core code (Matthews & Ross, 2010).

Following the principles of grounded theory, the data analysis adopted thematic content analysis. Thematic Content Analysis is "a process of working with raw data to identify and interpret key ideas or themes" (Matthews & Ross, 2010). It also requires creating initial

categories and themes from the data through constant comparison within each case and across the cases, which helps to describe the categories within each case and to identify the similarities and differences across the cases.

After completing coding, categorizing and creating overarching themes, some parts of the data were reanalyzed by two other researchers in order to have "intercoder agreement" (Creswell, 2014, p. 203) to increase the reliability of the study. The intercoders were holding MA degrees, and they were familiar with the process of qualitative data analysis. Besides having data triangulation, that is having multiple data collection instruments, and intercoders during the analysis stage, to ensure more validity, the study also employed member checking which requires "checking the data with the people who are being studied" (Punch, 2005, p. 255) after collecting and analyzing the data.

The data collection and analysis procedures employed in the study are summarized in Table 1 below, which also provides information about the form of analysis and the rationale behind adopting such data collection instruments.

Table 1. *The summary of data collection and analysis*

Source	Rationale	Form of Analysis
Reflection Journals	To gather data about participants' roles, teaching philosophies and experiences	Thematic content analysis
In-class Observations	To explore teaching practices of participants in the classrooms	Thematic content analysis
Semi-structured Interviews & Focus Group Interview	To explore the experiences, perceptions and understandings of participants' about their professional identities.	Thematic content analysis

4. Results

The purpose of the research question was to explore and describe the contributing factors that affect the professional identity development (PID) of ACELTs through data obtained from reflections, observations and interviews. Upon analyzing the data, the emerging and the most salient themes were categorized as the external and internal factors. As the category names are res ipsa loquitur, external factors are the factors which are not directly related to the participants himself or herself while internal factors are the factors which are directly related to the participant himself or herself. External factors were further grouped under five main and 15 sub-categories whereas internal factors were only grouped under four main categories, which implies that external factors make up the majority of the factors affecting the PID of ACELTs. The Table 2 below presents the categorization and the summary of the results.

Table 2. *The categorization of the themes*

External Factors	
I. Institutional (Workplace) Factors	**II. Contextual Factors**
a. Administration	a. Student Profile
b. Colleagues	b. Classroom Dynamics
c. Teacher Development Unit	c. Program / Curriculum
d. In-service Training	**IV. Professional Events**
III. Educational Factors	a. Workshops
a. K-12 Level	b. Conferences
b. University	**V. Other Factors**
c. Pedagogical Formation	a. Role Models
d. MA /PhD	b. Research studies
Internal Factors	
I. Personality	**III.** Teaching Experience
II. Motivation	**IV.** Intuition

4.1. External Factors

4.1.1. Institutional (workplace) factors

All participants agreed that the institution one works for plays a great role in shaping their professional identities. "The place or school where you work shapes who you are as a teacher because what you are doing is what that place requires from you" (Burçin, SI 1). Although the emphasis in the given quote is on the requirements of the institution, the data analysis revealed that administration, colleagues, teacher development unit and in-service training programs are the main institutional factors that have an influence on the professional identity (development) of ACELTs. In terms of institutional factors, there was an emphasis on the colleagues and how they affect their professional identity (development). It was clear from the data that there is a community of practice atmosphere in the institution. Toprak, for instance, explained the issue in the following way: "Everybody at SFL is helpful when you ask for something. I have learned many things from them in terms of teaching" (RJ 1). In addition to this, it was obvious that ACELTs try to benefit from the experiences of their colleagues who are ELT graduates. They think that ELT graduates can help them to cover the gap in their theoretical knowledge; therefore, they place much importance on the interaction and communication with ELT graduates. One of the participants talked about this issue as follows: "I talk to my ELT graduate colleagues a lot. I mean, if I don't know something, I definitely try to learn it from them, so this is one way of tackling the problems I face" (Derin, SI 2).

Another institutional factor mentioned by the participants was the teacher development unit (TDU). Since SFL was the first workplace for many participants they stated that the activities, workshops and the induction organized by TDU taught them many things related to their profession. For example, in one of the interviews, one participant emphasized the acculturator role of TDU in the following way: "The induction held by the TDU guided us. It was very helpful while adjusting ourselves to the new teaching environment. I learned the very basic elements of conducting a lesson or reading exam papers" Ada (SI 2).

Finally, in-service teacher training programs, which is In-service Certificate in English Language Teaching (ICELT) for SFL, emerged as a key institutional factor affecting the professional identity (development) of ACELTs. ICELT includes both theoretical and

practical aspects of teaching. Hence, it is quite beneficial for ACELTs in terms of both theory and practice of English language teaching, which is explained as "in my teaching career, ICELT is the best thing I have ever had. With ICELT, I had a chance to learn the English terms related to teaching" (Ada, SI 1). ICELT seems to play a great role in the professional development ACELTs at SFL because it is a training program in alignment with the requirements and policies of SFL; therefore, it is perceived not only as a training program in which theories and practical elements are introduced, but also as an acculturation and accommodation program serving the needs and expectations of the institution. Participants think that ICELT has contributed a lot to their professional identity (development) which is explained as follows: ICELT has a big impact on my teaching. I can even say that it was a corner stone in my professional development. Thanks to it, I observed my own teaching. This gave me an insight into my teaching style. I diagnosed my weaknesses and tried to overcome them. The training program was useful for me in my first year. It guided me through our system (Olcay, RJ 2).

To sum up, institutional factors are important in different aspects of PID. Administration, for instance, is influential on the professional identity (development) of ACELTs in terms of providing the professional development opportunities whereas TDU contributes to theory formation and practical experience of these teachers through organizing workshops, observing them and providing feedback. For many of the participants, ICELT is the equivalent of a formal ELT education. That is the platform where they seem to become familiar with the concepts and theories in ELT, and where they have the chance to practice what they learn and receive feedback based on that. Colleagues outstand as one of the most influential factors since they act as immediate guide or mentor, and they are ready to share their experiences with ACELTs.

4.1.2. Contextual factors

The second external factor emerged from the data was contextual factors such as student profile, program or curriculum and classroom dynamics. Devrim pointed out that "context is everything, you learn for and from the context. It shapes you as a teacher in the way it wants to" (RJ 1; SI 1)

Student profile assumes an important role in shaping participants' professional identity as it is claimed by the participants that it affects their motivation, teaching style and classroom management which is pointed out as follows:

> Students who are more conscious are generally motivated, which affects my motivation as well. With a motivated student profile, you become more willing to prepare and implement different lessons. (Kayra, SI 1).

Another contextual factor that influences the professional identity (development) of ACELTs is classroom dynamics. The fact that each and every class has a different dynamic requires teachers to act and teach in different ways. Devrim illustrates the issue as follows:

> When you enter a class that is what you have. You need to follow the rules and dynamics that are valid in that class. You cannot bring elements from another class and try to use them there. Of course, you can do the same activity you did in another class, but the ingredients or the way you do the activity will be different. (SI 1.)

The last contextual factor that affects the professional identity development of ACELTs is the program/curriculum they are teaching. The fact that SFL has two programs, namely, preparatory school program and modern languages program, makes a difference in terms of the student profile, requirements of the programs and the content of the syllabus. Participants

asserted that teaching at those different programs changes the way they perceive themselves as teachers Derin who taught in both programs explains the situation as follows:

> I have taught in both programs. Prep is more structured and direct, so it does not leave much space to the teacher either to arrange his/her own schedule or to seek outer professional development activities. At MLP, I feel more flexible, which increases my motivation as a teacher. (SI 1).

To conclude, the student profile, classroom dynamics and the program or curriculum are the contextual factors that influence the professional identity (development) of ACELTs in terms of shaping their lesson plans, their teaching approaches and motivation.

4.1.3. Educational factors

The third factor categorized under the external factors is educational factors. By the term educational factors, it is referred to the educational background of the participants when they were students or participants at a school, in a certificate or training program.

The data revealed that in the course of PID, education that participants receive or have received plays an important role, and five main sub-categories were defined for the educational factors which are K-12 level education, university education, pedagogical formation and MA/PhD.

They claim that although it is not easy to trace back and see how their K-12 education affected them, they believe that there are some subconscious traces of those years they have in their professional identities. It was asserted by the participants that sometimes they feel like they are imitating their (English language) teachers or copying what they were doing in their classes. These traces can include their way of starting a lesson, the way they introduce a topic, the way they lead and manage a class or the way they treat students. One of the participants commented on the issue as indicated below:

> My English language teachers in primary and high school influenced me immensely. My primary school teacher was quite strict and an only-English policy advocate. While the latter, however, was more approachable and understanding. As to me, I am a perfect blend of these two ladies, a disciplined but approachable and friendly teacher (Derin, RJ 1).

Another factor categorized under educational factors is the university education of the participants. Participants agreed on the fact their university education has an influence on their professional identities and PID in terms of classroom management, the topics they like to teach or the way they lecture some topics. It was revealed that the departments that ACELTs graduated have an effect on the preferences of those teachers with regards to the skill they think they teach best or they enjoy teaching more compared to the other skills. Graduates of culture and literature departments are fond of teaching reading and writing in the classroom. They link this to their undergraduate studies where they used to read stories and novels and do textual analyses. Graduates of linguistics and translation studies, on the other hand, enjoy teaching grammar more than the others, which they associate with the linguistic analyses they did in their undergraduate studies.

The third educational factor the pedagogical formation (PDF) or the certificate of teaching (CoT). Although not every participant thinks that PDF was beneficial or helpful in shaping their professional identity, it was important since this was the first time for many of them to feel being or becoming a language teacher. Some of the participants argued that it was just beneficial in terms of having such a feeling. For the others, however, it was the first time that

they were exposed to ELT terminology, pedagogy, approaches and methods; therefore, it served as an introduction to teaching.

The last factor listed under the educational factors is MA/PhD. Among 12 participants, five completed an MA degree while three of them completed a PhD degree. One motive behind doing an MA degree, especially in ELT, was learning more about language teaching and the ELT field. The participants who held MA degree agreed that MA was quite beneficial for their theory formation and becoming more familiar with the ELT terminology, which is illustrated by Deniz as follows "I felt that I needed to learn more to be more confident in teaching. I wanted to learn more about the theory of my job basically" (SI 1).

Another aspect of doing MA with respect to PID was keeping up with recent trends and novelties in the field. Participants believe that it is important to follow and keep updated with what is going on in the field to be able to do your job better. Olcay argues that "As a teacher, you need to be aware of what is happening in the field. That is what MA offers to you. You read intensively about a wide variety of issues and become familiar with the trends in the field" (SI 1).

Devrim regards PhD as specializing and being an expert in the field. S/he stated that "as I said, I want to be an expert, let's say, in my field, in my area. Yeah, that's why I'm doing it. I also want to improve myself as teacher" (SI 1).

To conclude, K-12 level education, university education, pedagogical formation and MA/PhD are among the educational factors that have an impact on the PID of ACELTs. The impact can be traced in the areas such as classroom management, approaches and methods in the teaching, theory learning and formation along with specialization in the field and keeping updated with the recent trends.

4.1.4. Professional events

In this study, the term professional events refer to any activity or event including professional development elements such as workshops, seminars and conferences in which teachers or people in the field participate, collaborate, share ideas and experiences. It was acknowledged from the data that workshop and conferences are two main themes that have an influence on the professional identity development (PID) of ACELTs.

Firstly, participants of the study think that attending either seminars or workshops or conferences on ELT is an indispensable part of professional development and keeping updated with the very recent trends in the field. They emphasize that such platforms are a good common ground to come together with the colleagues who graduated from ELT departments and to interact and share experiences with them. Bircan expresses his/her ideas and feelings about the workshops as "I love workshops and conferences. I learn a lot during these events. It is a great opportunity to meet people and benefit from their experiences, especially when you attend those held in other institutions." (SI 1).

To sum up, attending workshops or conferences and presenting papers or sharing experiences during these activities and events are factors that play important roles in the PID of ACELTs regarding theory learning, keeping updated and socialization.

4.1.5. Other factors

The last factor categorized under the external factors that affect the PID of ACELTs is called as other factors, and it includes role models and research studies. For every participant in the study, there were role models who inspired, guided and motivated them during their journey of becoming teachers or while they are teaching. The profiles of these role models vary including primary school teachers, high school teachers, teacher trainers, university

teachers and Dr. Keatings from the movie Dead Poets' Society. Each participant has a reason why they have those people as their role models. Some think that they were great in terms of their relationship with their students, some think that they were very good at classroom management, and some think that they were inspiring just because of who they were.

The second and the last factor categorized under other factors and the last factor under external factors is the research studies which the participants take part in. They stated that participating in studies like this one gives them a chance to reflect back on their practices and think about their profession. Therefore, when they are asked to take part in such studies they get involved not only to help the researchers, but also to benefit from the course of the research study. Kayra explains it as follows:

> Taking part in such studies might not have a direct effect on your professional identity or development. However, they give you a chance to look back on what you did as a teacher. You become more aware. For example, this study increased my self-awareness in a way through writing reflections (SI 2).

To sum up, role models and taking part in research studies have an impact on the professional identity (development) of ACELTs in terms different aspects such as classroom management, teaching style, personality and reflecting back on your practices. Reflecting on the teaching beliefs and practices is perceived as one essential element of professional identity development.

4.2. Internal Factors

4.2.1. Personality

Participants argue that personality is a key factor which has a significant role in the professional identity development (PID) of a teacher, including themselves. They regard personality as the basis for almost any aspect of professional identity (development). They assert that personality is quite influential regarding a teacher's teaching philosophy, classroom management and relationship with his/her students and colleagues. Burçin clarifies the issue as below:

> A teacher's personality is very important for his/her professional identity. You act according to your personality. For example, believe that I have good communication and empathizing skills; therefore, when I talk to my students, when I criticize them, I also try to look at the things from their point of view, which shows them my personality affects the relationship between me, as a teacher, and my students (SI 1).

Participants also consider personality as an important factor with respect to teaching philosophy. They think that a teacher's personality is a determiner in terms of the interpretation and application of methods and techniques. Moreover, they agreed that personality affects how a teacher organizes activities and conducts his/her classroom.

4.2.2. Motivation

The second internal factor that emerged out of the research data is the motivation that teachers have. The participants commented on the fact that motivation plays the driving force for their teaching and their search for professional development. They emphasized that without having the motivation, it is hard to achieve something as a teacher and to develop themselves professionally. Devrim confirms this as follows: "You can equip a teacher with the best and recent methods, techniques and materials; however, if s/he lacks the very basic motivation to teach, they are useless" (SI 1).

Motivation is also regarded essential for the desire to seek for professional development. Participants stated that teachers can develop themselves as long as they want to do so. Forcing them or creating external motivational instruments can only create temporary change or development. Burçin underlines the importance of motivation for professional development as follows:

> It is a teacher's choice to develop himself/herself. If s/he does not have the motivation to follow or attend professional activities, workshops or conferences, you cannot force them. However, boosting their motivation and finding ways to make them more motivated might help because motivation is the core of development (SI 1).

4.2.3. Teaching Experience

"When it is teaching, everything comes with experience" (SI 2) stated Derya, signaling the importance of experience for the ACELTs. This study consists of both novice and experienced teachers as the participants, and both groups underlined the fact that experience matters for their professional identity (development). They stated that experience is effective in the way they manage their classrooms, they interact with their students, they deal with a topic or the way they perceive and interpret the things. They think that a novice ACELT who lacks many theoretical and practical aspects of teaching may feel himself/herself weak and less confident as a teacher whereas an experienced ACELT perceives himself/herself component and confident. Ada indicated this issue as follows:

> I believe that teachers develop by experience. There is always something that everyone teaches the other. This is a mutual teaching process between the teachers, colleagues and students. A teacher becomes a better teacher by trying and seeing the results. This is my third year in teaching. I feel more confident as I experience more" (RJ 1 & SI 1).

The participants think that although ACELTs are not graduates of ELT departments, they do not find it hard to catch up with their colleagues who are ELT graduates because they think that the important thing is the experience. Kayra clarified it as "I am an ACELT, and this does not mean that an ELT graduate will do better than me. A more experienced ACELT does better than a novice or an inexperienced teacher. What is important is the experience" (SI 1).

Participants view teaching and PID as trial and error process, in which they try things, reflect on them and decide to further make use of them or not. This trial and error process is directly related to experience contributing to the professional (identity) development of ACELTs. Moreover, the participants argue that experience is contributive to one's professional identity, and the more experience one has the more changes they undergo.

Although there is a consensus on the positive effect of experience in terms PID, there seem to be some concerns about the definition of experience and someone experienced. The participants in the study do not consider experience only as a matter of teaching English for many years; rather, their comments on the issue creates a new term which can be called as contextual experience, which means having experience related to a place, a topic, a skill or a system. Toprak explains it as follows:

> Experience cannot be limited to the years one teaches. A novice teacher who has just two years of experience in an institution can be regarded as more experienced than a newly-employed teacher who has 15 years of experience in teaching. The novice will know more about the system and how the things work (SI 1).

All in all, experience is identified as a core factor affecting the PID of ACELTs. The participants value experience and what it brings. They all believe that experience has a positive impact on their professional identity.

4.2.4. Intuition

It was revealed that participants also related the rationale behind their actions to their intuitions. They asserted that sometimes they just follow their intuitions to do something in the way do. They rely on their common sense and take and implement decisions based on them. Güneş stated in the interviews that "sometimes, I do things without thinking about them much. I do it just because I think so. I think that is the intuition part. If that thing works, I do it again later." (SI)

Another participant, Umut, who thinks that intuition has an impact on a teacher's beliefs and actions expressed his/her thought on the issue as follows:

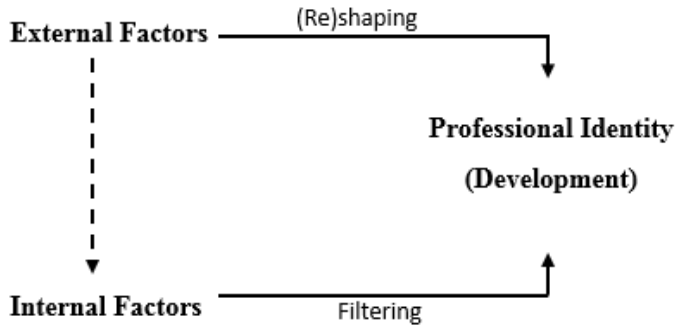
> When I first started teaching, I almost did not know anything about teaching. I was following my intuitions. Maybe, I was doing something resulting from my past experiences, but for me, it was intuition. It helps a lot, especially when you need to take instant decisions (SI 1).

Although experiences might be the reference to ACELTs' intuitions, it is obvious that they also play roles in their actions and decisions. Sometimes ACELTs rely on their intuitions to do certain things, and if the things work, they use this knowledge later on. This can be perceived as a trial and error process, intuition leading to experience, which affects the PID of ACELTs.

4.3. Summary of the Findings

It seems clear that the professional identity of ACELTs is a combination of effects of the external and the internal factors. Each category and the type of the factor have an important effect on the professional identity (development) of those teachers. However, considering the roles of those factors, it can be concluded that, in a broader sense, the external factors assume re(shaping) roles whereas the internal ones act as lenses through which the enforcements of the external factors are filtered. Another conclusion which can be drawn from the results is that both the external and internal factors directly affect the professional identity (development) of ACELTs while external factors have the potential to influence the internal factors as well. The figure below is illustrative:

Figure 1. *The roles of the factors*



Upon looking at the figure above the conclusions below can be drawn from data results:

1. The external factors, which influence not only professional development, but also the internal factors to some extent, assume a greater role than internal factors.

2. External factors and internal factors directly influence the professional identity of ACELTs, and external factors might also affect internal factors which again impose an indirect effect on the professional identity of ACELTs.

3. External factors assume a (re)shaper role while internal factors assume filter or lens roles. In another metaphorical sense, external factors can be seen as the skeleton whereas the internal ones are flesh and blood.

On the whole, the results reveal the existence of a context-bound professional identity of ACELTs which is in search of professional development to break the routines created by the context and the enforcement of the administration.

5. Discussion

The first significant finding of the study is the systematic, comprehensive and well-framed categorization of the factors that are influential in the professional identity (development) of ACELTs. Despite touching upon some factors, the previous studies conducted (on the professional identity (development) of English language teachers (e.g., Flores & Day, 2006; Goos, 2005; Johnson, 2009; Varghese, 2006; Walkington, 2005) did not provide such systematic categorization of those factors regarding alternatively certified English language teachers.

The findings of this study are aligned with the results of some studies such as Flores and Day (2006), Timoštšuk and Ugaste (2010) which included context as one of the main factors affecting the professional identity development of English language teachers. However, such studies did not tap into the details, and further categorization was not employed in these studies.

The present study revealed that ICELT, the in-service teacher training program, is one of the most influential factors affecting the professional identity (development) of ACELTs in terms of theory formation and acquiring the practical aspects of language teaching which is supported by the findings of the studies conducted by Urzua and Vazquez (2008) and Walkington (2005).

The findings pointed out that for the majority of the ACELTs, pedagogical formation or the certificate of teaching was not beneficial in closing the gap and it was not motivating for them. This was a finding that contrasted with what is claimed by Altınkurt, Yılmaz and Erol (2014).

In alignment with the principles of Socio-Cultural Theory and the results of the studies conducted within this theoretical framework (e.g., Dam, 2006; Goos, 2005; Johnson, 2009; Lave & Wegner, 1991; Scotland, 2013), the findings of the present study indicated that community of practice is an essential key in the professional identity development of ACELTs.

ACELTs have the motivation to seek for professional development which contradicts with the results of the study conducted by Seferoğlu (2004) in which participants argued that the teachers coming from an alternative certificate program will lack commitment and motivation for teaching.

Furthermore, the present study revealed that educational factors such as K-12 level, university education and MA/PhD are quite influential in the professional identity (development) of ACELTs. K-12 level education seems to affect how ACELTs perceive

teaching and manage their classrooms. The seeds of their professional identity can be traced back to those years where they unintentionally gained insights about conducting a lesson and managing a classroom through observing their teachers and/or role models. In addition to these, their university years contributed to this insight. Therefore, it can be argued that when ACELTs started teaching, they had preconceptions about teaching and a repertoire to deploy and test during their practices, which complies with Miller (2009).

Completing an MA and/or a PhD degree helped participants to become more familiar with the ELT field, to learn and adopt ELT terminology along with keeping updated about the recent trends and changes in the field.

Another influential factor emerged from the findings is the institution where ACELTs work. It is clear that the requirements, implementations and regulations of the institution affected their professional identity (development). The workplace was seen both as facilitating and hindering in terms of the professional identity development, which was also previously reported by Flores and Day (2006) and Kang and Cheng (2014).

Lastly, different from the results of other studies, the present study reported that intuition surfaced as a factor influencing the professional identity development of ACELTs as they sometimes rely on their common sense to take decisions and implement them.

6. Implications and Suggestions of the Study

The present study cast light upon the professional identity development of alternatively certified English language teachers and it has some pedagogical implications.

First of all, it is obvious from the results that alternative teaching certificate programs or pedagogical formation must be restructured, and a new more practical curriculum should be adopted as ACELTs criticized the structure of the programs and the way they are implemented.

Secondly, as the study revealed that the context has a key role in professional identity (development), it is important to organize structured and systematic induction programs to acculturate newly-employed ACELTs.

Thirdly, since some ACELTs, especially the novice teachers, lack some theoretical and practical aspects of language teaching, providing INSET opportunities in coherent with the needs and principles of the institutional curriculum might help ACELTs remediate the gap and facilitate their adaptation process to the working environment and the conditions. In addition to INSET opportunities, organizing focused mini-seminars and mini-workshops for ACELTs might help them compensate for such gap and provide a chance for them to voice themselves.

Finally, a reflective feedback system can be integrated into such programs so that ACELTs can inform the program coordinators or managers about their concerns, needs and thoughts on the program which can lead to improvement in the organization and implementation of such programs and courses.

7. Conclusions

The present study aimed to provide insights into the professional identity development alternatively certified English language teachers (ACELTs). More specifically, it was concerned with exploring, describing and understanding the factors which affect the professional identity development of ACELTs.

The results showed that there are external (e.g. institutional, contextual and educational) and internal (e.g. personality, motivation and teaching experience) factors that influence the

professional identity (development) of ACELTs. It was revealed that external factors assume (re)shaping roles with regard to classroom management, theory learning and creation, teaching styles and approaches and socialization while the internal factors act as filters and are effective in building teaching philosophy, belief systems and teaching styles.

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Received: 22.07.2017
Received in revised form: 11.08.2017
Accepted: 15.08.2017

EFL TEACHERS' CONCEPTUALIZATIONS AND INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES OF CRITICAL THINKING

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EFL TEACHERS' CONCEPTUALIZATIONS AND INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES OF CRITICAL THINKING*

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Abstract

The structure of societies has been changing with the rapid progress of science and technology in the 21st century. In this new structuring era, education is the only valid method to raise individuals who are able to make effective decisions, solve problems and take responsibility for learning and thinking critically. For this reason, learning to think rationally and critically are the keys to educational reforms in a number of educational settings worldwide. In the literature about teaching critical thinking, teacher behaviors are regarded as the most influential variables for the development of critical thinking among students. However, teachers can implement instruction geared towards critical thinking only when they develop a conception of critical thinking. This qualitative study, conducted with five EFL teachers at a high school, aims at investigating in-service EFL teachers' conceptualizations of critical thinking as well as the strategies they use to infuse critical thinking into their EFL courses. The findings indicate that participating teachers have adequate knowledge about critical thinking and they incorporate certain techniques to cultivate critical thinking among language learners. We recommend that there should be more focus on exploring critical thinking conceptions and practice among EFL teachers working at different levels.

Keywords: critical thinking, problem solving, EFL teachers, EFL instruction

1. Introduction

The fact that the structure of societies has been changing with the rapid progress of science and technology in the 21st century requires innovations in the education systems of all countries. The change in the world order from industrial age to information age has altered the priorities of certain concepts such as conformity and sameness and replaced them with open-mindedness and flexibility. Instead of the ability to "fit in", think inside the box and perform as directed, there is a higher priority on creative thinking and problem solving (Bluestein, 2012). In this new structuring era, education is the only valid method and tool to raise individuals who know how to access, process and reproduce information, make effective decisions, solve problems and take responsibility for learning and thinking critically (Alkın-Şahin, Tunca, & Oğuz, 2015). These new understandings necessitate establishing critical thinking a central aim of education and not viewing it as a paradigm shift in academic discourse. As Connor-Greene and Greene (2002, p. 324) state "critical thinking is not an academic fad; it is an essential skill for living in the information age". For this reason, learning to think rationally and critically are the keys to educational reforms in a number of educational settings worldwide.

Turkey is one of the countries that has been striving to become a contemporary society and respond to the changing needs of people of this information age. Among these efforts, we see education in the center. The development of information society and relations with the European Union countries created a need to restructure education in Turkey in 2003.

Accordingly, a new curriculum change movement began. The pervasive interest in critical thinking and the importance of integrating critical thinking into Turkish curriculum was recognized by the Ministry of National Education (MONE) at policy level and curricula were developed with a constructivist and learner-centered approach that aims to foster students' higher order thinking skills (MONE, 2006).

Critical thinking has been emphasized in the teaching competencies developed by MONE as well. The competencies teachers are expected to have are defined in an approved Generic Teacher Competencies document under three main categories described as instructional competencies, general social knowledge and skills and field-specific knowledge and skills. It is seen that critical thinking has been included as an instructional competence with the indication that the teacher "should be able to develop and effectively use his/her critical thinking, problem solving, communication skills and aesthetic understanding" (MONE, 2006, p.17).

Despite the integration of critical thinking into the curriculum and competencies, a close inspection of the programs in terms of critical thinking reveals that the programs are limited to description of teacher roles and responsibilities that support ideal learning environment within the context of constructivist philosophy (Alkın-Şahin & Gözütok, 2013). They seem to offer certain roles for teachers such as teacher as guide and a facilitator; however, they do provide explanations related to educational environment and teacher behaviors that support thinking (Alkın-Şahin & Gözütok, 2013). In the literature about teaching critical thinking, it is emphasized that teacher behaviors are the most important variables influencing the development of critical thinking in students (Innabi, 2003). It seems clear that it is difficult to cultivate critical-minded individuals and achieve the transformation projected within the learning programs unless teacher behaviors support critical thinking in classroom environment. In this context, it is necessary to evaluate teachers, who are practitioners of the curriculum, in terms of their understanding and supporting behaviors of critical thinking.

There are two schools of thought recommended for diffusion of critical thinking skills. While some researchers claim that critical thinking skills do not vary across different contexts and therefore they should be emphasized explicitly in a generic sense, some suggest embedding critical thinking into specific contents (Lai, 2011). Patrick (1986) stated that instructions that focus only on critical thinking distinctively are inadequate interventions for developing these skills. He argued that domain-specific teaching of critical thinking is an effective means to ensure that the skills gained in classes will be transferred to similar subjects and situations outside school.

People learn and think through language. Correspondingly, language teaching and learning English as a foreign language is one of the areas where development of critical thinking skills can generate beneficial outcomes. Therefore, teaching these skills should be an integral part of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) curriculum and learners should get the opportunity to express their full potential in the new language they are in the process of learning. Nonetheless, teaching critical thinking skill requires having sufficient knowledge about what the term entails. Teachers can implement instruction geared towards critical thinking only when they develop a conception of critical thinking. It is asserted that the educators should capture the core meaning of the concept of critical thinking in order to be concerned with developing critical thinking among learners (Bailin, Case , Coombs & Daniels, 1999). In a similar vein, previous research reports that teachers may not know how to incorporate critical thinking into their lessons (Lauer, 2005) due to their inability to identify it or distinguish it from other kinds of thinking.

The current study aims at investigating English language teachers' knowledge about critical thinking as well as how they diffuse critical thinking skills in actual teaching settings. Understanding how teachers understand and define the concept of critical thinking and how these conceptualizations are put into practice in classroom settings will provide insights to the limited literature on EFL teachers' understanding and implementation of critical thinking.

2. Conceptual Framework and Literature Review

Despite the emphasis on critical thinking in recent years, critical thinking has its roots back to ancient times. Greek scholar Socrates (470-399 BC) is the first philosopher to establish a form of philosophical enquiry through probing questioning (Rule, 2015). Socratic questioning as it is known is based on the importance of asking "deep" questions. In 1605, Francis Bacon, wrote the first book on critical thinking, *The Advancement of Learning*, in which he documented the need to form new habits of thought through education. Dewey (1933) in the 20th century promoted reflective thinking and claimed that thinking should be considered as an educational matter. Often regarded as a pioneer in critical thinking, in 1956 Benjamin Bloom developed a Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, which outlined the following categories: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation as levels of thinking (Duron, Limbach, & Waugh, 2006). The hierarchical levels in the taxonomy depict the requirement of thinking levels for each cognitive domain.

As critical thinking is linked to several different disciplines, we find plethora of definitions regarding the term. Most of the definitions project critical thinking as representations of cognitive processes and strategies used while making decisions or solving problems and the terms such as "higher-order thinking", "logical thinking", "complex thinking", "reflective thinking" are used interchangeably to refer to critical thinking. According to Ennis (1985, p. 45), "critical thinking is reflective and reasonable thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do". This definition underlines "product" and "process" dimensions of critical thinking in which product is the decision made and action taken while process involves reflection or questioning. The definition made by Scriven and Paul (1987) encapsulates most of the aspects pivotal to critical thinking: "Critical thinking is the intellectually disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and/or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action". These definitions suggest that critical thinking is not merely thinking, it consists of reflecting upon, questioning and analyzing. As a result of developing critical thinking skills an individual can "understand the information, think out of the box, break a set, and transform the known patterns into the unknown new ones" (Russ & Fiorelli, 2010, p. 236). In her study, Kanik (2010) listed an overview of 27 definitions of critical thinking in a chronological order. The frequency count of definitions revealed that the words repeated most frequently in these descriptions are "process, cognitive, purposeful, reflective/reflection, thoughtful, reasonable/reason/reasoning, organized, judgment, criteria, applying and analyzing." These terms encompass the multiple dimensions of critical thinking and its constituents.

The literature on foreign language teaching echoes the need to incorporate critical thinking into English language pedagogy (Davidson & Dunham, 1997; Tung & Chang, 2009). Chamot (1995) argued that EFL/ESL teachers should promote higher-order thinking and turn the classroom into a community of thinkers. Likewise, Brown (2004) suggested that the objectives of language curricula should not be limited to developing learners' linguistic competence only, but should also include improvement of critical thinking skills among language learners. Since the most important factor in teaching critical thinking skills is "teacher" with whose knowledge and skills schools can be improved (Kennedy, Fisher, &

Ennis, 1991), language teachers can have a crucial role in developing critical thinking skills among learners (Asgharheidari & Tahriri, 2015).

Even though research on critical thinking highlights the importance of teachers who can enhance students' critical thinking skills (Choy & Cheah, 2009; Stapleton, 2011), little attention has been given to how EFL teachers conceptualize and integrate critical thinking. We see studies on EFL teachers' conceptualizations of critical thinking mostly in Iranian context. Asghatheidari and Tahriri (2015) investigated 30 EFL teachers' attitudes towards critical thinking instruction in Iran using an attitude questionnaire. They reported that the participating teachers had a rather clear idea of critical thinking. The teachers hold the belief that developing critical thinking among learners is an essential task of teachers. Nonetheless, most of the participant expressed their need for more training in how to teach these skills. In their study limited to only one teacher who was a non-native speaker of English with an M.A degree in Teaching as a Foreign Language (TEFL), Mahmoodi-Shahrebabaki and Yaghoubi-Notash (2015) traced the potential changes after inclusion of activities concerned with critical thinking skills during two successive academic semesters. Eighteen unstructured interviews with the teacher revealed that even though the teacher was satisfied with the new proceedings initially and he supported autonomous learning, enhancing critical thinking skills of learners, and continuous assessment; gradually, he felt himself under pressure and expressed negative feelings towards the inclusion of critical thinking exercises into the syllabus. He found his new responsibilities more challenging than his previous roles as a traditional instructor. Lack of time was another concern for the teacher in adapting himself with the new classroom practices. Yet, the results should be interpreted considering that there were no classroom observations accompanying the interviews. Ketabi, Zabihi, and Ghadiri (2013) worked with 106 Iranian EFL teachers at six Iranian universities and tried to explore language teachers' in-depth understanding about the necessity of including critical thinking as an essential skill in the ELT curriculum. It was reported that language teachers in Iran view critical thinking as a pedagogical goal in English language classes. Nevertheless, they had vague and limited conceptions of critical thinking.

An extensive search for research on EFL teachers' knowledgebase and perceptions about critical thinking skills as well as their integration of critical thinking into their instructional practices in Turkish context yielded unfruitful results. What's more, when the studies that focus on teachers' critical thinking dispositions are excluded (Korkmaz, 2009; Koç-Erdamar & Bangir-Alpan, 2017, it is observed that there is limited research on how teachers from different subjects support critical thinking (Alkın, 2012; Gelen, 2002; Kanık, 2010; Yağcı, 2008). The common finding resulting from these studies is that teachers do not possess the competence required by the teaching profession in terms of teaching critical thinking skills. The purpose of the study by Korkmaz (2009) was to examine critical thinking levels and dispositions of teachers and lecturers. The findings revealed that the participating teachers' critical thinking levels were at a medium level. Depending on the results, it was reported that the teachers' critical thinking tendencies and levels were insufficient. Likewise, in their study, Koç-Erdamar and Bangir-Alpan (2017) examined critical thinking levels of teachers from various branches such as Science, Turkish, Mathematics, Social Sciences, Foreign Language, Physical Education, and Arts. They found that the total score of teachers' critical thinking dispositions reflects a low level of critical thinking.

Regarding how teachers foster students' critical thinking in Turkish context, Gelen (2002) investigated the competencies of 4th grade primary school teachers in problem solving, decision making, asking questions, and enabling the learners to gain critical and creative thinking skills in social studies classes. Even though the teachers perceived themselves competent in these areas, they were found inadequate during the class observations. Yağcı

(2008) aimed at determining the type of activities used and the problems encountered by social sciences teachers while improving critical thinking with 5th grade students. It was seen that the activities teachers utilized to develop critical thinking were limited to the activities given in the curriculum. There was not any variation in the kinds of activities used by the teachers. On the other hand, the difficulties teachers faced were listed as insufficient time, inadequate materials, and unsuitability of students' level for critical thinking activities. Kanik (2010) aimed to explore teachers' conceptions of critical thinking and practices for critical thinking development in several courses in the seventh grade adopting a phenomenological approach with 70 teachers from 14 elementary schools. She found that participating teachers made definitions of critical thinking with references to a limited number of certain skills, abilities, or dispositions. Except for a few teachers who referred to skills and dispositions of critical thinking, most of the teachers provided a more superficial understanding of the term. Finally, Alkın (2012) investigated the extent to which Science and Technology, Mathematics, Homeroom, Social Sciences, and Turkish teachers display behaviors that support critical thinking in elementary schools. The qualitative dimension of her study that involved observation technique and a semi-structured interview form revealed that the way teachers perceive themselves in terms of their supporting behaviors shows a discrepancy from their actual teaching behaviors in classes. It was also observed that the teachers prevented students from thinking critically by exhibiting negative aspects of accurate behaviors.

The scarcity of research on Turkish EFL teachers' conceptualizations of critical thinking that guide and direct their instructional behaviors aimed to foster their students' critical thinking requires special emphasis on this particular issue.

3. Research Design

3.1 Research Questions and Data Collection Tools

This study investigated the current emphasis teachers place on critical thinking across English language in 9th and 10th tenth grades in Istanbul by examining teachers' reported knowledge and perceptions, and observed instructional practices. More specifically, this study aimed to find answers to the following research questions:

(1) What knowledge and understandings about CT do EFL teachers possess?
(2) What are EFL teachers' attitudes towards development of critical thinking among learners?
(3) How do EFL teachers integrate critical thinking into their lessons?
(4) What are the obstacles that prevent teachers from focusing on critical thinking in their classes?

Qualitative phenomenological research design was adopted in order to answer these questions. The data for this study were gathered using multiple tools: in-depth interviewing and participant observations. To this end, initially a semi-structured interview protocol was prepared. The review of literature was consulted for the preparation of the interview guide. Each participant was interviewed individually in Turkish except for one teacher who is a native speaker of English. The interviews were audiotaped. Interviews that were conducted at the school site lasted from 30 minutes to 40 minutes.

In addition to in-depth interviews, observations were carried out. Through participant observation, it was possible to study the setting, participants, and events that occurred in the classroom (Kawulich, 2005). It was assumed that certain behaviors displayed by teachers would be indicators of whether they were focusing on the development of critical thinking skills or not. Each participant teacher was observed four times in 9th and 10th classes. Since the participants expressed their reluctance about being video-recorded, the interactions in the

classrooms were documented in the form of field notes. to make more sense of observation data, pre-and post-observation reflection interviews were also carried out. The questions were formulated according to interviewees' performance during the lessons. For mini-reflection sessions, questions were prepared during the observations based on what went on in the classes. The purpose was to make sure all the activities observed were accurately understood. When teachers' behaviors indicated integration of critical thinking into their lessons, the questions aimed to reflect the preparation of the lesson, the limitations and self-assessments of teachers. When teachers' practices did not show the evidence of integration of critical thinking, the questions aimed to reflect reasons why this occurred. Sample pre-observation questions were *How did you prepare for the class today? What kind of materials and tasks did you prepare?* The questions such as *Do you think you have successfully integrated critical thinking into your class today? Were there any problems during your instruction?* were asked after the observations.

3.2. Sampling

The study was conducted at a private community high school affiliated to MONE in Istanbul. Given that the teachers are supposed to instruct classes under the guidelines mentioned in the curriculum developed by MONE, a high school where English language teachers pursue their teaching in line with the guidelines was selected as a research site. All the five EFL teachers working full time at the school participated in the study. The identification of the research site was made on the basis of its convenience and the willingness of the teachers to provide rich data for the study. The participants were graduates of ELT, English Literature and Liberal Arts ranging in age from 31 to 49 (M=38.4). Their teaching experience was between five and 25 (M=15.8). Detailed information on the participants is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. *Demographic information about the participants*

Participant	Gender	Major	Age	Teaching Experience
P1	Female	English Language and Literature	39	19
P2	Female	English Language and Literature	33	11
P3	Female	English Language Teaching	49	25
P4	Female	American Culture and Literature	40	19
P5	Male	Liberal Arts	31	5

4. Findings

4.1. Analysis of Interviews

The recorded data gathered through interviews were transcribed and translated by the researchers. The use of ethnographic interviews generated a multifaceted view of five participants' understanding of critical thinking and application of its principles in their classes. Content analysis was used to interpret the data collected through interviews. The process involved analysis of patterns in elements of the texts (words or phrases). The coding categories were derived inductively directly from the data (Thomas, 2006). Impressive quotes are given for support in order to allow the readers to listen to the voices of the teachers as they conceptualize and integrate critical thinking. In order to ensure reliability, inter-coder reliability was used. The independent analysis of the data by the researchers yielded a substantial agreement level (78%). The results gained from data analysis are presented following the order of the research questions.

(1) To what extent are the EFL teachers aware of critical thinking and its principles?

The first research question of this study aimed to find out to what extent EFL teachers are aware of critical thinking and its principles. In order to explore teachers' conceptualizations of critical thinking, they were requested to explain what they understand from the term critical thinking. After analyzing the answers given during the pre-interviews, it became clear that teachers defined the term using some common codes.

Table 2. *Definitions of critical thinking by the participants*

Codes	**Definitions**
Questioning	Questioning the given information and one's assumptions
Criticizing	Being able to criticize assumptions
Multiple Perspectives	Examining an issue from multiple perspectives
Self-awareness	Gaining self-awareness through ideas
Objectivity	Being able to view an issue objectively
Step-by step-process	Accepting that it is a conscious process that takes time

Table 2 shows some common codes, which teachers referred to while explaining the meaning of the term. All the participants indicated that critical thinking requires questioning, criticizing and being able to examine an issue from multiple perspectives. They added that this skill helps students gain self-awareness and objectivity. They believe that critical thinking includes the ability of making personal interpretations. From their point of view, critical thinking is questioning one's own assumptions. In addition to these, critical thinking was defined as a multi-directional skill, which should be applied in several aspects of life. All the participants also agreed that it is a skill students can acquire provided that they are given the necessary support.

To mention specifically, critical thinking was defined as;

" *a multi-directional perspective which appeals to many senses*" (P1)

"*a system which is beyond traditional methods"* (P2)

" is not directly accepting an idea, event or anything but questioning it objectively and drawing reasonable conclusions"(P3)

"*not saying yes to everything but weighing things and making critique" (P4)*

"*being able to view and examine an issue, situation from multiple perspectives"* (P5)

2) What are EFL teachers' attitudes towards development of critical thinking among learners?

The second research question of this study aimed to find out teacher attitudes towards critical thinking. The analysis of interview data showed that all participants have positive attitudes towards critical thinking. One of the participating teachers made the following comment that shows her enthusiasm.

"I wish I had more time to make all of them [students] think critically, I could make them speak more, understand their thoughts and opinions. Unfortunately, our time is so limited. But I think developing critical thinking makes an enormous impact on learners' development as a whole." (P3)

Teachers agreed on the idea that critical thinking should definitely be encouraged in schools and it should become a habit in students. They think that once students become aware of their capability in thinking critically, they feel satisfied and pleased. The teachers also assumed that critical thinking activities motivate students and arouse interest during the classes. They believe that the process of critical thinking helps students go beyond the traditional methods and expand their horizons. However, critical thinking should be a concern for all the teachers and it should be integrated into all the courses. One of the

participants enunciates that the development of critical thinking skills should not be limited to language classes.

"I think critical thinking should be dealt with in all the courses, so that students can make it a part of their lives. That is to say, it is not only a matter of questioning in a single English class, but to inquire into everything even question something the teacher says. I mean, it should not only be developed in English lessons, but integrated into all the other courses." (P1)

The teachers are fully aware that critical thinking skills cannot be taught in a short time; the acquisition of these skills requires longer processes of practice. In these processes, teachers should be responsible for providing guidance to students to accomplish thinking critically.

"Students get used to thinking critically. They get used to it through practice." (P2)

"When we constantly ask questions and prepare the grounds for them to think, when we guide them, they learn to think critically without even being aware of gaining it. (P3)

Moreover, participant teachers highlighted the importance of materials in fostering critical thinking. They mentioned that when carefully chosen, materials could become guides for both teachers and students. They believe that choosing interesting materials, introducing intriguing topics, and relating them with students' own experiences trigger curiosity and in the end students feel motivated.

When it comes to local educational curriculum, they generally believe that critical thinking is encouraged in the materials suggested by MONE up to a certain level, but it should have a larger place. All of them agreed that critical thinking should have a more dominant role in curriculum. Nonetheless, they also state that, it is the teachers' duty to integrate critical thinking. They believe that if teachers are willing to teach critical thinking skills, they should be able to manage the process regardless of the quality of the material or the lesson content.

"Especially the interpretation questions, authors' ideas, and themes in reading texts, they all support critical thinking skills. What matters is your willingness to make students think critically rather than the material." (P3)

3) How do EFL teachers integrate critical thinking into their lessons?

The teachers were asked to explain how they implement critical thinking in their classes, more specifically the strategies they use and the materials they prepare to this end. The analysis of their comments showed that teachers are willing to integrate critical thinking into their lessons. They stated that in their lessons, they use some certain techniques to foster critical thinking. For instance, in reading lessons, they plan to read between the lines and analyze the text with the students. They also indicated that they try to direct students to think, to question and to find the relationships in the given information. They said they use the pictures in books to ask questions and assist students to make predictions.

"We try to make them read between the lines. We want them to create their own questions. We want them to question the purpose of words and images and their relations with the topic. (P1)

"Before we begin to read, we can talk about the picture, discuss about it, or if it is a child's story, we can go deeper and talk about children's rights, or if it's a story about a woman, we can have a talk on women's rights. We encourage them to think more critically. And they like this, too."(P2)

Teachers emphasized that critical thinking helps them create an environment in which students are free to express their ideas and thoughts. They claimed that one of the best techniques is discussion. They added that they try to encourage discussion as much as they can during their classes. Teachers also mentioned that they go beyond the lesson topics and link them with daily issues of the country or the world. They stated that if the topic is related with childhood or a child's life, they talk about children rights. Moreover, while choosing materials, they indicated that they try to find informative texts and raise questions about the text and beyond.

"So I would start with brainstorming. Here is our topic, let us just throw some ideas. What is related, what is not related, which is the strongest argument? Once we had our ideas, we started editing them. We look at what to get rid of and what to keep. What ideas are supporting each other? So that was a form of critical thinking. Trying to teach how to organize and structure thoughts." (P5)

(4) What are the obstacles that prevent teachers from focusing on critical thinking in their classes?

Teachers were also asked to reflect on the obstacles that prevent them from fully integrating critical thinking to their teaching. Even though teachers reflected enthusiasm for integrating critical thinking into their lessons, they also expressed their concerns, mainly the obstacles that hinder their practices. A very prominent obstacle commonly voiced is the education system, which is largely governed by national examinations such as secondary schools entrance examination and university entrance examination. The respondents reported that it is not always easy to divert students into the process of thinking when they know that they will take an examination in a multiple choice question format. Due to such placement tests, the students are accustomed to indisputably accept the information they receive. Teachers think that the education system that is generally based on discrete-item testing weakens their efforts to enhance students' critical thinking skills.

"The fact that that students are asked to answer questions that do not require a lot of thinking starting from 5th and 6th grades affects their thinking skills negatively. They are already provided with options. There is a question and there are four or five options below. The child will choose one of them without giving too much thought on it. He will not be able to express his own truth in any way; he will have to choose something from something already given to him". (P4)

The second obstacle teacher's face is students' avoidance of expressing themselves, which originates from their lack of knowledge and limited abilities. Teachers claimed that students sometimes refrain from sharing their opinions and they do not participate probably because they do not start high school education with at least some knowledge and practice of critical thinking. Teachers wish to have students who are used to questioning and reflecting upon a given material.

"*The most frequently encountered obstacle is that students are not ready for critical thinking. They should start questioning and analyzing when they are young. If they had read books or stories and reflected on them or very simply if they had noticed something, questioned it inquired about it, they could be more open-minded individuals now." (P3)*

Another very important obstacle is students' proficiency level in English and the teachers' responsibilities to teach fundamental structures of this new language. Considering that the students are required to express their opinions in a foreign language using their limited sources, the teachers have to struggle with students' reluctance and resistance that makes the teaching process harder.

"For lower or even for higher classes the level of English is an obstacle. For teachers, I mean if you are required to cover this much grammar I don't know how you can integrate critical thinking. Obstacles also would be students' reluctance, unwillingness and stubbornness." (P5)

The other obstacles that prevent teachers from integrating critical thinking are their limited time and the curriculum itself, which is again connected with the education system that aims at preparing students for exams. Covering the content plus enhancing students' critical thinking skills in a limited time seems like a long-term goal, practically hard to achieve.

Relying on the data derived from interviews, it is possible to assert that participant teachers have adequate knowledge about critical thinking. They are also of the opinion that critical thinking must be integrated into EFL lessons. We can also deduce that all participants have positive attitudes towards critical thinking and they willingly try to integrate it into their lessons. Yet, their enthusiasm is interrupted by several factors. To what extent they implement critical thinking while teaching can only be inferred from the analysis of lesson observations.

4.2. Analysis of Observations

In order to make sense of interview data and understand how teachers focus on critical thinking skills during their classes, each teacher was observed four times in their classes. The observations were carried out in 9^{th} and 10^{th} grades. 9^{th} grade students have English classes six hours a week and 10^{th} grade students meet their EFL teachers 4 hours a week. The number of students in classrooms ranged from 12 to 24 with a mean of 18 students. The findings from lesson observations were analyzed individually and supported by pre-and post-observation interviews.

During four observed lessons, the first participant (P1) mainly focused on questioning technique. In both grammar and reading lessons, she used the question form "why" and expected the students to provide reasons to their answers. The teacher also tried to relate the topics with the students' personal experiences. The teacher fostered cooperative learning in the classroom. She also let the students assess each other. Furthermore, she regularly provided feedback. During the classes, there was no "right" or "wrong" answer, but there were answers reflecting different points of view. Nevertheless, the teacher did little work on problem solving and discussion. She did not give the students the opportunity to create their own materials themselves, either.

The second participant (P2) mainly focused on relating the topics with students' personal experiences and asking them to reconsider and respond to their statements. She also encouraged the students to analyze and investigate the text at a deeper level by using questioning technique. The teacher created situations and expected the students to solve a problem or predict what was going to happen. This helped students to make inferences by using clues and analyze those situations carefully. On the other hand, collaborative learning was not encouraged very much and similar to P1 there was little time for learners to create their materials themselves. In addition, the time reserved for classroom discussion was not sufficient.

The third participant (P3) mainly focused on problem solving and encouraged students to apply their knowledge. She provided constant feedback and frequently used brainstorming activities about the topics. She also motivated student to rethink about their statements and reevaluate their judgments. Nevertheless, she did not let students investigate their assumptions and she almost never fostered collaborative learning. The students did not create any materials. Nor did they engage in any discussion.

The fourth participant (P4) mainly focused on investigation of ideas at deeper levels and thinking aloud. She created several opportunities for students to discuss and reflect on topics. She provided feedback and triggered students to identify their own thoughts. She also encouraged the students to solve problems by focusing on their personal experiences at the same time. Students had opportunities to think aloud and participate in discussions. There was allowance for asking questions freely. The missing activity was giving more chances for materials development.

The last participant (P5) mainly focused on techniques of investigating deeper and looking for logical evidence. Thus, he continuously asked "why" and "how". He also created situations where students solved problems and expressed themselves freely. Linking the topics to daily issues, he tried to encourage students to reflect on their own learning. He also acted as a guide. However, the time allocated for discussion could be more and students could have been given opportunities to create their own materials.

In order to quantify the field notes gathered during observations, a checklist was filled out after the lessons by depending on teacher behaviors. Instead of evaluating teachers' instructional strategies with a pre-determined scheme, their strategies were translated into behaviors that support critical thinking. Once the behavior was observed, it was accepted as a demonstration of a supportive intervention. The number of occurrences of the behaviors was disregarded. Therefore, the results should be approached cautiously taking into account that the occurrence of behavior once does not guarantee that the way it was implemented was at a satisfactory level. What's more, the items in the checklist do not reflect an ideal set of practices that promote critical thinking. Table 3 shows the findings gained from the observations.

Table 3. *Findings from the observations*

Items	**P1**	**P2**	**P3**	**P4**	**P5**
1. The teacher introduces tasks and ask students to question what they read or listen to.	4/4	4/4	4/4	4/4	4/4
2. The teacher encourages students to investigate deeper meanings and identify assumptions and weaknesses.	4/4	4/4	3/4	3/4	4/4
3. The teacher asks students to reconsider and respond to the statements that emerge from their classroom materials.	4/4	4/4	4/4	4/4	4/4
4. The teacher encourages students to solve a problem.	2/4	3/4	4/4	3/4	4/4
5. The teacher includes activities that foster collaborative learning.	4/4	2/4	1/4	4/4	4/4
6. The teacher provides topics and enough time for students to discuss.	2/4	2/4	-/4	3/4	3/4
7. In addition to teacher-prepared projects, the teacher gives students the opportunity to create their materials themselves.	-/4	-/4	-/4	1/4	-/4
8. The teacher introduces the goals and objectives of the lesson clearly.	4/4	4/4	4/4	4/4	4/4
9. The teacher gives students the opportunity to reflect on the topics.	4/4	4/4	4/4	4/4	4/4
10. The teacher provides feedback and allows students to reflect on their self-understanding and development.	4/4	4/4	4/4	4/4	4/4
Total	32/40	31/40	28/40	34/40	35/40

The table displays that except for asking students to develop their own materials; the techniques that are used to enhance students' critical thinking skills are applied by all the teachers. It is seen that P5, a native teacher with a degree in Liberal Arts integrated almost all

the techniques into his classes. The non-native teachers who are graduates of English Language and Literature departments holding pedagogical certificates seem to employ these strategies very frequently as well. The most interesting finding regarding observational data is that the teacher who employs critical thinking strategies the least has a degree from English Language Teaching Department. Normally, one would expect graduates of education schools to be more qualified in terms pedagogical content knowledge that enables them to use a variety of techniques for fostering critical thinking skills.

5. Conclusions and Discussion

This qualitative case study was designed around the convergence of two research areas: beliefs and knowledge about critical thinking and the implementation of critical thinking. The self-reported data provided by teachers and observational data offered an interpretative view of how teachers perceive and integrate critical thinking in their EFL teaching context.

The results indicate that the EFL teachers in this study have adequate knowledge and understanding about critical thinking. They view critical thinking as a systematic process that involves questioning an issue objectively from multiple perspectives. From this point of view, their definition corroborates with the definition proposed by Beyer (1995) who defines critical thinking as the ability to make reasoned judgments. The respondents' insistence on the importance of questioning echoes the vital role of asking the right questions to foster students' critical thinking skills (Haynes & Bailey, 2003). Yet, when compared to definitions of critical thinking in the literature, it is hard to say that they have a firm grasp of all the elements of critical thinking. The teachers did not mention synthesizing, applying information and making appraisal, which are the core components of critical thinking. Another important aspect that is missing in their definitions and practice was the limited inclusion of collaborative learning environments. Group-work activities such as discussions and peer –assessment techniques did not have a dominant role in their teaching even though it is suggested that working cooperatively leads to achievement of higher levels of thinking compared to individual learning skills (Johnson & Johnson, 1986; 1994), and discussion is a powerful learning tool that provides the students with opportunities to become critical thinkers (Totten, Sills, Digby, & Russ, 1991). The relatively constrained conceptualization of the notion critical thinking by the teachers in this study resembles the narrow conceptions of the meaning of critical thinking by high school teachers teaching a variety of subjects in Hong Kong (Stapleton, 2011). Notwithstanding, the findings related to teachers' conceptualizations and integration of critical thinking do not lend support to the findings that indicate that the teachers are not in a favorable situation when critical thinking is concerned (Seferoglu & Akbıyık, 2006). The situation in this context contrasts with the findings of Chaffee (1992) who reported that critical thinking is a rarely taught skill in educational settings. Our study revealed that despite some limitations, participating teachers enthusiastically and explicitly practiced it.

Regarding teachers' attitudes towards development of critical thinking among students, the respondents have a very positive attitude towards inclusion of critical thinking into their course content. Critical thinking was definitely regarded as an important skill. They hold the belief that teaching critical thinking should be a major concern for all the teachers regardless of course content. The participants strongly advocated the need to focus on critical thinking processes and they require curricula that allow students to learn to do certain things across the curriculum and transfer these skills into their lives outside school. The teachers reported that they use a variety of techniques to support the development of critical thinking in students such as reading between the lines, questioning, making inferences, and connecting the topic to daily issues and concerns. Despite their enthusiasm, their ability to focus on critical

thinking is inhibited by several factors. The most prominent obstacle is the current examination based educational system that urges the teachers to follow the standardized curriculum that does not have much allowance for critical thinking. The same concern is expressed in different contexts. Researchers posited that standardization of curricula and emphasis on examination scores impairs teachers' efforts and ability to concentrate on critical thinking skills in the classroom (Smith & Szymanski, 2013; Stapleton, 2011). Another barrier is related to students' inability to think critically despite their education level. Normally, students should be able to make and criticize judgments and arguments when they begin primary school. Newmann (1990) indicates that for students to cope successfully with higher order challenges, they need in-depth knowledge, intellectual skills, and dispositions of thoughtfulness. Therefore, the initiation of children into critical thinking practices should start even before they start school (Bailin et al., 1999). All students have some degree of potential to think critically and integrating critical thinking in the core curriculum is the only method to develop this potential (Patrick, 1986).

An important implication that can be drawn from this study is related to the importance of teacher education programs. It was seen that the teacher who follows critical thinking principles most has a degree from Liberal Arts and the least is a graduate of a Language Teacher Education program. There is a possibility that the teacher training programs may not sufficiently equip future teachers with the ability of teaching critical skills. For the infusion of critical thinking into the education system, teachers should be educated to model critical thinking (Facione, 1990). Therefore, it is important to either embed critical thinking into all the courses given in teacher education programs or provide pre-service teachers with practice opportunities in critical thinking through separate courses. Oral (2014) describes the need and the process of starting a specific elective course called Critical Thinking Skills in Foreign Language Education in ELT Department at a state university in Turkey. Similar initiatives can be taken to emphasize critical thinking. Teacher candidates will improve their critical thinking and abilities to teach this skill when teacher educators use appropriate instructional methods (McCollister & Sayler, 2010).

5. Limitations and Suggestions

We have noted several limitations of this study. First, this study was conducted in a private high school where the number of students in each observed class is relative small. The class size might have a positive effect on the way teachers can implement critical thinking. Second, the small size of the participating teachers limits the generalizability of the results. It is not possible to generalize the findings to all language teachers working in high schools. Finally, data reported are constrained by teachers' responses to interview questions and dependent upon the number of classes observed. Longitudinal studies with larger sample sizes are necessary to obtain additional evidence to make stronger claims about EFL teachers' conceptualizations and practices of critical thinking.

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ENDNOTES

[*]A preliminary version of this study was presented at GlobELT *2017 Conference: An International Conference on Teaching and Learning English as an Additional Language* held in İzmir between 17-21 May 2017.

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Received: 21.07.2017
Received in revised version: 11.09.2017
Accepted: 22.09.2017

THE CURRENT POSITIONS OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION ELEMENTS IN SECONDARY SCHOOL COURSE BOOKS IN TURKEY

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Abstract

In foreign language teaching, both cultural elements and communicating with others in a cultural environment are some of the indispensable requirements for language learners. In this sense, intercultural communication can be seen as a keystone for language teaching and learning. However, it is known that in order to improve intercultural communication; course books should be designed via some basic elements based on intercultural communication. In this study, for the aim of determining the current situation on the contexts of course books which have been related to intercultural communication, the course books developed by Ministry of National Education in Turkey were examined in terms of consisting activities or tasks related to intercultural communication. As for the grades of these course books; fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth grades were selected, since activities based on intercultural communication have been begun to be adapted to young learners' course books after they are at least eleven because of their cognitive development. At the end of the study, the main themes of the cultural elements in these course books were discussed one by one as referring the related literature, and some suggestions on intercultural communication skills of young learners were introduced for researchers and educators.

Keywords: intercultural communication, young learners, course book

1. Introduction

Nowadays, communicating with others from different cultures has become more popular and it has been seen as a necessity for human-beings because of changing needs in this era. For all people, communicating effectively and making a connection with people in different cultures has been crucial for being a part of global needs. Recently, not only diplomats, politicians or footballers, but also nearly all people have needed to communicate with others from different cultures because of the changing requirements of being a human. For this reason, intercultural communication has been a term that has been become more popular in these days. As for this term, it can be said that intercultural communication is a kind of communication between people who have different languages, values, beliefs and customs (Bennett, 1998). However, Rogers and Steinfatt (1999) defined this term as "the exchange of information between individuals who are unalike culturally" (p.1). For a more specific definition, Samovar, Porter and McDaniel (2010) stated that communicating with others who have distinctly different cultural aspects means intercultural communication.

In terms of globalization, internationalization and a several of advances in technology or transportation; intercultural communication has become an indispensable part of education (Jackson, 2014). However, cultural studies are based on language researches because they consist of linguistic elements which are interested in cultural features. Since cultural elements are mainly related to the linguistic concepts, while teaching or acquiring a culture, language is seen as a keystone concept. Accordingly, the linguistic studies which have been discussed the importance of culture can be realized in literature.

The studies on intercultural communication in terms of language go back to Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis. In this hypothesis, Sapir and Whorf stated that differences in cultures in which different languages have been used could affect users' linguistic views (Sapir & Whorf, 1921). Even if the studies on intercultural communication and language has mentioned in ancient times, the interaction between those two concept has become more popular after World War II and researchers have become more interested in those terms in order to clarify the main concepts of language learning and teaching (Martin & Nakayama, 2007). After that time, some materials which were based on both language and culture have become to be designed to be helpful for learners in terms of learning a language professionally (Jackson, 2014). In this sense, it can be said that intercultural communication has been thought under the main title of learning a language appropriately and using a language in cultural contexts (Chen, 2017). For this reason, as for language learning, intercultural communication has a vital role for both educators and learners and also researchers who have been studying in this field.

When studying on intercultural communication and language researches, it can be stated that learners who are young ages should be taken into consideration because their language barriers and prejudices on some concepts are seen as lower than adults. It means that young learners do not have any prejudices on people who have different cultures, beliefs or values; and so, they can easily acquire some cultural elements easier than adults. Additionally, learning different customs or cultural elements can be enjoyable and attractive for young learners in language learning courses. Since they are curious and energetic, they are eager to learn a new culture that is a part of learning a new language.

Additionally, because activities or materials that are based on intercultural communication can be seen as authentic materials, these can support language learning in a real context (Jin & Cortazzi, 2017). In this sense, Harmer (1991) stated the importance of using authentic materials as defining this term as selected materials that designed for native speakers and based on real –life situations. Authentic cultural information and real-life communication can be supplied via authentic materials in a language teaching or learning environment (Richards & Rogers, 2001). Therefore, using some cultural elements in language teaching to young learners gives a chance to teach both target culture and target language in an integrative way. In this sense, it is believed that language teaching materials might consist of cultural elements and those elements could be designed for intercultural communication while teaching young learners.

However, in Turkey, even if there are some studies that reflect the importance of culture in foreign language teaching (Çakır, 2010; Çalman, 2017; Demirbaş, 2013; Hamiloğlu & Mendi, 2010; Işık, 2011; Türkan & Çelik, 2007; Üstünel & Öztürk, 2014), the design of course books in terms of both learners' own culture and their target culture is not observed adequately for young learners. In fact, it is known that teaching young learners begins in early ages when young learners are in the second grade and it goes on after they are graduated from high school. Yet, during these years, how they are taught about cultural elements and how they learn about their target culture has not been discussed effectively. For this reason, it is believed that even if they are taught about language skills or target grammar rules, they can have some problems in terms of communicating in an intercultural context. In this sense, the aim of this study was declaring the intercultural communication elements in course books that are used in teaching English to young learners in Turkey. As regarding to this aim, the research questions given below were aimed to be answered at the end of this study:

1. Do secondary school course books in Turkey include local cultural elements in visual items?
2. Do secondary school course books in Turkey include local cultural elements in written-text items?
3. Do secondary school course books in Turkey include target cultural elements in visual items?
4. Do secondary school course books in Turkey include target cultural elements in written-text items?
5. Do secondary school course books in Turkey include international cultural elements in visual items?
6. Do secondary school course books in Turkey include international cultural elements in written-text items?

2. Methodology

2.1 Research Design

This study is designed as a qualitative research design and specifically, it is organized with a descriptive content-analysis method. Neundorf (2002) stated that content-analysis is a technique that supplies objective and quantitative data for researchers. However, according to Seliger and Shohamy (1990), descriptive content- analysis is a method that is used to clarify the frequency of some linguistic elements in the determined course books. In the light of this research method, in this study, there was no real participants who are selected or determined for this study; yet in this study, four course books that are used in state secondary schools in Turkey were preferred to analyze in terms of consisting of intercultural features. As for this study, four Common European Framework (CEF) based course books (We Speak English, English Net, English Route and Upturn in English) designed and accepted by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) in Turkey were analyzed. While analyzing those course books, it was taken into consideration that how young learners are faced to intercultural communication. Since those books are approved by the Ministry of National Education, those are used in many state schools in Turkey.

2.2 Data Collection

In literature, some researchers have used some different criteria for the aim of evaluating the books in terms of cultural content. In this sense, Byram (1998) designed a checklist which was consisted of some basic titles such as cultural differences, identity, ethnicity, values and beliefs, daily routines, families, professions, relationships, and schools. Whereas Korkmaz (2009) analyzed course books under the four main criteria as fictional or non-fictional texts, visual references, conversational items and listening parts; Cakir (2010) preferred evaluating course books as base on idioms, proverbs, and some festivals. Additionally, as referring Jahan and Roger (2006), Çelik and Erbay (2013) determined three criteria mainly based on cultural elements as local culture, international culture and target culture; and they used those three elements on analyzing course books in terms of cultural elements. Differently, Demirbaş (2013) analyzed four course books that were designed for the aim of teaching English to young learners as considering the perspectives of intercultural items and items from target cultures. In another study conducted in Turkey, Çalman (2017) preferred two different models which were firstly based on Erbay and Çelik's (2013) criteria and secondly on Siddiqie's (2011) theoretical concepts in order to analyze a course book that was used for ninth grade high school students in English Language Teaching.

In this study, accordingly, the basic classification based on the criteria was preferred as considering the cognitive abilities and social interactions of young learners. In this sense,

firstly the basic criteria determined by Erbay and Çelik (2013) was determined since it consists of both local, target and international cultural elements; as for this study, it was believed that since young learners have been eager to introduce themselves and interact with other people from different cultures, both their own cultural elements and international cultural elements should be given in their course books in order to develop their intercultural communication skills. For this reason, the criteria that were based on local, target and intercultural elements were firstly examined. Accordingly, the main reason of preferring this criterion was based on the ages and interests of young learners; it means that young learners need to learn a new language as using their own sensations and they can acquire easily if the courses are presented via different language skills.

2.3 Data Analysis

During the organization of course book analysis, both visual and communicative activities were considered. In this sense, both written texts and visual materials were discussed one by one for each one of the course books. Additionally, the activities were examined in terms of consisting of both local and international cultural elements since both of them could give a change to learners on acquiring culture (Jahan & Rogers, 2006). As for visual elements, Korkmaz (2009) stated that figures, photographs, signs and symbols could be thought as visual materials in a course book. For this sense, all of visual elements in those course books were analyzed in terms of intercultural elements. As for written texts; dialogs, short texts and authentic reading paragraphs or passages were taken into consideration. As it was stated above, the course books that were specifically designed for young learners were analyzed in this study; hence the written texts were designed as short and simple in those course books. In this sense, all of the texts in written form were analyzed as written-text activities. The results of the analysis process were generalized in terms of the general scope of course books and the data collected via this study were introduced in tables. At the end of the study, the current position of cultural elements in those course books was discussed as referring the related literature.

3. Findings and Discussion

In this study, it was aimed that the current position of the cultural elements given in intercultural communication skill for young learners would be analyzed in terms of the course books that were used in secondary schools in Turkey. In detail, it was specified that intercultural figures or elements in secondary school course books that were used in Turkey could be made more understandable. As for course books, *We Speak English (5th grade), English Net (6th Grade), English Route (7th grade)* and *Upturn in English (8th grade)* which were designed by the Ministry of National Education in Turkey were analyzed one by one. In the analysis process, it was understood that because all of those course books were specifically designed for young learners, those were highly consisted of visual materials, vocabulary teaching based activities, short reading texts, short listening texts, games, interactive activities, colorful figures, original art-craft activities and communicative activities. Hence, the analysis of those course books were mainly based on visual and communicative items in terms of local, international and target culture specific items (British / American).

Table 1. *Ratio of the cultural elements in We Speak English (5th grade)*

	Local Culture		International Culture		Target Culture	
	Written text	Visual elements	Written text	Visual elements	Written text	Visual elements
f	15	15	22	34	20	59
%	26.31	14.01	38.59	31.02	35.10	54.97

As for analysis of this course book, first of all, it was seen that this book was written by a committee and then the general scope of the course was overviewed, at the end of this session, it was realized that this course book was based on teaching vocabulary and it was consisted of just short reading sentences, games and lots of visual materials. As for cultural elements, in general it was seen that this course book was started with introducing the basic characters who were used in the book and all of those characters were chosen from different cultures and their names were also preferred some well-known names that were used in different countries (Melisa, Jenny, Ege, Martin, Akiko, Marta, Bela, Ceren, Sophia, Emre). All of the units in this course book, those characters were used, for this reason, the names of those characters were not analyzed one by one for each units and they were counted just for one at the beginning of the book. In other sense of the general scope of the course book, it was seen that there were totally 10 units and those were mainly selected from the real life contexts.

As for intercultural items, as it was given in Table 1, local culture elements were seen to be 26.31% in written texts and 14.01% in visual elements. In detail, those local elements were seen in Unit 1 (My Daily Routine) as tea, honey and bread in breakfast, Karagöz and Istanbul city; in Unit 2 (My Town) as Atatürk Secondary School, country name and flag in Unit 3 (Hello!); cultural games in Unit 4(Games and Hobbies), mint-lemon tea in Unit 5(Health), Keloğlan and Nasreddin Hodja in Unit 6(Movies) and in Unit 10 (Festivals) as Children's Day, Ramadan and Independence Day.

However, international culture elements were seen to be 38,59% in written texts and 31.02% in visual elements. Those international elements were seen in Unit 1 (My Daily Routine) as different characters, Rome and Paris; country names and flags such as Japan, China, Spain and Italy in Unit 3 (Hello!); cultural games such as Origami, Tick and Checkers in Unit 4(Games and Hobbies); different film posters in Unit 6(Movies), cultural foods as Sushi and Pizza in Unit 7 (Party Time) and different festival names and customs in Unit 10 (Festivals) such as Dragon dance, Chinese New Year, Cinco de Mayo and Diwali.

Finally, target culture elements were examined in terms of American-British culture and it was seen that there were more highly target culture elements in this course and young learners were introduced with 35.10% target culture elements in written texts and 54.97% visual elements from their target culture elements. More specifically, those local elements were seen in Unit 1 (My Daily Routine) as different characters and London in map; country names and flags in Unit 3 (Hello!); cultural games in Unit 4(Games and Hobbies); lots of different film posters such as Harry Potter, Smurfs, Dracula and Ocean's Eleven in Unit 6(Movies); and different festival names and customs in Unit 10 (Festivals) such as Easter, Halloween, Thanksgiving and Christmas.

Table 2. *Ratio of the cultural elements in English Net (6th grade)*

	Local Culture		International Culture		Target Culture	
	Written text	Visual elements	Written text	Visual elements	Written text	Visual elements
f	1	9	9	28	2	10
%	8.33	19.14	75	59.57	11.67	21.29

As for analysis of this course book that was used for 6th grade students in state secondary schools in Turkey, first of all, it was seen that this book was written by Güler Şilit, not by a committee; and then the general scope of the course was overviewed, at the end of this session, it was realized that this course book was based on teaching grammar rules and language skills. Therefore, it was consisted of just reading sentences, listening activities, projects, games and lots of visual materials. It was designed as 10 Units and nearly all of the characters in the course book were preferred from the foreign cultures; so their names were not Turkish.

As for cultural items, as it was given in Table 2, local culture elements were seen to be 8.33% in written texts and 19.14% in visual elements. In detail, those local elements were seen in Unit 1 (After School) as Halay Dance; in Unit 2 (Yummy Breakfast) as tea, ayran, Turkish cheese; city names such as Istanbul, Ankara and Turkish airlines in Unit 3 (A Day in My City); a Turkey Map in Unit 4(Weather and Emotions). In a reading text in Unit 6 (Vacation), there was reading text on Marmaris.

As for international culture items, as it was given in Table 2, there were 75% international items in written texts and 59.57% items in visual elements. In detail, in visual elements, those international culture elements were seen in Unit 1 (After School) as flamingo and Polka dance; in Unit 2 (Yummy Breakfast) as a Japanese child character and traditional Japanese foods; film posters in Unit 3 (A Day in My City); 6 international signs in Unit 5 (At the Fair), a tour guide in Unit 6 (Vacation), a Van Gough painting in Unit 8 (Detectives at Work) and 3 singers as Iron Maiden, Ryan Tedder and 50 Cent in Unit 10 (Democracy). As for written elements, those were seen in Unit 2 (Yummy Breakfast) as a traditional Japanese food, and there were different expressions from different cultures in terms of saying “Good Appetite”; a text on Chinese Restaurant in Unit 3(A day in My City) and a reading text on election in Brazil in Unit 10 (Democracy).

Finally, as for the target culture items, as it was given in Table 2, there were 11, 67% international items in written texts and 21.29% items in visual elements. In detail, in visual elements, those international culture elements were seen in Unit 2 (Yummy Breakfast) as pancake, muffin and croissant; film posters in Unit 3 (A Day in My City); Statue of Liberty, Hyde Park and London Eye in Unit 6 (Vacation). As for written elements, those were seen in Unit 3(A day in My City) as a reading text on England, a reading text on Statue of Liberty in Unit 6 (Vacation).

Briefly, in *English Net* course book, most of the cultural elements were seen in international culture and the least of them were seen in local culture elements. Additionally, visual elements were consisted of much more cultural elements than written texts and reading activities. Although this book consisted of some cultural and intercultural elements, they were seen as not so much for young learners. In some units such as Unit 7(Occupations) and Unit 9 (Saving the Planet), there was no any cultural elements and also in some units such as Unit 5 (At the Fair) and Unit 8 (Detectives at Work), there were just a few intercultural figures. In this sense, it can be said that cultural figures or elements were not used in all of the units in this course book for young learners.

Table 3. *Ratio of the cultural elements in English Route (7th grade)*

	Local Culture		International Culture		Target Culture	
	Written text	Visual elements	Written text	Visual elements	Written text	Visual elements
f	5	9	16	20	2	2
%	21.76	29.04	69.58	64.51	8.66	6.45

While analyzing the course book that was used for 7th grade students in state secondary schools in Turkey, first of all, it was seen that this book was written by Evrim BİRİNCİOĞLU KALDAR, not by a committee; and then the general scope of the course was overviewed, at the end of this session, it was realized that it was designed for teaching grammar rules and language skills. Since young learners in these years can pay attention longer, it was analyzed that this course book was consisted of longer reading sentences, listening activities, projects, games and writing activities than the previously analyzed ones. Similar to the other course books that were used for fifth and sixth grade student, *English Route* was also designed with 10 Units and nearly all of the characters in the course book were preferred from the foreign cultures; so their names were not Turkish.

As for cultural items, as it was given in Table 3, local culture elements were seen to be 21.76% in written texts and 29.04% in visual elements. In detail, those local elements were seen in Unit 1 (Appearance and Personality) as Murat Boz (a Turkish singer); in Unit 2 (Biographies) as Hadise (a Turkish singer) and Atatürk; Istanbul city and Bosporus in Unit 3 (Sports); a Turkish Series namely "Aramızda Kalsın" in Unit 5(Television); Turkish coffee in Unit 7 (Superstitions). In terms of written elements, it was seen that there were some local cultural figures in this book. In this sense, in the first unit, there was a reading text on Murat Boz and another written text on Hadise in Unit 2. In Unit 3, there was reading activity on Zeynep's marathon adventures. In Unit 5, a reading text on a Turkish TV series was used, and in Unit 7, there was a written text on Turkish coffee.

As for international culture items, as it was given in Table 3, there were 69.58% international items in written texts and 64.51% items in visual elements. In detail, in visual elements, those international culture elements were seen in Unit 1 (Appearance and Personality) as Robert Patterson; in Unit 2 (Biographies) as Marie Curie, Einstein, Wilheim Conrad Röntgen and Merly Streep; football teams such as Manchester United, Bayern Munich and Atletico Madrid in Unit 3 (Sports); a safari in Unit 4 (Wild Animals); Halloween and costume party in Unit 6 (Parties); fortune cookies, gypsy woman in Unit 7 (Superstitions), R&B CD in Unit 8(Public Buildings), snacks in Unit 9 (Environment) and Curiosity Rover in Unit 10 (Planets). In terms of written elements, it was seen that there were some international culture elements in this book. In this sense, in the first unit, there was a reading text on Robert Patterson and different reading texts on Maries Curie, Einstein and Merly Streep in Unit 2. In Unit 3, there was reading activity on Messi and some other football teams. In Unit 4, Two and a Half Man and A Turtle's Tale were used, and in Unit 7, there was a written text on fortune cookies and some different superstitions from different countries such as Japan, India, Italy and Thailand. In Unit 9, there was a written text on California and finally, in Unit 10, there was a text about NASA and another one about Space Shuttle Challenger disaster.

For the last one, as for the target culture items, unfortunately, there was not so much items and as it was given in Table 3, there were 8.66% target culture items in written texts and 6.45% items in visual elements. In detail, in visual elements, those target culture elements

were seen in Unit 3 (Sports) as football team namely Manchester United; in Unit 7 (Superstitions) as a superstition in The UK; Neil Armstrong in Unit 10 (Planets). In terms of written elements, it was seen that there were some target culture elements in this book. In this sense, in Unit 4, an idiom known as couch potato was used, and in Unit 7, there was a written text on a superstition form The UK.

Briefly, in *English Route* course book, most of the cultural elements were seen in international culture and the least of them were seen in target culture elements. Additionally, similar to other course books that were analyzed in this study, visual elements covered more cultural items than written elements. In the course book, similar to *English Net*, the names of the characters were not Turkish and they were used all over the book. However, it was seen that there was attempt to use cultural figures in all units and some intercultural elements were tired to be integrated in the activities.

Table 4. *Ratio of the cultural elements in Upturn in English (8th grade)*

	Local Culture		International Culture		Target Culture	
	Written text	Visual elements	Written text	Visual elements	Written text	Visual elements
f	6	13	7	28	4	6
%	35.29	27.66	41.18	59.58	23.53	12.76

While analyzing the course book that was used for 7th grade students in state secondary schools in Turkey, first of all, it was seen that this book was written by Mehmet Şener, not by a committee; in general scope, it was realized that it was mainly designed for teaching grammar rules, vocabulary items and language skills. In this course book, there were much more reading texts than the others that were analyzed in this study and additionally, there were much more vocabulary items which had been tried to be taught. However, similar to the other course books that were used for fifth, sixth and seventh grade student, *Upturn in English* was also designed with 10 Units and nearly all of the characters' names were selected from abroad.

As for the cultural items, as it was given in Table 4, local culture elements were seen to be 35.29% in written texts and 27.66% in visual elements. In detail, those local elements were seen in Unit 3 (Cooking) as Turkish Pilaf; in Unit 6 (Adventures) as cities in Turkey such as Antalya, Nevşehir and Muğla; in Unit 7 (Tourism) as Bursa, Tarsus and İstanbul; in Unit 9(Science) as Utkan Demirci. In terms of written elements, it was seen that there were some local cultural figures in this book. In this sense, the reading texts that were used in this course book were consisted of local culture elements in the same units which have been mentioned above for visual elements.

As it was given in Table 4, international culture elements were seen to be 41.18% in written texts and 59.58% in visual elements. In detail, those local elements were seen in Unit 1 (Friendship) as film posters such as "My Name is Khan", "Gravity" and "Jack Reacher"; in Unit 3 (Cooking) as traditional foods such as pizza, lasagna, Kabuli Pilaw, Beshbarmak and Colcannon; in Unit 7 (Tourism) as Jamaica, pyramids; in Unit 9(Science) a few scientists from abroad such as James Watson, Edison and Galileo; in Unit 10 (Natural Forces) as Indonesia. In terms of written elements, there were totally seven written text were analyzed in terms of consisting cultural elements and those were parallel to the visuals that were given above.

For the last one, as for the target culture items, similarly, there were not so much items and as it was given in Table 4, there were 23.53% target culture items in written texts and 12.76% items in visual elements. In detail, in visual elements, those target culture elements were seen in Unit 3 (Cooking) as a muffin; in Unit 4 (Communication) as street names from England; in Unit 7 (Tourism) as Statue of Liberty, Big Ben and The Tower Bridge, in Unit 9 (Science) as National Park and in Unit 10 (Natural Disaster) as a TV program. In terms of written elements, there were some target culture elements in the same units that were the same as visual items.

Briefly, in the course book namely *Upturn in English*, similarly, most of the cultural elements were seen in international culture and the least of them were seen in target culture elements. Additionally, it was understood that, similar to other course books that were analyzed in this study, visual elements consisted of more cultural items than written elements. In conclusion, it can be summarized that in this course book, unfortunately, there was not so much cultural figures and intercultural activities or information for young learners.

As regarding to those findings, it can be said that cultural instruments or figures are tried to be integrated in all of the course books that are used in secondary state schools in Turkey. It is known that culture is seen as an indispensable part of language teaching and learning process, hence while teaching English, cultural elements could be introduced in an appropriate and authentic way. In the process of acquiring a foreign language, culturally presented ones can be learned easier (Çakır, 2010). Accordingly, teaching in an authentic context makes language learning more meaningful and it can be seen as an advantage for language learners, especially younger ones.

At the end of the analysis, it was seen that the course book namely We Speak English (5^{th} grade) had the most cultural elements in visual elements and written texts. However, it was realized that target culture items were mainly preferred in this book; yet local culture elements were limited. While learning a new language, the comparison of target culture and local culture can make an advantage for young learners, since they learn from near to close. Additionally, if they acquire their target language in an authentic context in which both target culture and their own culture is presented interactively, they may learn more permanently. In this sense, it can be suggested that local culture elements are needed to be added in this course for young learners.

Another result of this study showed that *Upturn in English* (8^{th} grade) was determined to have the least frequently used cultural items in written texts. Additionally, it was understood that in this course book, not all of the units were consisted of cultural items, yet just some specific units determined as *Tourism*, *Science* and *Cooking* were consisted of cultural elements. Therefore, it can be generalized that in this course book, there is not enough cultural elements for young learners in terms of consisting cultural figures in context. There may be some reasons of this result; firstly, as Alptekin (2002) suggested that course books may be designed with regard to their writers' point of view and their social lives, so this course book cannot be based on intercultural figures. Secondly, it may because the exam system in Turkey, it means that since learners in 8^{th} grade have to attend a national exam for entrance of high school namely TEOG, their course is designed with heavily vocabulary teaching and reading passages that are important for this exam. Because there is no culturally integrated question in TEOG exam, it may be neglected by both teachers and learners in this grade.

On the other hand, English Net (6^{th} grade) and English Route (7^{th} grade) had cultural elements to some extent; and they had similar ratios for international and target culture elements. More specifically, it was realized that those course books consisted of mainly

international culture elements and target culture was seen as neglected in terms of written texts. However, there were some instruments in local culture and young learners had a chance to see their own cultural or traditional elements in those two course books. It could be an advantage for young learners in terms of connecting target language and native language and also in terms of motivating themselves in natural contexts. As it was suggested by Alptekin (2002) and McKay (2003), cultural items in native language and foreign language should be integrated and presented interactively to supply a more successful teaching environment for learners. As for conclusion for the analysis of those two course books, it could be said that the cultural elements that were used in those two course books might be enriched via more game-like activities and listening skills. It could be also suggested that more visuals and authentic reading texts may be added in these two course books.

In this study, it was seen that all of the course books that were used in secondary state schools in Turkey had cultural items to some extent, and there were some specific units in each of those course books in which it was aimed to introduce cultural elements from both local culture and international culture. As it was stated by Byram (1998) learning a language in a culturally enriched environment could be helpful for using target language in a collective way. In this sense, the design of those units that were consisted of cultural elements could help young learners to develop their language proficiency in terms of language skills (Demirbaş, 2013). Accordingly, it could be expected that learners could use their target language interactively via culturally enriched activities and communicative skills (Korkmaz, 2009), and acquiring a target language in culturally developed contexts could be needed by learners for analyzing some expressions and understanding real life context more attractively.

However, it is known that even if children between 10-12 years are young learners, children up to 13 can be seen as early adolescents (Pinter, 2011); in this manner, course books' designing may be affected by this difference between young learners. It means that, at the end of the analysis of this study, it was seen that in the course books used in 5^{th} and 6^{th} grade consisted of much more visual elements, games, art-craft activities and shorter reading texts; however in 7^{th} and 8^{th} grade course books, it was realized that there were longer reading texts, written-texts, less visual and interactive activities. Yet, all of the course books were designed via four basic language skills, and it was easily seen that those course books aimed to improve all of the language skills for young learners. In We Speak English (5^{th} grade), there were cultural elements mostly in international and target culture, though it was suggested by Byram (1991) that younger learners had negative aspects for some cultural elements and they biased for some cultural figures. In this sense, as it was stated by Üstünel and Öztürk (2014), "culturally enriched lessons may improve students' knowledge "; and it can be suggested that thanks to cultural items, lessons in foreign language teaching can be more colorful, attractive and interesting for young learners, since they need to learn a new language in a natural context (Harmer, 2007).

4. Conclusion and Suggestion

The main purpose of this study is to reveal the current position of intercultural elements that are used in the course books that are seen as the basic resource while teaching English in Turkey; since the main idea of this study is based on teaching English to young learners, the course books that are used in secondary schools in Turkey are purposefully selected by the researcher. The analysis of the course books was based on Erbay and Çelik's (2013) criteria; in this criterion, cultural elements were divided into three parts as local, international and target culture elements. Hence, in this study, four course books were analyzed in terms of this criterion and the results of the study were presented via tables in above.

As a result of the study, it was seen that *We Speak English* (5th grade) had the most frequency for consisting of cultural elements, whereas *Upturn in English* (8th grade) had the least cultural figures. It may because of the views of writers (Alptekin, 2002), and may be because of the exam system in Turkey, since it affects the course books and activity use by teachers in Turkey (Üstünel & Öztürk, 2014). In another result of this study, it was seen that cultural elements were mainly seen in visual materials, not in written ones. It may because visual instruments such as figures, signs, pictures, drawings and photographs may help young learners to acquire some linguistic items permanently. Finally, unlike some studies in literature like Özil (1999) and Çakır (2010) which suggested that local culture elements were highly used in the course books; it was seen at the end of this study that all of the course books consisted of mostly international culture elements; and local and target culture elements were not emphasized as much as international ones. The result of this study in terms of the use of international and target culture elements much more than local elements is seen as similar to the results of a study conducted by Erbay and Çelik (2013) on course books analysis for intercultural instruments.

In conclusion, it is known that cultural items in English language teaching classrooms should be enriched for a better understanding and acquisition for learners (Erdoğan, 2015); it this field, it can be said that since course books are the basic resources or materials that are used to teach English in state schools (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999), the design of course books should be developed via cultural elements and these elements are selected from both local and international culture (McKay, 2003). As it is suggested by Baker (2012), the interaction between global and local communication can be supported via culturally enriched activities and teaching ways. Briefly, intercultural elements are seen as the most significant helpers in terms of acquiring a foreign language attractively and using target language communicatively in a real life context. For this reason, these kinds of elements should be supported in course books and they are introduced both for local and international culture elements.

As for suggestions, it is suggested that some other course books that are designed for young learners can be examined in order to give a more specific and detail knowledge on this field. Additionally, in this study just the course books were analyzed, however workbooks which were designed for just learners could be analyzed for the aim of supplying more component data for the study. Furthermore, in this study, the books used in secondary schools were discussed, yet the course books used for younger learners in primary schools can be searched for giving original data on the course books in primary schools. Finally, some different criterion can be used to examine the course books in terms of consisting of intercultural elements.

In terms of pedagogical implication, it can be said that because enhancing intercultural communication consists of thinking critically (Lin & Gallois, 2014) and it requires more logical and contextual skills, the course books written for young learners may be designed as based on these important concepts. Additionally, it can be suggested that evaluation of learners can consist of some basic principles of intercultural communication and learners have a chance to evaluate themselves at the end of each unit in terms of using cultural elements in their language learning. All in all, designing and developing intercultural communication can be presented in an interdisciplinary way for learners, and they may be supported by their teachers in other courses during their education.

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http://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/247/182

Received: 21.07.2017
Received in revised form: 04.08.2017
Accepted: 22.08.2017

EXPLORING PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHERS' COURSE EXPECTATIONS AND THEIR REALIZATION LEVELS THROUGH PORTFOLIOS

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Abstract

The purpose of the present study is to explore the expectations of pre-service English teachers from a course at the beginning of the term and realization levels of their expectations at the end as well as investigating the function of portfolios as an assessment tool from pre-service teachers' points of view. The participants were 90 third-year pre-service teachers, who took the *Teaching Language Skills I*, and developed portfolios during the fall term, 2016-2017 Academic year. The data were obtained from the portfolios and semi-structured interviews and they were analyzed by using content analysis technique. The results revealed that pre-service English teachers expected to be trained in four different categories during the course *Teaching Language Skills I*, which are skills teaching, managing learning and teaching, course design, and teacher skills. It was also found that 60% of the expectations of pre-service English teachers were met by the course. Pre-service teachers also reported that they benefited from the course *Teaching Language Skills I* in terms of some aspects of language teaching without expecting to do so.

Keywords: portfolio assessment, language teacher education, teaching language skills, course expectations.

1. Introduction

Every individual course in language teacher education program has a distinguished place and contributes to the preparation of pre-service teachers for teaching profession. Of the courses, Teaching Language Skills I and II program help pre-service English teachers prepare for teaching language skills individually and in an integrated way. Next to their role as an alternative assessment tool in language classroom, portfolios can be a means of reflection for student-teachers and a source of constructive feedback for the course developers and teacher educators.

Conventional teacher education programs follow an apprenticeship model and in so doing they provide student teachers with pedagogical skills and techniques derived from existing body of knowledge. Zeichner and Liston (1987) argue that this model of teacher education inhibits the self-directed growth of student teachers leading to a failure in promoting their full professional development. Contrary to these conventional models, Zeichner and Liston (1987) offered "an alternative model which oriented towards the goals of reflective teaching. Reflective teaching enhances teacher autonomy and increases democratic participation in systems of educational governance" (p. 23)

Nona (1998) tackles the issue of reflection in teaching and teacher education and the possible role of development in becoming a reflective practitioner. These issues are taken up through the lens of a portfolio process. The idea of reflective practice as a goal for teacher

education is not new and it goes back to Dewey (1933). Reflective practice in teacher education gained popularity in the 1980s with the work of Schön (1983, 1987). Nona's (1998) study, by looking at how reflection has been discussed in teacher education, presents data from a longitudinal study with the participation of ten teacher apprentices to examine the experience of becoming reflective through a portfolio process.

As a source of review and reflection, compiling the portfolio prompts the teacher to engage in a comprehensive self-assessment of different aspects of work or a specific course in question. By reviewing the content of portfolio, the teacher can make decisions about the priorities and goals for future development or improvement. Recently, language teachers have encouraged their students to accumulate and present their work. For that reason, portfolios are mostly used in language assessment and reflection. They contribute to teachers in their teaching and assessment practices. As an alternative form of assessment, portfolios have gained recognition in documenting students' learning (Kabilan & Khan, 2012, p. 1007). Different researchers in literature have made various definitions of portfolios. Brown and Hudson (1998) refer to portfolio assessment as "purposeful collections of any aspects of students' work that tell the story of their achievements, skills, efforts, abilities, and contributions to a particular class" (p. 664). Bahar (2006, cited in Demirel & Duman, 2015, p. 2635) defines portfolio as "the organized form of students' termly or yearly studies according to certain standards" (p. 74). Barootchi and Keshavarz (2002, p. 281) state that portfolios provide "the continuous observation of student's progress needed for determining teaching strategies." Shortly, advantages for portfolio assessment can be presented as: "strengthening students' learning; enhancing the teacher's role; and improving testing processes. For the teacher, they provide a clear picture of students' language growth by changing his/her role from that of an adversary to that of a coach, and provide insights into progress of each individual student" (Brown and Hudson, 1998, p. 664). Baume and Yorke (2002, p. 7) point out that "portfolios are widely used to document and assess professional development." In their study, portfolios were used to assess university teachers on courses run by the UK Open University.

Arslan (2014) studied integration of feedback into prospective English language teacher's writing process via blogs and portfolios. He investigated the effects of keeping blogs and portfolios on a group of pre-service English teachers' writing skills. The study shows that "the practice of blogging and portfolio keeping and specially receiving feedback both on paper and online contributes to student-teachers' writing skills significantly on basic elements of writing skill such as process, organization, content, language use, vocabulary, mechanics and accuracy. One more suggestion is that blogs and portfolios need to be integrated into writing classes in order to secure better benefits from writing practice in EFL context" (p. 131). Jarvinen and Kohonen (1995, p. 25) evaluate professional development in higher education based on personal portfolios during one year-long induction program. The findings indicate that self-assessment via portfolio keeping is an important tool for professional development. Stone (1998) examined student teachers' and supervisors' ideas about the portfolio process. In the study, the participants identified problems, pitfalls and benefits associated with portfolios. It is suggested that portfolios can be an excellent means for student teachers to document and reflect on their learning and growth as teachers. It is also recommended in the study that student teachers should start keeping portfolios at early stages of their undergraduate education. In another study, Anderson and DeMeulle (1998) examined the use of portfolios in 24 teacher education programs. The findings show that the teacher educators have not explicitly recognized the full value of portfolios, and the use of portfolios as an assessment tool is reflective of a constructivist paradigm. Tanner, Longayroux, Beijaard and Verloop (2000, p. 20) tell their experiences from using portfolios as an instrument for

professional development during a one-year pre-service teacher education course for language graduates. In the study, they present their belief that portfolios can demonstrate a trainee's learning process over time, illustrate an individual's development, show a complexity of a teacher's life, and stimulate reflection. They also demonstrated the ways of giving feedback on portfolios and made recommendations for strengthening trainees' reflective skills. Banfi's (2003) study presents portfolios, which aimed at developing the linguistic, academic and professional skills of trainee teachers and translators. The results demonstrated that "the flexibility of portfolios is considered to make them ideal tools for encouraging learner autonomy and a useful means of showing progress in the development of the skills mentioned above" (p. 34).

1.1. Aim of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore the expectations of pre-service English teachers at the beginning of the term and realization levels of their expectations at the end of the term, as well as investigating the function of portfolios as an assessment tool from pre-service teachers' points of view. Towards this aim, this study seeks answers to the following research questions:

1) What are the expectations of pre-service English teachers from Teaching Language Skills I in terms of their professional development?

2) According to pre-service English teachers, to what extent their expectations from the course are met?

3) Are there any aspects of teaching emerging at the end of the course that pre-service English teachers benefited without expecting to do so at the beginning?

2. Method

2.1. Research Design

This study is qualitative in design (see Berg, 2009; Creswell, 2013; Dörnyei, 2007). The participants were 90 third-year pre-service teachers, who took the *Teaching Language Skills I* and developed portfolios in *Teaching Language Skills I* during the fall term. These pre-service teachers had completed the courses aiming at developing linguistic skills, and professional development such as skill courses in the first year and methodology and language acquisition courses in the second year. The learning portfolios of the pre-service teachers with 180 introduction and conclusion entries were fed into learning portfolios. As part of the assessment of the course, the pre-service English teachers were asked to keep a portfolio in the fall term of 2016-2017 Academic year. The portfolio consisted of compulsory and optional tasks. In compulsory part, student teachers were asked to write an introduction to their portfolios at the beginning of the term and a conclusion at the end.

2.2. Analysis of the Data

The data obtained were analyzed by using content analysis technique. Recurring themes obtained from the analysis of the content of both introduction and conclusion parts of the portfolios were given in frequencies and in order of mostly referred themes; skills teaching, managing learning and teaching processes, course design and teacher skills (Saldana, 2009).

3. Results

R.Q.1: What are the expectations of pre-service English teachers from Teaching Language Skills I in terms of their professional development?

Pre-service English teachers reported that they were expecting to be trained in four different categories during the Skills Teaching I course. Those categories are *skills teaching, managing learning and teaching, course design, and teacher skills*. Table 1 displays the categories and the expectations of pre-service teachers together with their frequency levels.

Table 1. *Pre-service teachers' expectations from Skills Teaching I course*

Categories	Expectations	*f*
Skills Teaching	How to teach four skills	25
	How to teach pronunciation	15
	How to teach listening	13
	How to teach speaking	12
	How to teach reading	4
	How to teach grammar in an enjoyable way	4
	How to teach writing	3
Managing Learning and Teaching	How to manage motivation	5
	How to manage communication	4
	How to teach different levels of students	4
	How to increase participation	3
	How to deal with unexpected situations	3
	How to organize group work	2
	How to catch attention	2
	How to manage classroom language	1
	How to manage error correction	1
Course Design	How to design a lesson	9
	How to design an activity	9
	How to design materials	2
Teacher Skills	How to teach various learning styles	3
	How to teach various age groups	2
	How to teach young learners	1
	How to become a skillful teacher	1
	How to raise awareness	1

In the skills teaching category, pre-service teachers expected to learn how to teach four skills in an integrated way and as well as learning how to teach listening, speaking, reading, and writing as individual skills. Additionally, they said that they expected to be trained in terms of how to teach pronunciation and grammar in an enjoyable way. Learning how to teach four skills in an integrated way is the mostly expected one in this category. Learning how to manage motivation and communication, teaching different levels of students, increasing classroom participation, dealing with unexpected situations are among the expectations of pre-service teachers in the category of managing learning and teaching. In terms of course design, pre-service teachers expected to be trained in designing a lesson, an activity, and materials. In terms of the aspect of teacher skills, pre-service teachers wanted to learn about teaching various learning styles and age groups, teaching young learners, becoming a skillful teacher and raising awareness of students about learning a foreign language.

R.Q.2: According to pre-service English teachers, to what extent were their expectations from the course met?

There were 25 expectations emerging in pre-service English teachers' portfolios at the beginning of the course. Of them, 15 expectations were reported to be met by the pre-service English teachers in their portfolios at the end of the course. In conclusion, 60% of the expectations of pre-service English teachers were met by the course *Teaching Language Skills I.* Therefore, it can be said that a considerable rate of student expectations were met by the course; and this shows both the pre-service teachers' high awareness level about what to expect from which course and also the instructor's skill in designing the course in a way to cater for student needs. Table 2 displays pre-service teacher expectations that were met and not met at the end of the course. Expectations written in bold were the ones which were met throughout the course.

Table 2. *Pre-service teacher expectations*

Categories	Expectations at the Beginning	Expectations at the End
Skills Teaching	**How to teach four skills** **How to teach pronunciation** **How to teach listening** **How to teach speaking** **How to teach reading** **How to teach grammar through enthusiastic methods** **How to teach writing**	**How to teach four skills** **How to teach pronunciation** **How to teach listening** **How to teach speaking** **How to teach reading** **How to teach grammar through enthusiastic methods** **How to teach writing**
Managing Learning and Teaching	**How to manage motivation** **How to manage communication** **How to teach different levels of students** **How to increase participation** How to deal with unexpected situations How to organize group work How to catch attention How to manage classroom language How to manage error correction	**How to manage motivation** **How to manage communication** **How to teach different levels of students** **How to increase participation** How to make transitions between activities
Course Design	**How to design a lesson** **How to design an activity** **How to design materials**	**How to design a lesson** **How to design an activity** **How to design materials**
Teacher Skills	How to teach various learning styles **How to teach various age groups** How to teach young learners How to become a skillful teacher How to raise awareness	How to carry out task based teaching **How to teach various age groups** How to provide student engagement How to use various techniques and strategies How to raise awareness on weak points How to use technology

It is apparent that the aspects of teaching in the categories of *Skills Teaching* and *Course Design*, all of the expectations of the pre-service teachers were met. Nearly half of the expectations related to the aspects of teaching in the category of *Managing Teaching and Learning* were also met during the Skills Teaching I course. However, it is seen that pre-service teachers had different expectations related to *Teacher Skills*. They expected to be trained about some aspects such as teaching various learning styles, teaching young learners, raising awareness, etc. However, some of their expectations can be regarded as beyond the scope of this course. For instance, there is a course named Teaching English to Young

Learners, which aims to train pre-service teachers specifically in teaching young learners. Therefore, it cannot be expected from the Skills Teaching I course to train pre-service teachers in that aspect. Other expectations about learning how to teach various learning styles or how to become a skillful teacher can be objectives of the course named *Special Methods in Language Teaching*.

R.Q.3: Are there any aspects of teaching emerging at the end of the course that pre-service English teachers benefited without expecting to do so at the beginning?

Pre-service teachers reported that they benefited from the Teaching Language Skills I course in terms of some aspects of language teaching without expecting to do so. They stated that, in the categories of managing learning and teaching, and teacher skills they learned how to make transitions between activities, carrying out task-based teaching, providing student engagement, using various strategies and techniques, raising awareness on weak points, and how to use technology.

4. Conclusion and Implications for Teacher Education

Results of this study revealed that nearly 60% of pre-service teacher expectations from *Teaching Language Skills I* course were met and they benefited from the course in some other aspects of teaching without expecting to do so at the beginning of the term. Finding out about pre-service teacher expectations may have implications for language teacher education programs. At first glance, bringing pre-service teachers' expectations of a course to their consciousness level through portfolios may maximize the advantage they take from that course. By this way, they can compare what they expected and what they found from a course and this may be an effective way in evaluating what they have done throughout a course. This can also help them be aware of their strengths and weaknesses. Moreover, being aware of the expectations of pre-service teachers from a course may help course instructors in terms of designing the course effectively and meeting his/her students' expectations. All those benefits may increase effectiveness of a foreign language teacher education program.

As for further research studies that can be built on this study, pre-service teacher expectations that are not met throughout the course can be scrutinized; and reasons and results of this situation in terms of pre-service teacher thinking and actions can be examined. Teacher educators' views on the situation can also be studied.

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Received: 05.08.2017
Received in revised form: 03.09.2017
Accepted: 15.09.2017

TEACHER IDENTITY AND TRANSNATIONAL EXPERIENCE: A CASE OF AN EFL TEACHER FROM GEORGIA TEACHING IN TURKEY

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Abstract

The article presents a case study of an experienced non-native EFL teacher with educational background and teaching experience from her home country Georgia, and with a present EFL teaching position in her host country Turkey. Based on interview and graphic elicitation data, the study explored the changes which her teacher identity had undergone after interaction between her Georgian background and new Turkish context. These changes were investigated from social constructivist perspective in terms of culture, professional development, reflectivity, motivation, theory-practice integration and collaboration. Data were analyzed through structural, in vivo, open and theory-driven coding. The results indicated three main changes involving the following themes: (1) intercultural competence, (2) teacher development, and (3) collaboration. These transformations were identified with the development of three sub-identities respectively: intercultural, professional and social. The findings are consistent with multifaceted and dynamic nature of teacher identity. As for implementations, transnational teaching experience should be fostered by institutions and intercultural competency should be integrated into teacher education disciplines.

Keywords: intercultural context, social constructivism, teacher identity, transnational experience

1. Introduction

Identity has been interpreted (Sheridan, 2013) as a dynamic, constantly changing formation influenced by contexts and shaped by experiences (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Sachs, 2005; Walkington, 2010). Therefore, teacher identity shifts and develops as a result of interaction with the classroom or institution (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004; Sheridan, 2013), and when exposed to new teaching experiences in these contexts (Conle, 1996). Previous research (Beijaard et al., 2004; Norton, 1997) emphasized the influence of context on teacher identity formation and the gap in the literature on this issue (Beijaard et al., 2004). The research (Menard ‐ Warwick, 2008; Patricia & Uchida, 1997) on intercultural and international context and its impact on teacher identity seems to be even less. For this reason, the present case study will attempt to explore the effects of transnational experience on teacher identity by examining the transformations which a non-native EFL teacher undergoes after the interaction between the teaching contexts of her home country Georgia, and her host country Turkey. The changes will be explored from social constructivist perspective and aspects including intercultural competence, professional development, and teacher collaboration.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Social Constructivism and Teacher Identity

Teacher identity seems to be a very complex and dynamic concept because a single definition was not spotted but some features of it were underlined in literature. Based on

some sources (Beijaard et al., 2004; Lasky, 2005), teacher identity could be summarized as teachers' biographies, beliefs and concepts of their professional roles. In addition, a meta-analysis (Norton, 1997) of five articles on identity reveals the complex, and multifaceted nature of identity and finds out that identity is 'dynamic across time and place' (p. 419) because the participants from the examined studies have undergone significant changes after moving across countries and institutions. Similarly, moving across time results in pre-service teachers' perceptions change from teacher- to more student-centered approach during their degree (Sheridan, 2013). The complex and dynamic nature of teacher identity is supported by another meta-analysis (Beijaard et al., 2004) of 22 studies on teacher identity, in which some features of teacher identity development have been extracted. These features were summarized as, (1) being an ongoing learning process of framing and reframing experiences, (2) being affected by the context and personal preconceptions, (3) embracing sub-identities, which may cause identity conflicts in cases of context change and (4) the teacher acting as a self-agent in the process of constructing their professional identity.

Due to its dynamic nature, teacher identity construction has been associated (Abednia, 2012) with teachers' learning process and their professional development (Barrett, 2008; Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005; Nguyen, 2008). Social constructivism itself explains learning of teachers as a process of change in their personal conceptions due to the interaction between their new learning, old experiences and their social context (Roberts, 2016). Therefore, from social constructivist view, teacher identity formation is a learning process through which identity shifts as constructed preconceptions are reframed when teachers are exposed to new contexts and experiences (Korthagen, Kessels, Koster, Lagerwerf, & Wubbles, 2008; Sheridan, 2013). Beijaard et al., (2004) also suggested that the process of teacher identity formation is in line with constructivism in terms of learning and changing conceptions with the interaction of context, beliefs, and experience.

Teacher identity develops through interactions with context which means communicating with others in the classroom and institution and learning by associating of prior and new teaching experiences (Conle, 1996). For this reason, in the present study, the changes in teacher identity will be approached from the aspects of collaboration, teacher development, and culture. Because teacher identity consists of multiple sub-identities (Beijaard et al., 2004) collaboration could be represented by the social sub-identity of teachers as their relationship with the school, institution, colleagues, and students (Norton, 1997). When teachers have long-term living experience in different countries, their multi-cultural viewpoint could be identified with their cultural sub-identity (Norton, 1997). Teacher development might be mirrored in their professional identity as their understanding of professional roles (Lasky, 2005) and improvement (Abednia, 2012).

2.1.1. Professional development, collaboration and reflectivity

From a constructivist point of view, teachers develop professionally when they apply their previous beliefs and experience in a new context, and when they take the role of "reflective practitioner", not the "technician" role of just following the standard procedures (Roberts, 2016). They undergo Dewey's reflective cycle through facing a dilemma, reframing problems, finding an alternative solution and, therefore, broadening and changing their perspective (Roberts, 2016). In addition, professional development could benefit from teacher research as it fosters teachers' reflective, critical, analytical and autonomous approach to their own teaching (Borg, 2010, p. 402). While connecting previous with new experiences, teachers need not only to reflect but also to integrate theory with practice for their professional development (Tang, Wong, & Cheng, 2016, pp. 57-58) and adequate decision-making process in the classroom (Borg, 2010, pp. 402-403).

Along with open-mindedness, responsibility, and wholeheartedness, the contribution of Dewey's reflective cycle to teacher development is teacher collaboration, as making a decision in collaboration with the other participants is required in the process (Zeichner & Liston, 1996). Teacher collaboration during a reflective process is in association with the social constructivist approach to learning within the social context (Roberts, 2016).

2.1.2. Intercultural competence

Because the study focuses on transnational teaching experience, concepts of intercultural competence and awareness are supposed to be presented beforehand. According to the Council of Europe (2003), intercultural competence is to manage the relationship and mutual understanding between home and others. Intercultural awareness is the objective understanding of similarities and differences between home and target culture, accepting cultural diversity, and objective knowledge and perspective to this cultural diversity. In addition, it is about interrelation and development of language and culture competence and becoming open to new cultural experiences (Council of Europe, 2001).

2.2. Previous Research

The research on intercultural context and its influence on teacher identity does not seem to be in a considerable amount. A study about Japanese EFL teachers and native English teachers teaching in Japan (Patricia & Uchida, 1997), indicates that biographical, professional and contextual factors transformed teachers' sociocultural identities. While adapting to their context and roles, teachers were solving problems in the classroom and were engaged with teaching culture. Another study (Menard‐Warwick, 2008), focuses on cases of two bicultural (Latino-English) teachers of English with transnational teaching experience in the US and Latin America. The findings reveal that these teachers developed their intercultural identity and adopted a different approach to teaching cultural issues: one of the teachers focused mainly on subjective comparison of cultural differences, the other underwent cultural changes because of globalization.

The present study may contribute to researchers who are interested in teacher identity phenomenon and teacher education. This study may also add to the field by investigating the effects of international contexts on teacher identity and differently from the previous research, with a participant who is a non-native EFL teacher teaching in a non-English speaking country. The teachers from previous research are native or bilingual teachers exposed to two cultures, their own and that of the host country, while the teacher in the present study has to deal with three cultures: her own, that of the host country and English. In addition, the potential findings may give support to social constructivist approach to teachers' learning and development within a social context (Roberts, 2016).

2.3. Research Questions

From the literature review, it could be concluded that there is a gap in literature related to the cultural aspect of context and its influence on teacher identity. For the purpose of the present paper, the following question was posed:

RQ1: What is the impact of transnational teaching experience in Georgia and Turkey on the Teacher Identity of an EFL teacher from Georgia?

3. Method

3.1. The Participant

One participant was selected through purposeful intensity sampling as an in-depth and rich source of data (Patton, 2002). The participant is a 16-year experienced EFL teacher from

Georgia. She was born, did her BA and MA, and had eight-year teaching experience in Georgia. Now, she has been living and teaching English in Turkey for eight years, and she is a member of PDU (Professional Development Unit) in the institution she is working at. In order to keep participant's identity confidential, she will be referred to by a code (P), not by name in the study (See Appendix A for interview protocol).

3.2. Data Collection Methods

Data collection was conducted in June 2016, at a Turkish state university and lasted about an hour. Qualitative methods like an individual semi-structured interview (Frankel & Wallen, 2009) and two graphic elicitation tools (Bagnoli, 2009) were used to explore the phenomenon in-depth and get intense data (Rossman & Rallis, 2011). The individual interview was conducted once, was audio recorded and then transcribed. Interview questions were developed by the author and aimed to reveal the shifts in P's perceptions of teaching after she started to work in Turkey (See Appendix A for interview questions). The questions focused on the changes in P in terms of culture, professional development, motivation, reflectivity, theory-practice integration, teaching philosophy and collaboration as potential aspects of teachers' learning within a social context (Roberts, 2016). Right after the interview, participant completed two visual tasks (See Appendix B for graphic elicitation tasks). In task 1 the participant was asked to express the differences between Turkish and Georgian teaching contexts by drawing on a sheet of paper. In task 2 she was asked to draw her timeline and mark the critical events which have affected her perceptions of teaching in her professional biography. The aim of the visual tasks was to compare visually the two contexts and to assess their importance on a biography scale.

3.3. Data Analysis

Data were analyzed through structural, in vivo (Saldaña, 2013), open and theory-driven coding (De Cuir-Gunby, Marshall, & McCulloch, 2011) by two independent coders. The first reading was assisted by open and in vivo coding to elicit the key concept from the raw data. In the second reading, the key concepts were matched with the RQ and theory, and then reframed as codes by means of structural and theory-driven coding. After two coders compared each other's codes to check consistency, the inconsistent codes were negotiated and modified or added as sub-codes to larger coders, which after a unanimous decision resulted in the formation of nine codes in the final codebook (see Appendix C for final codebook). Then, the codes were categorized under three themes which gave an overall answer to the RQ of the present case study.

3.4. Validity and Reliability

The trustworthiness of the current study was supported by triangulation, member checking, and an inter-coder reliability analysis by using SPSS program. Triangulation was used to verify the findings through multiple data sources (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2013): an individual interview (Frankel & Wallen, 2009) and two graphic elicitation tasks (Bagnoli, 2009) representing verbal and non-verbal data respectively. To support reliability, inter-coder reliability analysis using the Kappa statistic was performed to determine consistency between two independent coders of the data (Landis & Koch, 1977). The inter-coder reliability for 11 codes of interview data was found to be Kappa = 0.80 ("Sig" = ,000; $p < 0.001$), and for 10 codes of visual tasks was found to be Kappa = 0.78 ("Sig"= ,000; $p < 0.001$), which is a significant result and considered to be a substantial agreement between two coders (Viera & Garrett, 2005). What is more, in order to clarify and verify the interpretations of the data, the interview record and final codes were sent to the participant

for member checking (Sandelowski,1993), which resulted in confirmation by the participant herself.

4. Findings

The nine codes from the data analysis (See Appendix C for final codebook) were categorized under three main themes, which revealed three areas of development in the teacher identity of the participant: (1) Intercultural competence, (2) Professional development and (3) Collaboration. Both the individual interview and the graphic elicitation tasks were consistent with each other and supported the findings above.

4.1. Individual Interview

4.1.1. Intercultural competence

Three codes were grouped under the first finding: Higher "Language Awareness", Higher Inter-Cultural Awareness and Higher "General Knowledge". These three codes represent the changes in terms of culture and language. One of the first effects of teaching in a foreign country mentioned by P (the Participant) is that she had increased her language awareness because as a foreigner living in Turkey, she had to communicate in English and this improved her English and language skills:

> P: I think the language awareness of mine has increased because I think my English has improved as well because here (in Turkey), although I am not in English speaking country I have to communicate in English. Especially for the first year when you don't speak any Turkish at all.

The next cultural change is that P has increased her inter-cultural awareness after some cultural conflicts, as she refers to herself as becoming more tolerant, ethical and open-minded to other cultures when teaching:

> R: What kind of teaching approach you are using now in the classroom, as a result of all these (culture) conflicts?
>
> P: Careful, interactive, less prejudicial, judgmental, more tolerant from psychological point of view but first time when teaching the language, you should not forget about that either, but of course, you become more open-minded to all the cultures and Turkey is such a huge country which is very diverse in cultures, it is like mosaic. […]. So, you have to be very careful about touching upon your topics you are talking about.

One concrete advantage of this intercultural awareness in her EFL classroom according to P is the increase of students talking time because,

> P: … I am a foreigner, I come from different culture, I might not know something but also it gives a big advantage for me because I also increased students' talking time in the class because I am a foreigner I have the right to ask them …about Turkish culture.

The last cultural effect of teaching abroad on P is that she has enlarged her general knowledge after experiencing different cultures, and P related it to her professional identity by stating that it made her better teacher with more objective and culturally rich profile:

> P: I became more objective person, my general knowledge has increased a lot, I became a better teacher. And culturally I can look at my own culture from more objective point of view and here I can see the culture. It enriches you and good language teacher should have very high general knowledge.

4.1.2. Professional development

This finding embraces the changes in P in terms of her professional development, explained by P as positive ones, "So changing the country, contributed a lot to my development". These positive changes are represented by three codes: More Practical Skills, More Reflectivity and "Drive" for Professional Development. As to the first change, P indicates improvement in her practical skills and integration of practice and theory in the classroom as a result of diverse student profile:

> P: I have to improve my practical skills with the students and here I have to use it more because I am teaching in the prep school and the audience is very diverse, (…). Of course here in Turkey I use more practical skills of mine but still we should not forget that we should keep in mind that we should have good theoretical background.

The need to develop practical skills and strategies comes from the need as a foreigner to prove her professional skills and diploma grades in action:

> P: You have to prove …they (Turkish employers) don't care what diploma you have. My diploma is with honors…here they need to see not only your CV but they need to see you in action. They need to see you not on paper but how you are at the lesson, how you at the class, how communicative you are with the students, how interactive you are.

The next effect on P's professional identity is that she has become a more reflective teacher. P indicates that she has become more reflective to her teaching in the new context due to engagement with teacher research and teacher development activities such as, conducting action research, and being engaged with mentorship and in-class observations, as she explains:

> P: Yes, so much more I reflect because while conducting this action research which I did in Turkey, in the new country here, I had to go through lots of literature and methodology […] I felt like I went through a new school. […] we had mentorship issue, we are with the newcomers, we have to attend classes, this lesson sharing procedure, and they attend your classes, as well, you are observed and when you observe somebody, gives you a different inside to your teaching.

The last but not least professional change is that she has become more motivated and active to develop herself as a teacher because she is a newcomer and foreigner. P calls her intrinsic motivation "drive" to prove her skills and meet the demands of the new context by attending conferences and seminars more frequently and becoming a member of PDU (Professional Development Unit) in her institution:

> P: … I wanted to develop myself more, I wanted to prove that although I am a foreigner and from Georgia, but I can do better, I can prove that I am not bad. (…). My professional development, my urge, my own drive inside because I am a foreigner, to have to improve myself more than I would have done it back in Georgia. […]. And also I am a member of PDU (Professional Development Unit) because I want to do it. […]. In Georgia I used to attend lots of seminars, conferences but here (in Turkey) I do it more frequently. Here I grasped any opportunity.

4.1.3. Collaboration

This finding includes the shifts related to professional collaboration represented by three codes: From "Individual" to "Team worker", More Interactive, and Sharing Ideas with Colleagues. P supports the finding by confirming that she is more collaborative now in Turkey than she used to be in Georgia, "R: Could you compare where you are more

collaborative, in Georgia or here? P: Definitely here (in Turkey)". As for the first change, P refers to her attitude change from working individually in Georgia to working collaboratively in team in Turkey as a need to integrate to the new cultural context:

> P: Back in Georgia I was more independent. I was not such a good team worker. […]. May be it was because of my reputation was already well established but here (in Turkey) I have to integrate into the society first, culturally and professionally, as well.

For the next change in terms of collaboration, P indicates that in the new context she has given importance to interaction as a part of her teaching philosophy:

> P: May be, good teaching is not only about teaching. It's about care. If you really teach from the bottom of your heart but you shouldn't also forget that you are there to teach and then establish some kind of relationship and the most important thing now for this generation is to be very interactive.

The final collaborative feature adopted in the new context is sharing ideas with colleagues, which was expressed by P as her increased desire to share her professional knowledge and ideas and help to her colleagues by presentations in seminars and conferences:

> P: I completed some new courses and, you know, way of presenting and sharing new ideas with the audience. […]. And also I am a member of PDU (Professional Development Unit) because I want to do it. I want to help people I want to share what I know more rather than what I did back in Georgia.

4.2. Graphic Elicitation Tasks

The visual data confirmed the findings derived from the individual interview. First of all, the timeline in Task 2 (see Appendix B2) reveals P's moving to Turkey as an important critical event on a biography scale. She has drawn more face expressions and phrases for this event than the others like graduation and first in-service experience. Task 1 (See Appendix B1) focuses on drawings and expressions about the differences between the contexts of the two countries and displays clearly the changes which P has undergone after moving to Turkey. Finding (1) Increased intercultural competence was expressed visually by P in task 2 though phrases like "open-mindedness", "plural culturalism", "tolerance" and face expressions in Turkish context displaying the cultural adaptation process of overcoming the cultural shock and becoming confident and satisfied at the end. Finding (2) Increased professional development was confirmed in task 1 through expressions and images drawn for Georgian and Turkish context. To emphasize the drive and dynamism for professional development in the Turkish context, P used symbols like a car, waves, and words like "self-improvement", "instability". In contrast, in the Georgian half of the paper, symbols like a boat, calm sea, flowers were drawn, and "stability", "steady" and "self-confidence" were written to show the stable routine in Georgia. For finding (3) Becoming more collaborative, in both task 1 and task 2, the phrase "team-work" was used for Turkish and "individual worker" for Georgian context.

4.3. Summary

To summarize, transnational change of context had an influence on participant's perceptions, and both verbal and non-verbal driven data indicated three main changes in her teacher identity: She has become a more intercultural, professional and collaborative teacher. The reasons for these positive changes are given by P herself as the need for integration and proof of qualifications in the new context:

R: Let's talk about your perceptions of "good teaching". How did they change after you started to teach in Turkey?

P: It has changed a lot. Changing the country gave me a special drive… […] back in my country …because everybody knew me, that I am good teacher… but here (in Turkey) you have to prove it… […]. I have to integrate into the society first, culturally and professionally, as well.

5. Discussions

The overall findings were consistent with Social constructivism (Roberts, 2016) and features of teacher identity in the literature (Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004; Lasky, 2005; Norton, 1997). Teacher identity formation as an ongoing learning process of framing and reframing experiences is supported by the visual tasks (See Appendix B), in which the reshaped conceptions of the participant are displayed on her timeline and contexts comparison. Teacher identity as being affected by the context and personal preconceptions is reflected in the changes of the participant after transnational experience and conflicts with the new context. The teacher acting as a self-agent in the process of constructing their professional identity is mirrored by the intrinsic "drive" and motivation of the participant to integrate culturally and prove herself professionally in the new context. Teacher identity as a dynamic system of conflicting sub-identities is represented by three main changes of the participant in terms of intercultural competence, professional development, and collaboration. They actually identify with her intercultural, professional and social sub-identities respectively, which are interrelated, constantly develop and coexist in a dynamic system of beliefs, concepts, and experiences. For this reason, this case study approached teacher professional identity from social constructivist view as a complex, dynamic and constantly developing formation, reshaped by internal and contextual factors.

Finding (1) Higher intercultural competence is consistent with previous research (Menard‐Warwick, 2008; Patricia & Uchida, 1997) that transnational life experience helped teachers to develop intercultural competence. However, these valuable studies focused mainly on intercultural identity formation of the participants and the cultural aspects of their teaching. On the other hand, my study had a multi-perspective approach and explored teacher identity as a multifaceted system of cultural, professional and social sub-identities. My study revealed that teaching in culturally different contexts affected not only the intercultural sub-identity of the teacher but also her professional and social identity: along with her intercultural competence, the participant developed her professional qualifications and her interactive skills. Another difference from previous research (Menard‐Warwick, 2008; Patricia & Uchida, 1997) is that the data from my study reported more handicaps and, therefore, efforts during the adaptation period of the teacher. The reason could be that P is a non-native EFL teacher, while the teachers from the previous studies are native or bilingual teachers teaching abroad. It seems that P had to work harder than her native counterparts to prove her qualifications because she is teaching a language which is neither her native, nor it is a part of her culture.

Finding (2) Active professional development, was in line with the study of Borg (2010), that action research as a part of teacher research contributes to teacher development by fostering reflective teaching. The teacher in my study mentioned becoming more reflective, objective and open-minded teacher due to conducting action research. This change is also supported by Dewey's role of "reflective practitioner", "reflective cycle" and three main attitudes of reflective teaching: open-mindedness, responsibility, and wholeheartedness (Zeichner & Liston, 1996).

Finding (3) Becoming more collaborative, is consistent with Dewey's reflective cycle as making decision in collaboration with the other participants in the process (Zeichner & Liston, 1996), and with the essential roles of social contexts and teacher collaboration in social constructivism and LTE (Language Teacher Education) (Roberts, 2016). Similarly, in the present study, the participant has become more interactive, collaborative and sharing as a result of reflective activities and interaction with her social and culturally different context.

From the discussion above it can be concluded that the present study is in line with literature in terms of social constructivism, professional development and the concept of teacher identity formation. The difference from previous research is the multi-perspective approach to the impact of the transnational experience. This impact is not only on the intercultural identity but also on professional and social identities, and on the whole complex "ecosystem" of sub-identities.

6. Conclusion

The aim of the present study is to explore the effects of transnational experience on teacher identity formation of an EFL teacher from Georgia, teaching in Turkish context. The findings revealed that teaching in culturally different contexts might have an important influence not only on teacher's intercultural but also on her professional and social identities. As a metaphor, this influence could be compared with that of the white ball in a billiard game: first, triggering closest to it intercultural sub-identity, then, activating the interaction with the other sub-identities and finally, reshaping the whole teacher identity.

The main limitation of the present study is that it is not supported by longitudinal data and multiple cases to gain more generalizable findings. In addition, qualitative data could have been enriched with other qualitative sources like personal narratives, diaries and in-class observations.

Considering the findings, some implications are suggested. Transnational exchange of teachers should be included as routine practice in Teacher Professional Development units of education institutions. This exchange should include not only theoretical training like seminars and workshops but also actual teaching sessions in the foreign context. What is more, disciplines like intercultural competence should be included or reinforced in Language Teacher Education.

For further research, investigations in different contexts and cases of teaching experience in multiple countries, with different teacher profiles such as native vs. non-native, mono- vs. multi-lingual for comparison, and with a deeper focus on the complexity of teacher identity are suggested.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Interview Protocol

Interview: 1

Date : 06/06/2016

Interview Protocol

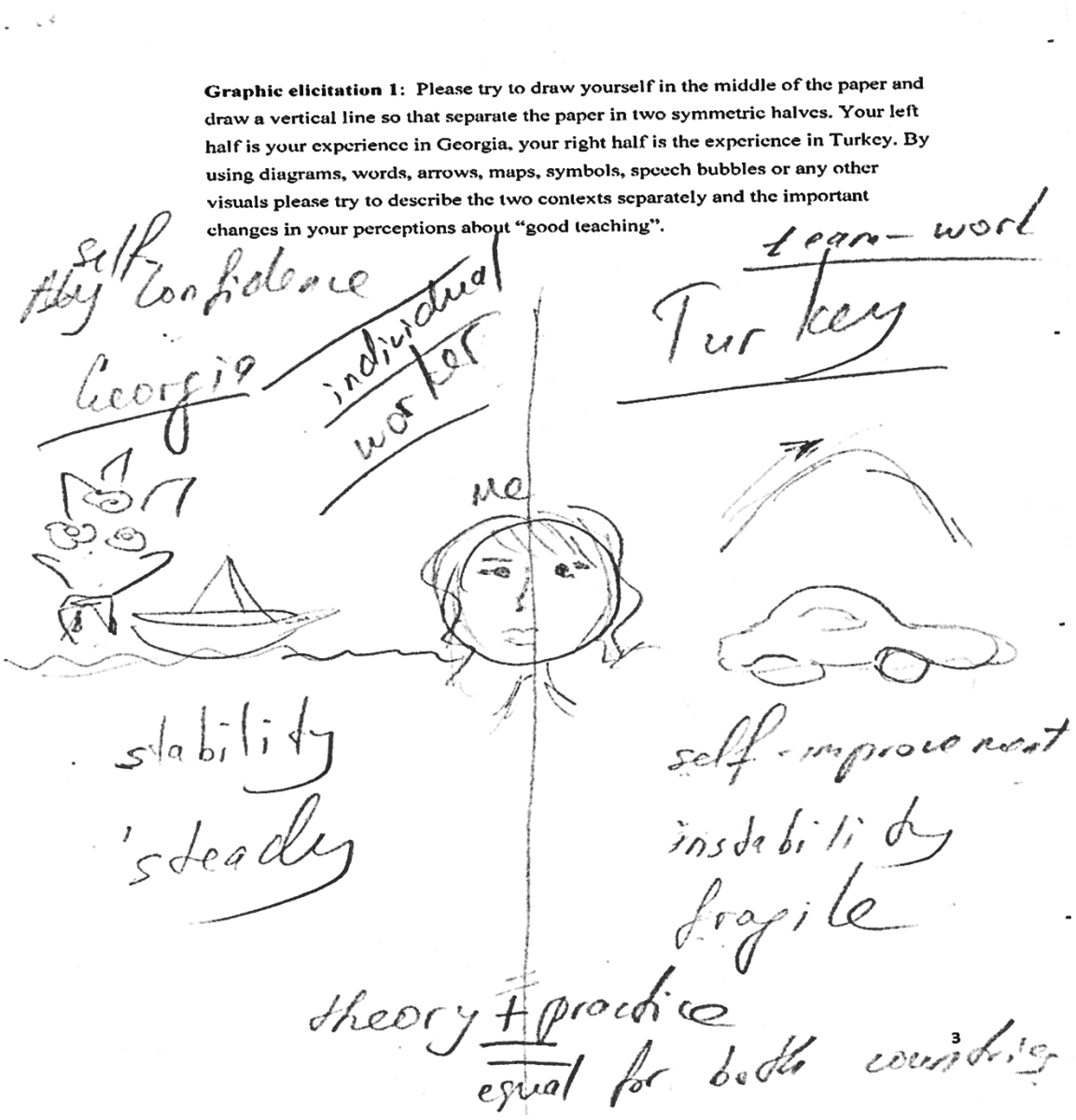
Welcome and thank you for your participation today. My name is Emel Kucukali and I am a PhD student at Yeditepe University conducting research study about teacher identity. This interview will take about 60 minutes and will include about 14 questions and two graphic elicitation tools regarding your professional experience and perceptions. I would like your permission to tape record this interview, so I may accurately document the information you convey. If at any time during the interview you wish to discontinue the use of the recorder or the interview itself, please feel free to let me know. All of your responses are confidential.

Your participation in this interview is completely voluntary. If at any time you need to stop and take a break please let me know. You may also withdraw your participation at any time without consequence.

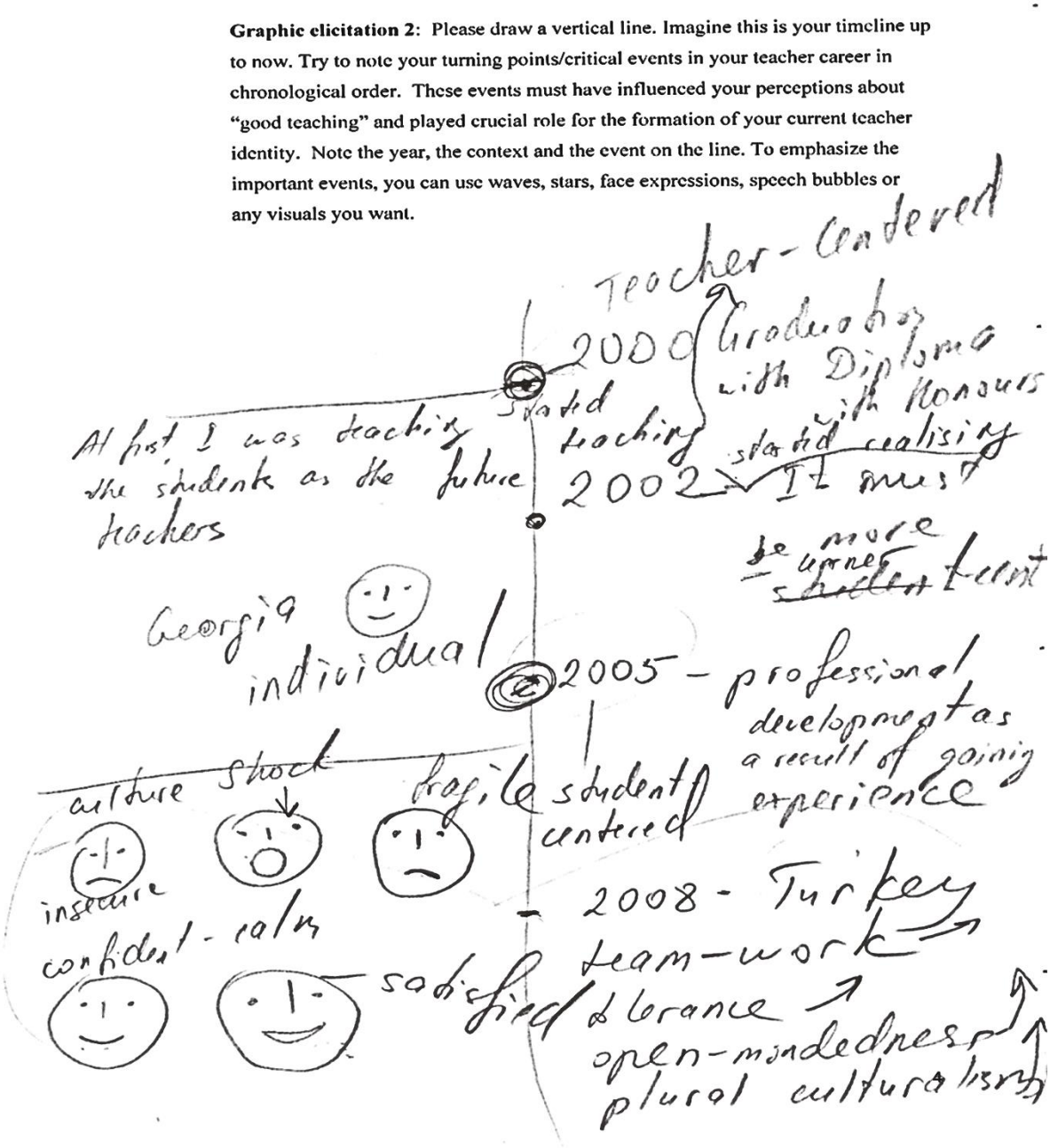
1. How many years have you been working as an English teacher?
2. Could talk about your professional career in brief? (from high school up until now)
3. Where did you complete your BA?
4. How long did you work as an English teacher in Georgia?
5. How long have you been working as an English teacher in Turkey?
6. What are the main differences between contexts in Georgia and Turkey, in terms of language teaching philosophy and policy?
7. Let's talk about your perceptions of "good teaching". How did they change after you started to teach in Turkey?
8. Are you more collaborative now? Why? Give an example.
9. Are you more reflective? Do you conduct action research more? Give an example.
10. Do you conduct and read more research about language teaching? Give an example.
11. Which one do you rely more in the classroom here, theory or practice-based knowledge? Give an example.
12. Do you take part more in professional development activities like workshops, conferences?
13. What is the effect of TDU department, where you work, on your perceptions about "good teaching"?
14. Did you have any identity conflicts as a teacher during your adaptation in Turkey? Give an example.

Appendix B: Graphic Elicitation Tasks

Appendix B1: Graphic Elicitation Task 1



Appendix B2: Graphic Elicitation Task 2



Appendix C: Final codebook

Table C1

Final Codebook

Theme	Code	Definition	Example from the Text
Intercultural Competence	Code 1 Higher "Language Awareness"	Participant indicates that as a foreigner living in Turkey, she has to communicate in English and this has improved her English and language skills.	***P**: I think the language awareness of mine has increased because I think my English has improved as well because here (in Turkey), although I am not in English speaking country I have to communicate in English. Especially for the first year when you don't speak any Turkish at all.*
Intercultural Competence	Code 2 Higher Inter Cultural Awareness	Participant refers to herself as becoming more tolerant, ethical and open-mined to other cultures	***R:** What kind of teaching approach you are using now in the classroom, as a result of all these (culture) conflicts?* ***P:** Careful, interactive, less prejudicial, judgmental, more tolerant from psychological point of view but first time when teaching the language, you should not forget about that either, but of course, you become more open-minded to all the cultures and Turkey is such a huge country which is very diverse in cultures, it is like mosaic. (…). So, you have to be very careful about touching upon your topics you are talking about.*
Intercultural Competence	Code 3 Higher "General Knowledge"	Participant refers to herself as acquiring higher general knowledge after experiencing different cultures	***P**:I became more objective person, my general knowledge has increased a lot, I became a better teacher. And culturally I can look at my own culture from more objective point of view and here I can see the culture. It enriches you and good language teacher should have very high general knowledge.*
Professional Development	Code 4 More Practical Skills	Participant indicates improvement in her practical skills and teaching strategies in class due to culturally different context and diverse student profile (e.g. more skillful integration of practice and theory in the classroom, developing flexible and ethical strategies for teaching in culturally diverse contexts)	***P:** I have to improve my practical skills with the students and here I have to use it more because I am teaching in the prep school and the audience is very diverse, (…). Of course here in Turkey I use more practical skills of mine but still we should not forget that we should keep in mind that we should have good theoretical background.* .
Professional Development	Code 5 More Reflective	Participant indicates that she has become more reflective to her teaching in the new context due to engagement	***P**: Yes, so much more I reflect because while conducting this action research which I did in Turkey, in the new country here, I had to go through lots of literature and methodology (…) I felt like I went*

		with teacher research and teacher development activities (e.g., conducting action research, mentorship, in-class observations)	*through a new school.(…) we had mentorship issue, we are with the newcomers, we have to attend classes, this lesson sharing procedure, and they attend your classes, as well, you are observed and when you observe somebody, gives you a different inside to your teaching.*
Professional Development	Code 6 "Drive" for Professional Development	Participant refers to her "drive" to develop professionally in the new context, the need to prove her skills and meet the demands, because she is a newcomer and foreigner (e.g. attending conferences and seminars more frequently, being a member of PDU)	***P**: … I wanted to develop myself more, I wanted to prove that although I am a foreigner and from Georgia, but I can do better, I can prove that I am not bad. (…). My professional development, my urge, my own drive inside because I am a foreigner, to have to improve myself more than I would have done it back in Georgia.*
Collaboration	Code 7 From "Individual" to "Team worker"	Participant refers to her attitude change from working individually in Georgia to working collaboratively in a team in Turkey.	***P:** Back in Georgia I was more independent. I was not such a good team worker. (…). May be it was because of my reputation was already well established but here (in Turkey) I have to integrate into the society first, culturally and professionally, as well.*
Collaboration	Code 8 More Interactive	Participant indicates that in the new context she has given importance to interaction as a part of her teaching philosophy.	***P**: May be, good teaching is not only about teaching. It's about care. If you really teach from the bottom of your heart but you shouldn't also forget that you are there to teach and then establish some kind of relationship and the most important thing now for this generation is to be very interactive.*
Collaboration	Code 9 Sharing Ideas with Colleagues	Participant refers to her increased desire to share her professional knowledge and ideas and help to her colleagues (e.g., presentations to audience)	***P:** […]. And also I am a member of PDU (Professional Development Unit) because I want to do it. I want to help people I want to share what I know more rather than what I did back in Georgia*

P = Participant of the current study

PDU = Professional Development Unit

R = Researcher of the current study

Okpe, A. A., & Onjewu, M. A. (2017). Self-development strategies for the enhancement of EFL teachers. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching (IOJET)*, *4*(4), 475-481. http://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/253/184

Received: 22.07.2017
Received in revised version: 14.08.2017
Accepted: 20.08.2017

SELF-DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES FOR THE ENHANCEMENT OF EFL TEACHERS

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SELF-DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES FOR THE ENHANCEMENT OF EFL TEACHERS

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Abstract

The study is a follow-up to two earlier empirical searches conducted on the state of EFL in Nigeria but with a global relevance. It is born out of a passion to provide impetus to teachers and a transformation in the state of EFL in Nigeria in particular and the world in general; in view of the lackadaisical disposition observed among many teachers of English. UNESCO (2014, p. 9) declares that an educational system is only as good as its teachers. Hence professional self-development (PSD) is germane to the process of promoting excellent English language learning. The paper explicates the concept of PSD , the different strategies such as self-orientation, self-mentoring, peer-coaching, critical incidents, action research, teaching portfolios, teacher support groups, journal writing, among others; beams a searchlight on the challenges of PSD like economic downturn and unfriendly work environment, provides counsel to EFL teachers by enumerating the benefits of PSD which include deep rooted satisfaction and confidence, respect and honour, relevance and growth with its attendant intellectual and material gains. It concludes that PSD is a composite act that enhances not only the teacher but also the learners, learning, the language and the world.

Keywords: self-development, strategies, teachers, EFL

1. Introduction

The concept of self-development for teachers is represented with different descriptions such as Professional Self-Development (PSD), Professional Development (PD), Teacher Development (TD), and so on; but no matter the nomenclature, the kernel is the development of the teacher who is considered a pivotal figure in any educational programme. Hence The UNESCO's (2014, p.9) stance that an educational system is only as good as its teachers. To Bhatta (2011, p.1), teachers are 'the only on-stage actors', among the various stakeholders, whose actions bear direct impact on the learners. They are the nucleus and determinants of the success or failure of any well packaged educational programme. Consequently, their development and total well-being are of utmost importance.

Teachers' self-development entails all that a teacher needs to have depth, to be versatile and efficient in his chosen career with satisfactory outcome for himself, the learners and the society. According to Underhill (1986, p.1), teacher development involves the process of attaining the best that a teacher can be. This process suggests the notion of continuous learning and improvement as, 'what is the best today if not improved upon can become obsolete tomorrow'. On the other hand, Rossner (1992, p.4) suggests that teacher development goes beyond language and teaching to encompass aspects of language development, skills of counselling, training in boldness and confidence-building, computing, meditation, cultural broadening and much more.

Freeman (1989, p.37) marries teacher development and teacher training as two sides of a coin on which teacher education strategies are hinged. He delineates teacher training as comprising what he calls the more 'trainable' aspect of teaching anchored on knowledge and skills; while teacher development is centred on aspects that have to do with generating change in the area of teaching with particular reference to attitude and awareness. Teacher development essentially entails developing a positive outlook and sustaining same (attitude) towards the job of teaching and oneself as a teacher. Unless a teacher is happy with himself and his career, no meaningful achievement can be recorded. Hence the total well-being of the teacher mentioned earlier as a vital focus. A good plane with ready passengers and an excellent airport as well as a good weather condition without a pilot, goes nowhere. This is analogous of an educational system.

Attitude and awareness have been identified as crucial elements in teacher development of any kind. But it must be stressed that a positive attitude of a teacher towards himself, the learners, the language and his profession is the impetus that will generate the quest for awareness about himself (his strengths and weaknesses), the learners (who they are and what they need), the language (the new trends in theories and practice in the field) and the context of his work (policies, updates on syllabi, assessment procedures and materials).

2. The Background of the Problem

Going by the outcome of previous studies, the issue of professional self-development for EFL teachers becomes imperative– a crucial matter that demands urgent attention. This study is predicated on two earlier ones titled 'EFL/EL2 teaching in Nigeria: A choice or charade' and 'The Abolishment of Teachers' Training Colleges and its Implications on ELT in Nigeria' by the same authors. Also, the general trend in other parts of the globe necessitates the focus on strategies for EFL teachers' development in a time like this when the English language has become a global language.

Parry (2015) reports that Hacettepe University hosted a programme on Continuing Professional Development (CPD) for preparatory year instructors in 2014, with participants drawn from over 40 universities across Turkey; many of which were introducing CPD to their ELT staff for the first time. This indicates that PSD is a critical matter as this is not peculiar to Turkey. The result of the two studies mentioned above shows that many teachers of English are in the profession as a charade and as such are not keen on developing their professional expertise since it is not a deliberate joyful choice to be ELT practitioners.

Intrinsic motivation becomes apparent when an individual possesses an impetus for pursuing a course. Such innate drive propels one to sail against the tide and explore new grounds in pursuance of set goals. But where an individual is 'dragged' into a venture by compelling circumstances, the interest to aspire to break new grounds may be completely absent as shown by many of the ELT practitioners examined. If the quality of any educational programme is as good as its teachers, then examining the strategies for professional self-development of EFL teachers is a worthwhile venture.

3. Objectives of the Study

The study sets out to achieve the following, among other things:

1. Explicate the concept of PSD.
2. Examine different PSD strategies.
3. Enumerate the challenges of PSD.
4. Delineate the importance of PSD to EFL teachers' enhancement
5. Offer counsels and recommendations for EFL teachers and all stakeholders in English Language education.

4. Theoretical Framework

The study is predicated on Freeman's (1989, p.27) model of teaching which stipulates that the decision-making process should be based on the categories of knowledge, skills, attitude and awareness. Any move in language teaching that is not anchored on sound knowledge and information, the right skills and mental disposition, as well as awareness of the factors and variables in the language environment, will achieve very little or no result. This study is shaped by this model and tailored along its prescriptions.

5. The Mode of This Discourse

English as a foreign language teaching (EFLT) like many other human endeavours is dynamic, always calling for examination and re-examinations in order to keep abreast with time and unfolding circumstances and challenges. The outcome of this process culminates in decision making for adoptability and adaptability of earlier stance. At the time any educational policy is made, it represents the best view of the policy makers but time and tide would unfailingly necessitate the adoptability and adaptability of such a policy. To borrow a terminology from the field of Fine Arts (graphic), the educational policies promulgated at any point in time are the best and in most cases, the farthest view of the policy makers from their 'angle of elevation'. But with time, the visual barricade is removed and the adoptable property of the policies is unveiled, calling for adaptability of such procedures to the prevailing circumstances.

This discourse therefore, is patterned on Freeman's (1989, p. 27) four parameters of knowledge, skills, attitude, and awareness, for decision making. The knowledge gathered from the previous studies as earlier indicated in this paper, is the basis for this discussion. The knowledge in turn, provides insight into the skills of EFL teachers – what they have against what they should have and the attitude of those examined, creating the necessary awareness capable of bringing about positive changes in the entire circle. Consequently, the decision which stems from the knowledge provided by the recommendations is arrived at. This paper is not just descriptive but it is imbued with empiricism.

6. PSD Strategies for EFL Teachers

There are different strategies that a teacher can adopt to achieve his goal of professional self-development, which means that the onus is on each teacher to saddle his ass to embark on the journey to professional excellence. Intrinsic motivation is what counts as the extrinsic type which should come from the employers, government and other stakeholders may not readily be available. And dependence on what is unavailable will jeopardize a teacher's journey to excellence. The strategies discussed here are those that can enhance PSD for a teacher who is determined to sail against the tide. This writer, from personal experience, can attest to the fact that in certain quarters of the globe, even before the global economic down-turn that has rocked many economies, those in the capacity to provide motivation for EFL teachers often fail in this responsibility and the resources earmarked for such, are most times diverted through misappropriation or misdirection. In this regard, Shakespeare's dictum of 'what cannot be avoided, should be endured' should be modified to 'what cannot be avoided, should be converted'. Rather, than a teacher sitting down to 'nothing' because he is not extrinsically motivated, he should convert the odd to looking within to bring out what he can do to help himself move forward in his career. Below are the various self-services a teacher can engage in for personal and career advancement. They include self-orientation, self-monitoring, peer-coaching, critical incidents, action research, teaching portfolios, teacher support groups, journal writing, peer-evaluation, and so on.

(i) Self-Orientation

Self-orientation ranks uppermost on the list and it is considered a fundamental strategy for PSD because of the discovery from the different previous studies. The mind-set of many teachers of English, especially in Nigeria and other parts of the globe needs a re-orientation to catch the vision of PSD and to run with. In the study, 'EFL/EL2 Teaching in Nigeria: A Choice or a Charade', 40% of the respondents answering the question on their choice to operate as EFL teachers said that they took to teaching English as the last resort in face of non-availability of other jobs; majority of whom have not developed the required enthusiasm towards the career. This makes it imperative to consider Self-Orientation as a PSD strategy.

Self-Orientation entails the process whereby a teacher who has realised his poor attitude to the career, consciously takes steps in the direction of self-education to boost his morale by reading materials that emphasise the importance of what he is doing which is capable of eradicating the lackadaisical attitude that was already imbibed, thereby bringing a positive change. Knowledge they say, is light. This light from reading or listening to relevant programmes on this aspect will dispel the darkness of negativity. Self-Orientation can also be done by associating with people who have made positive progress in the EFL career. This form of association can result to a change of attitude as 'iron sharpens iron' and light begets light. The EFL teacher has to do this by himself and for himself. Self-Orientation therefore, is a spring-board from where all other strategies can take off.

(ii) Self-Monitoring

This involves a conscientious documentation or record keeping in form of lesson reports, audio or video recordings of one's teaching over a period of time for the purpose of Self-evaluation. The teacher keeps track of his language lessons in order to review his strengths and weaknesses in order to make decisions and create changes when and where necessary. The meticulous information gathered over time can provide the teacher with a clear picture of his teaching behaviour and practices for future reference – a basis for an informed shift or change in posture for a better performance of his role as a language teacher.

(iii) Action Research

It entails a careful examination or observation of one's classroom or educational practice and embarking on research to solve the problems that have been identified. As Bhatta (2017) observes, this type of research is carried out not for theory development or drawing a generalisation but for the sake of application in a bid to find solution to an immediate problem. The cardinal issues in an action research are plan, actions, observation and reflection. Teachers can collaboratively work to find solutions to the problems that they have identified. The steps involve planning, taking steps (action), observation and reflection and if the end result is negative, the process or cycle is repeated.

(iv) Critical Incidents

In the course of language teaching, a teacher may be confronted with a particular challenge, problem or incidents. This is an unplanned or unanticipated occurrence during a lesson that directs attention to certain aspects of teaching and learning. The teacher is prompted by this incident and swings into action in order to find a way out. It is critical due to the fact that it is useful for future reference. The experience of critical incidents can prepare teachers to adequately handle such occurrence or similar situation in the future.

(v) Teacher Portfolios

Teaching portfolios are an assemblage of teaching materials and related documents that teachers use during language teaching and learning processes. They are useful in course planning and presentation, and serve as a tool for reflection in that they are a means for evaluation and necessary feedback− providing an opportunity to reflect and rethink strategies and methodologies, rearrange priorities and plan adequately for the future. The collection is rich due to the fact that it emanates from different sources such as the syllabi, samples of learners' work, reports of classroom research, self-observations and other sources like language departmental reports. They are a rich source of information for better performance of teachers' duties.

(vi) Journal Writing

This means keeping a teaching journal – a form of an on-going account of observations, reflections and other ideas about one's practice of teaching. It can be in form of a notebook, electronic mode or diaries for the purpose of reconsideration for further improvement on previous approaches or methods of language presentation to learners.

(vii) Peer Coaching

Two teachers may initiate a programme of assisting each other in their teaching career. In this case, they take turns in observing each other's teaching and make necessary input by giving feedback and suggestions on further improvement of their performance. They interchange roles as coach and coachee. They are objective in their evaluation of each other's classroom practice which helps each of them to change what needs to be changed.

(viii) Mentoring

This usually entails a teacher willingly coming under the tutelage of a more experienced person in the field. It is a professional partnership between teachers that requires the willingness of the one to be mentored. It is not by compulsion. The one in quest of more knowledge should express a desire to learn. When the mentee is desirous of learning, he keenly observes the mentor and asks questions. This method has been found to be very useful in producing great language teachers. More often than not, each great teacher has someone to point at as a mentor whether the one who is called a mentor is aware or not.

(ix) Team Teaching

In this case, a group of teachers come together to plan, set goals and co-operate to teach a group of students. They may choose to distribute different topics or areas to be taught among themselves. It may go as far as designing a syllabus, sourcing materials, teaching and evaluating students' results. This kind of co-operation enables a positive interaction among teachers with the outcome of each one of them becoming more polished in their teaching behaviour as they contribute to one another's life.

Time and space preclude a further discussion of more PSD strategies but every PSD strategy should overtly or covertly achieve these four goals in EFL teachers. They include a better knowledge of the subject matter, a deeper knowledge of theories about teaching and learning−new trends and innovations in teaching and learning methodologies, a better knowledge of the learners and how best to relate with them in order to make language learning pleasurable and finally, an up to date awareness of the work environment− changes that must take place with regards to syllabi, assessment procedures, materials and educational

policies. A teacher who is professionally developed should not be found wanting in any of these areas.

7. The Challenges of PSD

The challenges of PSD are many but suffice to mention just these three. They are:-

(i) Teacher's Attitude: the remedy for this has already been provided in the first PSD strategy (Self-Orientation) discussed in this paper. If the attitude of EFL teachers remains negative, no meaningful development can take place. It behoves the teachers to consciously ignite the desire to develop themselves. Self-re-orientation and positive attitudinal disposition are the keys to professional advancement.
(ii) Economic Downturn: 'Money answers all things' is a Biblical dictum that cannot be ignored when embarking on a venture that is financially demanding. There is a global economic recession that has affected many countries and many people. This no doubt, poses a challenge to PSD. EFL teachers who can hardly feed may not think of travelling for conferences outside their places of residence or procuring books and other materials that can enhance their development. More so, when a teacher is hungry, he cannot function well or think straight.
(iii) Unfriendly Work Environment/Lack of Extrinsic Motivation: When the environment where one works does not favour self-development, it is a serious barrier to professional advancement. A conducive work atmosphere serves as impetus to the employees to thrive and grow. It has also been mentioned that often times, those in the capacity to motivate teachers through their position and resources fail to deliver this trust.

8. The Benefits of PSD

(i) Satisfaction: Among other things, a teacher who embarks on PSD will reap benefits of deep rooted satisfaction and confidence in himself which brings boundless joy to him.
(ii) Respect and Honour: It is said that even if a fool takes interest in what he is doing, the whole world will stand still to look at him. Diligence pays by crowning the diligent with respect and honour. A teacher may start small but personal development will bring honour to him and announce him to the world.
(iii) Relevance: A man, who has something to offer, will attract people to himself and this has attendant benefits materially, financially and otherwise.

9. Recommendations/ Conclusion

In view of the benefits of PSD enumerated above and others not mentioned, an EFL teacher who wants to be reckoned with must endeavour to stand against all odds and strive towards professional excellence. The challenges are there no doubt, but they are not strong enough to hinder a teacher who is determined at heart to excel; because where there is a will, there must be a way. PSD, as clearly shown in this study, is a composite act that enhances not only the teacher, but also the learners, the language and the society. It is a worthwhile venture in spite of the cost.

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Received: 20.07.2017
Received in revised form: 08.08.2017
Accepted: 10.09.2017

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Abstract

The increasing number of non-native English speakers in the world has led to the use of varieties of English. Today, the number of speakers of English in the expanding circle has exceeded the number of speakers in the outer and inner circles. This has given rise to the scrutiny of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). In this regard, the research and studies in this particular area have increased over the last decades. The purpose of this action research was to build awareness of World Englishes (WEs) among preparatory students at a private university in Turkey. The study was mainly concerned with acquainting the group with the term and raising consciousness about this subject matter. The research was conducted in a private university in İstanbul, Turkey to 20 preparatory students aged 18-21 with A2 level English proficiency. Adapted EFL materials including videos, dialogues, reading and listening texts were utilized. The data were collected through questionnaires and reflective essays. With regard to the results, the students had an idea about the concept of WEs and they became aware of the varieties of English to some extent; specifically, they displayed consciousness about the status of English across the world and sympathy toward WEs.

Keywords: world Englishes, ELF, expanding circle, lingua franca

1. Introduction

English has become the most extensively taught language in the world over the past century. It also has become the most widely used language of communication in a diversity of contexts such as science, business, politics and education (Celce-Murcia, 2014). With this widespread use of English in mind McKay (2002); thus, calls English as an international language. Crystal (2003) similarly calls it 'global language'. In addition to this status of English, it also is getting acknowledged as today's lingua franca, as is observed in communication between non-native users of two different L1 speakers. Therefore, English as

a lingua franca represents the use of English as a means of communication among the speakers of different first languages.

In ELF context it is accepted that English is not only the language of inner circle countries, namely The UK, The USA, Australia etc. (Kirkpatrick, 2008) but also the language of outer and expanding circle countries. Kachru (1985) explains the spread of English through three concentric circles: Inner Circle includes the countries where English is used as mother tongue; outer circle represents countries that use English as a second language (ESL), namely Singapore, Nigeria, India etc.; and expanding circle embodies the rest of the world where English is spoken as a foreign language (EFL). This has been adopted as a common frame used in WEs studies.

World Englishes is a term used to represent indigenized varieties of English across the world. The conceptualization of WEs dates back to the discussions which took place in the 1960s by Kachru and 1970s by Smith. The extended discussion of WEs started in 1978 when the foundations of International Association for World Englishes (IAWE) were first laid. The concept of WEs stresses that there is no such dichotomy as the native and non-native speakers, which is found questionable and impertinent with regard to the functions of English in multilingual communities (Kachru, 1985). For instance, according to Snodin (2014), being aware about the widespread use of English in the Expanding Circle and mixed codes stemming from people who share a common language other than English, using English are necessary for intranational communication. A great number of studies have been conducted concerning WEs in recent years (Fang, 2016; He, 2015; Jindapitak & Teo, 2012). The majority of these studies investigate the perception and attitude toward WEs both from teachers' and students' perspectives.

From early research of WEs the validity of postcolonial Englishes, i.e. 'New Englishes' has been discussed amongst scholars (Kachru, 1985, 1992; Platt, Weber, & Ho, 1984). One of the focuses in these discussions has been on the importance of being able to communicate via the common language, that is English, no matter what accent you have rather than trying to be a perfect imitator of one of the accents of the inner circle when it comes to international contexts (Crystal, 2003; Jenkins, 2005). However, research indicates that ESL/EFL learners praise the use of the language spoken in the inner circle (Derwing, 2003). As for pronunciation instruction, it is paramount that teachers and students set realistic goals, in other words, comprehensibility should be valued over native-like pronunciation (Derwing & Munro, 2005). Moreover, studies have revealed that within the context of EFL settings, pronunciation is of great importance so as to help students communicate in the target language, yet again; students happen to get inadequate guidance to overcome this issue (Breitkreutz, Derwing, & Rossiter, 2001; MacDonald, 2002). For this reason, there has been some research conducted to raise awareness of WEs around the world.

In a study of 100 adult ESL learners in Canada, Derwing (2003) found that the vast majority considered speaking with perfect native pronunciation to be an enticing goal. In the study by Timmis (2002) roughly 400 learners from 14 countries were surveyed and the results showed that they fancied inner circle norms in their pronunciation. Scales, Wennerstrom, Richard and Wu (2006) studied what 37 English language learners and 10 U.S.

undergraduate students think of various accents. Participants in this study were presented a 1-minute passage read by four speakers with different accents of English: General American, Received Pronunciation, Chinese English, and Mexican English and it was found that more than half of the learners preferred to sound like a native English speaker, even though only less than half were able to properly identify the general American accent. Participants also reported that their preferred accent was more intelligible. Ploywattanawong and Trakulkasemsuk (2014) conducted a research to understand the attitudes of 50 Thai graduate students towards ELF in Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) with respect to its acceptability and understandability. The results of the study indicated that, generally speaking, participants' opinion for acceptability of most of the distinct grammatical features of ASEAN ELF was neutral and in terms of understandability, they caused no problems or communication malfunction. That is to say, it is uncalled-for to avoid the use of ASEAN ELF. Snodin and Young (2015) explored the perceptions and attitudes of 251 Thai learners of English towards varieties of English as these attitudes are among the factors that shape language policy and teaching practices in Thailand. The results of the study revealed that "native-speaker" varieties had dominance over the other varieties.

Regarding the studies in Turkey, the role of ELF has not been paid sufficient attention to and American and British varieties are still dominant in practice. There are several studies investigating Turkey's language policy concerning varieties of English and its place in the school curriculum, textbooks and materials such as Bektaş-Çetinkaya (2012). There are also several studies (Deniz, Özkan, & Bayyurt, 2016; Uygun, 2013) focused on instructors' awareness and perceptions of English as a language of international communication.

As for students, there are very few studies on the related topic, and the existing studies (Bayyurt & Devrim, 2010; Demir, 2011; Karakaş, Uysal, Bilgin, & Bulut, 2016) have particularly focused on the perceptions and preferences of students of native and non-native teachers. Apart from these, Kaypak and Ortaçtepe (2014) conducted a study in a Turkish state university with 53 Erasmus exchange students having studied abroad, and found that students changed their focus from accuracy to intelligibility in spite of having stayed loyal to native speaker norms, as measured by a language learner belief questionnaire, a study abroad perception questionnaire and student journals. In the study by Yılmaz and Özkan (2016), 45 English language instructors and 92 pre-intermediate level students were investigated to find out their perspectives towards intercultural awareness especially in the ownership of English and integrating culture into English language classes in Turkey. The results indicated that both teachers and students had positive attitudes towards varieties of English, yet they still were prone to favour native-like pronunciation and lacked gaining the ownership of English. In the study by Bektaş-Çetinkaya (2009) at a state university in Turkey, 15 English preparatory class students were interviewed via semi-structured interviews. Document analysis and informal interviews with the teachers of the students were the other data collection tools. It was revealed that the students think that only the American and British varieties of English are spoken all around the world and British English sounds better. They were not aware of the facts that English is also the second official language of some countries such as Malaysia, and except from American and British native varieties, there were other

native varieties like Canadian and Australian English and, there are non-native varieties of English.

In conclusion, Turkish learners of English need to be familiarized with cultural norms required for the globalized world so that they can have an effective intercultural communication particularly with non-native speakers of English in the expanding circle countries (Coşkun, 2010). Based upon the literature reviewed above, to our best knowledge, few studies have been conducted with regard to student awareness on WEs. Since students are indispensable participants of teaching and learning process, it is crucial to build awareness among them and investigate their attitudes and thoughts. The present study aims not only to look into the perception of students but also to create awareness of WEs and by doing so it will be a contribution to the second language acquisition literature.

2. Methodology

This action research was based on a case study which integrated a mixed data collection method and included a questionnaire (Saengboon, 2015) which yielded numerical data about the effect of the treatment and reflective essays with two main parts. The present study further aimed to find out the effect of the WEs-adapted classroom materials on building awareness of WEs. In line with this goal, the following question was addressed in this action research:

- To what extent does the preparatory school students' awareness of World Englishes change through adapted classroom materials?

2.1. Sample and Participants

The study was conducted at the preparation school of a private university in İstanbul, Turkey. To pass the preparatory school, the students have to take the Test of English as a Foreign Language™ Internet-based test (TOEFL® iBT) by Educational Testing Service (ETS). At the beginning of the preparatory school, students had taken the Preliminary English Test (PET) by Cambridge, the examination provides reliable assessment at the level above B1 (LevelB2) and the level below, Level A2 (UCLES, 2016). According to the results of PET exam, 16 classes with a total of 300 students were identified in A2 level with an average score of 128. Upon completing the test, they were placed to level groups in accordance with the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR)[1] which is developed by Council of Europe.

These students are instructed in English according to their level, for two academic semesters (8 months) consisting of 4 tracks, each of which lasts for 8 to 9 weeks. First 3 tracks follow the curriculum of general English with Speakout 2nd edition, from Elementary to Intermediate, books by Pearson; and the last track is dedicated to TOEFL-based skills education. TOEFL track follows the book Longman - Preparation Course for The TOEFL iBT Test which is among the list of suggested preparation books by ETS.

[1] How to distribute test takers among levels according to their scores can be found on **http://www.cambridgeenglish.org/exams/cefr/**

The participants were selected conveniently without any deformation in the natural class size (N=20) which had already been shaped in the beginning of the semester out of student scores in the placement test. The sample consisted of 7 female and 13 male Turkish students with the age range between 17-21 who will probably pursue their tertiary education in their respective departments such as engineering, politics, business and the others. However, the number of the participants decreased to 13 as some of the participants took place in the pre-test and the treatment, yet did not take the post-test and write reflective essays.

2.2. Instruments

For the purposes of this study, a questionnaire (Appendix A) was adapted from the study by Saengboon (2015) which consists of 32 items including 2 parts; the demographic part, which gives information about the backgrounds and the linguistic capabilities of the students, and the WEs awareness questionnaire part. Reflective essays (Appendix B) were also used as data collection instruments to complement the quantitative data and to find out if there was a change in the awareness level of participants related to WEs before and after the treatment or not.

The questionnaire and the items in the questionnaire were aimed to check the viewpoints of students on the matters as follow: perception of varieties of English (items 1 - 6), the term of standard English (items 7 - 10 and 13), the ownership of English (items 11 - 12), Turkish English (items, 14, 25, 30 - 32), the scope of WEs (items 16 - 20), classroom implications (items 15, 21 - 24), opinions on the role of native and non-native English teachers (items 26, 27), importance of communication (items 28, 29).The items were based on participants making a scalar judgement upon a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (SA = strongly agree) to 5 (N/A = no answer).

Lastly, to complement the quantitative data gathered from the questionnaire, the participants were asked to write a reflective essay with respect to their opinions and feelings about WEs. The aim behind this task was to find out whether the awareness level of the students on WEs increased after the treatment or not.

2.3. Data Collection Procedures

The study was conducted in the first semester of 2016 and it lasted for 4 weeks, with 3 class hours (40 minutes each) of treatment in total. The students were given the questionnaire in the first week before any treatment as pre-test. The questionnaire was administered to the participants in English, however, translation of the items was provided by the researchers when deemed necessary. After the pre-test, at the beginning of the first week of the treatment, a video indicating the varieties of English on the world map was shown to attract the students' attention. The students were introduced with the term WEs by means of a PowerPoint presentation elucidating the concept of WEs, the varieties of English, English as a lingua franca and the others. The students were informed about inner, outer and expanding circles and that the number of the people who speak English in the expanding circles have outnumbered the ones in the inner and the outer circles. The monomania of native-like speaking was brought into discussion to shed light on the existence of the other varieties of English spoken by non-native speakers across the world. Another video, which contained a

number of people from different origins presenting their speeches on TED Talks, was shown so as to give the idea that whatever the variety of your English is, you can speak in front of millions of people and give your message to these people confidently.

In the second week, the students were introduced with the varieties of vocabulary items which are used in different circles by some activities including matching the words with and filling in the blanks with the correct variety. At the end of this session the participants got familiar with the words and phrases such as *I'm not financial* (I'm broke in Nigerian variety), *no smorking* (No smoking in Japanese variety), *question authority* (Information desk in Chinese variety), *eye water* (tears in African variety), *lick* (hit in Caribbean variety), *sub-hero* (supporting actor in Pakistani variety), *comfort room* (restroom in Philippine variety), *robot* (traffic lights in South African variety), *no noising* (be quiet in Chinese variety) and many others (Crystal, 2012; Gramley, 2001, 2003).

In the third week, the students listened to a few songs from the singers of different countries. Along with these songs, the students listened to a short passage read by people from different accents which is taken from a website, ("Nik's Daily English Activities", 2016) and they were given a worksheet in which they guessed the nationality of the singers and the speakers from the multiple-choice questions.

In the fourth week, the same questionnaires were given to the students again as post-test and the results of the pre-test were compared with the post-test. Later, the participants were asked to write reflective essays to gather qualitative data from the students with the intention of gaining an in-depth insight of students' viewpoints and letting their voice be heard through the research. As a consequence of the careful analysis of the results of the pre and post tests and the reflective essays, whether their awareness of varieties of Englishes and ownership of English improved during three weeks of our treatment or not was evaluated.

2.4 Data Analysis

The numerical data collected by the questionnaire were analyzed and stated by making categories of the 32 items that were in the questionnaire and the percentages of the participant responses were included so as to present the data in a more tangible manner. While presenting the findings, both "strongly agree and agree" answers and "strongly disagree and disagree" answers were handled together for they served similar purposes from the viewpoints of the researchers. The textual data gathered by the reflexive essays were carefully read and reread separately by the researchers to extract any relevant data and codes and then all of their interpretations were put together to see the overlapping codes and themes as well as reaching interrater agreement. Later, these codes and themes were categorized in a descriptive manner and quotes were provided from respondents' essays under each category with the aim of guaranteeing and exemplifying the sole reflection of the respondents' own ideas. Based on the iterative nature of the qualitative research (Dörnyei, 2007), the researchers pulled the data apart and put it back together by reading, analyzing and interpreting the data over and over until they were certain that no more meaningful and relevant inferences can be made.

3. Results

The aim of the study was to create awareness of WEs among Turkish University Preparatory Students by using WEs adapted course materials with the hope that this awareness might result in a decrease in their anxiety and instead an increase in their self-esteem, ownership of English and self actualization in the target language by concentrating in communication and conveying the message across rather than worrying about how they sound or how they are perceived by others especially by the natives of the language. Data were collected from questionnaires which were used before and after the treatment as pre and post tests, and reflective essays. The following sections describe the quantitative and qualitative findings in detail.

3.1. Results of the Questionnaires

Table 1. *The percentage* of Turkish students' understanding of WEs (Pre-test)*
SA = strongly agree; A = agree; D = disagree; SD = strongly disagree; N/A = no answer

Statement	(SA)	(A)	(D)	(SD)	(NA)
1. Correct English is British English only	54	38	0	0	8
2. Correct English is American English only	0	8	61	23	8
3. Australian English should be counted as correct English	0	0	31	31	38
4. New Zealand English should be counted as correct English	0	0	23	46	31
5. Canadian English should be counted as correct English	0	15	46	8	31
6. Other varieties of English are incorrect	23	0	31	31	15
7. Correct English must have one standard	46	38	8	8	0
8. Standard English has the same rules of grammar	31	69	0	0	0
9. Standard English may differ in accents	0	46	8	46	0
10. Standard English is found only in writing	0	23	69	8	0
11. English belongs to those who speak it	8	23	38	23	8
12. British and Americans are owners of English	8	15	46	31	0
13. Syrian, Iranian and Azeri English are standard English	0	0	15	62	23
14. Turkish English is just wrong English	23	31	23	15	8
15. You learned British or American English	39	46	0	15	0
16. WEs use same grammar but different vocabulary	8	23	39	15	15
17. WEs can be found in English novels	46	46	0	8	0

18. WEs can be found in print materials	39	46	15	0	0
19. WEs can be found in adverts	31	15	23	8	23
20. WEs can be found in SNSs (Social Networking Services)	54	30	8	8	0
21. English at school must be British or American English	38	54	0	8	0
22. Other types of English should be taught	0	8	61	31	0
23. English exam items should be British or American English	31	61	0	8	0
24. English exam items may have other Englishes	0	23	62	15	0
25. Turks should use Turkish English for their identity	0	8	69	23	0
26. English teachers should be native speakers	0	46	46	8	0
27. Local teachers are equally effective teachers	8	23	46	15	8
28. Some mistakes are fine if messages are clear	15	46	31	8	0
29. I choose to speak British or American English	54	38	0	8	0
30. Turkish-accented English is embarrassing	0	8	61	23	8
31. Turks speaking with British or American accent is good	0	62	15	23	0
32. Heavy Turkish-accented English is undesirable	8	30	46	8	8

*The numbers are rounded off to the closest number.

A detailed analysis of each of the items in Table 1 is provided below.

Item 1: Correct English is British English only

The vast majority of the participants (92%) strongly agreed or agreed and none disagreed with this item indicating that they accepted British English as the correct English.

Item 2: Correct English is American English only

When they were asked whether American English is the correct English, only 8% of the respondents agreed while 84% disagreed or strongly disagreed. Complying with their answers to the first item, the great majority of the respondents seemed to have perceived British English as the norm.

Item 3: Australian English should be counted as correct English

62% of the students disagreed or strongly disagreed when they were asked whether Australian English also should be counted as correct English or not. 38% of the students had no answer to this item. None of the students agreed with the idea that Australian English should be accepted as correct English. As it is clear from their answers to the 3rd item, the majority did not accept Australian English as correct English.

Item 4: New Zealand English should be counted as correct English

The majority (69%) disagreed or strongly disagreed that New Zealand English should be counted as correct English. 31% stated no answer to this item. Similar to the 3rd item, none of the respondents accepted New Zealand English as correct English.

Item 5: Canadian English should be counted as correct English

When they were asked whether Canadian English should be counted as correct English, 15% respondents agreed which was slightly higher than the varieties in item 2, 3 and 4. Again, the majority (54%) didn't agree that Canadian English should be accepted as correct. The 31% of the students stated no answer to this item.

Item 6: Other varieties of English are incorrect

When they were asked if other varieties of English were incorrect, only 23% of them agreed the idea, contrary to the first 5 items. The percent of the students who disagreed or strongly disagreed was 62%, which again didn't comply with their answers in the first 5 items. They accepted British English as the norm and they thought other varieties as incorrect English, however they might have thought it was wrong to claim all others as incorrect since77% didn't agree. They thought other varieties could not be accepted as incorrect.

Item 7: Correct English must have one standard

Of all the respondents, an overwhelming majority (84%) either strongly agreed or agreed with this item, whereas 16% of the students either disagreed or strongly disagreed, which shows the fact that the majority of the students accepted only one standard of English.

Item 8: Standard English has the same rules of grammar

All of the respondents either strongly agreed or agreed with this item. This finding reveals that the respondents are rigid about the idea of standard grammar rules.

Item 9: Standard English may differ in accents

46% of the respondents agreed with this statement, whereas 54% either disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement, which indicates that less than half of the respondents were open to the view of different varieties of Standard English.

Item 10: Standard English is found only in writing

23% of the respondents agreed, whereas 77% disagreed or strongly disagreed, which shows that according to the respondents, written English was not the only way to indicate the Standard English.

Item 11: English belongs to those who speak it

31% of the students agreed or strongly agreed whereas 61% of them disagreed or strongly disagreed, which indicates that the respondents were opposed to the idea of different varieties.

Item 12: British and Americans are owners of English

23% agreed or strongly agreed whereas 77% disagreed or strongly disagreed. This shows that the respondents approved the validity of other Englishes.

Item 13: Syrian, Iranian and Azeri English are Standard English

77% of the participants seemed to have disagreed with this item, which suggested that the majority of the participants did not regard expanding circle varieties as Standard English.

Item 14: Turkish English is just wrong English

54% of the respondents believed that Turkish English is a wrong variety, which indicates that more than half of the respondents regard Turkish as an unreliable variety.

Item 15: You learned British or American English

Almost 85% in the pre-test believed they learned either British or American English, which shows that most of the respondents considered that they were exposed to either variety in their school life.

Item 16: WEs use same grammar but different vocabulary

In the pre-test around 31% considered that WEs use the same grammar but different vocabulary whereas almost 54% disagreed with this item, which displays that the minority of the respondents believed that varieties have equal grammar. 15% of the respondents had no answer to this item.

Item 17: WEs can be found in English novels

The pre-test showed that 92% considered novels as the source of WEs. This explicitly suggests that the majority of the respondents considered novels as the source of WEs.

Item 18: WEs can be found in print materials

More than 85% of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed with this item that print materials such as newspapers, brochures, magazines involve WEs materials.

Item 19: WEs can be found in adverts

Almost 46% of the respondents agreed with the item in the pre-test, which indicates that nearly half of the respondents found adverts as a clear source of WEs.

Item 20: WEs can be found in SNSs (Social Networking Services)

Like the findings of item 18, the response pattern of this item in the pre-test revealed that the majority of the respondents (84%) found social network sites as the places where WEs can be found.

Item 21: English taught at school must be either British or American English.

The remarkably high response pattern (92%) in this item revealed that almost all of the participants preferred to be taught either British or American English at school leaving only a minority (8%) disagreeing with the idea which indicated a tendency to fancy the traditional way.

Item 22: It may be interesting to teach varieties of English other than British or American English.

92% of the respondents disagreed with the idea that teaching varieties of English may be interesting while only a small minority (8%) were interested in this idea suggesting a strong rejection towards the varieties of English.

Item 23: English exam items should be only British or American English

The response pattern revealed that more than 92% of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed and a very little amount of (8%) disagreement was on the table. Such high response rates suggested that there was an undeniable unity in favouring exam items in either British or American English within the group.

Item 24: English exam items may contain other varieties of English.

Although 77% of the respondents disagreed with the idea that English exams may contain other varieties of English, 23% of them were willing to see other varieties of English in exams.

Item 25: Turks should use Turkish English to show their identity.

The considerably high response rates (92%) in this item clearly indicated that the respondents disagreed with this item whereas only 8% agreed which suggested that according to this group, Turkish English did not seem to have a place to be considered a variety of English.

Item 26: English teachers should be English native-speaking teachers only

Almost 46% of the respondents agreed with this item and 54% disagreed which suggested that there were no significant inclinations towards either native or non-native teachers.

Item 27: Local teachers are equally effective teachers

The response pattern concerning this particular item revealed that 31% of the respondents agreed while 61% of them disagreed with the item, which meant that respondents' attitude towards local teachers may be considered as having sweeping generalisation.

Item 28: Some mistakes are fine if messages are clear

61% of the respondents agreed with this item, which meant that they considered English as a means of communication and this might as well conclude that grammatical accuracy should be in secondary importance, thus; the assumption of correct English was somewhat relaxed.

Item 29: I choose to speak British or American English

92% of all the students who participated in the study agreed that they chose to speak British or American English while only 8% of them was found to disagree with the item, which also revealed that the pattern of responses illustrated a strong tendency on the part of the respondents to count on British or American English as standard varieties of the English language when it comes down to speaking in the target language.

Item 30: Turkish-accented English is embarrassing

Out of all the respondents, only 8% agreed with the item, whereas; 84% of them were seen to have disagreed with the statement, which disclosed that the respondents did not find it embarrassing to speak the language with a Turkish accent.

Item 31: Turks speaking with British or American accents is good

62% of the participants agreed while 38% of them disagreed with the item, revealing that Turks with a British or an American accent were better speakers of the English language, which might affirm that respondents value the accents found in the inner circle more than the other accents found in outer and expanding circles.

Item 32: Heavy Turkish-accented English is undesirable

Of all the respondents, 38% seemed to have agreed that having a heavy Turkish accent is undesirable whereas 54% of the respondents disagreed with the statement, which might as well indicate that the findings regarding this item suggested heavy Turkish-accented English would not affect their ability to communicate in the target language. Yet again, 8% of the students seemed to have no answer concerning the statement mentioned in the item.

Table 2. *The percentage* of Turkish students' understanding of WEs (Post-test)*
SA = strongly agree; A = agree; D = disagree; SD = strongly disagree; N/A = no answer

Statement	(SA)	(A)	(D)	(SD)	(NA)
1. Correct English is British English only	15	31	31	23	0
2. Correct English is American English only	0	23	54	23	0
3. Australian English should be counted as correct English	15	8	54	23	0
4. New Zealand English should be counted as correct English	15	8	46	31	0
5. Canadian English should be counted as correct English	16	23	46	15	0
6. Other varieties of English are incorrect	8	15	62	15	0
7. Correct English must have one standard	23	39	15	23	0
8. Standard English has the same rules of grammar	62	38	0	0	0
9. Standard English may differ in accents	38	23	31	0	8
10. Standard English is found only in writing	15	31	54	0	0
11. English belongs to those who speak it	23	54	0	15	8
12. British and Americans are owners of English	0	31	31	38	0
13. Syrian, Iranian and Azeri English are standard English	0	23	31	31	15

14. Turkish English is just wrong English	0	15	62	23	0
15. You learned British or American English	31	38	31	0	0
16. WEs use same grammar but different vocabulary	16	54	15	15	0
17. WEs can be found in English novels	69	31	0	0	0
18. WEs can be found in print materials	69	31	0	0	0
19. WEs can be found in adverts	61	31	8	0	0
20. WEs can be found in SNSs (Social Networking Services)	69	23	8	0	0
21. English at school must be British or American English	38	31	31	0	0
22. Other types of English should be taught	0	31	54	15	0
23. English exam items should be British or American English	23	61	8	0	8
24. English exam items may have other Englishes	0	31	54	15	0
25. Turks should use Turkish English for their identity	0	15	46	39	0
26. English teachers should be native speakers	8	30	54	8	0
27. Local teachers are equally effective teachers	0	54	23	23	0
28. Some mistakes are fine if messages are clear	23	69	8	0	0
29. I choose to speak British or American English	38	31	23	8	0
30. Turkish-accented English is embarrassing	0	15	46	39	0
31. Turks speaking with British or American accent is good	16	38	38	8	0
32. Heavy Turkish-accented English is undesirable	8	84	8	0	0

*The numbers are rounded off to the closest number.

A detailed analysis of each of the items in Table 2 is provided below.

Item1. Correct English is British English only

When they were asked whether they thought the correct English was British only, 46% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed while 54% of them disagreed or strongly disagreed. This indicated that they did not accept only British English as the correct version.

Item 2. Correct English is American English only

In the second item, only 23% of the respondents agreed that only American English was correct. The majority of the respondents (77%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. It is evident that they did not accept American English only correct English.

Items 3 & 4 Australian / New Zealand English should be counted as correct English

When it came to Australian or New Zealand English, only 23% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statements that it should also be counted as correct English with the statements in both the 3rd and 4th items in the post test. 77% of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed which indicated that these varieties were not accepted as correct English by vast majority of the students.

Item 5. Canadian English should be counted as correct English

As for the Canadian English, the number of the respondents who agreed or strongly agreed with the idea that Canadian English should be accepted as correct English was slightly higher than the former three items with the percentage of 39%. However, the majority (61%) thought that it should not be accepted as correct English.

Item 6. Other varieties of English are incorrect

Only 23% of the respondents thought that other varieties were incorrect while 77% did not agree with the statement. They thought other varieties could not be accepted as incorrect.

Item 7: Correct English must have one standard

62% of the respondents seemed to have either agreed or strongly agreed with the opinion that correct English must have one standard. 38% of them either disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement. This result revealed that more than half of the students were not in favour of WEs.

Item 8: Standard English has the same rules of grammar

All of the respondents either strongly agreed or agreed with this item. These findings revealed that the respondents were not in favour of the idea of varieties in grammar.

Item 9: Standard English may differ in accents

61% of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed; yet, 31% of the respondents disagreed with this item, which suggested that the majority of the respondents considered other varieties of English as acceptable.

Item 10: Standard English is found only in writing

46% of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed while 54% disagreed with this item, which revealed that the respondents were hesitant about the way to measure the Standard English.

Item 11: English belongs to those who speak it

77% of the students agreed or strongly agreed whereas 15% strongly disagreed with the item, which showed that the respondents supported the idea of different varieties of English.

Item 12: British and Americans are owners of English

31% of the respondents agreed whereas 69% of them disagreed or strongly disagreed with the item, which suggested that the students were familiar with other varieties and the idea of WEs.

Item 13. Syrian, Iranian and Azeri English are Standard English

In the post-test 62% of the respondents stayed in disagreement, which suggested that the majority of the participants did not regard foreign varieties as Standard English.

Item 14. Turkish English is just wrong English

In the post-test 15% of the respondents believed that Turkish English is a wrong variety, which evidently indicated that around 40% of the participants changed their mind after the treatment with regard to Turkish variety of English.

Item 15. You learned British or American English

Almost 70% in the post-test believed that they learned either British or American English, which suggested that most of the respondents realized that they had learned the inner circle English rather than Turkish English.

Item 16. WEs use same grammar but different vocabulary

In the post-test around 70% considered that WEs have the same grammar but different vocabulary, which certainly suggested that the majority of the respondents agreed that WEs differ in terms of vocabulary.

Item 17. WEs can be found in English novels

The post-test showed all the respondents consider novels as a source of WEs. This explicitly suggested that the respondents consider novels as a source of WEs.

Item 18. WEs can be found in print materials

All of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed with this item considering that print materials such as newspapers, brochures, magazines involve WEs materials.

Item 19. WEs can be found in adverts

Almost 92% of the respondents agreed with this item which indicated that a great majority of the respondents found adverts as a clear source of WEs.

Item 20. WEs can be found in SNSs (Social Networking Services)

Like the findings of item 18, the response pattern of this item in the post-test revealed that the majority of the respondents (92%) found that social network sites were the places for WEs as it is in the print materials.

Item 21: English taught at school must be either British or American English.

69% of the respondents agreed with this item leaving 31% disagreeing. Still a great many of the respondents seemed to be in favour of the British or the American English being taught at schools.

Item 22: It may be interesting to teach varieties of English other than British or American English.

Although 31% of the respondents agreed with this item, the majority (69%) still refused the idea of teaching varieties being interesting which indicated the group being prone to either British or American English to be taught at school.

Item 23: English exam items should be only British or American English

84% agreed with this item whereas 8% disagreed leaving almost 8% not answering. The preference was obviously towards exam items being only in British or American English.

Item 24: English exam items may contain other varieties of English.

The response pattern in this item revealed that 31% of the respondents agreed with this item as opposed to 69% who disagreed. Although there seemed to have been an acceptance towards other varieties of English, still the majority seemed to favour English exams in British or American English only, leaving not much place for the varieties.

Item 25: Turks should use Turkish English to show their identity.

Of all the respondents, 15% agreed and 85% disagreed with the idea of Turks using Turkish English to reflect their identity while using English as a means of communication.

Item 26: English teachers should be English native-speaking teachers only

38% of the respondents agreed with this item whereas 62% disagreed indicating that the participants did not consider native English teachers be superior over the non-native ones.

Item 27: Local teachers are equally effective teachers

The response pattern for this item revealed that 54% of the respondents agreed while 46% of them disagreed with the item, suggesting that there were no significant differences between local and foreign teachers.

Item 28: Some mistakes are fine if messages are clear

Of all the respondents having participated in the study, 89% of them thought mistakes were fine if messages were clear enough, which indicated that grammatical accuracy should be in secondary importance as what matters is to be able to communicate using the target language.

Item 29: I choose to speak British or American English

69% of the respondents agreed, whereas; 31% of them disagreed with the item, which suggested that the vast majority of the respondents preferred British or American English to the other possible varieties of the English language.

Item 30: Turkish-accented English is embarrassing

61% of the respondents agreed with the item while 31% of them disagreed, which suggested that the respondents found it embarrassing to speak the target language with a Turkish accent.

Item 31: Turks speaking with British or American accents is good

54% of the respondents agreed with this item while 46% of them disagreed, which revealed that the majority of them categorises Turkish-English as a nonstandard variation of the English Language, hence they favour the idea of picking up a British or an American accent.

Item 32: Heavy Turkish-accented English is undesirable

Almost all of the respondents (92%), were found to have agreed with this item while only 8% of the respondents disagreed with it.

3.2. Results of the Reflective Essays

To complement the quantitative data, the participants wrote reflective essays about WEs. The following part reveals the findings obtained from these essays.

Category 1: Providing convenience with English language learners

To begin with, the majority of the participants reported that WEs provides English language learners with great convenience because they could easily and confidently speak in their own accents without wasting time and energy for practising a single accent; thus, removing the barrier of excelling at the original accent, which is illustrated in the following excerpt:

> *World Englishes is very helpful because people feel more relaxed when they speak in English and they do not try to speak in original accent and they do not worry about their accent.* (Student-1, Reflective essay, Dec. 16, 2016)

Category 2: Non necessity of speaking in British or American accent

The other common view of the participants about WEs is on the Standard English. Most of them stated that it is not necessary to be able to speak in British or American accents because what matters between interlocutors is to communicate rather than being able to speak in British or American as indicated in the following excerpts:

> *In my opinion, English is not only the language of the British or the American but it is the language of the world as well. The bottom line is to be able to communicate, not to speak it in certain accents.* (Student-7, Reflective essay, Dec. 16, 2016)

> *English does not belong to the UK or the USA; there are a lot of people speaking English but not as a native language. If you can communicate it is what matters.* (Student-9, Reflective essay, Dec. 16, 2016)

Category 3: Breakdown in communication

Three participants stated that if everybody speaks in different varieties, it could result in problems in communication. Also, two of them claimed that speaking in different varieties could make people stressed about whether the people understand them or not as illustrated in the following excerpt:

> *If everybody speaks in the way they like, people get in trouble in understanding each other.* (Student-3, Reflective essay, Dec. 16, 2016)

Category 4: A world language, a standard variety

Only three of the students stated that if English is the world language, there should be one Standard English. Two of the students explicitly stated that British English should be the Standard English.

> *…British English or American English is to be the standard, even British English should be the first choice.* (Student-12, Reflective essay, Dec. 16, 2016)
>
> *If there is one shared language, there should be a shared variety.* (Student 12, Reflective essay, Dec. 16, 2016)

In brief, most of the students assumed a new and positive point of view towards other varieties of English and they believed learning without struggling with the difficulties of British or American accents was more relaxing and they reflected that as their priority was intelligibility they praised communication without clinging to strict pronunciation rules; however, some students could not completely abandon the idea that British English is or should be the standard all over the world.

4. Discussion

The present study aimed to build awareness of WEs amongst preparatory students at a private university in Turkey. In an attempt to do so, the study was mainly concerned with acquainting the group with the term and raising consciousness about the subject matter. In line with this goal, answers to the research question were sought; "to what extent does the preparatory school students' awareness of WEs change through adapted classroom materials?''. Such being the case, adapted EFL materials, such as PowerPoint presentations, videos, audios, and written materials were utilised throughout the study with the purpose of getting the students to be familiar with the term. Pre-tests, post-tests and reflective essays were used as tools to observe the reactions of the participants to the treatment. Careful analysis of the findings and scrutiny of the data obtained from the aforementioned materials revealed that participants were more aware of what WEs actually is in the end, which may be interpreted as in line with Scales et al.'s (2006) and Kaypak and Ortaçtepe's (2014) results. Specifically speaking, what we were committed to achieving was to help the students think out of their comfort zones onto new territories, thus helping them cherish the varieties of English across the globe and get rid of all these anxiety-related feelings, which then might result in the fact that they would be better speakers of the target language with higher levels of self-awareness and self-esteem in speaking in English.

The researchers found that a lack of knowledge about WEs or varieties of English was widespread in the university preparatory level students just as it was indicated in Coşkun's (2010) study, as well as, the participants showed a strong tendency toward subliming American or British varieties as the correct English which complies with Timmis' (2002), Derwing's (2003), Bektaş-Çetinkaya's (2009) Saengboon's (2015) and Yılmaz & Özkan's (2016) findings. However, the consequence of the treatment designed to create awareness of the status of English as lingua franca revealed that the participants became aware of WEs, even showed sympathy toward the other varieties of English, as generated through quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments. For instance, in the pre-test while

31% accepted that English belonged to those who speak it, in the post-test 77% acknowledged this item. Moreover, while 54% considered that Turkish English was wrong, this rate decreased to 15% after the treatment. In the same way, the reflective essays of the participants centered on the belief that English language learners ought to feel comfortable while speaking without trying to be as perfect as a native speaker or fearing to make mistakes with regard to pronunciation. These and many similar data explicitly monitor us that the awareness aimed to be built in genesis of the study has been built among the university preparatory students.

Even though in this study awareness was built on WEs, the view of the students towards their native language variety (Turkish English) has not changed much in a positive way contrary to their view on other varieties. Also, after the treatment some points regarding their view on Turkish English seemed to have changed in a negative way.

One of the aims of this study was to decrease the level of speaking anxiety of the students by raising awareness on WEs as implied by Crystal (2003) and Jenkins (2005). It is suggested that further studies be administered to examine how the level of speaking anxiety has changed after building awareness on WEs. As well as, similar studies could be endeavoured with different age groups, which is likely to yield a distinct set of data.

5. Conclusion

After analyzing the quantitative data gathered from the questionnaires conducted as both pre-test before the treatment and post-test at the end of the treatment; and interpreting the statements of the students in the reflective essays which they wrote immediately after the treatment sessions, the following conclusions elucidate the consequence of the study.

5.1. Students' perceptions of correct variety of English: (Items 1-6)

When the students were asked about the correct English in the questionnaire, they indicated a great deal of reliance to British English only before they were familiarized with the concept of WEs by means of various classroom activities. In the first item, for example; 92% of the students agreed and none of them disagreed that only British English was correct when they were first given the questionnaire; however, more than half of them changed their ideas about it and 54% disagreed and only 46% agreed when they were asked the same question for the second time. More or less 20% of the students changed their minds about American, Australian, New Zealand or Canadian varieties and they agreed those varieties might also be accepted as correct English; however, the majority of the students remained distant to those varieties as it is evident with their answers to the items 2-4 in the post-test.As for item six, the percentage of acceptance of other varieties as correct increased by 15%.

5.2. Standard of English (Items 7-10, 13)

On the matter of standards of English, the students were rigidly stuck to the grammar rules in both times they were given the questionnaire with 100% agreement with the statement that Standard English has the same rules of grammar. Even though they were more flexible with the other aspects of English such as accent or vocabulary, both the results of questionnaire items 7-10 and 13 and their claims in the reflective essays indicated that they believe that English must have a standard and this standard must be British. The majority of the students

did not agree with the statement that Syrian, Iranian and Azeri Englishes were standard Englishes in item 13 in both pre and the post tests with little decrease from 77% to 62% indicating that they did not accept expanding circle's English as a standard.

5.3. Ownership of English (Items 11-12)

The students developed a great deal of awareness for the ownership of English after the treatment sessions in the classroom. 77% percent of the students agreed with the statement that English belongs to those who speak it (item 11), when only 31% of them had agreed at the first time that the questionnaires were given. However, a confliction is visible in the answers to item 12 as the percent of students agreeing with this item increased by 8% in the post test.

5.4. Attitudes towards Turkish English (Items 14, 25, 30-32)

Vast majority of the students (85%) disagreed with item 14 which stated that Turkish English is wrong in the post-test when the percentage of the students who disagreed with this item was only 38% in the pre-test. This difference indicated that they became aware of that Turkish English was also one of the WEs which might be accepted as correct English. It was also evident with their disagreement with item 30 stating Turkish-accented English was embarrassing. They did not see Turkish English as wrong or embarrassing; however, as it was apparent in the results of the items 25, 31 and 32 that, they believed Turkish English was undesirable and Turkish people had better speak with British or American accent. The answers to these items were contradictory with their statements in their essays where they claimed that it was better to speak in their own accents as it was waste of time to struggle for speaking in a single accent. This indicates that they developed an idea about owning the language, but they were not ready to accept their own English as an acceptable variety yet.

5.5 Scope of WEs: (Items 16-20)

Part of the goal of the treatment was raising the awareness of the students on the variety of vocabulary used by nations from different circles and it was accomplished as can be seen when the results in the related parts of pre-test and post-test are compared. When compared to the pre-test the number of the students that think WEs use same grammar but different vocabulary increased, along with the number of the students that think WEs can be found in English novels, print materials, adverts and social networking services.

5.6. Classroom Implications (Items 15, 21-24)

The comparison of pre-test and post-test in terms of perception change with regard to classroom practices showed that fewer participants continued thinking that they learnt British or American English in the classroom. And a more serious decrease was also found in the opinion of the variety choice; in other words, even fewer students remained determined in their preference of American or British English in the school. The same rate of decrease was also found in the suggestion students disagreed with the delivery of English in other varieties. In association with the language of exams the results indicated a sharp decrease rather than increment in the preference of American or British English. The data with respect to classroom implications explicitly suggest that following the treatment more students changed

their attitude towards other varieties of English in a positive way, thereby suggesting that the treatment gave rise to the awareness of WEs.

5.7. Native and Non-native Teachers (Items 26-27)

As regards to what the participants think of teachers, being either local or foreign, the findings revealed that there were significant differences between pre and post tests in item 27 which shows that after the treatment the percent of the students who had faith in the capabilities of local teachers increased by 23%. In addition to this, in the pre-test, the majority of the respondents (54%) disagreed with the idea that English teachers should be English native-speaking, which also yielded similar findings (62%) when they were asked the same question in the post-test; therefore, it might be concluded that there was no particular preference towards native-speakers of the English language when it comes to teaching process.

5.8. Importance of Communication (Items 28, 29)

When the participants were asked what is more important when it comes down to communicating in the target language; is it the way they speak the language and/or is it being able to get across the message to people in a clear way, the majority (61%), first off, thought that mistakes were fine as long as the message to be delivered was clear enough and upon completing the treatment, they were accordingly asked the same question and the number of the participants thinking that mistakes were fine remarkably increased, which might indicate that they were more inclined to get their messages across rather than clinging on to the idea of picking up a particular accent. Moreover, when the participants were asked which variety of English they would favour, at first the vast majority of them (92%) stated they chose to speak with a British or an American accent but, after having completed the treatment; it was found that there happened to be a decrease in the number of the students (69%) favouring the idea of picking up a British or an American accent, which might as well show that they were more prone to being able to communicate using the target language.

6. Implications for Education and Teaching

While conducting the research, during the treatment weeks, it was observed by the researchers that WEs-adapted classroom materials that were utilized in this study captured the attention of the students immediately, caused a curiosity among the students and created a lively atmosphere in the classroom. Although the aim of the treatment was to build awareness of WEs among the students, the increase in interest in the lessons was also a happily welcomed serendipity.

Based on this observation, it is humbly suggested to EFL teachers to make use of PowerPoint presentations, videos, speeches on TED Talks, interesting vocabulary and/or grammar items that belong to different varieties of English, songs, movies, etc. while they are planning lessons with the aim of building or raising awareness of WEs among their students. By making their students aware, teachers can stress out the importance of intelligibility, help their students to gain ownership of English, improve their students' self-confidence and get rid of any anxiety due to their accent sounding different from the speakers of the inner circle, etc.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Part I (Demographic Information about the students):

1) Students' Background Information

1. Gender

a. Female b. Male

2. How old are you?

a. Under 18 b. 18-21 c. 21-25 d. Over 25

3. Is English your first, second or foreign language?

a. First language b. Second language c. Foreign language

4. What grade are you in?

(Please specify)_____

5. Field of studying?

(Please specify)_____

2) Students' Linguistic Information

6. Overall English proficiency (self evaluation):

a. High b. Intermediate c. Low

7. Use of English currently:

a. Frequently b. Sometimes c. Rarely d. Others

Part II: World Englishes Awareness Questionnaire

Please thick one of the answers below about your opinion

SA = strongly agree; A = agree; D = disagree; SD = strongly disagree; N/A = no answer

Statement	**(SA)**	**(A)**	**(D)**	**(SD)**	**(N/A)**
1. Correct English is British English only					
2. Correct English is American English only					
3. Australian English should be counted as correct English					
4. New Zealand English should be counted as correct English					
5. Canadian English should be counted as correct English					
6. Other varieties of English are incorrect					

7. Correct English must have one standard					
8. Standard English has the same rules of grammar					
9. Standard English may differ in accents					
10. Standard English is found only in writing					
11. English belongs to those who speak it					
12. British and Americans are owners of English					
13. Syrian, Iranian and Azeri English are standard English					
14. Turkish English is just wrong English					
15. You learned British or American English					
16. WEs use same grammar but different vocabulary					
17. WEs can be found in English novels					
18. WEs can be found in print materials					
19. WEs can be found in adverts					
20. WEs can be found in SNSs (Social Networking Services)					
21. English at school must be British or American English					
22. Other types of English should be taught					
23. English exam items should be British or American English					
24. English exam items may have other Englishes					
25. Turks should use Turkish English for their identity					
26. English teachers should be native speakers					
27. Local teachers are equally effective teachers					
28. Some mistakes are fine if messages are clear					
29. I choose to speak British or American English					

30. Turkish-accented English is embarrassing					
31. Turks speaking with British or American accent is good					
32. Heavy Turkish-accented English is undesirable					

Appendix B

Write a reflective essay (2-3 paragraphs) including your opinions and feelings about World Englishes (WEs). Do you think it helps you to learn English better? Why/Why not?

Özkahya, F. (2017). Exploring the effects of gender and proficiency levels on Turkish EFL learners' beliefs about language learning: A cross-sectional study. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching (IOJET)*, *4*(4), 510-518. http://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/234/187

Received: 07.18.2017
Received in revised form: 18.09.2017
Accepted: 20.09.2017

EXPLORING THE EFFECTS OF GENDER AND PROFICIENCY LEVELS ON TURKISH EFL LEARNERS' BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING: A CROSS-SECTIONAL STUDY

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Abstract

Language learners' beliefs about second language learning interact with their awareness, consciousness, attitude towards learning, strategy choices and motivations (Buyukyazi, 2010). Delving into learners' beliefs provides an insightful view of learners' perceptions and actions about their education, which also helps teachers to shape the language learning process with changing or adapting the methods and materials thereby reshaping the negative preconceptions of the learners about English language. To see the effect of the learners' gender and language proficiency levels, 43 university level students contributed to the study. The data were collected with a 34-item Likert Scale called as The Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) developed by Horwitz. The data analysis revealed that while learners' gender has no significant effect on the learners' belief, their proficiency levels affect their beliefs about the nature of the language, foreign language aptitude, motivations and expectations from their second language learning procedures.

Keywords: language learner's beliefs, attitude, aptitude, preconception

1. Introduction

In the domain of second language learning, the researchers have focused on the studies dealing with the cognitive problem of language learning during the last two decades. The results of the researches demonstrated that each student possesses a unique approach to the language learning tasks (Altan, 2003; O'Malley Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1992, 1993; Oxford & Cohen, 1992; Wenden & Rubin, 1987). As the scholars have acknowledged that learners bring some set of experiences, attitudes, expectations, characteristics, cultural elements and so on, the reason behind the difference may be grounded on the learners' beliefs about the nature of the language, language learning, language learning outcomes, strengths and limitations for language learning (e.g. Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; for examples relating to English education in Japan, see Benson, 1991; Stone, 1989; Sakui & Gaies, 1999).

Individuals' beliefs constitute an indispensable part of every discipline including human behavior and learning as one of the main constructs (Sakui & Gaies, 1999). According to the cognitive psychology, beliefs are categorized as an element of cognitive knowledge, since it perceives beliefs as self-knowledge (for a review, see Wenden, 1998b; Flavell, 1987; Sakui and Gaies, 1999) while social psychology sees beliefs as the perceptions consisting of individuals' earlier experiences, backgrounds, educational lives and more. (Dole and Sinatra, 1994; Alexander et al.,1991). Hence, the beliefs are both the basis of the new experiences and the informants for the interpretation of subsequent experiences. Supportively, beliefs are described as 'the basis for value judgments' in the study of Dole and Sinatra (Dole & Sinatra, 1994; Ryan, 1984; Weinert & Kluwe, 1987; Schommer, 1990).

Second language learners' beliefs about L2 learning are derived from the learners' past learning experiences, their educational backgrounds, their culture and characteristics (Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005; Han et. al, 2011). According to Punchta (1999, pp. 68-69), people understand and comprehend new information with the help of their past experiences and current knowledge. Besides, Horwirtz (1987) interpreted the difference in learners' beliefs about L2 learning thereby depending on varying previous learning and language learning experiences, varying cultural backgrounds of the learners and their personalities.

Focusing on the second language learners' beliefs towards their L2 learning processes facilitates understanding of how second languages are learnt and how they need to be taught (Horwitz, 2008, p14). Although all children learn second language thereby following the same steps at the same learning rate, the beliefs that learners bring to the L2 learning situations vary. Moreover, these beliefs can be learners' misconceptions debilitating their success in second language learning procedures. As the beliefs reflect the learners' perceptions, expectations, commitment, success and satisfaction related with their following language learning experiences, foreign language teachers should dedicate more effort to eliminate negative beliefs of learners, and especially the ones who will be teachers (Altan, 2006). Hollec (1981, p. 27) suggests that L2 learners must get through a psychological preparation process of 'deconditioning' to get rid of their negative preconceptions which negatively interfere with their language learning procedure (cited in Altan, 2006).

When a student believes that language learning primarily requires learning of vocabulary items, the learner will dedicate most his/her effort to learn and memorize L2 words. On the other hand, if the student believes that L2 learning process heavily depends on grammar, then he/she will put all his/her effort to memorize the grammatical structure of the second language. Horwitz's study (1988) showed that unless the learners possess facilitative beliefs and realistic ideas parallel with their language teachers' ideas, their confidence to their teachers, their success in L2 classes and their satisfaction with the learning procedure may be negatively affected (Buyukyazı, 2010).

1.1. Background to the Study

During the last two decades, second language learning beliefs have been investigated with the pioneering effect of Horwitz study in 1985. Since his leading effect, the researches on second or foreign language learning beliefs have conducted in numerous settings: in the USA with foreign language learners (Horwitz, 1988; Kern, 1995; Kuntz, 1996; Oh, 1996; Hurt, 1997; Mori, 1997), in an ESL context with adult learners in the USA (Wenden, 1986, 1987; Horwitz, 1987) and New Zealand (Cotterall, 1995), with university-level or adult language learners (Huang, 1997; Hurt, 1997; Gaies et al., 1999),with an EFL context in Brazil (Barcelos, 1995), China (Wen and Johnson, 1997), Korea (Park, 1995; Truitt, 1995), Japan (Luppescu and Day, 1990; Keim et al., 1996), North Cyprus (Kunt, 1997), Russia (Tumposky, 1991; Gaies et al., 1999), Hong Kong (Benson and Lor, 1999), Turkey (Altan, 2006; Oz, 2007; Ayhan, 2008; Tercanlıoglu, 2004) and Taiwan (Yang, 1992; Huang, 1997).

Starting with the leading figure, Horwitz studied beliefs of American university students who were having a requisite foreign language course thereby developing a self-reported scale called 'The Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory' (BALLI) (Horwitz, 1985; 1987; 1988). One of the most salient findings in this study is that learners' preconceptions can influence their second language learning perceptions in a negative way (Horwitz, 1985). On the other hand, Bernat (2006) studied with sixty-two university learners who took academic English class at Australia to see that whether the results of BALLI would be context-based or would present parallel findings with Horwitz study. She concluded that there were many similarities between the two different contexts (Bernat, 2006). In a different context, Mantle-

Bromley (1995) studied with 208 learners from middle school taking Spanish and French. She emphasized the teachers' role in shaping learners' beliefs towards their second language as the learners with realistic beliefs would be more productive and successful in classes. When there is a mismatch between the learners' beliefs and their performance, they become disappointed (Mantle-Bromley, 1995).

Some of the studies in this domain paid attention to the differences between male and female learners' beliefs about their second language learning procedures. Sibert (2003) found significant differences in L2 learners' beliefs related with language learning and strategy choices while Bacon and Finnemann (1992) found out that female learners possess higher level of strategy use, motivation and social interaction in their L2, Spanish. However, Tercanlioglu (2005) found no statistically significant difference among 73 female and 45male undergraduate EFL teacher trainees' beliefs.

On the other hand, teachers' beliefs also play a crucial role in shaping L2 learners' beliefs about second language learning, deciding on the teaching methods and materials and creating the classroom environment. Peacock's longitudinal study (2001) was grounded on belief changes of ESL pre-service teachers in three-year-education program. However, he found no statistically significant change in pre-service teachers' beliefs about second language learning. He explained the finding by depending on the idea that learners' beliefs are derived from their old L2 learning experience, especially in secondary school (Peacock, 2001, p. 187). Besides, Horwitz (1988) found out that the significant difference between learners' and teachers' beliefs in his study may result in negative language learning outcomes in terms of learners' confidence to the teacher and their success, satisfaction in classes, willingness to participate in communicative learning activities (Horwitz, 1988; Peacock, 1999).

In addition to the international studies, Altan's (2006) local study for Turkish context conducted with four hundred students from English, German, French, Japanese and Arabic pre-service language teachers. He found out that there is a statistically significant similarity among the pre-service teachers' beliefs from different language backgrounds for future careers. However, in this study the aim is to explore the effects of gender difference and proficiency levels of learners on their second language learning beliefs. Although gender difference has been investigated in the literature, there is no consistency in the findings of the earlier studies. Furthermore, L2 learning proficiency variables have failed to gain a place in this domain to reveal the possible similarities and differences in learners' beliefs, motivations, perceptions and their strategy use. To fill this gap in the literature, the research questions of this study;

1. Are there any significant differences with regards to beliefs about language learning between male and female learners?
2. Are there any significant differences among the participants who belong to different proficiency groups with regards to beliefs about language learning?

2. Methods

2.1. Setting

The study was conducted at school of foreign languages in a private university. Following the university entrance exam, the university places the learners' with an English language proficiency exam at the beginning of the each academic year. The learners who fail to get the minimum passing score are placed at preparatory classes based on the placement test scores for their language proficiency levels. The programs for ELT and ELF preparatory classes include 1+4 years education consisting of one year preparatory class and four years of departmental education.

2.2. Participants

The study was carried out with four intact groups of learners from ELT and EFL preparatory classes. The first three groups consist of 8 learners for each proficiency levels ranging from A2, B1 and B2 from EFL preparatory classes. There are 15 female and 9 male learners in these three groups. On the other hand, the last group consists of 19 learners including 10 males and 9 female learners of ELT preparatory class with the B2 language learning levels for English language. Totally, there are 43 preparatory class learners ranging from 8 A2 learners, 8 B1 learners and 27 B1 learners.

Table 1. *Distribution of the participants*

Departments	Proficiency Levels	Female	Male	f	%
ELT Preparatory Class	B1	9	10	19	44,18
ELF Preparatory Classes	A2	7	1	8	18,60
	B1	4	4	8	18,60
	B2	4	4	8	18,60
Total		24	19	43	100

2.3. Instrumentation

The Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) developed by Horwitz in 1983 is utilized in this study to asses L2 learners' various opinions about second language learning. BALLI is a five-point Likert Scale including thirty four items assessing learners' beliefs on five major domains; (1) difficulty of language learning, (2) foreign language aptitude, (3) the nature of language learning, (4) learning and communication strategies, and finally, (5) motivations and expectations. The structure of the instrument is retained with no major changes in its original design. Only the items which do not represent the Turkish context are exposed to necessary modifications in order to reflect current study's context thereby changing the expression "American" into "Turkish" (30^{th} and 33^{rd} items).

2.4. Data Analysis

After the data collection process, the responses gathered from the subjects are analyzed by using descriptive statistics with the help of IBM Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) 21 software. First, the data is subjected to normality test which indicates that trimmed mean, mean and median scores are almost alike. Additionally, the Kolmogorov-Simirnov value is recorded as 0.089 while Q – Q Plot Test and Histogram results are also supporting the parametric value of the data. After the results ensuring the normality of the samples, the descriptive statistics are analyzed with independent sample t-test to interpret the effects of gender and ANOVA to see the impact of second language proficiency levels. The significance level is set up at $p<.05$.

Table 2. *Test of normality*

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
TOTAL	.089	43	.200*	.976	43	.508

3. Results

The results of this study are interpreted according to the 2 different research questions.

1. Are there any significant differences with regards to beliefs about language learning between male and female learners?

An independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the second language learners' beliefs for male and female EFL and ELT preparatory class students. According to the data, there is no statistically significant difference in the scores for female *(M= 3.3750, SD=.36116)* and male learners *(M=3.5921, SD=.36525; t=-1.94).* As the significance values for Levene's test are higher than .05 (p=.795, p=.733, p=.404, p=.135, p=.074 for each cluster), there is no statistical difference between the beliefs' of female and male learners.

Table 3. *Independent samples test for gender*

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Difficulty of Language Learning	Equal variances assumed	.068	.795	-1.94	41	.058	-.21711	.11146	-.44220	.00799
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.94	38.566	.059	-.21711	.11161	-.44293	.00872
Foreign Language Learning Aptitude	Equal variances assumed	.118	.733	1.201	41	.237	.15838	.13186	-.10792	.42468
	Equal variances not assumed			1.197	38.306	.238	.15838	.13226	-.10930	.42606
Nature of Language Learning	Equal variances assumed	.711	.404	.219	41	.828	.03125	.14268	-.25690	.31940
	Equal variances not assumed			.212	32.352	.834	.03125	.14767	-.26941	.33191
Learning and Communication Strategies	Equal variances assumed	2.321	.135	.088	41	.930	.01284	.14636	-.28274	.30843
	Equal variances not assumed			.085	32.052	.933	.01284	.15170	-.29613	.32182
Motivations and Expectations	Equal variances assumed	3.366	.074	-.099	41	.922	-.01930	.19587	-.41486	.37627
	Equal variances not assumed			-.096	33.325	.924	-.01930	.20176	-.42962	.39103

2. Are there any significant differences among the participants who belong to different proficiency groups with regards to beliefs about language learning?

One-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to find out the effect of learners' proficiency levels to their second language learning beliefs. The preparatory school subjects consisted of 3 groups involving A2 level learners, B1 level learners and B2 level learners. As $p<.014$ in their beliefs, it is obvious from the table that there is a significant difference between B1 *(M=-.57685*) and B2 *(M= .57685)* level L2 learners beliefs' on motivations and expectation.

Table 4. *Multiple comparisons for proficiency levels*

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) PROFICIENCY	(J) PROFICIENCY	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
MOTIVATIONS AND EXPECTATION	A2	B1	.02500	.29028	.996	-.6815	.7315
		B2	-.55185	.23370	.059	-1.1207	.0170
	B1	A2	-.02500	.29028	.996	-.7315	.6815
		B2	-.57685*	.23370	.046	-1.1457	-.0080
	B2	A2	.55185	.23370	.059	-.0170	1.1207
		B1	.57685*	.23370	.046	.0080	1.1457

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

4. Discussion

In the domain of second language learning beliefs' studies, the issue of gender difference fails to reach a consistency in the results of earlier studies. In spite of the findings of Siebert (2003) and Bacon and Finnemann's (1992) studies, the results of this study reveal that there is no significant difference between the male and female preparatory class learners' beliefs about second language learning. The results of the current study support the findings of Tercanlioglu (2005) and Bernat and Lloyd (2007) who found similarities among the gender in terms of foreign language aptitude, the language difficulty, nature of the language learning, language learning strategies, motivations and expectation.

On the other hand, the effects of language learning proficiency level to the second language learners' beliefs are an intact area in the literature. The current study's findings elicit that there is a statistically significant difference between B1 *(M=-.57685*) and B2 *(M= .57685)* level L2 learners learners' motivations and expectation towards their L2 learning process. Most of the subject learners possess the positive or correct beliefs and perceptions about the nature of the language learning, foreign language aptitude, difficulty of language learning and learning and communication strategies from the beginning. However, while B1 level learners have relatively negative beliefs about motivation and expectation, B2 level learners believe that learning English very well helps them have many opportunities to practice it, find a better job and get to know native speakers better. The change between the proficiency group in only motivation and expectation cluster can result from age, year of education, second language learning context or cultural background.

5. Conclusion

Starting with the Horwitz first study (1985), the beliefs of second language learners about their L2 learning procedures and experiences have been studied for over two decades. This study reveals the effects of gender and proficiency levels on learners' perception of second language learning, its nature, L2 strategies, learning difficulty, motivations and expectation.

While the data prove that there is no correlation between learners' gender and their L2 belief, their proficiency levels affect their motivations and expectation.

However, this study was conducted only with 43 participants varying from A2, B1 and B2 level learners. The number of the participants and the number of the second language proficiency levels can be increased while age of the subjects and their year of English language education can be considered as additional variables to find out more about what causes or changes second language learners' beliefs about their EFL learning procedures and experiences.

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Received: 18.07.2017
Received in revised form: 04.08.2017
Accepted: 05.09.2017

COMMON AND BRANCH-SPECIFIC NEEDS OF TURKISH TEACHERS ABOUT IN-SERVICE TRAINING COURSES WITHIN THE SCOPE OF FATIH PROJECT[1]

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[1] The preliminary findings of this study were orally presented at GlobELT 2017 Conference on 18-21 May 2017 (Sarıoğlu & Saraç, 2017).

COMMON AND BRANCH-SPECIFIC NEEDS OF TURKISH TEACHERS ABOUT IN-SERVICE TRAINING COURSES WITHIN THE SCOPE OF FATIH PROJECT

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Abstract

FATIH Project is regarded as one of the most inclusive ICT integration attempts in the history of Turkish education. This nation-wide project entails equipping each classroom with an interactive whiteboard and supplying each student with a Tablet PC. The in-service teacher training courses are by far the most crucial component of the project as teachers are the end-users of those facilities in classrooms. Despite the abundance of studies on the opinions and attitudes of teachers towards the use of ICT technologies in general, to our knowledge, there exists no research study which specifically investigates whether the views and in-service training needs of teachers differ according to their distinct subject areas. With this in mind, this qualitative study aims to explore the perceptions and needs of 35 Turkish in-service teachers from different branches about in-service training courses within the scope of FATIH project. The study adopted a case study design. The research site and participants were selected purposefully. The data were mainly collected through questionnaires, and the accuracy of these data was validated through semi-structured interviews conducted with 30% of the participants. The collected data were analysed through the content analysis method. The study findings revealed a good deal of research evidence on the divergent training needs of teachers from various subject areas. Thus, it suggested that in-service training courses should be planned and organised as branch-specific.

Keywords: FATIH project, information and communication technologies (ICT), in-service teacher training, integration of ICT into education, interactive whiteboard (IWB)

1. Introduction

With the growing interest in information and technologies (ICT) all over the world, the governments of many countries have devoted a huge amount of their budgets to integration of ICT into their education systems (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Chow, 2013; Makki & Makki, 2012; Türel, 2011). In recent years, the Ministry of National Education in Turkey has also initiated a comprehensive project to implement computer technologies into education. This nation-wide attempt is called as *"FATIH Project (Movement of Enhancing Opportunities and Improving Technology)"* (MEB, 2012). FATIH project mainly entails equipping each classroom with an interactive whiteboard (IWB) and supplying each student with a tablet PC in public schools. The project is suggested to be one of the most radical technology integration projects in the history of Turkish education.

FATIH project comprises five fundamental constituents (Alkan, Bilici, Akdur, Temizhan, & Cicek, 2011): (a) the installation of technological infrastructure of ICT to schools (e.g., IWBs, Internet access, and tablet PCs), (b) the preparation of e-content in line with the curricula, (c) the effective use of ICT in teaching, (d) equipping teachers with an effective in-service training about IWB use, and (e) making stakeholders secure and conscious users of ICT (p. 1). So as to achieve these goals, the applications of the FATIH project have been carried on since 2012.

In-service teacher training courses are considered to be by far the most important component of FATIH project since teachers are the end-users of ICT in their classrooms. Teachers naturally benefit from a variety of technological devices for teaching practices. However, an IWB is, probably, the most inclusive one since it provides teachers with a number of computerised and technological facilities simultaneously. Apart from auditory and visual facilities, it offers opportunity to gain access to improved Internet services and online connection with some other electronic devices such as printers and tablet PCs. With this in mind, the effective use of IWBs by teachers is regarded to be at the core of the attempts to implement ICT technologies into education systems.

Although in-service training courses within the project are organised by the local educational institutions, the content of these courses is set by the Ministry of National Education. In general, all the teachers from various subject areas and school types get the same training prior to the integration of IWBs into their schools. That is to say, the teachers from different branches take these in-service training courses in the same session, which is unlikely to meet the specific educational needs of teachers from various subject areas.

In the relevant literature, there exist many research studies on the opinions and attitudes of teachers towards the use of ICT in general (e.g., Dursun, Kuzu, Kurt, Güllüpınar & Gültekin, 2013; Gök & Yıldırım, 2015; Güngör & Yıldırım, 2015; Kurt, Abdullah, Dursun, Güllüpınar & Gültekin, 2013; Mathews-Aydinli & Elaziz, 2010; Öz, 2014; Türel & Johnson, 2012). Some of these studies reveal the insufficiency of in-service teacher training programs within the context of FATIH project. As an example, Öz (2014) emphasizes that the process of ICT integration is quite fast and inclusive of all school types since the project is being conducted by the Ministry of Education, rather than the individual initiatives of institutions. This also requires policy makers to plan and manage in-service training courses too quickly, thereby leading some problems in terms of administration time and content of these courses.

One of the most outstanding findings of the related literature is that teachers are not pleased with the in-service training provided by the ministry in their provinces. Some studies make further implications that in-service training programs may be planned by taking the needs of teachers from different branches into consideration (e.g., Akcaoglu, Gumus, Bellibas, & Boyer, 2014; Altın & Kalelioğlu, 2015; Tosuntaş, Karadağ, & Orhan, 2015; Yıldız, Sarıtepeci, & Seferoğlu, 2013). However, to our knowledge, there exists no research study which mainly investigates whether the perceptions and the needs of the in-service teachers differ according their distinct subject areas, which is the main motivation behind the current study. If positive research evidence is explored about divergent needs and expectations of teachers according to various branches, this qualitative study will provide an insight to policy makers about the planning and management of in-service teacher training courses within the scope of FATIH project.

2. Literature Review

The relevant literature reveals a good deal of research evidence about the facilitative role of IWB use in educational settings (e.g., Mathews-Aydinli & Elaziz, 2010; Öz, 2014).

According to Bacon (2011), the efficient use of IWBs contributes to both teaching and learning in many aspects: (a) it enhances students' engagement and increases their motivation; (b) it makes flexible use of teaching materials possible for teachers; and (c) it promotes enthusiasm for learning and teaching. Moreover, with the help of IWBs, teachers can easily adapt their classroom activities and instructional materials in a way to address the divergent needs and learning styles of the students. This also paves the way for more effective interaction between teachers and students on a regular basis. Consequently, the integration of ICT into classroom helps teachers design their lessons more creatively and makes them more proficient users of technology, thereby making a great contribution to their professional development.

Teachers play an indispensable role in the successful integration of IWBs into education since they are the practitioners of these facilities in classroom settings. Now that teachers take the greatest responsibility in this ICT integration, their perceptions and needs should also be taken into consideration. Teachers should be trained well in effective use of IWBs, and they should be provided with sufficient pedagogical and technical support on this issue (Adıgüzel, Gürbulak, & Sarıçayır, 2011). In the light of the perspectives from all stakeholders including teachers, the strengths and weaknesses of FATIH project should be identified, and some precautions should be taken about the deficiencies within the system.

There are many studies which attempts to explore opinions and attitudes of in-service teachers towards the use of IWBs in classrooms. The relevant literature from various contexts reveals that teachers have positive attitudes towards the use of IWBs in their classrooms (e.g., Saraç, 2015; Teo, 2008; Zhao, 2003). In their study, Slay, Siebörger and Hodgkinson-Williams (2008) state that in-service teachers effectively use IWBs in various subject areas and with different purposes. On the other hand, some studies suggest that teachers have insufficient knowledge about the use of IWBs in their teaching practices (BECTA, 2003; Glover & Miller, 2001; Levy, 2002; Smith, Higgings, Wall, & Miller, 2005). According to Çiftçi and Taşkaya (2013), teachers have technical, motivational and educational challenges within the process of ICT integration, and they are not satisfied with the content of the in-service training courses they receive. The insufficiency of in-service training planned by the Directorate of Education in the cities is considered as one of the most critical problems the teachers face (Kurt et al., 2013). Thus, providing teachers with an effective in-service training can be the best solution to deal with such problems. In this respect, Güngör and Yıldırım (2015) suggest that teachers should attend in-service training programs regularly as an ongoing process.

3. The Current Study

3.1. The Justification for the Study

The justification for the current study is twofold. First, an effective in-service teacher training is regarded to be the most crucial component of FATIH project. Teachers cannot be equipped with successful in-service training courses without exploration of their perceptions, needs, problems, expectations, and qualifications within the context of FATIH project. As for the second justification, there is still a lack of research evidence on the common and divergent needs of teachers from various subject areas about the in-service training courses on recent ICT integration attempts in Turkey. In the relevant literature, there exist many studies on factors affecting teachers' use ICT in general and their opinions about the in-service training courses within the scope of FATIH project (e.g., Dursun et al., 2013; Gök & Yıldırım, 2015; Güngör & Yıldırım, 2015; Kurt et al., 2013; Mathews-Aydinli & Elaziz, 2010; Öz, 2014; Türel & Johnson, 2012). However, to our knowledge, there is no research

study which specifically attempts to explore whether the perceptions and the in-service training needs of teachers differ according to their branches, which is the main motivation behind the present study.

3.2. The Purpose of the Study

This qualitative study primarily aims to explore the perceptions and needs of Turkish in-service teachers from various branches about in-service training courses within the scope of FATIH project. With this in mind, the current study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the perceptions of Turkish in-service teachers from different subject areas about the in-service training courses within the context of FATIH project?

2. What are the needs of Turkish in-service teachers from different subject areas in relation to in-service training within the context of FATIH project?

4. Method

4.1. Research Design

The current study employed a qualitative research methodology to explore the perceptions and needs of Turkish in-service teachers from various branches about the in-service training courses within the scope of FATIH project. A qualitative approach was thought to be beneficial for obtaining detailed information about the central phenomenon, which was difficult to be explored through more conventional research methods (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). More specifically, this study adopted a case study design so as to "view the case from inside out" and see the central phenomenon from the perspectives of Turkish in-service teachers (Gillham, 2000, p. 11). The qualitative data were collected from the participants mainly through open-ended questionnaires. The accuracy and credibility of these findings were validated through semi-structured interviews, which were conducted with 30% of the participants. Thus, the administration of semi-structured interviews was also used as a strategy of methods triangulation in order to check the consistency of findings revealed by the open-ended questionnaires.

4.2. Participants

The participants of the study were 35 Turkish in-service teachers from various subject areas. They were all working in two distinct state high schools, one of which was situated in the city of Bursa while the other was located in the city of Kocaeli, Turkey. In the selection of the participants and the research sites, the study adopted purposeful sampling method, which was considered as the most suitable approach to choose the exploitable people and sites (Cresswell, 2012). There were two main reasons why these particular schools were selected as the context of the study. First of all, they were two of the first pilot schools where the FATIH project was being implemented for many years. Second, the researchers had been working as EFL teachers in these schools for over 5 years when the present study was conducted. Of the teachers working in these schools, only those taking in-service training courses within the context of FATIH project were allowed to be the participants of the current study. All the participants were actively using interactive whiteboards (IWBs) for at least two years in their schools.

Maximal variation sampling was also employed to reflect the multiple perspectives of the central phenomenon. According to Creswell (2012), maximal variation sampling strategy is a type of purposeful sampling, which is used to select individuals having some different traits or characteristics. Similarly, the participants of the current study were determined so as to

reflect the perceptions and the needs of the teachers from a variety of subject areas. The open-ended questionnaires were distributed to all of the teachers working in both schools. 35 of those teachers completed the questionnaires voluntarily. According to their fields of teaching, the participating teachers were categorized into five main subject areas before the analyses: 1) Turkish language and literature, 2) mathematics, 3) foreign languages (English, German), 4) science (physics, chemistry, biology), and (5) social sciences (history, geography). Then, the semi-structured interviews were conducted with 10 of the participating teachers, two from each of the given five subject areas.

The required permissions are obtained to gain access to the participants and the research sites. All the teachers participated in the current study on a voluntary basis. Verbal informed consent was obtained from the participants, and they were all informed about the purpose of the study prior to the administration of the questionnaires and semi-structured interviews.

4.3. Data Collection

The qualitative data were collected through two types of instruments: (1) questionnaire, and (2) semi-structured interviews. Initially, the questionnaire was provided to 35 participating teachers by hand so that they could reflect their perceptions and needs in relation to FATIH project. The original language of this paper-based questionnaire was Turkish, the mother tongue of the participants. No time limit was defined for the participants to complete the questionnaire, and they filled in the questionnaire at different sessions. Following the questionnaire, face-to-face semi-structured interviews were conducted with 10 of the participating teachers so as to validate the accuracy and credibility of the data collected through the questionnaires. These semi-structured interviews were administered in Turkish, and protocols were used to record the interview data. The interviews were also audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim. The transcriptions were checked independently by two researchers of the study to enhance the reliability and validity of data collection. Lastly, all the data were collected during the second semester of 2015/2016 academic year. The whole data collection procedures were administered in an ethical manner.

The questionnaire and interview items were developed by the researchers in the light of a detailed review of the relevant literature. The initial drafts were distributed for feedback to 11 EFL teachers, all of whom were PhD students at a university. Then, the final versions of the questionnaire and interview items were determined through the revisions made in view of their opinions and suggestions. Thus, face and content validity of the instruments was obtained on the basis of expert opinion.

The questionnaire included 13 items, most of which were open-ended (see Appendix A and B). Four items were about the demographics of the participants. Another four items tried to examine their current use of interactive whiteboards. Three items dealt with their experiences and perceptions about the in-service training courses within the scope of FATIH project. One item investigated the participants' expectations from such in-service training courses, which would likely be held in the future. The last item aimed to explore whether or not the teachers from various subject areas have specific needs in terms of in-service training.

On the other hand, the interviews were carried out not only to collect more information about the views and the needs of the participants but also to clarify the details which were still left unclear by the questionnaire findings. The semi-structured interview mainly included 4 open-ended central questions which were in line with items in the questionnaire. They investigated (a) what purposes the participating teachers use interactive whiteboards, (b) their evaluation of in-service training courses within the scope of FATIH project, (c) their

expectations from such in-service training courses, which would likely be held in the future, and (d) whether or not they have training needs which are specific to their subject areas.

4.4. Data Analysis

The qualitative data were analysed through the content analysis method. Thematic approach was mainly used in data analysis. First, the data were organised. Next, the general sense of data was explored after the review of the qualitative data several times. Then, the codes were developed through in vivo and descriptive coding techniques (see Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014 for details). Finally, themes were identified through the description and interpretation of these codes.

All of the phases in data analyses were conducted by two researchers independently so as to establish inter-rater reliability. At the end of each phase, the results were compared and the agreement was made on the controversial issues.

5. Results and Discussion

The findings of this study have revealed that Turkish in-service teachers from various subject areas are largely optimistic about the integration of information and communication technologies (ICT) into Turkish education system within the scope of FATIH project. The teachers seem to exhibit positive attitudes towards the use of interactive white-boards (IWBs) in their classrooms, which is also in line with the research evidence in the related literature (e.g., Mathews-Aydinli & Elaziz, 2010; Öz, 2014; Saraç, 2015; Slay et al., 2008; Teo, 2008; Türel, 2012; Zhao, 2003).

According to the study results, all of 35 participating teachers explain that they actively benefit from IWBs in their teaching practices for at least two years. Obviously, the frequency of IWB use varies from one teacher to another. However, the rate of IWB use across 35 participants has been found to be 65% since they utilise this technological device in 561 of their total 869 class hours. This frequency of IWB use can be regarded to be quite high in view of the variation in their subject areas. The data from the questionnaires and the interviews also emphasizes that majority of Turkish in-service teachers are pleased with the use of IWB. They believe that IWB makes their lessons visually more attractive for their students, thereby increasing their motivation and yielding long-lasting learning. The relevant literature also verifies that teachers generally benefits from IWBs so as to visualise the content of their courses (e.g., Bacon, 2011; Türel & Johnson, 2012).

Despite adopting positive attitudes towards the use of IWBs, most of Turkish in-service teachers are not pleased with the in-service training courses provided by the Ministry of Education within the scope of FATIH project. According to the data from the questionnaires, 86% of the participating teachers express their dissatisfaction with in-service training since it has not provided them with sufficient professional development on how to integrate IWBs into their individual teaching practices. Many studies also substantiate that teachers, to a great extent, receive inadequate in-service training about the use of IWBs in their teaching practices (e.g., Çiftçi & Taşkaya, 2013; Kurt et al., 2013; Smith et al., 2005).

The perceptions and the needs of teachers from different subject areas about the in-service training will be discussed thoroughly hereafter in the light of the research questions:

5.1. RQ1: What are the perceptions of Turkish in-service teachers from different subject areas about the in-service training courses within the context of FATIH project?

The qualitative data from the questionnaires and interviews have revealed six themes about the participating teachers' perceptions of in-service training courses. These are as

follows: (1) course objectives, (2) planning, (3) content, (4) training methods, (5) trainers, and (6) ongoing support (see Table 1).

Table 1. *Themes and codes about teachers' perceptions of in-service training courses*

Themes	Codes
1) course objectives	✓ unrealistic objectives ✓ inconsistency with educational policies ✓ conflict with nationwide high-staking exams ✓ not adaptable to curricula of subject areas
2) planning	✓ disregarding the needs and interests of teachers ✓ inefficiency of administration time and course hours ✓ mandatory nature of training ✓ excessive number of trainees ✓ limited time span
3) content	✓ limited with basic IWB skills at technical level ✓ insufficient to integrate IWB into teaching practices ✓ not comprehensive enough, superficial ✓ lack of training in creating course materials ✓ no training on how to connect IWBs with tablet PCs ✓ lack of training in ICT-related programs
4) training methods	✓ ineffective, theory-based training ✓ lack of opportunity to practice ✓ not addressing to adult learners ✓ need for sample applications and exemplary models ✓ not leading to permanent learning ✓ need for more attractive learning atmosphere
5) trainers	✓ lack of qualified trainers
6) ongoing support	✓ lack of constant support ✓ lack of up-to-date training ✓ lack of encouragement to use ICT technologies

5.1.1. Course objectives

The objectives of in-service training programs should be clearly identified. They should also be in line with both overall national education policies and curriculum principles of individual subject areas. The in-service training courses within the context of FATIH project are designed to equip teachers with the knowledge of effective IWB use so that they can provide their students with twenty-first century skills. However, there exists a mismatch between course objectives and Turkish education policies, which are mainly based on nationwide high-stakes testing for assessing of students' achievement and placing them to higher education. Akcaoglu et al. (2015) also put forward high-staking exams as a barrier to ICT integration in Turkey. In view of countrywide high-staking exams, the majority of the participating teachers make use of IWBs to show their lecture presentations and do tests. A science teacher provides a good example for this situation during the interview:

> My 12th year students do not want to watch videos related to my course by leaving the tests aside since they prepare high-staking university entrance exams.

Surprisingly, none of the participants mention offering their students opportunity to use IWBs in their class hours. Thus, the study findings have demonstrated that most of Turkish in-service teachers benefit from IWBs to support their existing teaching practices rather than providing their students with interactive learning atmosphere. With this in mind, it can be concluded that digitalisation of schools do not guarantee teachers' effective integration of IWBs into their classrooms without setting realistic in-service training goals.

5.1.2. Planning

In-service training within the scope of FATIH project is planned and organised by local educational authorities. It is an indispensable fact that teachers should also be involved in the process of planning and designing such professional development programs. However, the questionnaire data emphasises that in-service training courses are arranged without taking the needs and interests of teachers into consideration, which is also stated by some studies in the relevant literature (Akcaoglu et al., 2015; Altın & Kalelioğlu, 2015; Tosuntaş, Karadağ, & Orhan, 2015; Yıldız, Sarıtepeci, & Seferoğlu, 2013).

As well as proposing several problems about these in-service training courses, the participating teachers make suggestions to overcome some of these difficulties. First of all, they are dissatisfied with the administration time and hours of in-service training. An English teacher states that:

> In-service training courses generally occur in the late evening hours of education year when we are tired of working all day, which results in inefficiency of these courses.

As a solution, some teachers suggest that these courses should be held in more efficient time and hours, especially when they attend seminars just before fall semesters and immediately after spring semesters.

Second, the mandatory nature of in-service training is considered as an obstacle for the efficiency of these courses. In this regard, some teachers point out that in-service training courses should be given to volunteers who freely offer this professional development. According to a social sciences teacher:

> The effective learning atmosphere is spoiled by the teachers who participate in these courses only for getting a certificate of attendance.

The excessive number of trainees is another issue, which is criticized by in-service teachers. They thought that in-service teacher training courses are generally too crowded to fulfil the needs of each trainee. Such overpopulated in-service training courses are also regarded to be insufficient to provide teachers with opportunity to put theoretical knowledge into practice during the course hours. In this regard, some teachers recommend that in-service training programs should be planned and arranged with a limited number of trainees.

Finally, the duration of in-service training courses is regarded to be excessively short. In view of the data from the questionnaires and the interviews, many teachers exhibit their dissatisfaction with the limited time span of these courses. They are not long enough to offer each trainee opportunity to learn and practice the necessary skills about the use of IWBs, let alone addressing the special needs of teachers from different subject areas about integrating this technology into their individual teaching practices.

5.1.3. Content

The success of in-service training courses mainly depends upon teachers' effective use of IWBs in their classrooms. In accordance with the study findings, these courses help the

majority of teachers with basic IWB skills at technical level, e.g., how to turn on IWB. However, almost all of the participating teachers agree that in-service training programs are insufficient to satisfy their needs about how to integrate IWBs into their individual teaching practices. 5 of the participating teachers maintain that they are unable to prepare their teaching materials by themselves by means of these ICT technologies.

The teachers regard the content of in-service training as being superficial and insufficient since it does not provide them with comprehensive knowledge and necessary skills on how to adapt these technologies for teaching their subject areas. A teacher of English language states that:

> Although we were instructed on how to use IWB basically, these courses did not provide us with insights to integrate this technology into our teaching practices effectively.

Teachers also make further suggestions about the content of in-service training courses. Some participants indicate that they should be instructed on how to connect IWBs with Tablet PCs. Some others explain their needs to learn about some ICT-related software programs and "EBA (Project's Content Database)". In this regard, this study also reveals research evidence about teachers' insufficient knowledge on how to adapt IWBs in their teaching practices, as highlighted by BECTA (2003), Levy (2002) and Smith et al. (2005). Thus, it can be concluded that the perceptions and needs of the teachers should also be taken into account while designing the content of in-service training courses.

5.1.4. Training methods

A successful in-service teacher training can only be achieved through the efficient and practical teaching methods. Training methods should be effective enough to bring about the expected changes. Since the participants of these training courses are adult teachers, the pedagogical design of these courses should include adult-oriented teaching methods, which combine theoretical knowledge with practical applications, such as skill demonstration and learning by doing (Leu & Ginsburg, 2011). On the contrary, the current study has revealed that a great number of in-service teachers regard training methods as ineffective. According to a maths teacher;

> These courses are largely theory-based and they do not supply trainees with opportunity to put what they have learned into practice.

Therefore, the trainees are in need of more practice-based in-service training courses, which will be more likely to result in more permanent learning. Many participating teachers express their needs to be shown sample applications and exemplary models on how to integrate IWBS into their teaching practices. Some teachers reveal their expectations to get more attractive and less boring in-service training courses, which will lead to more enjoyable learning atmosphere. The relevant literature also underlines that in-service training programs should go beyond the traditional teaching methods by adopting more practice-based and pedagogical way of instruction (Drexler, Baralt, & Dawson, 2008; Pamuk, 2012; Pamuk, Çakır, Ergun, Yılmaz, & Ayaş, 2013; Uslu & Bumen, 2012).

5.1.5. Trainers

The lack of qualified trainers seems to be another problematic issue related to the in-service teacher training programs. Some teachers point out that the course trainers are not proficient enough to have sufficient level of knowledge about these new technologies. In this regard, they suggest that such professional development courses should be given by the qualified trainers who are experts in ICT technologies.

5.1.6. Ongoing support

Beyond specifically-arranged in-service training courses, some of the participating teachers clarify that they need a constant support for their professional development in ICT integration. Apart from learning the basic IWB skills at technical level, they ask for further opportunities to consult their specific problems and pedagogical needs, especially on how to adapt these technologies into their individual subject areas. In addition, some teachers propose that the content of in-service training should be updated continuously in view of their perceptions and pedagogical needs. They would like to be informed consistently about the new advancements in the field of ICT. In this respect, a teacher of Turkish literature declares that:

> Some precautions should be taken so as to encourage in-service teachers to use IWBs more effectively in their classrooms.

In another study, Güngör and Yıldırım (2015) also suggest that teachers should attend in service training activities regularly as an ongoing process.

5.2. RQ2: What are the needs of Turkish in-service teachers from different subject areas in related to in-service training within the context of FATIH project?

The findings of the current study have revealed two themes in relation to the needs of teachers about in-service training courses. These are (a) common needs, and (b) branch-specific needs (see Table 2).

Table 2. *Themes and codes about training needs of teachers from different subject areas*

Themes	Codes
1) common needs	✓ more efficient in-service training courses on ICT technologies ✓ training on how to adapt IWBs into their teaching practices ✓ distinct in-service training courses on different subject areas
2) branch-specific needs	***Maths*** ✓ drawing geometrical shapes ✓ creating 3D graphics ✓ using mathematical symbols ***Turkish Literature*** ✓ adding sounds to literary texts, such as poems ✓ creating videos and short films ***Science*** ✓ carrying out simulation experiments ***Foreign Languages*** ✓ recording students' sounds ✓ creating animated graphs and videos ✓ using ICT tools in crowded classrooms ***Social Sciences*** ✓ creating and using interactive maps ✓ drawing geographical features

5.2.1. Common needs

The findings highlight that a great number of in-service teachers are not pleased with in-service training courses within the scope of FATIH project. Despite offering the basic technical knowledge of IWBs, these in-service training programs are claimed to be insufficient to provide teachers with necessary skills on how to adapt these technologies into their individual teaching practices. Obviously, all of the teachers from every subject area and school type get the same in-service training prior to the integration of IWBs into their schools, which is unlikely to meet the educational needs of all teachers from various subject areas. As a crucial recommendation to overcome this problem, 80% of the participating teachers suggest that in-service training courses should be planned and organised separately for teachers from different subject areas.

It is noted that successful professional development programs cannot be designed without taking the special needs of teachers from various branches into account. The organisation of distinct in-service training on different subject areas is regarded to provide teachers with more understanding of integrating ICT specifically to teach their subject matter. A geography teacher asserts that:

> I can prepare my teaching materials through these technologies if I get an in-service training which is special to my subject area.

Such branch-specific courses may also create an effective network across colleagues for collaborative learning. In this way, more proficient users of IWBs can assist their incompetent colleagues by sharing their sample applications and exemplary models, which result in ongoing technical and pedagogical support among colleagues.

5.2.2. Branch-specific needs

Although there exist a number of common points in the needs and perceptions of teachers towards FATIH projects, the current study has released some research evidence about the different needs of teachers from various subject areas about the in-service training courses (see Table 2). On the one hand, the questionnaire data indicate that the teachers from different branches make use of IWBs for similar purposes such as lecture presentations, playing a video, Internet access, demonstration of visual materials and doing tests. On the other hand, 80% of the participating teachers think that in-service training courses should be branch-specific. They put forward some training needs which are special to their individual subject area. For instance, maths teachers need in-service training on how to create 3D graphics and geometrical shapes by means of IWBs. Science teachers want to be instructed on carrying out simulation experiments via ICT for supporting their teaching practices. In-service training needs of teachers from social sciences include creating and using interactive maps effectively on IWBs. As for some teachers of Turkish literature, they express their needs as adding sounds to written texts and poems. Finally, some foreign language teachers would like to be trained on some issues such as recording their students' speech and creating animated videos for their individual teaching purposes. In view of these findings, it can be concluded that Turkish in-service teachers from various subject areas have different training needs on integrating ICT technologies into their classrooms. Thus, designing separate in-service training courses on different subject areas can offer an efficient means to fulfil these divergent ICT needs of in-service teachers.

6. Conclusion

With its scope and budget, the FATIH project is argued to be one of the most inclusive ICT integration attempts in the history of Turkish education. Providing teachers with the necessary ICT skills through efficient in-service training programs is probably the most crucial part of this comprehensive project as teachers are the end users of these technological facilities in classrooms. In this regard, this qualitative study specifically aims at exploring the perceptions and needs of teachers from various subject areas in terms of in-service training courses within the project. As for the research findings, a great number of Turkish teachers are not gratified with these in-service training programs even though they mostly have good attitudes towards the use of ICT technologies in their classrooms. Therefore, in-service training courses should be planned and organised as branch-specific since the current study has revealed a good deal of research evidence on the divergent training needs of teachers from various subject areas. In short, the project's focus of attention on technological infrastructure should be directed to various professional development needs of teachers from different branches and in different educational contexts (Akcaoglu et al., 2015; Ertmer, 2005; Gur, Ozoğlu, & Baser, 2010).

It should be kept in mind that equipping each classroom with ICT tools and providing teachers with superficial in-service training about the use of IWB do not give assurance on effective implementation of ICT technologies into education. So as to attain this end result, national education policies and curriculum principles of individual subject areas should also comply with all the components of this ICT integration project. In Turkish education system, one of the most conspicuous obstacles to effective use of technology is claimed to be nationwide high-stakes testing for assessing students' achievement and placing them to higher education (Akcaoglu et al., 2015). A successful ICT integration also requires radical changes in many educational aspects such as curriculum, teaching methods, testing instruments and assessment strategies. Therefore, it seems unlikely to accomplish a real and effective nationwide ICT integration without changing educational policies and arranging the curricula of subject areas in accordance with the ICT based applications. Obviously, such kinds of initiatives are far beyond the in-service teachers who have to apply the pre-determined educational policies and curriculum principles. While implementing ICT technologies into schools, policymakers and teachers have to cope with the nationwide system which is often resistant to change and innovation. Consequently, there exists an inconsistency between the highly centralised education system, particularly high-stakes testing, in Turkey and the objectives of offering students twenty-first century skills, which largely prevents teachers from making ICT adaptations according to the dynamics in the classroom.

7. Implications

The present study has revealed a number of implications and suggestions for policymakers and course designers:

✓ The perceptions and the needs of teachers about the in-service training courses should be taken into consideration while planning and organising such kinds of professional development programs.

✓ In-service training courses should be planned and organised as separately for each branch since this study reveals some research evidence on the divergent training needs of teachers from various subject areas.

✓ Beyond basic IWB skills at technical level, teachers should specifically be trained on how to adapt these technologies in teaching their individual subject areas.

✓ The teachers should also be instructed about how to make connection between IWBs and Tablet PCs.

✓ The objectives of in-service training programs should comply with both overall national education policies and curriculum principles of individual subject areas.

✓ These courses should be held in more convenient time period and more efficient hours of the day, especially when the teachers attend seminars just before fall semesters and immediately after spring semesters.

✓ They should be planned and arranged in longer time periods and with a limited number of trainees so that each trainee has opportunity to put his or her theoretical knowledge into practice.

✓ Teachers would like to have more practice-based and pedagogical in-service training courses which are enriched with sample applications and exemplary models on how to integrate IWBS effectively into their teaching practices.

✓ These courses should be given by the qualified trainers who are experts in ICT technologies.

✓ Teachers should be supplied with a constant support so as to assist and improve their professional development in ICT integration, and the content of in-service training should be updated continuously.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Questionnaire Items

Dear Colleagues,

We conduct a study to explore your perceptions and needs about in-service training courses you have taken within the scope of FATIH project. We will be glad if you contribute to our research by filling in the following questionnaire. Thank you for your attention.

Mustafa SARIOĞLU
Mehmet SARAÇ

1. Your Age? ☐ 21-35 ☐ 36-50 ☐ 51-65 ☐ 66 or more

2. Your Branch? ☐ Maths ☐ Physics ☐ Chemistry ☐ Biology
☐ Literature ☐ History ☐ Geography ☐ Foreign Language
☐ Other (Please specify) _____

3. How long have you been teaching? ☐ 0-10 ☐ 11-20 ☐ 21-30 ☐ 31 or more

4. How many hours do you teach in a week? _____

5. Do you use IWBs in your lessons? ☐ Yes ☐ No

If your answer is "no", please explain the reason here and then pass to the 9th question.

_____

_____

6. How long have you been using IWBs? ☐ 1 year ☐ 2 years ☐ 3 years ☐ 4 or more

7. How often do you use IWBs in your lessons on a weekly basis? _____

8. For what purposes do you use IWBs in your lessons?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

9. Have you taken part in any in-service training within the scope of FATIH Project? ☐ Yes ☐ No

If your answer is "no", please explain the reasons here, and then pass to the 12th question.

_____

_____

10. Which in-service training seminars have you attended within the scope of FATIH Project?

☐ The Use of Technology in Education

☐ Interactive White Board Use

☐ ICT & Conscious and Safe Use of Internet

☐ Other (Please specify: _____)

11. How do you evaluate the in-service training courses that you have taken within the scope of FATIH Project?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

12. What are your expectations from the future in-service training courses within the scope of FATIH Project?

_____

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_____

13. Do you have any branch-specific needs in relation to in-service training within the scope of FATIH Project? ☐ Yes ☐ No

If your answer is "yes", please explain.

_____

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_____

Appendix B: Questionnaire Items in Turkish

Değerli Meslektaşlarımız,

Fatih projesi kapsamında katılmış olduğunuz hizmet-içi eğitim seminerlerine yönelik görüşlerinizi ve ihtiyaçlarınızı saptamak üzere bir çalışma yapmaktayız. Çalışmamıza, aşağıdaki anketi doldurarak yardımcı olabilirseniz çok seviniriz. Katkılarınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Mustafa SARIOĞLU
Mehmet SARAÇ

1. Yaşınız? ☐ 21-35 ☐ 36-50 ☐ 51-65 ☐ 66 ve üzeri

2. Branşınız? ☐ Matematik ☐ Fizik ☐ Kimya ☐ Biyoloji
☐ Edebiyat ☐ Tarih ☐ Coğrafya ☐ Yabancı Dil
☐ Diğer (Lütfen Yazınız.) _____

3. Kaç yıldır öğretmenlik yapıyorsunuz? ☐ 0-10 ☐ 11-20 ☐ 21-30 ☐ 31 ve üzeri

4. Haftada kaç saat derse giriyorsunuz? Lütfen yazınız. _____

5. Derslerinizde etkileşimli tahta kullanıyor musunuz? ☐ Evet ☐ Hayır

"Hayır" seçeneğini işaretlediyseniz, lütfen aşağıya sebebini yazınız. Daha sonra 9. soruya geçiniz.

_____
_____

6. Etkileşimli tahtayı ne kadar süredir kullanıyorsunuz? ☐ 1 yıl ☐ 2 yıl ☐ 3 yıl ☐ 4 +

7. Haftalık ders saatinizin ne kadarında etkileşimli tahta kullanıyorsunuz? Lütfen yazınız. _____

8. Etkileşimli tahtayı derslerinizde hangi amaçlarla kullanıyorsunuz? Lütfen yazınız.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

9. Fatih Projesi kapsamında herhangi bir hizmet-içi eğitim seminerine katıldınız mı? ☐ Evet ☐ Hayır

"Hayır" seçeneğini işaretlediyseniz, lütfen aşağıya sebebini yazınız. Daha sonra 12. soruya geçiniz.

_____

_____

10. Fatih Projesi kapsamında hangi hizmet-içi eğitim seminerine katıldınız?

☐ Fatih Projesi Eğitimde Teknoloji Kullanımı

☐ Fatih Projesi Etkileşimli Tahta Kullanımı

☐ Fatih Projesi Bilişim Teknolojileri ve İnternetin Bilinçli ve Güvenli Kullanımı

☐ Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz: _____)

11. Fatih projesi kapsamında katılmış olduğunuz hizmet-içi eğitim seminerlerini nasıl değerlendiriyorsunuz? Lütfen ayrıntılı bir şekilde açıklayınız.

_____

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12. Fatih projesi kapsamında gelecekte yapılması planlanan hizmet-içi eğitim seminerlerinden beklentileriniz nelerdir? Lütfen ayrıntılı bir şekilde açıklayınız.

_____

_____

_____

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13. Fatih Projesi kapsamında branşınıza yönelik eğitim ihtiyaçlarınız var mı? ☐ Evet ☐ Hayır

"Evet" seçeneğini işaretlediyseniz, lütfen açıklayınız.

_____

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_____

_____

_____

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Received: 19.07.2017
Received in revised form: 14.09.2017
Accepted: 17.09.2017

THE EUROPEAN PORTFOLIO FOR STUDENT TEACHERS OF LANGUAGES (EPOSTL) PROMOTES PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: ELT IN-SERVICE TEACHERS' VIEWS

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THE EUROPEAN PORTFOLIO FOR STUDENT TEACHERS OF LANGUAGES (EPOSTL) PROMOTES PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: ELT IN-SERVICE TEACHERS' VIEWS

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Abstract

In both pre-service and in-service teacher development, portfolios are used for a variety of purposes ranging from teacher education to development, stimulators for reflection and tools to plan and monitor competency and personal development. The European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (EPOSTL) provides a tool for reflection and self-assessment for student teachers during their initial teacher education. It also assists curriculum development and course planning. Thus, this study tried to investigate the ELT in-service teachers' views on the use of the EPOSTL to promote professional development at Akhmet Yassawi International Kazakh-Turkish University, in Kazakhstan. Upon the implementation of the EPOSTL in the ELT department, seven in-service teachers of English were interviewed through the questions prepared. The data gathered from interviews were analyzed through thematic analysis. The findings indicated that teachers found the use of the EPOSTL beneficial in terms of self-assessment and self-reflection. According to the findings, it is suggested that EPOSTL is not only useful for pre-service teachers but it is also very effective for in-service teachers**.**

Keywords: portfolio, EPOSTL (European portfolio for student teachers of languages), in-service teachers, professional development, self-assessment, self-reflection

1. Introduction

Recent changes in education policy which emphasize greater teacher improvement in designing curriculum and assessing students have also been an impetus to increased portfolio use. Portfolios are useful as a support to the new instructional approaches that emphasize the student's role in curricular areas. Portfolios provide such a reflective experience to student teachers to reflect regularly on their strengths and weaknesses as they progress through their teacher education. Teacher educators have reported that the process of developing portfolios can help student teachers understand the complexities of teaching better, make connections between classroom learning and teaching experiences, and become reflective practitioners (Loughran & Corrigan, 1995; Winsor & Ellefson, 1995).

There is a reasonable connection between effective teaching and student achievement (Horng & Loeb, 2010). Thus, in order to facilitate effective teaching, the relationship between learning and teaching has to be comprehended completely. It is important that teachers have an understanding of how students learn and, what practices are the most effective. Thus, teachers as active participants in the language development process should be placed at the center of

attention. As a result of increasing focus on maximization of effective teaching, teachers' professional development has drawn significant consideration and has been referred in literature (Richards & Farell,2005).

2. The European Portfolio for Student Teachers of English (EPOSTL)

Professional development refers to the development of a person in his or her professional development. Namely, "teacher development is the professional growth a teacher achieves as a result of a gaining increased experience and examining his, or her teaching systematically" (Glatthorn,1995, p. 41). There is not a certain form or model of professional development. Professional development may look and be very different in diverse settings and even within a single setting, it can have a variety of dimensions. Thus, "The European Portfolio for Student Teachers of English (EPOSTL)" is an instrument to promote professional growth through reflection and dialogue. The main aim of the EPOSTL is to provide a tool for reflection and self-assessment for student teachers during their initial teacher education. It should further assist curriculum development and course planning and should also be used as an awareness-raising instrument for in-service teacher education. The EPOSTL as such ought to be integrated into existing course structure and, if possible, be used throughout the teacher education programme.

The EPOSTL consists of the following seven sections that will be presented briefly:

1. Introduction
2. Personal statement
3. Self-assessment
4. Dossier
5. Glossary
6. Index
7. User's guide

The Introduction is an initiatory section informing student teachers about the objectives, content and usage of EPOSTL (Newby et al., 2007). Within the Personal Statement section there are various tasks aspiring to elicit student teachers' universal viewpoints on general teaching issues at the initial stages of their education. The self-assessment section is the core of the EPOSTL. The EPOSTL has 195 *can-do* descriptors referring to the key didactic competences a teacher should have to attain. Along with it, the EPOSTL is intended to be seen as a kind of checklist to be ticked off by student teachers. It should also be used as an instrument that helps student teachers to *reflect* on their *knowledge*, *skills* and *values*. It therefore recognizes the differences and backgrounds of individual student teachers. The descriptors should be used as springboards for discussions among student teachers, and between student teachers and their teacher educators and mentors. Thus particular attention is given to the role of the EPOSTL in collaborative activities. The descriptors are seen as a guideline, they can be adapted and others can be added or deleted.

3. Recent studies on the "The European Portfolio for Student Teachers of English (EPOSTL)"

Many scholars have been studying the EPOSTL in various contexts. For example, Mehlmauer-Larcher (2009) describes the EPOSTL implementation at the University of Vienna. Specifically, the EPOSTL was implemented in the early phases of pre-service ELT teacher

education. Orlova (2011) gives an account of introducing the EPOSTL in pre-service teacher education programs in the Czech Republic. According to this account, the tool has been used since 2008, and as a result of initial feedback provided by the students, a six-stage procedure has been suggested to make its implementation as effective as possible. These stages include: 1) introducing the EPOSTL to student teachers and setting the tasks in the Personal Statement, 2) selecting the sections for self-assessment, 3) integrating the 'can-do' descriptors into the course, 4) employing 'can-do' descriptors for micro-teaching tasks, 5) encouraging students to work with the EPOSTL during their school practicum, and 6) surveying students' opinions of the EPOSTL (Orlova 2011:20). Orlova (2011, p. 28) concludes that in order to make the most efficient use of EPOSTL, it should be integrated in all components of teacher training courses (i.e. seminars, lectures, the practicum, etc) and should be used on systematic and continuous basis.

Fenner (2011) provides a description of a one-year pilot implementation of the EPOSTL in a post-graduate program at University of Bergen in Norway. The implementation took place in 2009 and it involved three kinds of contexts: lectures (on methodology), seminars, and the practicum at schools. The main aim of using EPOSTL was to stimulate reflections about the developing knowledge and skills of the trainees. The pilot course was followed by questionnaires addressed at the students and their mentors. As was revealed by the questionnaire findings, the EPOSTL helped the students to see a link between the theory and practice of teaching, to define their expectations of teaching, to reflect upon the aims and objectives of the lessons they planned, and on their own teaching. Fenner (2001, p. 44) concludes that the EPOSTL turned out to be a tool which facilitated the process of guiding the trainees through different stages of their training, and not only for the students themselves, but also for the mentors and trainers at the university. Ingvarsdóttir (2011) casts a light on a pilot project of using the EPOSTL in the Department of Education at the University of Iceland, in which a significant focus was on strengthening the links between the University and partnership schools in the process of offering teacher training. The EPOSTL was treated as a platform for transforming the traditional model of training into a collaborative learning environment, in which all parties involved (trainees, trainers at the university and mentors at schools) would constitute a community of learning. The process of implementing was not very positive. However, with changes introduced in the way the students and the mentors were involved in the process, in the third year of the pilot implementation, the EPOSTL "brought the partnership schools", and was supposed to become an integral part of teacher training courses (Ingvarsdóttir, 2011, p. 70).

Mirici (2014-2016) coordinated the project "EFUESTE-Effective Use of the EPOSTL by Student Teachers of English" in Turkey. The project has been funded with support from the European Commission. This project aims to gather English language teacher training academics and student teachers from different European contexts and to provide them with a common basis for sharing ideas and experiences about how to design effective EPOSTL supported implementations in their system.

Jimbo at el. (2010) conducted the research projects to contextualize and adapt self-assessment descriptors of the EPOSTL in the Japanese educational context. In 2010, 100 descriptors of J-POSTL (Japanese Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages) for pre-service teacher education

were elaborated by adopting, modifying, or combining 113 out of 195 descriptors of the original EPOSTL. After that, they have been piloted for three years, providing useful data for analysis and further steps in refining the descriptors. The remaining 82 EPOSTL descriptors have been unexplored but regarded as the base on which J-POSTL for in-service teachers should be built.

Theoretical-analytical papers discuss the EPOSTL from different viewpoints. For instance, Newby (2012) draws on the experiences of users of the EPOSTL, both teacher educators and students, illustrates what 'good practice' might mean and indicates seven ways in which the EPOSTL can play this supportive role.

There are also many research papers, in which the EPOSTL plays substantial role. In 2009, Ogeyik evaluated the attitudes of student teachers towards microteaching experiences within the curriculum based on the EPOSTL. Using a Likert type scale, the findings revealed that the ELT students at Trakya University in Turkey in general held positive attitudes towards microteaching applications with regard to its effectiveness for professional development, self-assessment, self-confidence, material production, and teaching experiences in various courses in which students are of different ages and linguistic levels. The study of Strakova (2010) compares the experience of Slovak pre-service students who piloted the portfolio during their two-week teaching practice and students who worked with this document in the wider context. The data gained in the form of questionnaire as well as a focus group discussion support the author's hypothesis about the space needed to benefit from the document. In 2012, Cakir and Balcikanli examined the use of the EPOSTL to foster teacher autonomy in Turkey. Using the method of interview, the findings in his pilot study indicated that both student teachers and teacher trainers found the use of the EPOSTL beneficial in terms of reflection, self-assessment and awareness. Mirici & Demirbas (2013), investigate the procedure for the transfer of the EPOSTL into the E-EPOSTL and define the transformation through some visual e-materials. Mirici & Hergüner (2015) discuss and put forward some practical suggestions on the functions and the effectiveness of the EPOSTL in English Language Teaching (ELT) and German Language Teaching (GLT) departments in a state university in Turkey.

4. The study

4.1. The aim of the study

This study aims to find out how "The European Portfolio for Student Teachers of English (EPOSTL)" promotes professional development of in-service teachers of English. Research questions of the study are:

1. How does the EPOSTL promote professional development?

2. How do in-service teachers perceive their experience with the EPOSTL?

4.2. Methodology

The study adopted a qualitative research methodology. The most suitable instrument for data collection seemed to be an interview as it is a tool that can obtain reliable and valid measures in the form of verbal responses from one or more respondents. Cannel and Kahn (1968) state that an interview is "two-person conversation, initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of

obtaining research-relevant information, and focused by him on contents specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction, or explanation".

4.2.1. Setting

The study was conducted in the English Language Teaching department at Faculty of Philology, International Kazakh-Turkish University, Kazakhstan. The study programmes are designed according to the two-tier system comprising Bachelor's Degree and a Master's Degree (primarily in teaching). Students who have completed the Bachelor's level study programme can continue their education by taking two-year Master's level study programme. After finishing this programme, they are fully qualified to teach English as a foreign language in educational institutions at all levels.

4.2.2. Participants

The study included seven participants. All of them were in-service teachers of the English Language Teaching department at the International Kazakh-Turkish University, Kazakhstan. All the participants were female.

4.2.3. Implementation of the EPOSTL

7 in-service teachers of the department participated in the research. The EPOSTL was used in the academic years of 2016-2017.

The EPOSTL is implemented as follows:

- At the beginning, in-service teachers get familiar with the structure of the EPOSTL.

- Before using the EPOSTL, in-service teachers did the self-assessment part of the EPOSTL to see their strengths and weaknesses.

- While using it, in-service teachers take detailed notes which account for the activities observed in class, such as the four skills, grammar, error treatment, interaction patterns, etc.

-While observing peers' lessons, they are encouraged to provide both oral and written feedback about the lesson structure, communication with learners, time management and materials. Both success and failure of the lesson were defined.

-While holding lessons, they are encouraged to evaluate the development of their own teaching skills by reflecting on the descriptors from the self-assessment section.

- Then, in-service teachers are encouraged to reflect once again on their teaching skills in terms of the EPOSTL self-assessment descriptors to see whether they made progress.

-Finally, the in-service teachers were interviewed.

4.2.4. Data collection

The data of the research were collected by an interview. The interview consisted of four questions which lasted for 5-10 minutes with each respondent. The first question is aimed at finding the in service teachers' attitudes towards the concept of the EPOSTL in teacher education. The second and third questions addressed the questions of respondents' strengths and weaknesses in terms of the EPOSTL self-assessment descriptors. And the last question focused on how the use of the EPOSTL contributes to the professional development.

4.2.5. Data analysis

The thematic analysis was conducted to analyze the data obtained via interview. The thematic analysis is used in qualitative research and focuses on examining themes within data. The ultimate purpose of conducting qualitative research is to recognize how the existence of themes and organization of data are connected with a particular topic or the development of a line reasoning. Thematic analysis therefore shapes, adjusts or reforms these objectives (Holliday, 2007).

5. Findings and discussions

The interview conducted to 7 in-service teachers had 4 open-ended questions. As to the results of the analysis of these open-ended questions, 5 themes were obtained. The themes are generally related to the use of the EPOSTL. The themes are explained below with some extracts from the interview. The number of the respondents in the presentation was given (from respondent 1 to respondent 7).

Theme 1: The EPOSTL is very useful as a self-assessment tool in teacher education.

The findings of the analysis of the interview show that all respondents think that the EPOSTL is very necessary in teacher education. They indicate that the portfolio helps them to monitor the development of their teaching skills and identify their strengths and weaknesses in TEFL, which leads to the improvement of teaching competences.

In my opinion the EPOSTL is very useful as a self-assessment tool in teacher education. It helps us to identify the areas we should develop ourselves. We can focus more on our weaknesses since the EPOSTL displays our strong and weak competences we have the chance and time to work on. Also we can do it autonomously without anybody's help. (respondent 1)

It is a good guideline for teachers in training. We can find our weak competences and work on them to improve them. It is a mirror that reflects our strengths and weaknesses. (respondent 5)

The usefulness of the EPOSTL is seen in various aspects such as assessment, awareness and teaching. The respondents claim that it was useful as it helped them with teaching.

Theme 2: In-service teachers' strengths in terms of the EPOSTL.

The findings of the interview consider that the respondents are good at grammar and speaking skills.

Well, I find myself well in teaching grammar because rules make teachers feel safe. When a student comes up and asks a grammar question, there is a certain answer to give. Moreover, after you teach grammar, it is easy to see if the students grasped it or not so as a teacher I can see the results of my teaching. (respondent 3)

I feel myself confident in teaching speaking and interacting with students. Since I directly see the output and efficacy of my teaching. I can also teach them in different ways. I do not feel myself incompetent in other areas but I prefer speaking to them. (respondent 2)

The respondents state that the identification of their strengths in terms of the EPOSTL wake their self-confidence in teaching.

Theme 3: In-service teachers' weaknesses in terms of the EPOSTL.

The analysis of the interview indicates that the majority of the respondents have difficulties with writing and reading skills.

I think I need more development in teaching writing. Writing needs more expertise and time. I have not focused on writing as closely as I have focused on listening. (respondent 2)

I can create new things, new materials, and even activities in speaking, pronunciation and listening. But when it comes to reading and writing all my ideas go away. (respondent 4)

The results show that the respondents have different weaknesses in different domains of teaching. It is normal to have some drawbacks in these or other aspects even for in-service teachers. Being a teacher is a life-long process. The main point here is giving effort to realize and eliminate those lacks, which is vital in reflective teaching.

Theme 4: The EPOSTL promotes professional development.

The findings show that the majority of teachers agree that the EPOSTL promotes professional development, since it helps in monitoring the development of their didactic knowledge, teaching competences and skills. Its comprehensive and clear structure is found to be the main benefit of the portfolio.

For sure, I can say that it contributed to my professional development about teaching with activities, materials, etc. While using the EPOSTL, I realized some important points which I had to improve and also I had chance to distinguish pros and cons after experiencing EPOSTL. It is very effective in the way that by doing the self-assessment part of the portfolio, I can see my weak points and improve them. (respondent 7)

The EPOSTL promotes professional development because it reflects main points of the teaching and learning strategies. It helped me to express my own way of teaching better that before using the EPOSTL. It is very practical because the main criteria and tasks of a teacher are given in one portfolio, and by completing the self-assessment charts, you can develop yourself the day by day. (respondent 3)

It is also stated that the professional development is an ongoing and continuous process and the EPOSTL can be a guidebook for pre-service and in-service teachers.

Theme 5: Suggestions to the use of the EPOSTL.

The findings show that the participants believe that the including of the EPOSTL in university course is appropriate for suggestion.

It would be good if this portfolio can be placed in some courses at the university with the aim of educating language teachers about learning strategies in a detailed way. (respondent 6)

It was a great experience for me and I was lucky to participate in the study. But, I can honestly say it would be better for the other ELT teachers and student teachers to benefit from it by being a part of this process. (respondent 5)

The results suggest that the EPOSTL should be more common.

6. Conclusion and Implications

The present study has provided data on the efficacy of the EPOSTL as an instrument for promoting professional development of in-service teachers. It targets on the views in-service teachers have regarding the EPOSTL advances the development of their competences and what benefits and difficulties they have while using it.

The results show that the EPOSTL helps teaching student teachers to relate experiences to theoretical principles, thus narrowing the gap between theoretical knowledge and teaching practice, as has been found in some studies previously mentioned in the paper (Burkert & Schwienhorst, 2008; Fenner, 2011; Ingvarsdóttir,2011). Another point of the EPOSTL is that it serves as a model of constructive feedback and fosters peer-to-peer discussion. It also guides users to develop realization of their strengths and weaknesses related to language teaching.

However, the findings indicate that this employs only to some in-service teachers and areas of language teaching competences because of the lack of the capability to analyze all of the parts suggested by the EPOSTL in a semester. Therefore, it would be effective for the Methodology lecturer to point on the EPOSTL aspects such as interaction with learners, classroom management and learner autonomy. In order to achieve this, it would be good to include the EPOSTL into Methodology courses and use the six-stage implementation proposed by Orlova (2011). The six-stage implementation of the EPOSTL can be achieved as follows:

1. At the beginning of the Methodology course, the aims and format of the EPOSTL should be introduced to student-teachers;
2. After general overview of the EPOSTL, student teachers should be familiar with the skills needed for teaching. This could be done by discussing the categories diagram, presented in the EPOSTL on page 6 (Newby et al.,2007);
3. After being acquainted with the descriptors, the Methodology lecturer should check and clarify understanding of the descriptors;
4. Employing ‘can-do’ descriptors for micro-teaching tasks;
5. Encouraging students to work with the EPOSTL during their school practicum;
6. Surveying students’ opinions of the EPOSTL (Orlova, 2011, p.20).

This six-stage implementation of the EPOSTL in teacher education would be very useful in terms of competitive teacher preparation. As the result of the research, it shows that the in-service teachers had some drawbacks while completing self-assessment descriptors. Also, the participants claim that if they were taught about the EPOSTL during their Bachelor’s or Master’s study programs it would be very helpful in their teaching life. Along with it, it is said that the EPOSTL promotes professional development, by completing the self-assessment section the user can reflect his or her success and failure and can develop it autonomously.

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http://iojet.org/index.php/IOJET/article/view/242/190

Received: 19.07.2017
Received in revised form: 04.08.2017
Accepted: 10.09.2017

USING POSTERS IN EFL CLASSROOM: AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CASE[1]

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[1] This paper was presented as an oral presentation at GlobELT 2017 An International Conference on Teaching and Learning English as an Additional language held in Ephesus-Turkey on May 18-21, 2017.

USING POSTERS IN EFL CLASSROOMS: AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CASE

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Abstract

It is assumed that vocabulary learning is an important component of learning a second or foreign language. There is also an agreement that it is central to language and of critical importance to the typical language learner. Since vocabulary knowledge is what foreign language learners most need, it is necessary to facilitate this process. The present study aims to determine the effect of posters on the vocabulary learning of students without any teacher instruction. It also aims to explore gender differences in learning vocabulary items on posters. The participants of the study include 54 fourth graders, studying at an elementary school in Muğla. The study was carried out during 2015-2016 academic year. The data were gathered by means of a vocabulary test containing 30 items that was used as the pre and post-test. Data analysis showed that posters in language classrooms helped vocabulary learning process. The mean score of the experimental group has increased from M=6.72 to M=14.24. Moreover, a significant difference was determined between the scores of females and males. The study showed that the post-test scores of females (M= 16.15) and males (M=12.69) were significantly different. It can be concluded that in foreign language classrooms utilizing from posters can be beneficial.

Keywords: posters, teacher instruction, peripheral learning, vocabulary

1. Introduction

Visual aids in classes are found to be beneficial since they draw attention and facilitate noticing (Çetin & Flamand, 2013). Allen, Kate & Marquez (2011) suggest that they supply the learners with an additional sensory perception. They are suggested in many approaches; in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) for example audio-visual aids are highly utilized with the aim of drawing the attention of learners and making them more enthusiastic about the subject. In the Direct method, visuals help to convey the meanings of words or concepts.

One of the visual materials used in foreign language classes is educational posters which are used for various purposes. Visualizing the words or concepts via posters/pictures is a way of getting the attention of the learners. They are both visual and textual aids that can be hanged on classroom walls (Çetin & Flamand, 2013). By using them, teachers can visualize and contextualize the subject (Buell, as cited in Gezer, Şen & Alcı, 2012). Since vocabulary knowledge is one of the vital components of learning a foreign language and sufficient amount of vocabulary knowledge is necessary, in language classrooms posters are widely preferred by language teachers.

Regarding vocabulary learning, there are two main approaches; explicit/intentional and incidental vocabulary learning. Explicit learning is intentional and planned while incidental learning is a by-product process of doing something else (Hatch & Brown, 1995). Gass (as cited in Rieder, 2003) argued that it should not have been disregarded that vocabulary learning even incidental one require some extent of attention of the learners. Input does not necessarily need to be given intentional attention to become intake of learners. However, it is also stated that passive learners are more likely to be unsuccessful compared to the ones that pay attention to the stimuli (Schmidt, 2001). That's why, using posters, including relevant vocabulary and structures, during classes seems to have much better effect on vocabulary learning process.

Peripheral learning is another way of learning vocabulary items. Lazanov (as cited in Fatemipour, 2012) proposed the method named Suggestopedia, in which teachers support what learners like and "desuggest" what they dislike. Peripheral learning is one of the most important items in Suggestopedia method. It is defined as "… learning from the environment that the students are present in". It is the learning process of students from presented materials even if they are not directed to them (Badri, Badri, & Badri, 2015). Çetin and Flamand (2013) introduced "Self-directed inferential learning" concept emphasizing active role of the students without any type of instruction. They accept that visuals or educational posters are good supporters for vocabulary learning; however, they go one step further and conclude that posters also trigger self-directed learning in which there is not any intentional direction for the students; they absorb what are presented on classroom walls.

A number of research studies in different educational settings regarding the role of posters in vocabulary learning have been carried out. Research studies can be generally analyzed in three different groups: (1) Studies that investigated how teachers and students benefitted from poster in EFL/ESL classrooms (Al Mamun, 2014; Dolati & Richards, 2010; Osa & Musser, 2004; Zerin & Khan, 2013). (2) Studies that investigated the effect of posters/peripheral learning on vocabulary learning of the students (Badri et al., 2015; Çetin & Flamand, 2013; Gezer, Sen, & Alcı, 2012). (3) Studies that investigated the effect of peripheral learning on motivation and spelling skills of students and how the amount of peripheral learning affected the learning process of the learners (Fatemipour, 2013; Mohamadpur, 2013; Rokni, Porasghar & Taziki, 2014).

Al Mamun (2014) investigated how learners and teachers benefitted from audio-visual materials. The researcher used observation and interview method and concluded that both sides favored the use of audio-visual materials thinking that they were beneficial for both teaching and learning process. According to interview results, teachers believed that such materials were useful in language classroom to teach four skills. In another study, Dolati and Richards (2010) concluded that visual materials and peripheral learning significantly enhanced English classrooms and teachers preferred to utilize visuals to facilitate learning/teaching process. Osa and Musser (2004) searched for the value of posters in educational setting and they concluded that posters created a more stimulating and interesting environment for learning. Zerin and Khan (2013) analyzed the effect of poster-making activity in English classroom in primary level Bangladesh setting. They concluded that poster making made classes more dynamic and positive. Another conclusion was that posters helped to improve language proficiency.

As for the effect of posters/peripheral learning on vocabulary learning studies carried out in different contexts found similar results. Çetin and Flamand (2013) concluded that using posters resulted in self-directed learning in the experimental group. Similarly, in Badri et al. (2015), students in the experimental group benefitted from the posters and increased their

vocabulary level. Gezer et al. (2012) searched for the effect of posters to teach idioms to university students. They also looked for gender effect on utilizing posters. They concluded that peripheral learning is helpful to teach idioms; however, they did not find a significant difference between male and female participants.

In the third category the researchers, who examined the effect of peripheral learning on motivation and spelling of the learners, noticed that peripheral learning could facilitate spelling (Rokni et al., 2014). In Mohamadpur's (2013) study it was found out that posters increased learners' motivation and the best motivator was posters. Fatemipour (2013) compared ESL and EFL contexts to understand the effect of the amount of peripheral learning. He analyzed Iranian and Indian university students and suggested that EFL learners should be provided with as much visual stimuli as possible to enhance learning.

In second language learning/teaching, gender was used as a variable in some studies (Gezer et al., 2012; Llach & Gallego, 2012; Soureshjani, 2011) and inconsistent results were obtained. To give examples, Soureshjani (2011) found that males and females use different learning strategies to determine the meaning of unknown words. However; Llach and Gallego (2012) studied the amount of vocabulary size of males and females and found that there was not a significant difference in size and vocabulary development of males and females. In this quasi-experimental research study, female learners seemed to gain more vocabulary than males in the first weeks of the study, though. Similarly, in the Turkish context, Gezer et al., (2012) in their study stated that the existence of difference between males and females during learning idioms through posters was not determined.

Research on the effect of posters and the role of peripheral learning is limited. The main goal of this study is to determine the effect of educational posters on vocabulary learning in foreign language classes. As a secondary aim the role of gender on self-directed vocabulary learning was investigated. Although there are some studies on the effect of posters on vocabulary learning, the present study particularly focuses on elementary school students'. To achieve this aim, the following research questions were designed.

1. What is the effect of educational posters on vocabulary learning without any instruction?
2. Does vocabulary learning via peripheral learning differ in terms of gender?

2. The Study

In this study a quasi-experimental research design (control group design) was employed. Control group design allows the researchers to ensure that any change is the result of treatment, not anything else. This is much easier for EFL classroom when compared to ESL classrooms. In order to measure the effect of treatment, pretest/posttest design was employed. This design leads researchers to determine the immediate effect on the participants (Mackey and Gass, 2005).

2.1. Setting and Participants

This study was carried out during the spring term of 2015-2016 education year at a state elementary school on the western coast of Turkey. The participants were 54 4th grade students, 27 females and 27 males, studying at Dumlupınar Primary State School in Muğla. The mean age of the participants was 10. The control group consisted of 25 students, 14 females and 11 males, while experimental group included 29 students, 13 females and 16 males. The background of the students (socioeconomic, cultural) was not very different from one another. They were all beginner learners of English. There were not any students who needed special education or with severe health problems such as seeing or hearing.

Convenience sampling method was employed to select the participants. There were 5 different 4th grade classes in this school. One of the classes was on the first floor, one was on the third floor and three were on the second floor of the building. In order to prevent the participants in the control group from being exposed to posters, the students in the classes on the first and on the third floor were included.

2.2. Instruments

A vocabulary test was designed by the researchers by examining samples (Çetin & Flamand, 2013; MEB-achievement tests) used by other researchers and getting expert support. The test included four main parts as A B C D, targeting 30 vocabulary items in total. The number of items in each part is written below.

Part A / 8 items: Circling the English word for the given picture

Part B / 7 items: Matching English words with their Turkish equivalents

Part C / 8 items: Writing Turkish equivalents of the English words

Part D / 7 items: Filling in the blanks with the English words given in the table

The same test was used as the pre-test and the post-test to see the differences in the vocabulary knowledge of the learners in two different groups. The pictures used in pre and post-tests were not the same pictures as in the posters in order to prevent learners to memorize the visuals. The aim was to increase reliability. They were different pictures but they represented the same word.

Five posters were used in the experimental group. The posters were designed by researchers utilizing photos and pictures from the Internet. The words were selected from concrete items instead of abstract terms in order to prevent any misunderstanding. Each poster had a theme or context (in kitchen, by the lake, in the grocery store, while cooking, in the park). There were six words in each poster. The researchers were sure that participants had not encountered target words before. The length of the poster is the same for all (50cm), but the width of the posters varied slightly. They had nearly the same sizes.

3.3. Data Collection and Analysis

As data collection procedure, pre-test and post-test were applied. The pre-test was applied in two classes simultaneously without any prior announcement to students. The posters were hanged on the walls of the experimental group for three weeks. The students did not receive any teacher direction or explicit teaching about the posters during three weeks. The posters were not included in the planned activities. The aim was to determine the effect of posters and self-directed inferential learning on the participants. The same test was applied as the post-test after three weeks in both of the classes again to see if there was a difference between two groups.

Data were analysed using SPSS 22. As there were only two groups to compare, independent sample t-test and paired sample t-tests were used aiming to see if there was any significant difference between the groups. The analysis of the data were put under categories and presented in the tables in the results section.

4. Findings and Discussion

The first phase of results part is about pre-test and post-test results. Independent t-test statistics were used to see the difference between control and experimental group regarding means of pre-test scores.

Table1. *Independent sample t-test for pre-test results*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig.
Control Group	25	6.88	1.856	.371	-1.863	52	.068
Exp. Group	29	8.07	2.685	.499			

As shown in Table 1, means of two groups are close to each other and there is not a significant difference in pre-test (p=.068). That's why it is assumed that there is homogeneity in terms of vocabulary knowledge of the participants.

Table 2. *Independent sample t-test for post-test results*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig.
Control Group	25	6.72	2,227	.445	-8.662	52	.000
Exp. Group	29	14.24	3.814	.708			

Independent sample t-test results for post-test illustrates that the existence of posters on class walls in the experimental group during 3 weeks created a significance difference between control and experimental groups in terms of test results. Control group's mean has decreased because some participants have got lower scores in post-test than pre-test (M1= 6. 88 M2= 6.72). On the other hand, regarding post-test scores of experimental group, there is a significant difference (p=.000). Mean of experimental group has increased from 6.72 to 14.24.

In order to see whether there is a difference according to the sections/question types in the exam, the difference between two group's test results were disaggregated by the sections of the test. There is significant difference only for section A (choosing word for given picture) (p<. 001). The means of the sections were analyzed and it was found that Section A got the highest scores while Section D got the lowest scores. It may be discussed that only hanging posters does not guarantee that student can use the words in some sentences/contextualizing the words. The learners seem to need different strategies or exercises to do better in Section D. Therefore, the researchers stressed that educational posters should be utilized in EFL classes. They are beneficial on their own but if they are supported with some exercise or teacher instruction, the learners may internalize them more easily. The study of Alemi and Tayebi (as cited in Rokni et al., 2014) showed that students actually paid some attention in order to learn vocabulary items peripherally. The authors also concluded that peripheral learning could be achieved through posters; however, if they were supported with some vocabulary exercises (intentional learning) then the process could be more effective. Input did not necessarily need to be given intentional attention to become intake of learners. However, it was also stated that passive learners were more likely to be unsuccessful compared to the ones that pay attention to the stimuli (Schmidt, 2001). That's why active use of posters during classes seemed to have much better effect on vocabulary learning process.

Table 3. *Paired sample t-test of pre-test results for control group*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig(2-tailed)
Pre-test	25	6. 88	1. 856	. 371	. 679	24	. 504
Post-test	25	6. 72	2. 227	. 445			

Table 4. *Paired sample t-test of pre-test results for experimental group*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig(2-tailed)
Pre-test	29	8 07	2. 685	. 499	-9. 651	28	. 000
Post-test	29	14. 24	3. 814	. 708			

Paired sample t-test, as illustrated in Table3 and Table4, revealed that there is not a significant difference (p=.504) between the results of pre and post-tests for control group. However, for experimental group there is a significant difference (p=.000) between pre and post-tests. These results show that posters have an important effect on the results of vocabulary tests and they facilitate self-directed L2 vocabulary learning. Although the posters were not supported with teacher direction or any vocabulary exercise, they helped learners to gain some vocabulary items.

Similar results were observed in Çetin and Flamand (2013) and Mohamadpur (2013), Larsen- Freeman and Anderson's (2011) studies. The existence of educational posters was found to be beneficial for vocabulary learning process without teacher direction. Rokni et al. (2014) have also found that the learners can learn more easily when they do not intend it. Therefore it seems reasonable to hang posters to let the students learn vocabulary items without much support. Moreover; Badri et al. (2015) concluded that posters should be facilitated to enhance the capacity of learning in EFL classes. They found a significant difference between experimental and control group regarding post-test results meaning that exposure to posters peripherally have a positive effect on vocabulary learning.

Table 5. *Independent sample t-test of pre and post-test for experimental group*

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig(2-tailed)
Pre-test	Female	13	8.46	2.184	.606	.703	27	.488
	Male	16	7.75	3.066	.766			
Post-test	Female	13	16.15	2.267	.6292	.692	27	.012
	Male	16	12.69	4.159	1.040			

In order to gain deeper knowledge about the effects of posters, gender effect on test results is also analyzed. This analysis is done only for experimental group since the aim is to see the effect of posters regarding genders of the participants. The results are illustrated in Table5 that shows there is a significant difference between male and female participants' post-test results. To understand the effect of posters, firstly pre-test of experimental group was analyzed regarding gender. It is shown in Table5 that there is not a significant difference

between female and male participants' test results (p=.488). On the other hand the difference in post-test scores of female and male participants is significant (p=.012). To summarize, this difference shows that females have benefited posters more than males. Gender creates differences in social and cognitive areas. Research studies found out that females are more capable of acquiring first and second language (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991).

Gender differences issue in EFL and ESL classrooms have been examined by researchers (Gezer et al., 2012; Llach & Gallego, 2012; Soureshjani, 2011). However, study results are inconclusive. Some studies resulted in favoring one gender to another regarding EFL success while some studies take gender as ineffective on EFL&ESL process (Llach & Gallego, 2012). The results change according to individual, social, cultural and linguistic factors. The present study reached the conclusion that female learners did significantly better than male ones which shows that girls utilized posters more than boys. However, Gezer et al. (2012) concluded that posters were beneficial for English idioms learning while peripheral learning doesn't differ in terms of gender. However; in their study university students were examined. The situation may be different for primary level.

6. Conclusion

This study aimed to examine the effect of educational posters on vocabulary learning in a primary level EFL class. The results indicated that existence of posters without teacher direction ended with an increase in mean score of the experimental group. That means educational posters can be effective visual aids to teach EFL vocabulary at primary level. Findings of the present study are important since vocabulary knowledge is a vital component in foreign language education.

The second point that the researchers looked for was gender effect on utilizing the posters. Post-test data analyses showed that mean score of females was higher than mean score of males in the experimental group. Female participants were found to benefit educational posters more than males. That finding was compatible with the idea that girls are more prone to learn a foreign language than boys.

Researchers concluded that existence of educational posters facilitated self-directed learning process. Another conclusion was that girls benefitted posters more than boys did. Students may not need teacher direction or instruction to utilize posters, but if posters are used in class activities, the effect of them can be more significant. More research studies are needed to prove this suggestion. A third group exposing to teacher direction/instruction about the posters may be added in a further study.

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Received: 19.07.2017
Received in revised form: 18.08.2017
Accepted: 09.09.2017

INTERACTIONAL UNFOLDING OF VOCABULARY EXPLANATIONS IN MEANING AND FLUENCY CONTEXTS

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INTERACTIONAL UNFOLDING OF VOCABULARY EXPLANATIONS IN MEANING AND FLUENCY CONTEXTS

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Abstract

In the field of foreign and second language education, there is great deal of research on vocabulary teaching and learning. However, there is relatively limited research dealing with the vocabulary explanations during ongoing classroom interaction. This article aims to provide vocabulary explanation sequences in meaning and fluency contexts (Seedhouse, 2004). To this end, a foreign language education classroom including 13 students was recorded for a classroom hour, and the interaction in the classroom was transcribed. The classroom interactions were analyzed by using conversation analysis methodology, and vocabulary explanation examples were described in detail. As a result of the analysis, two vocabulary explanation sequences are provided in meaning and fluency contexts based on the students' responses. Results show that when the students display understanding in their native language, the teacher asks follow–up questions before closing the turn; however, when they display understanding in the target language, the teacher closes the turn without asking further questions.

Keywords: conversation analysis, vocabulary explanation, meaning and fluency contexts, classroom interaction.

1. Introduction

There is a great deal of research on how to teach and learn vocabulary; and different teaching methodologies make use of different techniques of vocabulary teaching (Zimmerman, 1997). In terms of effective vocabulary instruction, selection of vocabulary items, sequencing them, and the presentation of these items were previously explained in details (Nation, 1990; Nation & Newton 1997). However, there are different ideas about how to teach lexical items effectively. While some scholars support the notion that intentional vocabulary teaching (the focused study of words) is more effective than incidental one (Morton, 2015; Schmitt, 2008; Tian & Macaro 2012), there are also scholars who support the benefits of implicit vocabulary teaching over explicit one (Paribakht & Wesche, 1997). On the other hand, according to Nation (2001), vocabulary learning occurs both incidentally and intentionally. While word form, collocations and word class require implicit teaching, meaning and usage of a word are picked up better when they are taught explicitly (Nation, 2001). In this paper, the patterns in-between the teacher's first initiation (e.g. asking the meaning of the word) and the explanations are analyzed using the methodology of conversation analysis (CA) to find out how vocabulary teaching occurs in meaning and fluency contexts where the teacher wants to elicit meaning from students, rather than displaying a focus on language forms and absolute correctness (Seedhouse, 2004). There are articles which focus on vocabulary explanations via verbal channel of non-verbal resources in language teaching by applying to conversation analysis (CA) methodology (e.g., Lazaraton, 2004; Mortensen, 2011; Morton, 2015). However, there is a gap in terms of when and how the teacher makes explanations by using synonyms or antonyms of the words. This article

addresses this gap by providing a micro analytic view of vocabulary explanations in meaning and fluency contexts. For the purpose, the relevant literature is reviewed in order to develop theoretical framework and provide arguments on vocabulary explanations. Then, the setting and participants is explained in data and method section. Lastly, vocabulary explanations in meaning and fluency contexts are analyzed in six extracts based on the conversation analysis methodology, and the findings are discussed to be able to provide sequences in vocabulary teaching.

2. Review of Literature

Vocabulary knowledge is an indispensable part of language learning. To be able to construct sentences in a language, individuals need to have considerable amount of vocabulary knowledge and know their meanings. In that respect, there is a great deal of research about how to teach and learn vocabulary effectively (Nation, 1990; Nation & Newton, 1997; Zheng, 2012; Zimmerman, 2013).

Zheng (2012) states that vocabulary learning strategies should be taught explicitly to increase the possibility of vocabulary acquisition in language classrooms. Based on a research study, Zheng (2012) brings forward that both learners and teachers believe that vocabulary knowledge has a significant place in language learning. In Japanese context, most students prefer explicit vocabulary teaching in language classrooms; however, there are doubts about the effectiveness of traditional vocabulary teaching (Zheng, 2012). By taking into consideration effective vocabulary learning, Zheng (2012) proposes that teaching the culture of target language increases the learning of the meanings of lexical items in the long term. On the other hand, an experimental research conducted with Chinese university students show that learners who are exposed to bottom-up vocabulary teaching outperforms the ones who get top-down vocabulary instruction (Moskovsky, Jiang, Libert & Fagan, 2015). As for vocabulary teaching, it is stated that Chinese learners prefer explicit vocabulary teaching; and it may be because of the education system there (Moskovsky et al., 2015; Zheng, 2012).

With regard to explaining word meaning, Zimmerman (2013) claims that an experienced vocabulary teacher should first explain the basic meaning of the vocabulary then go on the details. He proposes a number of ways to explain word meaning such as giving both positive and negative examples, providing synonyms and antonyms, creating a situational context and using body language. According to Nation and Newton (1997), there are three important elements in vocabulary teaching as selection, sequencing and presentation. As for presentation phase, they suggest that vocabulary should be taught implicitly with the help of communicative activities in which vocabulary is not the pedagogical goal of learning. Furthermore, Mortensen (2011) recommends that new vocabulary should be practiced with special learning activities such as gap-filling, semantic extensions and language games.

The interactional vocabulary explanation was examined by using conversation analysis methodology in language classrooms (Mortensen, 2011). As a result of the examinations, following pattern is found out (Mortensen, 2011): (a) the teacher emphasizes a specific part of the turn, (b) a student repeats this segment of the turn, (c) the teacher asks for a word explanation and (d) the students provide the word explanation. Based on the analysis of the collected data, Mortensen (2011) states that this word explanation sequence occurs naturally from the ongoing activity, and the instructor focuses on the unknown vocabulary while studying a meaning and fluency context. The phenomenon that is put forward by Mortensen (2011) is that relevant vocabulary is determined before the class, and they are studied as the continuum of a communicative activity. However, in this study, the key-vocabulary items are determined beforehand, and a sentence completion activity is designed to teach the targeted

vocabulary. The vocabulary teaching procedure shows differences in Mortensen's data and the data of this research article.

In addition to verbal explanation of vocabulary meaning, nonverbal explanations also have importance in vocabulary teaching. Lazaraton (2004) examines the effects of gestures and other nonverbal behaviors that accompany the explicit explanation of lexical items. While analyzing the gestures, Lazaraton (2004) adopts McNeill's (1992) classification of hand movements as iconic, metaphoric, deictic and beats, and she claims that gestures play a significant role in unplanned vocabulary explanation by making verbal explanation more comprehensible for the learners. Lazaraton (2004) also claims that the proficiency level of the speaker also influences the use of nonverbal communication strategies, and culture may have an effect on the preferences of gestures.

As nonverbal explanation, it is well-known that body languages may change from culture to culture. In this paper, the usage of embodied word explanation (Sert, 2015) in English learning as a second language in Turkish context will be studied with the help of some classroom extracts.

Tian and Macaro (2012) compare the effects of teacher code-switching with explanation in the target language in a lexical Focus-on-Form context. Based on the research results, they claim that vocabulary acquisition possibility increases in a lexical Focus-on-Form learning environment. In their data, the teacher makes explanations in the native language of the speakers. On the other hand, in the data collected for this paper, the teacher only uses English, yet he accepts the answers in the mother tongue of the students after asking the meaning of a word. Therefore, instead of teacher code-switching, forms of teacher induced codeswitching (Sert, 2015; Ustunel & Seedhouse, 2005) will be exemplified in some extracts. By doing so, in the conclusion part, the effects of these two different type of codeswitching strategies will be discussed.

Morton (2015) investigates vocabulary explanations in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) settings and points out that explicit vocabulary explanation raises the comprehension of the L2 vocabulary learning of the students. In CLIL context, teachers make the lexical items noticeable for the learners, then students claim understanding. However, teachers do not end the vocabulary explanation after the claim of understanding and explain the meaning of vocabulary items with the help of a context (Morton, 2015). Content learning provides a context to explain the meaning of the vocabulary, so the teacher does not need to look outside for contextualization (Morton, 2015). Another important aspect of vocabulary explanation in CLIL context is that instructors should balance the time focusing on content and language. Therefore, it is stated that teachers should not allocate much time focusing on vocabulary explanation because their primary focus is on the content (Morton, 2015). It is the job of the teachers to smoothly shift the focus of the lesson from content to form to make explicit vocabulary explanation (Morton, 2015).

Waring, Creider and Box (2013) describe that there are two different types of vocabulary explanations as 'analytic' and 'animated'. Verbal and contextual explanations are categorized as analytic explanations while multimodal resources such as gestures and body language are classified as animated explanations (Waring et al., 2013). Based on their data, they focus on the importance of sequence in vocabulary explanation and contextualization of vocabulary items. Their explanations unfold in the following sequential order:

(1) set word in focus (e.g., repeat, display on the board);

(2) contextualize WORD (e.g., use in a sentence);

(3) invite (via Understanding Display Sequence) or offer explanation;

(4) close the explanation with a repetition (e.g., repeat, summarize).

(Waring et al., 2013)

Drawing on the sequence, the teacher makes the word salient for the students; and then uses the word in a sentence to help the students infer the meaning of the word from the context. To check whether the students know the meaning of vocabulary, the teacher deploy understating display sequence (UDS). In other words, the teacher may ask the class if they know the vocabulary item or the students show their understanding after the teacher gives an example sentence (Waring et al., 2013). However, vocabulary explanation does not end even after learners display understanding. The explanation is closed by teacher explanation that includes repeating or summarizing the explanation (Waring et al., 2013). In Morton's study (2015), vocabulary explanation is closed by the teacher proving a context to explain the meaning of the vocabulary. In these two different data, it can be seen that turns are closed by the teacher in vocabulary explanation contexts, yet there are differences in the turn final sequence. The final phase in the data of Morton (2015) is the second phase in Waring et al.'s (2013) data. However, as it is stated before there is not much research on the use of synonyms and antonyms in vocabulary explanation. Therefore, this research article will shed light on the effects of the use synonym and antonym and provide a sequence by explaining the patterns in-between teacher's first initiation and the explanations.

3. Data and Method

Data of this study come from an English preparatory class at a school of foreign languages in a state university. Data was collected during a reading and writing course, and as a course material, they were studying "Northstar 3 Reading and Writing" skills book. There were 13 students (from 18 to 20 years old) in the class, and they were all prospective English language teachers. Preparatory class was obligatory for these students who got below 65 in the proficiency in English test. During the recorded lesson, they were covering the unit 4 "Language and Power". The instructor of the lesson is an experienced language teacher who works in the field for more than 10 years. The instructor who graduated from a university where English is as the medium of instruction only uses the target language in the class as a language policy (Seedhouse, 2004).

The classroom teaching was recorded by a video camera and transcribed by using the Jeffersonian transcription conventions (2004). This article focuses on the vocabulary explanation patterns in a meaning and fluency context. Therefore, all the vocabulary-relevant segments were compiled and analyzed in terms of the patterns in-between the teacher's first initiation (e.g. asking the meaning of the word) and the explanations.

The analyses are conducted by using a conversation analysis CA) methodology. CA is social science research methodology which studies the naturally occurring interaction by transcribing and analyzing the audio or video recordings (Seedhouse, 2005). In the field of applied linguistics, conversation analysis methodology has been used to uncover the classroom interaction in language teaching and learning (e.g., Kitzinger, 2013; Pekarek Doehler, 2011; Seedhouse, 2004; Waring, 2008). CA treats social interaction as the primary data to develop an emic perspective by focusing on how sequences are generated (Seedhouse, 2006). The goal of this study is to scrutinize the classroom interaction during the process of vocabulary teaching and provide a pattern for how vocabulary teaching is sequenced in meaning and fluency context. While doing so, the conversation analytic methodology is used to investigate the patterns in-between teacher's first initiation and the explanations over the course of vocabulary teaching, for the interactions occurred naturally in the classroom environment.

4. Analysis and Findings

The patterns in-between the teacher's first initiation and the explanations will be investigated throughout six extracts analyzed for the purpose of this paper. The extracts come from the beginning of the lesson while they study the vocabulary items of the specific unit before starting to reading. The instructor hands out the worksheet, and they start to study the vocabulary items one by one before giving time to the students to complete the gaps.

4.1. Analytic Explanation After Display of Understanding Through Code-switching

In the first extract, the teacher asks the meaning of the first vocabulary item in the worksheet, and vocabulary explanation sequence is closed by the teacher explanation of vocabulary item with exemplification.

Extract 1: "assertive"

```
01    T:    do you know ↑assertive. what does it mean <↑assertive>.
02    Bus: iddialı
           (Sp.determined)
03          (1.0)
04    Bus2: yes.
05    T:    (1.0)
06          yeah. sort of.
07          (1.4) yeah.
08          (1.2)
09          have your ever heard of this term ↑asser↓tive?
10    Bus2: [yes.
11    Emi:  [no
12    T:    uh huh somebody ↑who always something to happen  strictly
13          (2.0)
14          for example, you will do the homework tonight ↑other↓wise
15          don't come to the lesson tomorrow. I am assertive
16          here okay. ı am definite about it. I am strict about it.
```

In this sequence, the vocabulary explanation pattern starts with the teacher's turn. In line 01, T asks the meaning of 'assertive', and in line 02, Bus provides the second pair part of the adjacency pair by providing a response in Turkish (her L1), which forms a teacher induced code-switching (Sert, 2015; Ustunel & Seedhouse, 2005). After one second of silence, Bus2 confirms Bus's candidate answer with a minimal confirmation token in English. Following one second of silence in line 5, the teacher accepts the answer. In line 09, T upgrades the question which receives contradictory answers from two students in the following two turns and explains the meaning of the words. After 2 seconds of silence, the teacher creates a context including exemplification of the vocabulary item.

In extract one, the vocabulary explanation is done by the teacher in line 12, yet he does not close the turn after the explanation. After teacher explanation, there is no display of understating of the students. Therefore, *word* is contextualized (Waring et al., 2013) by the teacher to make the meaning of the vocabulary clear for the students, and also the synonyms of the vocabulary item are provided by the teacher in the context.

In extract 2, students show the displays of understanding through code-switching, yet the claim of understating in L1 is not treated as sufficient for closure of the sequence.

Extract 2: "excessive"

```
01    T:    ↑excessive
02    SS:   aşırı ((Sp.excessive))
03    T:    yeah. extreme. what is the antonym of excessive?
04          (1.8)
05          antonym, just the [opposite meaning.
06    Aysn:                   [just
07    Bus:  not enough
08    T:    moderate
09          (2.1)
10          whereas men talk moderately, women talk excessively. you
11          see the difference now
12          (1.0)
13          just the opposite
14          (1.7)
15          ↑moderate amount of (   ), ↑excessive amount of (   ).
16          okay. these are different things.
```

In this sequence, students provide the meaning of the vocabulary in L1, yet the turn is again completed by the explanation of the teacher. In line 01, T produces the target word with an emphasis, and in line 02, some of the students display understanding through code-switching. In the third turn of the interaction, T produces an acknowledgement token in line 03 which is followed by a synonym of the word. After providing the synonym of the target vocabulary item, T asks the antonym of it in line 03. This is followed by a long silence, and T repeats the request for antonym and provides the meaning of antonym in the same line. In line 07, Aysn produces a knowledge display (not enough); however, T neither acknowledges nor rejects the knowledge. T provides the antonym of the target word in line 08 and continues to expand the word explanation in lines 09-16. There are long silences during the teacher's explanation turn. For instance, there is 2.1 seconds of silence after T provides the antonym of the word. In line 10 proceeded by a long silence, T provides the adverb form of the target word in a context and ask for the display of understanding. Despite long silences, SS do not show any sign of understanding, and T provides a different sentence including the targeted vocabulary items. In line 16, the vocabulary explanation sequence is closed with emphasizing that the targeted words have different meanings by the teacher.

According to Seedhouse (2004), teachers accept the display of knowledge of the correct answer while studying the meaning of vocabulary item. In the extract 2, T acknowledges the answer in the native language of the speakers, yet he does not end the explanation until the line 16.

In the following extract, the vocabulary explanation pattern resembles the sequence in extract 2. SS provide the explanation in L1, and T explains the meaning of vocabulary in a context and asks the antonym of the target word.

Extract 3: "dehydration"

```
01    T:    okay. a::nd: the other one is dehydration.
02    Aysn: dehydration
03    Daml: su kaybı ((Sp.dehydration))
04    Bus:  suyu boşaltmak. ((Sp. to drain))
05          içindeki suyu atmak. ((Sp. to lose too much water))
06    T:    yeah. loss of- loss of too much water in the body. It can
07          lead to really risky and dangerous health conditions.
08          okay. dehydration. do you know ↑overhydration?
09          ↑overhydration, just the opposite of dehydration.
10    Bus:  şey. su alma, içmek sürekli.
11          ((Sp. well. get water, drink water constantly))
```

```
12    T:    ↑excessive ↑excessive accumulation of water in the body.
13          both of them are negative. but which one is more
14          dangeraous in health terms. >which one is more
15          dangerous.<
16    SS:   dehydration
17    Aysn: both
18    T:    dehydration is really more dangerous (.) they say.
19          ↑overhydration only leads to posining but dehydration
20          can (you know) lead to strokes.
```

As in extract 2, T asks for the meaning of the word with emphasis on it, and SS provide answers in L1. After the teacher pronounces that word, Aysn repeats the word in line 2. In lines 3-5, two students provide display of understanding through code-switching. In line 6, T utters an acknowledgement token (yeah) and goes on explaining the meaning of the vocabulary item. Unlike extract 2, this time T provides the antonym of the word and asks SS if they know the meaning ("do you know overhydration?") in line 08. In line 10, Bus provides the second pair part of adjacency pair by providing an L1 response, yet T does not provide an evaluation to the answer of Bus. In line 12, T explains the meaning of vocabulary item. After the explanation, T asks an open-ended question ("which one is more dangerous?") in lines 13-15. In line 16, SS provides the correct answer but one of the students utters a wrong answer in line 17. When the teacher turn is analyzed, it is seen that T does not give any reaction to the answers of the students. T closes the vocabulary explanation turn by giving an answer to his question between lines 18-20.

4.2. Analytic Explanation After Display of Understanding in the Target Language

In the following two extracts, students provide the display of understanding in the target language, and the vocabulary explanation sequence shows differences from the previous three extracts.

Extract 4: "profanity"

```
01    T:    the other word is <profanity>. profanity, you know?
02    Bus:  bad thing
03    T:    ↑bad words.
04    Bus:  [yes.
05    T:    [yeah. bad things. bad words. i will do something to your
06          (we have video recording) i will do something to your
07          mother. i will do something to your sister. i will do
08          something to your father. okay. er:: these are profanity
09          words. okay?
```

In line 01, T asks the meaning of 'profanity', and in line 02, Bus provides the second pair part of adjacency pair by providing an explanation. T confirms the answer of Bus by restating the phrase with suprasegmental modification on the word in line 03. Following T's turn, Bus utters an acknowledgement token which is overlapping T's acknowledgement token (yeah). In line 05, T repeats the answer of Bus (bad things) and his own answer (bad words) as an acknowledgement of his prior turn and emphasizes the meaning (Mortensen, 2011). T expands his turn by giving some example sentences to explain the meaning of 'profanity' and ends the contextualization with "okay".

In the following extract, one of the students provides the synonym of the word which the teacher asks the meaning, and vocabulary explanation is ended with the repetition of the synonym by the teacher.

Extract 5: "work out"

```
01    Aysn: "when a human body can excrete er:: one liter of water
02          during regular workouts,"=
03    T:    =what does it mean a workout here?
04    Emi: er::
05    Nih: exercise
06    T:    exercise huh exercise you can.
```

In extract 5, Aysn reads a sentence from the worksheet, and T cuts the sentence after the word 'workouts'. In line 3, T asks the meaning of 'workout', and Nih provides the synonym of the word in line 05. In the third turn, T repeats the answer of Nih and ends the vocabulary explanation turn by using the synonym in a sentence.

As it is seen above, the teacher does not ask any questions after Nih provides the synonym or provides a context for the vocabulary. There may be two reasons for this vocabulary explanation sequence. First one is that Nih shows understanding in the target language by providing the synonym of the word. The other possible reason may be that this time, the teacher asks the vocabulary explanation during an ongoing activity. In other words, 'work out' is not one of the vocabulary items that the teacher determines to study before the class.

4.3. Analytic Explanation for Culture Specific Vocabulary

In the following extract, the teacher asks the difference between 'sex and gender' which have the same meaning in the native language of the students. To be able to make the meaning clear for the students, T contextualizes the words (Waring et al., 2013).

Extract 6: "sex and gender"

```
01    T: >What's the difference between ↑sex and ↑gender?<
02    Bus: gender hani cinsiyet her ikisi de=
03          ((Sp. gender, both of them))
04    T:    =what's sex?
05    Bus:  şey, o ayrımı, hani, ayrımcılık
06    ((Sp. well, it's the difference, well, discrimination))
07    SS:   no
08    T:    no
09    Nih: synonym?
10    T:    no::: ehh
11    Sule:they are same
12    T:    okay. when you translate them into turkish (.) actually
13          there is no ehh s- ehh difference. but in english they
14          are different things.
15    Nih:  yes.
16    T:    sex is the biological being. ↑gender is the culture and
17          social being. okay?
18    Elif: okay.
19    T:    >for example< do you buy ↑blue clothes or ↑pink clothes
20          for boys (0.2) little boys?
21    Bus2: blue
22    T:    blue
23    Daml: this is gender
24    Bus2: gender
25    T:    yeah, this is because of their gender. but on the
26          ultrasound when the mother is pregnant on the fourth
27          month or on the fifth month I don't remember exactly. the
28          doctor checks the baby's sex or gender on the ultrasound?
29    Bus2: sex.
30    SS:   sex.
```

```
31    T:    sex. yeah. here the doctor is looking at the ↑biological
32          being.
33    Emi:  yes.
34    T:    yeah. sex. but gender is cultural. okay?
35    Bus2: okay.
36    T:    it's social. these are the differences. okay?
```

In line 01, T asks the difference between 'gender and sex', and in line 02, Bus provides the second pair part of adjacency pair by providing an L1 response to 'gender', which forms a teacher induced code-switching. (Sert, 2015; Ustunel & Seedhouse, 2005). After Bus's turn, in line 04, T asks the meaning of 'sex' this time which is not explained in the previous turn by Bus. In line 05, Bus again provides a response in her native language. However, both the students and the teacher reject the answer in lines 06-07. After the rejection of the answer by Bus, Nih asks the teacher if they are the synonyms in line 09 yet the teacher answer with a negative response token (no). Even after the teacher disapproves the answer, Sule utters a sentence (they are same) to ask whether they mean the same thing in line 11. In lines 12-14, T provides an explanation that these words have the same meaning in their native language, yet they mean different things in the target language. T explains the meaning of vocabulary items in lines 16-17, and Elif provides an acknowledgment token (okay) in line 18. However, T does not close the vocabulary explanation turn and asks a question in lines 19-20 (do you buy blue clothes or pink clothes for boys, little boys?). In line 21, Bus provides the answer (blue), and T repeats Bus's answer in the following line. After the answer of the question which is directed to make the difference between gender and sex clear, Daml provides an utterance (this is gender.), and Bus repeats the target word in line 24. The answers of the students are approved by the T with an acknowledgement token (yeah) in line 25. When the meaning of gender is exemplified, T creates a new context for the students to get the answer 'sex' this time in lines 25-28. The expected answer is provided by Bus in line 29 and SS in line 30. After the answers of the SS, T repeats the answer and provides an acknowledgement token (yeah). T goes on the explanation by uttering a sentence including the meaning of 'sex' in line 31. In line 32, Emi provides an understanding which is followed by an acknowledgement token by the T. In the same line, T explains 'gender' this time. In line 35, Bus provides an understanding (okay), and T closes the vocabulary explanation sequence by emphasizing that 'sex and gender' have different meanings in English.

In extract 6, students show display of understanding in L1 similar to first three extracts, yet this time students do not provide the correct meaning. The problem in extract 6 may be the effect of L1 linguistic knowledge over L2 on the vocabulary meaning. When one looks at the extracts that students provide an answer in L1, it can be seen that teacher has the same teaching policy, always in the target language (Seedhouse, 2004).

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The analysis of vocabulary explanations showed some similarities in terms of sequence organization in vocabulary explanation in the CA studies by Mortensen (2011) and Waring, Creider, and Box (2013). Teachers focus on a word at turn initial position, and they ask for the meaning. Furthermore, both of the CA studies provide four sequence organization in vocabulary teaching, and based on the analysis in this paper the following two sequences can be provided:

First sequence is provided when the students display of understanding through code-switching (e.g. extracts 1-2-3);

(a) The teacher asks the meaning of the WORD;

(b) Students display understanding through code-switching;

(c) The teacher upgrades the question or asks the synonym or antonym of the question;

(d) The teacher closes the explanation including exemplification.

Second sequence is seen when the students provide the display of understanding in the target language (e.g. extracts 4-5);

(a) The teacher asks the meaning of the WORD;

(b) A student provides the word explanation in the target language;

(c) The teacher closes the explanation with a repetition and context.

When we take into consideration these two different vocabulary explanation sequences, it can be said that teacher closes the explanation without asking further questions when the students provide an explanation in target language. In the second extract, the teacher acknowledges the display of understanding in L1, yet he goes on vocabulary study by asking further questions to the students. Seedhouse (2004) states that teachers accept the display of knowledge of the correct answer in third interactional position. However, as it can be seen in the second extract, the teacher does not end the vocabulary explanation turn even if the students provides an acknowledgement token to the answer in L1. After producing an acknowledgement token, the teacher goes on the vocabulary explanation by contextualizing the word with an example. In terms of turn final position, the extracts which are used for this article show similarities to Morton's (2015) data since the turns are generally ended by the teacher providing a context for the relevant vocabulary items. In the study of Morton (2015), the teacher does not need to create a context to explain the meaning of vocabulary item, since he analyzes the vocabulary explanation in Content and Language Integrated (CLIL) classrooms. When it comes to the contextualization of vocabulary items in this research study, it can be seen that the teacher creates a context to be able to explain the meaning of vocabulary items by himself, since the teaching methodology in the class is not the same as Morton's data. On the other hand, the similarity between these two studies is that the teacher explains the lexical item by focusing on the form and makes use of context to increase the possibility of vocabulary acquisition.

When we look at the extract 6 "sex and gender", the reason behind contextualization of vocabulary items can get meaning. In the extract, the difference between two lexical items which have the same meaning in the native language of the students while having two different explanations in the target language are studied by providing explanations including exemplifications. In terms of cultural aspect of vocabulary learning and teaching, Laufer and Girsai (2008) put forward that the teachers help students get the interlingual differences while studying vocabulary explanations when the students provide an L1 response. The similarity in their study and in this study is that vocabulary learning takes place in a form-focused classroom, yet the methodologies show differences. While they apply to contrastive analysis, conversation analysis is used for this study. Larrotto (2011) also claims that knowing the meaning of a lexical item is not enough; learners should be able to use the target vocabulary in sentence construction. When the analyses are investigated, it can be seen that the teacher shares the same teaching strategy with these scholars, since he always tries to provide a context to explain the meaning of the vocabulary.

Another point in this paper is that the teacher asks or provides the synonym (Chaudron, 1982; Flowerdew, 1992) and antonym of the lexical items. When one looks at the first five extracts, it is seen that the teacher always does the explanation with the help of synonyms or antonyms. In that way, while studying vocabulary explanations, the teacher may increase the vocabulary knowledge of the students by providing synonyms of the lexical items.

Findings of this study expand the existing literature on vocabulary teaching and learning by showcasing two different vocabulary explanation sequences which show some similarities to the studies Mortensen (2011) and Waring et. al. (2013). There are also examples how the teacher can use synonym and antonym to explain the meaning of the lexical items. Furthermore, the analyses show that the teacher provides a context to the student instead of offering a dictionary definition. The contextualization of vocabulary items shows differences between Morton's study (2015) and this paper; in the previous one there is the context for the students to benefit from while explaining the meaning of vocabulary items, yet in the study, the teacher provides the context during the vocabulary explanation sequence by himself. Therefore, the impromptu contexts provided by the teacher may give an idea to the teachers who study vocabulary teaching. In terms of methodology, conversation analysis (CA) is really useful to provide a natural data to study language learning through interaction (Pekarek Doehler, 2010, Seedhouse, 2005). However, the data for this study were gathered by recording the class of just one teacher, so it would be better to record and analyze the classes of teachers who use the same teaching material to be able to see how they provide word explanations in the same context. By doing so, there may be found out different vocabulary explanation sequences, and they help the novice teachers adopt an effective vocabulary teaching sequence. Moreover, the study may be developed with longitudinal data to explore the vocabulary explanation patterns more. Therefore, there is a lot more way to uncover the vocabulary explanation patterns of different teachers in different contexts, even in different cultures.

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Appendix:

The Jefferson Transcription System

The transcription system uses standard punctuation marks (comma, stop, question mark); however, in the system they mark intonation rather than syntax. Arrows are used for more extreme intonational contours and should be used sparingly. The system marks noticeable emphasis, volume shifts, and so on. A generally loud speaker should not be rendered in capitals throughout.

[ ]	Square brackets mark the start and end of overlapping speech. They are aligned to mark the precise position of overlap as in the example below.
↑ ↓	Vertical arrows precede marked pitch movement, over and above normal rhythms of speech. They are used for notable changes in pitch beyond those represented by stops, commas and question marks.
→	Side arrows are used to draw attention to features of talk that are relevant to the current analysis.
Underlining	indicates emphasis; the extent of underlining within individual words locates emphasis and also indicates how heavy it is.
CAPITALS	mark speech that is hearably louder than surrounding speech. This is beyond the increase in volume that comes as a by product of emphasis.
°↑I know it,°	'degree' signs enclose hearably quieter speech.
that's r*ight.	Asterisks precede a 'squeaky' vocal delivery.
(0.4)	Numbers in round brackets measure pauses in seconds (in this case, 4 tenths of a second). If they are not part of a particular speaker's talk they should be on a new line. If in doubt use a new line.
(.)	A micropause, hearable but too short to measure.
((stoccato))	Additional comments from the transcriber, e.g. about features of context or delivery.
she wa::nted	Colons show degrees of elongation of the prior sound; the more colons, the more elongation.
hhh	Aspiration (out-breaths); proportionally as for colons.
.hhh	Inspiration (in-breaths); proportionally as for colons.
Yeh,	'Continuation' marker, speaker has not finished; marked by fall-rise or weak rising intonation, as when delivering a list.
y'know?	Question marks signal stronger, 'questioning' intonation, irrespective of grammar.
Yeh.	Full stops mark falling, stopping intonation ('final contour'), irrespective of grammar, and not necessarily followed by a pause.
bu-u-	hyphens mark a cut-off of the preceding sound.
>he said<	'greater than' and 'lesser than' signs enclose speeded-up talk. Occasionally they are used the other way round for slower talk.
solid.= =We had	'Equals' signs mark the immediate 'latching' of successive talk, whether of one or more speakers, with no interval.
heh heh	Voiced laughter. Can have other symbols added, such as underlinings, pitch movement, extra aspiration, etc.
sto(h)p i(h)t	Laughter within speech is signalled by h's in round brackets.